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**THE ROLE OF VALUES IN DESTINATION
DECISION-MAKING:
The Indian Travel Market**

A thesis
submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management
at
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by
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ABSTRACT

Destination decision-making has gained considerable attention in the field of tourism research because it relates directly to the destination selection behaviours of tourists, and thus to formulating and implementing effective marketing strategies. This research examines the destination decision-making process and applies a value-based approach to the globally influential travel market of Indian tourists.

The motive for this research was to study Indian travellers as a potential market for Sri Lankan tourism. However, as the research evolved, following the initial qualitative research findings, the thesis developed and empirically tested a model for the influence of values on destination decision-making; thus, the study of Indian visitors to Sri Lanka became a secondary concern.

The conceptual framework, informed by exploratory qualitative research and two phases of literature review, for the first time in the destination decision-making literature, integrates four different concepts and theories: destination decision-making, consumption value theory, destination image, and the consumers' value hierarchy.

More specifically, the introduction of a new variable labelled *selective image*, derived from destination image and consumption value theories, successfully synthesises several variables previously studied in destination selection research. Human values and travel motivations are included in the model as precursors of *selective image*. The model conceptualises human values, travel motivations, and *selective image* as a tourism value hierarchy with corresponding constructs to a consumers' value hierarchy.

The research adopted an exploratory mixed method approach, using qualitative face-to-face interviews and quantitative online questionnaires. The qualitative study was directed by a preliminary conceptual framework, which described destination decision-making as a three-staged process, with each stage involving its own choice sets, until the final destination is selected. However, the qualitative findings highlighted limitations of the preliminary framework; so that, the conceptual framework was further developed through a second phase of literature review. This extended conceptual framework integrated destination image theory, consumption value theory, destination decision-making, and the concept of consumers' value hierarchy. Human values, travel motivations, and travel constraints were identified as the main independent variables, whereas selective image was the main dependent variable of the conceptual framework, with selective image being a second-order variable to the consumer value dimensions: i.e., the functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional.

The qualitative data were analysed using thematic and content analysis. The quantitative data analysis used a range of techniques such as ANOVA, PLS path modelling, Leximancer maps, and descriptive statistics

The outcomes of this research contribute to the field of tourism behavioural research through the introduction of a new variable—*selective image*. This can be used to assess destination decision-making. The value hierarchy of human values-travel motivations-selective image provides a solid foundation upon which to integrate the value concept in destination decision-making. The conceptual model is relevant to, and can easily be applied by, destination marketers for market analysis and segmentation. Another key contribution of this research is its applicability in the context of tourism marketing.

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GLOSSARY

Consumption values:

Consumption values refers to the value category which is less closely held to the individual and these values are possessed with respect to the given consumption event.

Destination decision-making process and respective choice sets:

This PhD research treats the destination decision-making as a three-stage process for analysis. The three stages are the consideration stage, the evaluation stage, and the selection stage and these three stages correspond to three choice sets: i.e., the early evoked set, the late evoked set, and the final selected destination respectively.

Human values:

The term human values refer to value categories that are more closely held by the individual. These values are generally static and nonresponsive to given consumption events, but they are precursors of cultural variables.

Selective image:

Selective image represents the influential properties of destination image on destination selection. Five sub-constructs are identified as dimensions of selective image: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value.

ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA:	Analysis of Variance
AVE:	Average Variance Extracted
CHAID:	Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detector
CRT:	Classification and Regression Tree
EM:	Expectation Maximization
HTMT:	Heterotrait-Monotrait
LOV:	List of Values
PLS:	Partial Least Squares
SEM:	Structural Equation Modelling

CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The competition between tourist destinations has become intense and increasingly sophisticated (Mariani, Buhalis, Longhi, & Vitouladiti, 2014; Usakli & Baloglu, 2011). In order to address this increased competition, destination marketers are required to formulate and implement more effective and detailed marketing strategies (Weidenfeld, Williams, & Butler, 2014). These marketing strategies need to understand well what tourists are seeking in regards to their travel expectations as this can affect the destination decision-making process.

Consequently, the questions of ‘what a tourist looks for?’ and ‘why a tourist prioritises certain destination attributes over others?’ are primary questions for travel behavioural researchers (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). This PhD research seeks to understand how tourists select a particular destination by examining how the behaviour of five consumption values: the functional; the social; the emotional; the epistemic and the conditional vary across the three stages (consideration, evaluation and selection) of the destination selection decision-making process.

Within the field of travel behavioural research, a main research focus for both tourism practitioners as well as academic researchers is the choice behaviour of tourists (Oppewal, Huybers, & Crouch, 2015; Pavesi, Gartner, & Denizci - Guillet, 2016; Wu, Zhang, & Fujiwara, 2011). Destination decision-making is one of the key tourist choice behaviours that has been examined (Al-Kwafi, 2015; Gardiner, King, & Grace, 2013; Oppewal et al., 2015) as this directly answers the question of how and why a traveller selects a particular destination. Consequently, destination decision-making research provides a basis from which destination marketers can formulate and implement strategies for specific target markets to attract these markets to their destination (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Moreover, destination choice research can answer the question ‘why a particular tourist selected (or did not select) a particular destination for his/her next vacation/travel

(Wong & Yeh, 2009).

The value-based approach is one method to understand the peoples' decision-making behaviours in general and (Kamakura & Novak, 1992) as well as the consumer's decision-making behaviours in particular (Piscicelli, Cooper, & Fisher, 2015; Tsai, 2005). This research investigates the destination decision-making process of prospective travellers using a value-based approach to examine the influence of values in each stage of the decision-making process thereby addressing a gap in the destination decision-making literature. This research also investigates the antecedents of the psychological influences (values) affecting the destination decision-making addressing another gap in the destination decision-making literature.

The main contribution of this PhD thesis is the identification and analysis of the different influences of the psychological factors between the various stages of the destination decision-making process. It was found that psychological factors did change between the stages in the decision-making process; therefore, destination marketers can segment their markets according to the specific stage (consideration, evaluation, and selection) of the decision-making process.

The research literature provides evidence of conceptual development regarding destination decision-making and presents theoretical models to explain destination decision-making (Decrop, 2010; Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Goodall, 1988, 1991; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). However, the existing models have not given due consideration to the process of destination decision-making. None of these models have investigated how the factors affecting destination decision-making influences each stage of the decision-making process. Knowing how decision-makers behave in each stage of the destination decision-making process is of interest to destination marketers, destination managers as well as travel behaviour researchers.

Decision-making is a psychological process (Harren, 1979; Hastie & Dawes, 2010). Therefore, destination decision-making also is a psychological process and it will be argued that a destination decision-making study should take a psychological approach to explore the reasons in selecting a particular destination. This PhD investigation addresses another research gap by conceptualising

destination-decision-making as a psychological process and uses a value-based approach to study destination decision-making.

This chapter will provide an overview of the conceptual background of the research study followed by the research objectives and the structure of the thesis.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

The conceptual innovation of this PhD is that it integrates four theories currently used in both the tourism marketing and the consumer behaviour literature:

destination decision-making: consumption value theory; destination image; and consumers' value hierarchy. This section briefly introduces these theories and their relationship to destination decision-making.

1.2.1 DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING

Previous research that tried to explain the decision-making process underpinning the selection of a tourist destination led to the development of several theoretical models. Different authors have categorised those models and studies, as: e.g., variance studies and process studies (Smallman & Moore, 2010); microeconomic, cognitive, and interpretive models (Decrop, 2006a); and, behavioural and choice set theories (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). It is the choice set approach that has gained increased attention in the literature because of its practical application in destination marketing activities and its ability to overcome the complexity of behavioural approaches in studying destination decision-making (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005).

The essence of the choice set approach of destination decision-making is that the prospective traveller begins by developing a set of destinations from his/her consideration set or awareness set; this is widely known as the 'total set' (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). This set of destinations then goes through a funnel-like procedure by which the total set is narrowed down into a series of smaller sets of destinations by, step by step, removing unfeasible alternative destinations until the final destination is selected (Decrop, 2010; Goodall, 1991; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1990, 1992; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). This PhD study takes destination decision-making as a three-stage process with each stage generating a choice set. The three stages were identified as the

consideration stage, evaluation stage, and selection stage. The three choice sets are identified as: the early evoked set, late evoked set, and final selection corresponding to the prescribed three stages of the decision-making process (Um & Crompton, 1992).

1.2.2 VALUES AND SELECTION BEHAVIOUR

The underlying meaning of value definitions is that people evaluate the psychological persuasion of a particular object/thing or condition which interests them and compare it with a predetermined level of preference (Morris, 1956; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1994; Solomon, 2013). In this context, the value concept is a good tool to understand the behaviours of humans and so it has become a popular concept in the context of behavioural research, especially consumer and market research (Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Rahnama & Rajabpour, 2016; Tan, 2011; Vincent & Selvarani, 2013). In terms of values and their influence on purchasing behaviour, research has found that consumers buy products because their own values demand it (Carpenter & Fairhurst, 2005; Flint & Blocker, 2015; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Pitts & Woodside, 1983). Value-based approaches have also been used to understand tourist consumer behaviours (e.g. Lin & Wang, 2012; Moliner, Sánchez, Rodríguez, & Callarisa, 2007a; Paulssen, Temme, Vij, & Walker, 2014; Polo Peña, Frías Jamilena, & Rodríguez Molina, 2012; Polo Peña, Jamilena, & Rodríguez Molina, 2012). This doctoral research study applies consumer value theory (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991a) to the study of the destination decision-making process of prospective tourists.

1.2.3 CONSUMPTION VALUE THEORY AND DESTINATION IMAGE

The theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991a; Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991b) claims that market choice behaviour may be driven by any or all of the five functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional consumption values. According to this theory, a particular choice or selection made by the consumer is not only a consequence of one value, but also a consequence of a combination of all five of these values with each value affecting the final choice to a different degree. Sheth et al. (1991b) defined the five consumption values as follows:

Functional value: “The perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance” (p. 160); *Social value*: “The

perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social groups" (p. 161); *Emotional value*: "The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states" (p. 161); *Epistemic value*: "The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge" (p. 162); and, *Conditional value*: "The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstances facing the choice maker" (p. 162).

Destination image is considered to be one of the most important concepts that informs destination selection and tourist behaviour (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Byon & Zhang, 2010; Pike, 2016a; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). The five value dimensions outlined and defined in the previous paragraph reflect links with various sub-concepts of destination image described in the tourism literature. For example, the functional-psychological continuum of destination image proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) can be reflected through functional and emotional/social values. In the study by Choi, Chan, and Wu (1999), the concepts of 'shopping is convenient', 'everything is different', 'friendly and helpful people' show a link to functional, epistemic, and social values respectively. The grounding of the links prevailing between the five consumption values and the conventional measures of destination image provided a good basis upon which this study could integrate destination image with the five value dimensions: i.e., the functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional (Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, & Gursoy, 2009; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010). In particular, these values can be used to assess destination choice, since the theory of consumption values has been used to explain customer choice behaviours (Lin & Huang, 2012). Consequently, this study proposes to study destination decision-making behaviours based on the influential properties of destination image; using both qualitative and quantitative methods, those properties are explained through five value dimensions derived from consumption value theory (Ramkissoon et al., 2009). More importantly, the new variable that explains the influential properties of destination image on destination selection is identified in this study as 'selective image'. Therefore, the selective image, as a derivative of destination image, contains only the influential properties of destination image on destination

selection.

1.2.4 CONSUMERS' VALUE HIERARCHY, TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS, AND CONSUMPTION VALUES

The consumers' value hierarchy proposed by Vinson, Scott, and Lamont (1977) was adapted in this research investigation. This particular theory claims that consumers possess three hierarchical levels of values, starting from the more closely held human values to less closely held evaluative beliefs. The levels of values are mediated by domain-specific values. The current study argues that evaluative beliefs are similar to and aligned to consumption values (Holbrook, 1994) and that the domain-specific values are recognised as travel motivations (Verplanken & Holland, 2002), a highly-applied concept in tourism behavioural research.

1.2.5 INTEGRATION OF THE FOUR THEORIES

The four theories that have been discussed in this section contributed to situate the conceptual foundation of the research. Destination decision-making theories have emphasised the destination decision-making as a step-by-step process (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Different choice sets are developed at each of the stage of the decision-making process and this choice set generating process is influenced by various factors (Crompton, 1992; Decrop, 2010). It has been understood that it has been necessary to study each of the stages of the destination decision-making process to fully understand the destination selection behaviour of visitors (Decrop, 2010). Since the destination selection is a psychological process, consumption value theory can be used explain the choice of destinations in destination decision-making (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010). Therefore, the five-value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of consumption value theory can incorporate most of the factors affecting destination decision-making. Destination image was used to operationalise the five value dimensions of consumption value theory since the sub conceptions of destination image show linkages with the conceptual underpinning of the five value dimensions of the consumption value theory (Ramkissoon et al., 2009) . Since the consumption values are recognized as the less closely held set of values to an individual and more responsive to external stimulus regarding a particular choice

event (Holbrook, 1994), the more closely held values were also investigated to identify the predecessors of consumption values . Therefore, the theory of consumers' value hierarchy (Vinson et al., 1977) was incorporated to the research conceptual framework (outlined on page 81).

1.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Initially, this research uses an exploratory sequential mixed design. It starts with semi-structured face-to-face interviews premised on an initial conceptual framework. The main objectives of this qualitative phase of the research was to develop the quantitative questionnaire and evaluate the initial conceptual framework. The quantitative phase of the research was conducted as an online survey with prospective visitors to Sri Lanka. Finally, the results of the both qualitative and quantitative phases of the research informed the discussion of the insights with regard to the study's research propositions and objectives.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The research objective of this thesis is to examine how the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) influence the destination decision-making process. More specifically, the thesis examines the effect of each of these value dimensions on an early-evoked set, a late evoked set, and a final choice, with these corresponding to the consideration stage, evaluation stage, and selection stage of the destination decision-making process respectively. Moreover, this study examined whether these five values behave differently in each stage of the decision-making process. The specific research propositions are provided at the end of the literature review chapter.

The next section describes the organisation of the thesis.

1.5 THESIS STRUCTURE

This PhD thesis comprises the following chapters.

Chapter 2. Literature Review: The chapter presents the literature review that informs the conceptual framework. Notably, the literature review is presented in two phases. Phase I lays the theoretical foundation for the qualitative study. Destination decision-making, consumption value theories, and destination image

are discussed in this section. Phase II of the literature review developed after the qualitative data collection identifies linkages between the tourism literature and consumers' value hierarchy to develop the conceptual framework for the quantitative data collection.

Chapter 3. Research Philosophy, Methodology, and Design: This chapter describes the philosophical underpinnings of the research investigation. Moreover, it discusses the mixed methods research design and the research process followed by a detailed description about the qualitative study design and the research context.

Chapter 4. Qualitative Research: This chapter discusses the qualitative data collection, analysis and the qualitative study findings.

Chapter 5: Quantitative Research Design: This chapter details the quantitative component of the research, including the questionnaire design and it provides a summary of the data analysis techniques.

Chapter 6: Quantitative Data Analysis: Chapter 6 outlines the quantitative data analysis and the results of it. ANOVA, CHAID and PLS analysis were the main analytical tools used to answer the research propositions.

Chapter 7: Discussion: The discussion chapter proposes the insights and the contribution to the research field from the quantitative and qualitative study results; it is structured round the research propositions.

Chapter 8: Conclusions: The final chapter outlines the implications and limitations of this doctoral research investigation, and suggests possible future research areas.

1.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research aim, the research gaps being addressed and the contribution of the research both conceptually and its relevance to destination marketers. The study's conceptual framework integrates four theories from both the tourism marketing and the consumer behaviour literature. A brief overview of the theories and their integration is provided in this chapter which will be elaborated on in the next chapter, the literature review.

CHAPTER 2.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This research study aims to address two gaps in the destination decision-making literature: investigating factors that influence destination selection across the continuum of the decision-making process and the adoption of a psychological approach to study destination decision-making behaviour. This literature review chapter evaluates the concepts and theories that will inform the development of the conceptual framework for the study that shaped the qualitative and quantitative data.

The literature review chapter is presented in two phases, one phase before the qualitative data collection process and one after. Each phase developed its own conceptual framework. However, the conceptual framework developed at the end of phase II (figure 2.11, page 81), builds upon and extends phase I conceptual framework, and directed the quantitative study.

The Phase I conceptual framework (figure 2.7, page 56) was developed to guide the qualitative data collection. It integrates the destination decision-making, consumption values, and destination image theories, which are synthesised in phase I of this literature review chapter.

This section will now provide an overview of the theories and concepts used to develop the conceptual frameworks for the qualitative and quantitative data collection. This overview will explain the logic behind the sequencing of the theoretical concepts and explain the relationships between these concepts to facilitate navigation of this literature review chapter.

Since this PhD investigation deals with destination decision-making, the first section of the literature review discusses and evaluates key destination marketing definitions and concepts to clarify what is a destination and to understand the link between destination decision-making and destination marketing. Destination decision-making theories were evaluated to understand how previous research had

examined the destination selection behaviours of visitors, and to propose a suitable framework of destination decision-making for the current research. Models of destination decision-making were evaluated. Micro economic models were identified as inception theories for destination decision-making, which were followed by cognitive models of destination decision-making to overcome the limitations in the microeconomic models. Then process approaches and choice set approaches were reviewed separately as the two main sub categories of cognitive models. Finally, the choice set approach was identified as the most suitable approach to study destination selection behaviour since it identified various choice sets corresponding to the various stages of the decision-making process in destination selection.

Apart from the identification of the research gap to study a stage-based destination selection process, the literature review of the models on destination decision-making also revealed there was little emphasis on psychological approaches to study destination selection behaviours thus identifying a gap in the research that this PhD investigation could address. Therefore, a set of psychological based factors, underpinned by consumption value theory, and were presented to explain the choice set generating behaviours in the destination decision-making process.

The discussion of destination decision-making is followed by a literature review and discussion of psychological approaches to decision making, specifically consumption values, as a value category used to explain consumers' choice behaviour in the consumer behaviour literature. Consumption value theory, claims that choice is made based on five types of independent values (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional). These five independent values were identified as applicable to a conceptual framework to examine the making of choice sets in each stage of the decision-making process. Consumption value theory, developed in the consumer behaviour research has had little application in the tourism behaviour research. Thus, identifying another research gap and the need for a tourism related conceptualization and operationalization of consumption value theory. Consequently, destination image was evaluated for its possibilities to conceptualize and operationalise sub value dimensions of consumption value theory.

The next section of phase I of the literature review was a theoretical review of destination image formation, its conceptualizations, and measurements to discover the relationships between destination image and consumption values.

Consequently, destination image was incorporated into phase I of the conceptual framework as 'selective image' representing the influencing properties of destination image on destination selection. Selective image is comprised of the five value dimensions drawn from consumption value theory. Therefore, Phase I conceptual framework (figure 2.7, page 56) includes a variable called selective image comprised of five dimensions: functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional. Consequently, to guide the qualitative phase of the study, the initial conceptual framework of this research was developed to study how each of the five value dimensions contributes to making choice sets (awareness set, evoked set, surrogate set, exclusion set, dream set, unavailable set, and available set) corresponding to each stage of the destination decision-making process (figure 2.7, page 56).

Phase II of the literature review, directed by the qualitative study findings, evaluates the predecessors of selective image (consumption values). This section of the literature review examined the theory of consumers' value hierarchy, which describes two levels of values as predecessors of consumer values.

The literature provides evidence that the value related concepts have been used to explain the consumer choice behaviour in general as well as to explain tourist behaviour in particular. However, it was noted that, past studies have used many value-related terminologies (human values, perceived values, consumption values, motivations, attitudes etc.) without considering their respective position in the individual's value system, thus identifying another research gap. Therefore, this phase of the literature review establishes firstly the theoretical links and relationship between human values, motivations, and consumption values from the consumer behaviour literature. Secondly phase II of the literature review extends this establish relationship by adopting the value related concepts developed in the tourism behaviour research to connect the relationship between human values, travel motivations, and selective image (destination image) into the final conceptual framework (figure 2.11, page 81).

The purpose of this introduction section was to present an overview of the development of the conceptual framework. It also sought to explain why this literature review chapter is ordered the way it is and the relationships between the concepts being presented.

The next sections (2.2 to 2.7) reviews the literature on destination decision-making, consumption values, destination image, and travel constraints that inform the conceptual framework which guided the qualitative research phase of this study.

2.2 DEFINING DESTINATION MARKETING AND THE DESTINATION

This section identifies the importance of destination decision-making in destination marketing and discusses the question - what is a 'destination'? as the foundation for the rest of the literature review.

Tourism is a powerful economic force for many countries because it generates foreign exchange, employment, income, and tax revenues (Hudson, 2008). The success of a tourist destination is often determined as a continuous flow of large numbers of tourists to the destination (Laws, 1995). The need to attract many travellers to a particular destination has increased the competitiveness among destinations (Wang, 2011), thus requiring an effective and integrative marketing strategy, depending on the conditions of each of the markets and destinations (Pike, 2009; Wang, 2011). Consequently, marketing is identified as a major component of destination management that requires a holistic and systematic approach to its management and understanding in order to ensure the success of any tourist destination (Morrison, 2013; Wang, 2011). Destination marketing is a collection of functions which include planning, researching, implementation, control, and evaluation of programmes to satisfy travellers' needs and wants as well as destination visions, goals, and objectives (Morrison, 2013). Destination marketing research includes studies on destination decision-making, which some argue are crucial for formulating and implementing effective marketing strategies (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005).

It is important, first, to define the tourist destination before discussing destination

decision-making. The research literature provides various interpretations for the term 'destination'. As described in the *Dictionary of Travel and Tourism Hospitality Terms* compiled by Harris and Howard (1996), a tourist attraction is a physical or cultural feature of a place that a tourist or traveller notices as capable of meeting his or her leisure-related expectations. As Kim (1998, p. 340) stated, "a destination can be viewed as a uniquely complex product of the tourism industry comprising, among other factors, an area's climate, infrastructure and superstructure, services, and natural and cultural attributes". Consideration of a geographical area and/or certain leisure-oriented features are the main characteristics generally used to define the tourist destination. Additionally, some authors have defined a destination as an entity identified by its political and marketing framework. According to Buhalis (2000, p. 98), "destinations are considered to be a defined geographical region which is understood by its visitors as a unique entity, with a political and legislative framework for tourism marketing and planning". Framke (2002) analysed different views of the concept 'destination' found in literature and concluded that "destinations are seen as units at several geographical levels, but without distinct geographical boundaries, and as images resulting from social practice" (p. 92). The specificities of this definition concern geographical levels rather than geographical boundaries and see the destination as a mental construct. This view implies that different individuals can perceive the same destination differently. However, a tourist destination can simply be identified as an entity comprising leisure-related activities within a certain geographical boundary. This study understands the tourist destination to be the answer given by a potential visitor to the question 'where shall I go'? The response can be the name of a place, which satisfies the leisure-related requirement of the prospective traveller.

The next section discusses the literature on destination decision-making. An introduction to destination decision-making is followed by an in-depth evaluation of both microeconomic and cognitive models of destination decision-making and more specifically; the difference between the process and the choice set approaches of the cognitive model.

2.3 DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making has been a key area of interest for psychological and economic researchers (Edwards, 1954), and is considered as the art of conflict resolution in which contradictory goals are negotiated and reconciled (Svenson, 1996). Put simply, decision-making is a way of choosing the most suitable alternative when dealing with a given situation or problem. Decision-making in the context of consumer behaviour is also a key area in marketing research (e.g. Howard & Sheth, 1969; Shocker, Ben-Akiva, Boccara, & Nedungadi, 1991). “The topic of decision-making is a cornerstone of marketing and consumer behaviour as well” (Decrop, 2006b, p. ix)

Marketing and consumer behaviour studies in travel and tourism have given substantial attention to the study of the decision-making behaviours of travellers (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Decision-making studies in the field of tourism are not limited to studying how to select a vacation destination; they also include the sub decisions concerning travel route, activities, attractions, dining, and retail purchases (Kenneth & Alain, 2011; Smallman & Moore, 2010). However, the selection of a vacation destination is the primary decision, whereas most of the other sub decisions are secondary to the main decision of destination selection. Therefore, various models and theories have been developed to study the decision-making process of destination selection (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The specific field of destination decision-making research has evolved over time and was mostly influenced by decision-making models and approaches described in the consumer behavioural research. Decrop (1999b) claims that most researchers recognise tourist destination decision-making as either a sequential or a hierarchical process. The sequential process involves an array of steps (e.g., problem identification, information search, evaluation of alternatives, and choice and post choice process) derived from classical buyer behaviour theories (e.g. Howard & Sheth, 1969). However, a hierarchical view describes the decision-making process in terms of six layers (awareness, knowledge, liking, preference, conviction, and purchase) borrowed from the ‘hierarchy of effect’ model of Lavidge and Steiner (1961).

2.3.1 MODELS OF DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING

Efforts to explain the specific field of the decision-making process of tourist destination selection have led to the emergence of several theoretical models. These models are categorised differently by authors and researchers. They cover variance and process studies (Smallman & Moore, 2010), microeconomic, cognitive, and interpretive models (Decrop, 2006b), and behavioural and choice set theories (Goodall, 1991; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005).

The literature review discussion of destination decision-making models focusses on how these models explain destination decision-making. The purpose of that evaluation was to identify the best approach to inform an investigation examining the influences of psychological factors at each stage of the destination decision-making process. Microeconomic and cognitive models are discussed in the following subsections section.

2.3.2 MICROECONOMIC MODELS

According to Decrop (2006b), microeconomic models of travel decision-making grounded on traditional demand theory treat a vacationer as a rational decision-maker if he/she tries to maximise his or her utility under the constraints of his or her budget. The work of Rugg (1973), which explains the choice of journey destination, is notable among the microeconomic models of destination selection. This particular model extends the notion that consumers derive utility from characteristics that are produced by commodities (Lancaster, 1966) and adds constructs such as time constraints, transport cost of optional destinations, and time costs, which were ignored in previous models of destination selection behaviour.

As an extension to Rugg (1973), Morley (1992) incorporates two new elements into the utility function. Morley (1992) suggests a travel decision process that incorporates three decisions, i.e., the decision to travel or not, the allocation of time and budget, and the choice of the tour. As he argues, prices of non-tourism goods and the level of income of the traveller are also factors which influence destination selection decisions. Moreover, this particular model accepts that the potential tourists consider possible alternative attractions before selecting the

destination, and therefore, a study on the tourists coming to a particular country or attraction does not provide a clear insight with which to understand the destination decision-making of tourists. Morley (1992) model, therefore, builds upon the earlier microeconomic models of destination selection by adding new variables and emphasising the need to choose the right target respondents for the study.

Papathodorou (2001) introduces a model that confronted the drawbacks of traditional demand theory in explaining tourist destination choice. This model recognises factors such as taste heterogeneity of tourists, evolutionary features of tourism products (emergence of new destinations and decline of existing destinations), corporate power, industrial organisation, and a number of dynamic issues such as information, advertising, agglomeration, and time. The model proposed by Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) considers destination decision-making as a multistep process shaping the traditional demand theory in tourism into a new model.

The methodological framework proposed by Seddighi and Theocharous (2002) provides a logical structure within which the impact of characteristics of a tourism product on foreign travel can be captured and analysed. This particular model incorporates psychological consumer-oriented variables such as perceptions, feelings, and preferences and, therefore, differs from traditional demand models. According to this model, tourist identification of a destination is based upon various socioeconomic and demographic variables, which influence whether the individual decides to go on vacation. The selection between a foreign and a local vacation is then made primarily according to purchasing power. Next, the potential travellers develops perceptions and feelings based on destination characteristics. Subsequently, the aggregated effect of feelings and perceptions is combined with system characteristics, and preferences towards alternatives are assessed; finally, the destination is selected.

As discussed above, microeconomic models are founded upon traditional demand theory, which is then developed to explain the rationale behaviour of consumers. For this reason, these models are limited to general economic theories and econometric methodologies that eventually hinder the development of a model to explain the demand (selection) behaviour of tourists as a specific group of

consumers. With the exception of the few factors already noted in the above discussion, these models do not incorporate socio-psychological variables, and, hence, fail to explain the complexities of the processes of destination decision-making. In addition, microeconomics models are criticised for their inability to address issues around information asymmetry and irrationality in choice behaviours; nor do those models study the roles of emotions and experiences in tourism (Smallman & Moore, 2010).

2.3.3 COGNITIVE MODELS

Most human decisions are not perfectly rational (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998) and individuals tend to make decisions not to optimise the utility, but rather to satisfy requirements (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), because decisions are influenced by various factors (constraints, conflicting motivations among relevant parties, limited cognitive capabilities, and limited information) that encourage the decision-makers to act irrationally (Bettman et al., 1998). This idea is known as bounded/limited rationality (Svenson, 1996). As a result, microeconomic consumer decision-making models' stance that 'the decision-maker is always rational' has been challenged.

New models have emerged in the literature of consumer decision-making, in general, and in tourist decision-making, in particular. The cognitive paradigm of consumer research and behaviour focuses on socio-psychological variables and the processes involved in decision-making (Decrop, 2006b). As Decrop (2006b) indicates, perception and information processing are the core processes of these models. The literature provides evidence for some cognitive approaches in destination decision-making models and that approach will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Svenson (1996) claims that decision-making could be studied either as a structural or as a process approach. In line with this categorisation, Decrop (2006b) divides cognitive models of destination decision-making into two classes: structural models and process models. On the one hand, according to Decrop (2006b), structural models evaluate the structural relationships between inputs and outputs of the destination decision-making process by giving due attention to various choice sets created during the decision-making process. These structural

destination decision-making models are also known as, 'choice set approaches' (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Smallman & Moore, 2010).

On the other hand, the process models of decision-making evaluate the psychological process through from problem identification to final decision (Svenson, 1996). Rather than focusing on the final decision, destination decision-making process studies also evaluate psycho-behavioural variables which influence the process (Decrop, 2006b). The 'behavioural approach' of Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) demonstrates the characteristics of a process model. As described by the authors, the main purpose of the behavioural approach is to identify various stages of the process of decision-making and to evaluate various factors influencing each stage of the process. The common factor amongst the process approaches to tourist decision-making assumes that the process occurs in stages, and in so doing evidences the characteristics of consumer behaviour decision theories (Howard & Sheth, 1969). Thus, the two main cognitive approaches of tourist decision-making are identified as 'process approaches' and 'choice set approaches'. The following sections will briefly explain these two types of cognitive models.

2.3.3.1 PROCESS APPROACHES

Process studies of vacation decision-making involve a sequential approach (Decrop, 2006b) that is mainly informed by the model of consumer decision-making (Howard & Sheth, 1969). Process models, in general, assume that decision-makers generate a set of alternative destinations and evaluate each alternative using the information available, before finally selecting their destination (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). For Mansfeld (1992b), in process approaches, there are three main stages in the decision-making process of destination selection: 1) motivation (both intrinsic and extrinsic), 2) information search, and 3) evaluation of alternatives.

van Raaij and Francken's (1984) 'vacation sequence' model, which was developed to explain the stages of tourists' behaviour with regard to destination decision-making, can also be considered as a process model (Decrop, 2006b). This particular model describes the tourist's behaviour in terms of five distinct sequential approaches: generic decisions, information acquisition, joint decision-

making, vacation activities, and satisfaction complaints. These five steps are influenced by three interacting factors: sociodemographic factors, individual factors, and household factors. Van Raaij and Francken's vacation sequence model also demonstrates a considerable level of complexity as it includes sub decisions (e.g., activities) that go beyond the main destination selection decision. Furthermore, this particular model attempts to evaluate the influences of household and sociodemographic factors on the decision process (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005).

The work of Goodall (1988) has also contributed to process studies of destination decision-making. His model starts with motivations to take a holiday backed by needs and desires to have a vacation. The evaluation of alternative holiday options is then done using the mental images of each of the destination options. These involve preferential (ideal vacation), evaluative (comparison between expectations and actual alternatives), and factual (perception about each vacation destination) decisions.

In conclusion, the process approaches to destination decision-making have some similarities with destination decision-making models that assume decisions occur in stages, and the process of decision-making starting with a desire and motivation to have a vacation. While information plays a crucial role in the process of decision-making, the process is affected by both psychological and functional factors. However, for Decrop (2006b), process models have some limitations as they have been built on consumer decision-making models and these models, he argues, are not fully applicable to tourist decision-making studies. He also criticises the extensive need for information, since vacation decision-makers do not always search for or have a sufficient amount of information regarding the choice decisions. Decrop (2006b) suggests another limitation is that most models lack empirical evidence due to the complexities pertaining to these process models of tourist decision-making. The process models of destination decision-making sometimes include sub-decisions (e.g. selecting resorts) (e.g. Goodall, 1991) which increases the complexity of the model (Smallman & Moore, 2010).

2.3.3.2 CHOICE SET APPROACHES

Choice set models demonstrate the same process (as found in process models), but in a different manner (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The essence of the choice set approach is that, in the first place, the prospective traveller develops a set of destinations from his/her consideration set or awareness set, widely known as a 'total set'. This set of destinations then goes through a funnel-like procedure whereby the total set is narrowed down into a series of smaller sets of destinations. Unfeasible alternative destinations are systematically removed until the last destination is selected (Crompton, 1992; Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977). Choice set approaches have gained increasing attention in the literature because of their practical application in understanding the market and destination attractiveness (Smallman & Moore, 2010), and their usefulness in overcoming the complexity of behavioural analysis of destination decision-making, as well as their applicability in empirical studies (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Furthermore, the choice set models of destination decision-making advance 'variance studies' of destination selection, which examine the causal effect of independent variables on destination selection and, alternatively, simplify the complexities pertaining to complex behavioural models of destination decision-making (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Smallman & Moore, 2010).

The work of Um and Crompton (1990) offers one of the initial models for the choice set approach to explaining destination decision-making. This approach is popular, simpler than others are, and theoretically and methodologically sound in tourism decision-making research (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The model examines the destination selection process in three sequential stages: 1) composition of awareness set, 2) composition of evoked set, and 3) final destination selection. However, according to the authors, the process of decision-making is evaluated at two points: first, evolution of an evoked set from the awareness set, and secondly, destination selection from the evoked set. Three sets of variables are used: 1) external inputs (influences from both social and marketing environments), 2) internal inputs (resultant from individual's socio-psychological characteristics, motives, values and attitudes), and 3) cognitive

constructs (the combination of external and internal inputs into an awareness set and the evoked set of destinations). The complete mechanism of the model is described in five distinct steps. First, a vacationer develops awareness about destinations based on passive information or informal learning. Second, the destination choice process starts after the individual decides to go on a holiday. Third, the individual identifies and evaluates the evoked sets of destination choice. Fourth, views are formed about evoked destinations by searching for more information, and finally, the selection of the travel destination is made from the evoked set.

A model constructed by Goodall (1991) starts the process of decision-making from the total opportunity set. The total opportunity set of this model is similar to the awareness set in Um and Crompton (1990) model. However, the opportunity set demonstrates the probability of containing a greater number of feasible destinations than the awareness set allows for, since the total opportunity set does not include all destinations known to the decision-maker. According to Goodall's model, each alternative in the total opportunity set is evaluated further and some of the destination options are removed due to constraints such as lack of knowledge about the destination, financial situation, and time. Consequently, a 'realisable opportunity set' is derived. The realisable opportunity set is, however, still large and needs to be reduced further to a consideration set. Social influences, holiday goals, and internal constraints are the factors by which the realisable opportunity set is reduced to become the consideration set. The consideration set is evaluated based on situational and/or institutional constraints (i.e., time) in order to further reduce it to a choice set. Next, the choice sets are evaluated by comparing the traveller's expectations and the attributes of each destination with the aim of arriving at a decision set. Finally, the decision set is appraised further so that the traveller can make the selection decision.

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) suggest a model to explain traveller destination awareness and choice. This particular model starts with the interaction between 'marketing related variables' (product design, pricing, advertising/personal selling, and channel decisions) and 'traveller related variables' (previous destination experience, life cycle, income, age, lifestyles, and value system).

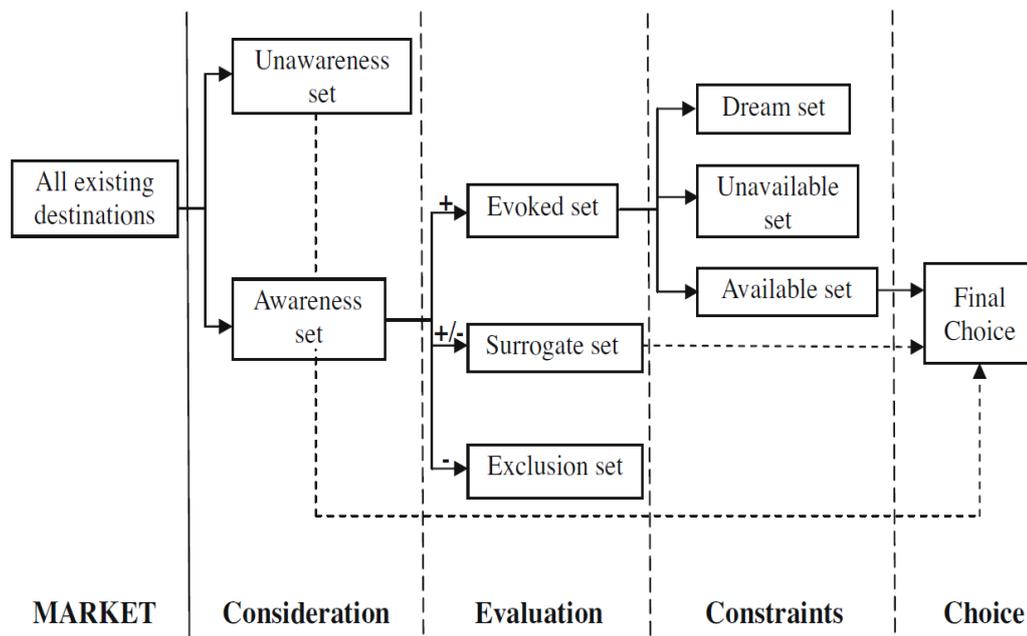
Because of this interaction, an integrated set of 'destination awareness' is created, which comprises four different choice sets: 1) the consideration set, 2) the inert set, 3) the unavailable/aware set, and 4) the inept set. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) argue that all the destinations known to the traveller, and drawn as a result of interaction between marketing variables, will belong to one of these four categories. The inept set includes destinations of which a traveller is aware but which are not considered suitable to select because of negative perceptions, experiences, and lack of information. Inert sets are the destinations of which a traveller is aware, but about which he or she has no real understanding. Primarily, these destinations are not considered for purchase because of a lack of information about them. The next category encompasses those destinations that a traveller may know about, but which he or she is unable to purchase due to a number of constraints (e.g., finance); this particular category is identified as the unavailable/aware set. The next category is the consideration set. It is the potential set of destinations that are likely to be chosen at this point in time. The consideration set is evaluated via both the 'affective associations' and 'traveller destination preferences'. Affective associations are specific feelings that a customer has towards a particular destination. These are generally based on the destination attributes (e.g., sun, beach). The traveller destination preference is the rankings assigned to destinations from most to least attractive (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). The ordered destinations are then evaluated by 'intention to visit', which is defined as the likelihood of visiting a destination within a specific time frame (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Lastly, the final destination is selected based on situational variables.

The three choice set models (Goodall, 1991; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989) discussed above demonstrate some commonalities and highlight differences between the models. All three models assume that the decision-making process happens in sequential stages, with different choice sets arising across the process and that these combine with the influence of internal and external factors to produce the choice sets. However, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) model describes all the choice sets at the same stage of the process. Um and Crompton (1990) is comprised of a smaller number of choice sets when compared to the model of Goodall (1991). Therefore, the latter is more

explanative. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Goodall (1991) both consider the effect of constraints throughout the process, whereas Um and Crompton (1990) do not include constraints in their model.

In addition to the foundational models (both process and choice sets) discussed above, the model developed by Decrop (2010) is also a well-built model to explain the destination decision-making. Decrop (2010) conducted a longitudinal qualitative study to investigate the formation and evolution of destination choice sets over time for vacation decision-making. The findings of that study are presented as a graphical model in *Figure 2-1*.

Figure 2-1. Formation of destination choice sets.



Adopted from: (Decrop, 2010, p. 108)

According to *Figure 2-1*, the formation of choice sets includes four dimensions: awareness, evaluation, constraints, and choice. As the author explains, although vacationers may or may not be aware of existing destinations, they evaluate the destinations they are aware of based on the evoked set (preference or expectation level) or the surrogate set (tolerance level). Negatively evaluated destinations become the exclusion set. Evoked destinations are placed into the dream set (when faced with constraints) or into the unavailable set (when there is the presence of situational inhibitors). The final choice of a destination is made from three locations: either the available set, the surrogate set, or straight from the

awareness set.

The following are the definitions of choice sets used in this model (Decrop, 2010, p. 100):

Awareness Set: Destinations the vacationer knows but does not express any affection for. This set reveals knowledge but not intention.

Evoked Set: Destinations considered spontaneously by the vacationer for a future (but not specifically the next) summer vacation.

Surrogate Set: Destinations that are not prioritised by the vacationer but are kept as spare alternatives (“one never knows”).

Exclusion Set: Destinations definitely rejected by the vacationer (“I would never stay there”).

Dream Set: Destinations that are considered as ideal places for travelling or vacationing but permanently unavailable because of enduring structural inhibitors.

Unavailable Set: Destinations considered by the vacationer that are temporarily unavailable because of particular situational constraints.

Available Set: Evoked destinations that really are feasible after considering the vacationer’s constraints.

The main feature of this model is that it allocates different choice sets to the stages of the decision-making process. These choice sets are made either by splitting a particular choice set into several choice sets in a horizontal manner or by reducing a particular choice set to another choice set in a vertical manner. Consequently, at the end of the process, a destination is finally selected. This particular model focuses only on the selection of a destination rather than considering all the sub-decisions such as accommodation, means of transport, travel companions, and length of stay pertaining to a vacation decision process.

The conceptual framework of the current study is mainly based on this model (Decrop, 2010), since it allocates each choice set among stages of the process of decision-making, enabling study of the influencing factors that create each choice sets along the decision-making process. In particular, this model provides a clear framework within which various choice sets are made. Therefore, the factors affecting each of the choice sets can be evaluated in line with Decorp’s (2010)

model.

The choice set approach was chosen for the current study as a consequence of the literature review on destination decision-making models. The conceptual frameworks (figure 2.7, page 56; figure 2.11, page 81) incorporate the main features of the choice set approach to destination decision making; but at the same time accommodating the fact that one can make different choice sets along the destination decision making process.

The next section discusses the process of destination decision-making using psychological values of travellers, because this PhD investigation seeks to integrate values in the process of destination decision-making

2.4 TOWARDS A PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH TO DECISION-MAKING

The destination (travel) decision-making models discussed above have considered a range of factors affecting the decision-making process. Microeconomic models use factors such as budget, price, costs, time, constraints, transport cost, price of non-tourism goods and level of income, heterogeneity of tourists, evolutionary features of tourism products, information, advertising, perceptions, feelings, and preferences (Lancaster, 1966; Morley, 1992; Papatheodorou, 2001; Rugg, 1973). Choice set approaches use factors such as social variables, marketing-related variables, motives, values, attitudes, cognition, information, constraints, situational factors, destination attributes, previous experience, demographics, life style, value system, perceptions, intentions, and expectations. However, all these factors can be grouped into three broad categories as internal factors, external factors, and situational factors like constraints (Botha, Crompton, & Kim, 1999; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Hong, Kim, Jang, & Lee, 2006).

A common characteristic of most of the destination decision-making models is that they evaluate each destination option with regard to internal, external or conditional factors (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). It is argued that an important factor is that the decision-maker is always involved in a psychological process to create destination choice sets throughout the decision-making process. According to Sirakaya and Woodside (2005), consumer behaviour theories agree that

psychological mechanisms (beliefs, motives, and attitudes) underlie each stage of the decision-making process. It is, therefore, worthwhile and appropriate to study the destination decision-making from a psychological perspective. It enables one to deal with a limited and manageable number of psychological constructs rather than dealing with innumerable external factors that affect the process of decision-making. The increased use of choice set approaches over process approaches for destination decision-making also supports the argument that psychological factors need to be considered (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The psychological method is an appropriate approach, since it always examines the inner reasons for the evaluation of possible destination options that shape choice sets or final destination selection. “Finally, it is assumed that the consumer has ability or skill in computation that enable the calculation of which option will maximise his or her received value and select accordingly” (Bettman et al., 1998, p. 187). These psychological reasons directly link with individuals’ values and it is possible to use a value-based approach to categorise various reasons used to make choices. According to Bettman et al. (1998, p. 187), “Each option in a choice set is assumed to have a utility, or subjective value, that depends only on the option”. This notion is further supported by the expectancy value theory, which explains that a particular alternative would be selected if the outcome of that alternative were attractive enough with relevance to the expected values (Feather, 1990, 1992; Verplanken & Svenson, 1997). To conclude, in the decision-making process, the destination options are evaluated grounding on the needs generated on internal requirements (expected values). In addition, the decisions such as making choice sets and selecting final destination are based on how well the destination features satisfy the internal expectations (values) of the prospective visitor. This evaluation actually happens because of the outcomes attained by the interaction between the values of the prospective visitor and the utilities given by the respective destination concerned. In particular, a potential visitor always evaluates the extent to which a particular destination option can meet his/her values regarding the expected vacation trip. Given that, this study proposes that the factors affecting destination decision-making are fundamentally psychological.

The value concept is a good tool with which to understand the behaviour of

humans and it has become a popular concept in the context of behavioural research, especially in consumer and market research (Kamakura & Novak, 1992). When it comes to the context of consumer buying and decision-making, there have been extensive applications of the value concept (e.g. Jyoti Sikka & Harsh, 2011; Piscicelli et al., 2015; Rintamäki, Kanto, Kuusela, & Spence, 2006; Sheth et al., 1991a; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Sweeney, Soutar, & Johnson, 1997; Tsai, 2005; Wiedmann, Hennigs, & Siebels, 2009). In terms of values and their influence on purchasing behaviour, consumers buy products because their own values demand it (Howard & Sheth, 1969), and because they consider these products will help them to attain a value-related goal (Solomon, 2013). In the consumer behaviour literature, a multidimensional approach in assessing consumer values is considered more explanative than single value assessments (Holbrook, 1994; Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2009; Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b; Zeithaml, 1988). Consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b) is a multidimensional approach, which explains the customer choice behaviour using five value categories: the functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional.

The next section examines the consumption values literature. An objective of this thesis is to understand the role of values in explaining destination choice behaviour of travellers.

2.4.1 CONSUMPTION VALUES

Consumer values are considered to be the most closely held set of properties within the actual consumption event (Allen, Ng, & Wilson, 2002; Gutman & Vinson, 1979); thus, the consumption values are specific to a given consumption activity and differ from human values (Oliver, 1996). “In more elementary terms, consumption value is a judgment of receipts compared to sacrifices” (Oliver, 1996, p. 147). Woodruff (1997, p. 142) defines customer value as the “customer’s perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer’s goals and purposes in use situations”.

Most researchers have posited that the values are either categorical or multidimensional. And that the multidimensional approach is more appropriate

than a single value assessment in evaluating customer values (e.g. Bajs, 2015; Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Woodruff, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988). The research literature provides some evidence for consumer value theories (Holbrook, 1994; Sheth et al., 1991a).

The work of Holbrook (1994, 1999) is highly accepted among consumer value studies. Holbrook (1999, p. 5) defines consumer values as “an interactive relativistic preference” and explains values as a relationship of customers to product (subject to object) which operates in a relativistic manner (depending on relevant comparisons, varying between people, changing among situations) to determine preference. Moreover, “typically such consumer value refers to the evaluation of some object by some subject” (Holbrook, 1999, p. 5). As the author further explains, the subject is the customer and the object is what is presented to him or her in the form of a product and/or service.

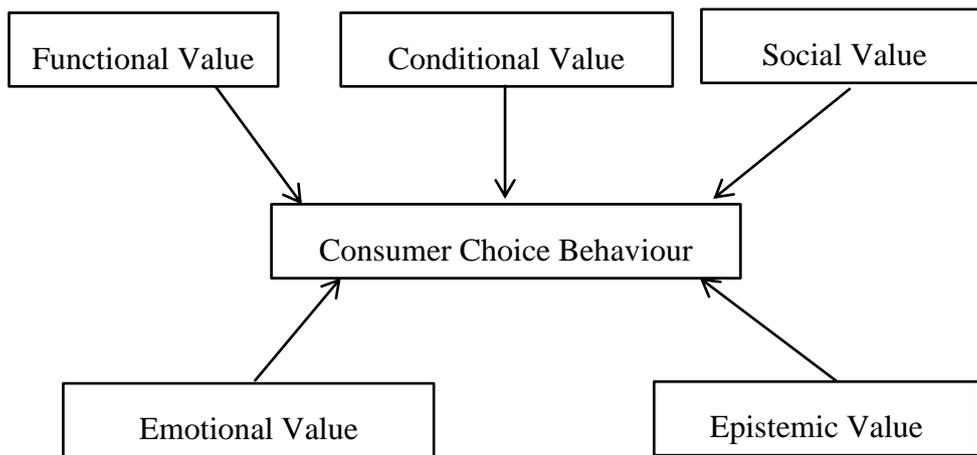
This research study adopts the theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b), since this particular theory is expected to be more effective in evaluating tourist choice behaviour (Phau, Quintal, & Shanka, 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000).

2.4.2 CONSUMPTION VALUE THEORY

According to Finch (2006, p. 66), consumption value theory “postulates that market choices are determined by multiple consumption values, rather than multiple product attributes”. This proposition provides a clear way to understand how a choice behaviour takes place, by facilitating the evaluation of consumer-centred consumption values rather than evaluating product related values.

The theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b) explains why customers choose one product over another product. The five distinct consumption values are: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value, and these are outlined in *Figure 2-2*.

Figure 2-2. Values influencing consumer choice.



Adopted from: (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 160)

Here, these values are adopted as the main determinants of consumer product choices. There are three fundamental propositions associated with this theory (Sheth et al., 1991b). They are that:

1. Consumer choice is a function of multiple consumption values.
2. Consumption values make different contributions in any given choice situation, and
3. The consumption values are independent.

This theory suggests that a choice decision is made based on a combination of five consumption values. The composition of these values for a particular choice decision is determined by the consumer's evaluation of the importance of these five values with respect to the alternatives available (Biswas & Roy, 2015; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). However, there have been some criticisms of the propositions of the independence of consumer values. It is argued that one value category can be an influence on another value category, demonstrating that they are interrelated rather than independent (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). The rest of this section will be devoted to describing these five consumption values.

Functional Value

Functional value means “the perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance. An alternative acquires functional value through the possession of salient functional, utilitarian, or physical attributes. Functional value is measured on a profile of choice attributes” (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 160). Functional values are considered as the

primary driver of consumer choice decisions (Sheth et al., 1991a; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) and, more often, the consumer begins the evaluation of alternatives with a consideration of the functional attributes of a product or service (Gutman, 1982). Dawson (1995) and Sweeney and Soutar (2001) describe the functional values of a product as the values attained while using the product and its attributes such as reliability, durability, and price. The functional dimension of consumption values also refers to rational and economic valuations made by consumers (Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez, & Moliner, 2006).

Social Value

Social value, as a dimension of consumption value, is defined as follows: “The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as a result of its association with one or more specific social groups. Alternatives acquire social value through association with positively or negatively stereotyped demographic, socioeconomic, and cultural ethnic groups” (Sheth et al., 1991a, p. 19). Social values are usually provided by what can be communicated or shown to peer social groups by visible features (Dawson, 1995). Sánchez et al. (2006) concluded social values are a matter of reputation and the image of what the customer selects to purchase. The social dimension of consumer values is considered as a sort of status value that communicates the success of consumers to others (Holbrook, 1994). These propositions suggest that social values are what a particular consumer expects to receive from other people by selecting (or not selecting) a particular option for purchase.

Emotional Value

Emotional values are generally considered as the consumer’s internal stimuli as follows: “... the perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s capacity to arouse feelings or affective states. An alternative acquires emotional value when associated with specific feelings or when precipitating or perpetuating those feelings” (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 161). According to Markin (1974), consumers as human beings are emotional and, therefore, their behaviour is influenced by emotions. Emotions contain two dimensions: an arousal function, and a cue or differentiation function. As the author explains, emotions are a special class of motives. Onkvisit and Shaw (1994) also agree that emotions as motivations for

consumer behaviour represent impulse or faulty reasoning. Emotional values are usually associated with emotional responses like comfort and love directed towards alternative products or services (Dawson, 1995). However, these propositions contradict Markin (1974), who describes emotions as aroused by external and situational stimuli. When considering all these explanations, emotional values can be considered as values arising from a product or service that satisfy the emotions of an individual.

Epistemic Value

Epistemic value is “the perceived utility acquired by an alternative as a result of its ability to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge. Alternatives acquire epistemic value through the capacity to provide something new or different” (Sheth et al., 1991a, p. 21). Based on this initial conceptualisation, later research describes the epistemic value as values that are usually obtained through the search for novelty, curiosity, or simply to relieve boredom (Dawson, 1995; Lee, Lee, & Choi, 2011; Lin & Huang, 2012).

Conditional Value

Conditional values are:

The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as a result of the specific situation or the context faced by the choice maker. Alternatives acquire conditional value in the presence of antecedent physical or social contingencies that enhance their functional or social value, but do not otherwise possess this value. (Sheth et al., 1991a, p. 22)

These types of values are sought as a result of situational factors, for example, the conditions associated with seasonal shopping behaviour at Christmas, or shopping for emergency needs (Dawson, 1995).

The five distinct values (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value) of consumption value theory demonstrate that the hedonic and social dimensions of customer values are significant, and key aspects of these values match traditional utilitarian (functional) perspectives (Rintamäki et al., 2006). Sheth et al. (1991a) suggest that temporary functional or social value can lead to conditional values. Some authors argue that emotional dimension values are linked with internal emotions or feelings and that the social dimensions

of values relate to the social impacts of a purchase (Sánchez et al., 2006).

This section's review of consumption value theory has argued that the choice behaviour of a consumer can be explained by a set of five independent value dimensions. These five value dimensions can be expressed as variables to explain why choice sets are utilised within the process of destination decision-making. The research will now investigate how to adopt these five variables (derived from consumer behaviour research), in a tourism behaviour context. The next section discusses how these values can be operationalised to test the destination selection behaviour of tourists.

2.4.3 OPERATIONALISATION OF CONSUMPTION VALUES IN TOURISM DECISION-MAKING STUDIES

Consumption value theory has been applied to tourist decision-making studies. As the subsequent sections of this chapter discuss, 'destination image', which is a highly-applied concept to study behaviour, was evaluated for its associations with concepts that underlie consumption value theory. This evaluation was done for two main reasons. First, destination image being a concept developed within the tourism research context has been found to be influential on destination selection and, second, the literature has given substantial clues about an association between destination image and consumption values (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

There are two main approaches to establishing the relationship between values and destination image. In one approach, some researchers have considered destination image and the value concepts as two different factors or variables (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Ryu, Han, & Kim, 2008). Alternatively, other researchers have considered values as dimensions of destination image (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Phau et al., 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010). This research adopts the second approach, with a purpose-oriented conceptualisation which assumes that consumption values can effectively be reflected in the influencing properties of destination image on destination decision-making. To validate this proposition, it is essential to evaluate first, the conceptual structure and the measurement approaches of

destination image.

This section has articulated the links between consumption values and destination image. The next section of the literature review evaluates destination image with regard to its relationship with destination selection. Destination image is defined, and the literature on how destination image is formed and measured is explored. The significance of this next section is that it seeks to establish a conceptual link between the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of consumption value theory and the dimensions of destination image. Previous studies that have proposed to integrate destination image and consumption value theory are evaluated in detail.

This section supports the derivation of a variable from the destination image research labelled *selective image*. This variable is comprised of five dimensions that correspond to the five values described in consumption value theory. It will be argued that this *selective image* variable reflects the influencing properties of destination image on destination selection. Both conceptual models used for the qualitative and quantitative data collection incorporate the *selective image* variable as the main variable to influence various choice sets along the process of destination-decision-making.

2.5 DESTINATION IMAGE

Destination image has been one of the key concepts in tourism studies for over three decades (Nghiem-Phú, 2014; Pike, 2002; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). It is found to be a highly practical construct in studies of destination management, destination marketing, and tourist behaviour (Pike, 2002; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). This study proposes to adopt destination image as a way of building a tourism-related set of measurements to operationalise consumption values to study the process of destination decision-making by visitors. As a result, it is important to evaluate the impact of destination image in destination selection. Given this aim, the literature on destination image is evaluated in the following sections. These sections include the evaluation of the impact of destination image in destination selection, the conceptual structure of destination image, measurements of destination image, and linking destination image

conceptualisations with conceptualisations of consumption value theory.

2.5.1 DESTINATION IMAGE AND DESTINATION SELECTION

“The decision-making process leading to the final choice of a travel destination is a very complex process and understanding what influences a traveller to choose a destination is important in developing appropriate marketing strategies” (Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009, p. 288). Destination decision-making is of utmost importance for effective destination marketing processes (Baloglu, 2000; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) and destination image is considered as the main factor influencing destination selection (Baloglu, 2000; Hallmann, Zehrer, & Müller, 2015; Karl, Reintinger, & Schmude, 2015; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

It will be argued that image is a major antecedent of destination selection. Image develops the feeling of a destination in the prospective traveller’s mind, which in turn affects the destination selection (Baloglu, 2000). According to Goodrich (1978) as cited in Echtner and Ritchie (1991), destinations with strong, positive images are more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision process. Byon and Zhang (2010, p. 508), in their review of the literature, concluded that “destination image has been repeatedly found to have significant influences on travel-related behaviours, such as destination choice and future travel intentions”.

Some studies have attempted to understand the destination choice process by examining the three main dimensions of destination image: the cognitive, affective, and conative. According to Martín and Bosque (2008), tourists will use image dimensions (cognitive and affective) to form impressions and evaluate destinations in the destination selection process. According to Gartner (1994), the affective image becomes operational during the evaluative stage of the destination selection process. Hong et al. (2006) found that a potential traveller categorises the travel alternatives into similar groups. Further, they found that the affective images of these similar groups and individual constraints are used to make the final decision of destination choice. Smith, Li, Pan, Witte, and Doherty (2015) claimed that affective image appears to be random whereas the cognitive image shows a specific pattern during a particular trip.

Beerli et al. (2007) conducted a study to find the effect of self-congruity

(understood as congruity between tourists' self-concept and the image of a destination) and destination image on destination choice. The study's findings suggest that the greater the agreement between a destination's image and one's self-concept, the greater the tendency for the tourist to visit that place. Furthermore, self-congruity loses this power when an individual has prior experience of a particular destination. The same study found that the greater the tourist's involvement in leisure tourism, the greater its power to predict destination choice. According to Barros, Butler, and Correia (2008), the decision to take a vacation is facilitated by the social and economic profile and the previous experience of the tourist. This same study found that destination attributes also have an effect on destination selection.

Therefore, it is clear that destination choice has been evaluated in the literature under two main approaches: examining the causality of destination image on destination selection (Baloglu, 2000; Beerli et al., 2007), and examining destination selection as a process of decision-making (Gartner, 1994; Hong et al., 2006). Both approaches have paid attention to the effect of associated forces such as social, demographic, economic, and cultural forces.

While this section has demonstrated the destination image is a major factor affecting the destination choice behaviour of travellers, the next section evaluates the conceptual underpinnings of this particular concept.

2.5.2 DEFINING DESTINATION IMAGE

The literature provides an array of conceptualisations and definitions of destination image and, therefore, it is thought impossible to have a commonly accepted definition or conceptualisation about the concept (Hallmann et al., 2015; Pike, 2016b; Singh, 2014; Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014). However, it is important to evaluate some of the key definitions in order to understand the conceptual structures of destination image, and thereby enable the reader to comprehend the possibility of integrating destination image with consumption values.

One of the earliest definitions for destination image was "perceptions held by potential visitors about an area" (Hunt, 1975) as cited in Echtner and Ritchie (1991, p. 7). This definition simply tries to explain how a prospective visitor

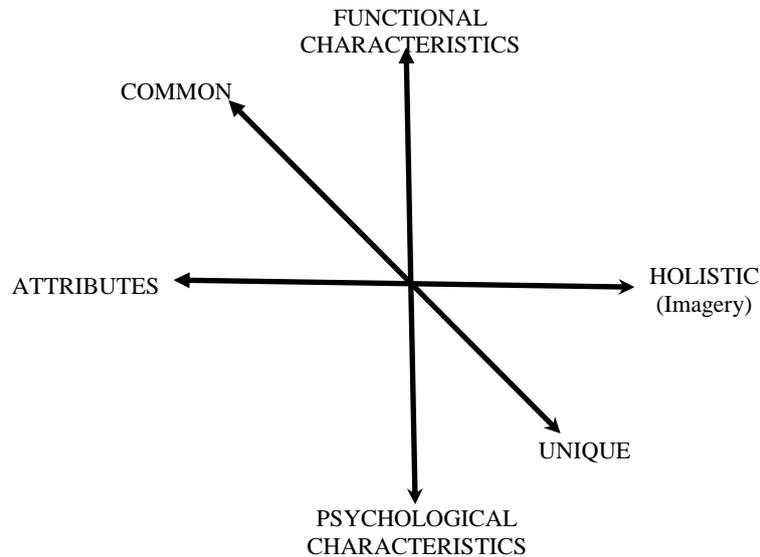
perceives a particular place; however, it does not clearly demarcate the perceptions of aspects or characteristics about the destination. Nevertheless, this definition does provide a starting point for reflection on destination image as a mental construct. This initial concept was extended by Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977) as cited in Jenkins (1999, p. 2), who defined destination image as “The expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual or group might have of a particular place”. Moreover, according to Crompton (1979a, p. 18), destination image is a “... sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination”. The latter two definitions simplified the broad term of perception and identified the destination image as a collection of sub--concepts such as beliefs, ideas and impressions, emotions, knowledge, prejudice, and imagination. This conceptualisation leads to the idea that destination image can be studied on the basis of its sub-conceptions or dimensions.

According to Gartner (1989, p. 16), tourism image is “a complex combination of various products and associated attributes”. This definition differs from those discussed above, as it is taken from the point of view of the destination/product rather than the tourist/traveller. In this scenario, the attributes-based definition of destination image emphasises the importance of attributes in the travellers’ decision-making and marketing activities (Gartner, 1989; Tasci & Gartner, 2007) . As Gartner (1989) further explains, destinations and tourism products are very complex in nature and there can be a lack of clarity over which attribute to measure. Moreover, he examines destination image in terms of the psychological assessment of the destination’s attributes. However, no clear definitions are provided to be enable the integration of psychological assessments of destination attributes in his study.

Given all these definitions of destination image, along with their limitations, Echtner and Ritchie (1991), after a critical analysis of the respective methodologies used in each study, argued that most of these definitions have been limited to the lists of attributes rather than representing a holistic view of destination image. Consequently, Echtner and Ritchie (1991, p. 8) suggest “destination image is defined as not only the perceptions of individual destination

attributes but also the holistic impression made by the destination”. Further, they categorise the concept of destination image under three distinct continua: attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique, as shown in *Figure 2-3*.

Figure 2-3. Three continua of destination image.



Adopted from: (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, p. 6)

In line with the conceptualisation of Echtner and Ritchie (1991), Choi et al. (1999, p. 362) define destination image as “the perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination”. This study also suggests that destination images consist of both functional (tangible) and psychological characteristics (intangible). However, this conceptualisation raises the issue of how to differentiate these functional and psychological aspects if the image is an output of psychological assessment. Tasci, Tamer Cavusgil, and Gartner (2007, p. 200), after critically analysing the conceptualisations of destination image in numerous studies, concluded, “A destination image is an interactive system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, visualizations, and intentions toward a destination”. This definition is distinct from the definitions discussed previously, as it presents an interaction which processes all of the psychological images regarding a destination. Another approach is to view destination image as a visual or mental impression of a destination (Milman & Pizam, 1995; Singh, 2014).

On the basis of this review of destination image definitions, it can be concluded that destination image is a multidimensional concept. What has been demonstrated is that each of the definitions given is based on a particular purpose. In other words, researchers have defined destination image differently, which increases the multidimensionality of the concept. These various attempts to define destination image have led to a range of conceptualisations that have evolved over time. However, all definitions accept that destination image is a mentally constructed phenomenon. Nonetheless, as described above, some definitions identify that destination image can include nonpsychological features. However, it will be argued for this research investigation that destination image is always an output of a psychological assessment of a given destination, an assessment which can be different from person to person even for the same destination.

2.5.3 DESTINATION IMAGE FORMATION PROCESS

As mentioned before, destination image is an output of a series of mental activities. Reynolds (1965) as cited in Echtner and Ritchie (1991, p. 3), described the formation of image “as the development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a flood of information”. According to Golledge and Stimson (1987) as cited in Stern and Krakover (1993, p. 131), the process of image formation is conceptualised in a three-stage model, where “information signals are filtered through perception, then further filtered through the cognitive representation given to these in relation to previous cognitive structures in the brain”. Gunn (1988) as cited in Echtner and Ritchie (1991, p. 3), considered various sources of information available to a tourist and their role in destination image formation, and developed a model comprising seven phases of the travel experience. The phases are:

Phase 1. Accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences

Phase 2. Modification of those images by further information

Phase 3. Decision to take a vacation trip

Phase 4. Travel to the destination

Phase 5. Participation at the destination

Phase 6. Return home

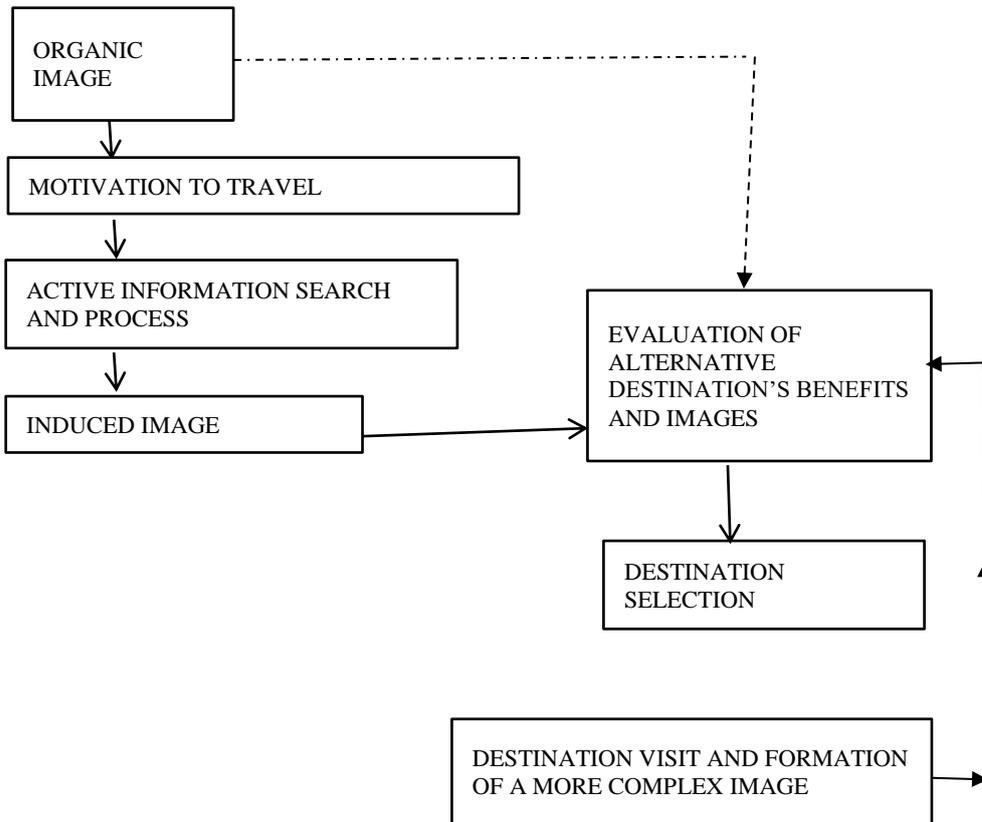
Phase 7. Modification of images based on the vacation experience.

Echtner and Ritchie (1991) claim that the formation of destination image can be identified at phases one, two, and seven of Gunn's 7-step model. According to the study by Stern and Krakover (1993) on the formation of urban image, both information and personal attributes affect the formation of image. Interestingly, these two factors determine the mix of determinants of destination image, while changing the relative impact of those attributes on the emerging image.

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) discuss three forms of destination image as part of the process of the tourist's image formation. These three aspects are: organic image, induced image, and complex image. Organic image can be formed on the basis of prior awareness of a particular destination. This awareness can build up through the information sources with which an individual interacts in his or her daily life. The induced image is formed with the backing of the organic image, based on information found on alternative destinations, and the benefits and images of place as shown by marketers. Eventually, the complex image is formed after actually visiting the selected destination. Fakeye and Crompton (1991, p. 11) suggest a relationship between organic, induced, and complex image and their respective roles in destination selection (*Figure 2-4*).

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) argue that these phases are linked with informative, persuasive, and reminding functions of destination promotion, where informative promotion provides potential tourists with knowledge of the destination and persuasive promotion persuades potential tourists to buy. Promotion also targets actual visitors to encourage repeat visitations and favorable word of mouth recommendations

Figure 2-4. Process of tourist image formation.



Adopted from: (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991, p. 11)

Byon and Zhang (2010) claim that organic image arises from nontourist information (geography books, movie, television reports, or magazine articles) and that the induced image can arise from tourism-specific information (destination brochure or vacation web site). The major difference between organic image and induced image is a matter related to an individual's motivation or intention of travel (Byon & Zhang, 2010). Therefore, it can be argued that organic and induced images are more important in the traveller's destination choice.

In comparing the three phases of image formation described above, Lanquar (1997, p. 124) as cited in Hui (2009, p. 8), divide a destination image held by a tourist into two categories: notional image (before a tour) and factual image (during or after a tour). A notional image is formed indirectly by the influence of organic or vented information sources, whereas a factual image is formed directly from one's personal perceptions. In contrast, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) explain that the variety (amount) and type of information sources and that age and

education level influence the perceptive/cognitive evaluation of a destination. Destination image formation is a consequence of these perceptual/cognitive effects and the socio psychological tourism motivations. The same study finds that the effects of perceptual/cognitive evaluations are much stronger than the effects of travel motivations.

Cognitive, affective, and active components of destination image are another popular approach. “The cognitive or perceptual component refers to beliefs and knowledge about destination attributes” (Prayag, 2012, p. 3). According to Pike and Ryan (2004, p. 333), the “cognition is the sum of what is known about a destination, which may be organic or induced” and describe cognitive image as awareness, knowledge, or beliefs, which may or may not have derived from a previous visit. Martín and Bosque (2008) conclude that both functional/tangible (e.g., landscape, cultural attractions) and psychological/abstract (e.g., hospitality atmosphere) destination attributes are related with cognitive components of destination image, while emotions (e.g., pleasure, excitement) are related to the affective component. Affective appraisals refer to the individual’s feelings towards a destination (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Cognitive and affective images together may lead to the formation of a conative image. Pike and Ryan (2004, p. 334) describe conative image as follows: “Conation may be considered as the likelihood of visiting a destination within a certain time period”; therefore, the conative image can be identified as the resultant behaviour based on cognitive and affective images. Caldwell and Freire (2004) divide destination image (branding) into two categories, the representational and the functional, and link them with cognitive and affective attributes of a destination so that the representational dimension includes affective attributes related to a destination and the functional dimension includes the cognitive attributes (Caldwell & Freire, 2004).

The literature discussed so far describes destination image formation as a psychological concept. As the discussion indicates, destination image formation has been explained differently by using different destination formation steps and different sub-conceptions. The “pull” and “push” factors approach is also often used in the literature regarding destination image formation. According to Dann (1977, p. 186), “pull” factors are those which attract the tourist to a given resort

(e.g., sunshine, sea), and whose value is seen to reside in the object of travel”. “Push” factors, in contrast, refer to the tourist as subject and deal with those factors predisposing him/her to travel (e.g., escape, nostalgia). The same study argues that the “push” factors may temporally act as antecedents to “pull” factors. According to Klenosky (2002), push factors are viewed as relating to the needs and wants (desire for escape, rest and relaxation, adventure, prestige, health and fitness, and social interactions) of the traveller and pull factors are identified in terms of features, attractions, or attributes of the destination:

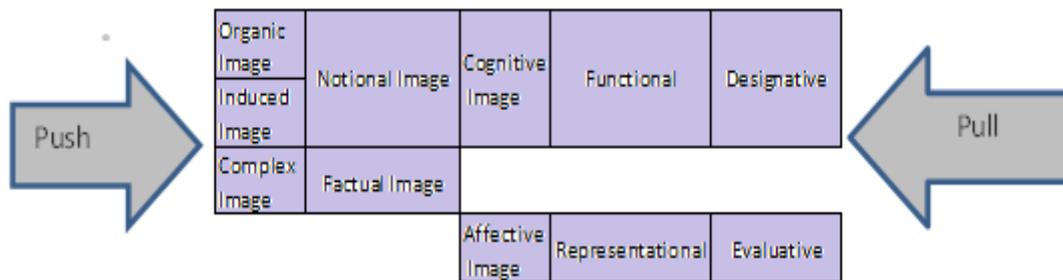
Push factors refer to the specific forces in our lives that lead to the decision to take a vacation (i.e., to travel outside of our normal daily environment), while pull factors refer to those that lead an individual to select one destination over another once the decision to travel has been made. (Klenosky, 2002, p. 385)

Push factors determine “whether to go” and pull factors determine “where to go” (Klenosky, 2002) and, as Uysal and Jurowski (1994, p. 844) point out, “people travel because they are pushed into making this decision by internal forces and pulled by external forces of the destination attributes”.

“Push” and “pull” factors are different from the previous destination image formation concepts described. However, careful analysis of the behaviours of these two sets of factors (push and pull) and the other concepts makes it possible to argue that the pull and push factors energise the image formation and modification process.

Figure 2-5 demonstrates the relationships between destination image formation concepts. As the figure shows, the sub-conceptions of notional image, cognitive image, functional image, designative image, and the combination of organic image and induced image appear to be more or less similar concepts. Moreover, complex image and factual images show similarities in their conceptualisations. Affective image, representational, and evaluative images appeared to be a separate set of sub-conceptualisations which are comparable to the cognitive images, representational image, and evaluative images respectively. Finally, push and pull factors of destination images energise the destination image formation process.

Figure 2-5 Concept relationships of destination image formation.



It can be concluded that destination image is someone’s mental representation about a particular destination or a place. The image formation process is executed with knowledge (information) accumulation, while being reshaped by psychological influences with the moderating effects of sociocultural and demographic factors. The process of destination image formation is, therefore, not a “one-off” motion but, rather, a continuous process through which the image is endlessly being modified. However, it is acknowledged that it is difficult to recognise the continuous image modifications that can take place in someone’s cognisance through empirical measures used in social science research.

This section, so far, has discussed destination image by means of definitions and formation. The main purpose of this review is to examine the structural and conceptual relationships between destination image and the five consumption value dimensions: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value, because this research study seeks to develop a construct that represents the influential properties of destination image on destination decision-making. This construct has been labelled selective image. With this in mind, continuing the discussion on destination image, the next sections evaluate how different studies have measured destination image and the interrelationship of consumption value dimensions and destination image conceptions.

2.5.4 CONSTRUCTS AND MEASURES OF DESTINATION IMAGE

The measurement of destination image has generally used an attribute-based approach. Most of the earliest studies on destination image use a quantitative approach to measure the construct (e.g. Goodrich, 1978; Hunt, 1975; Pearce, 1982; Phelps, 1986; Richardson & Crompton, 1988a). These studies use

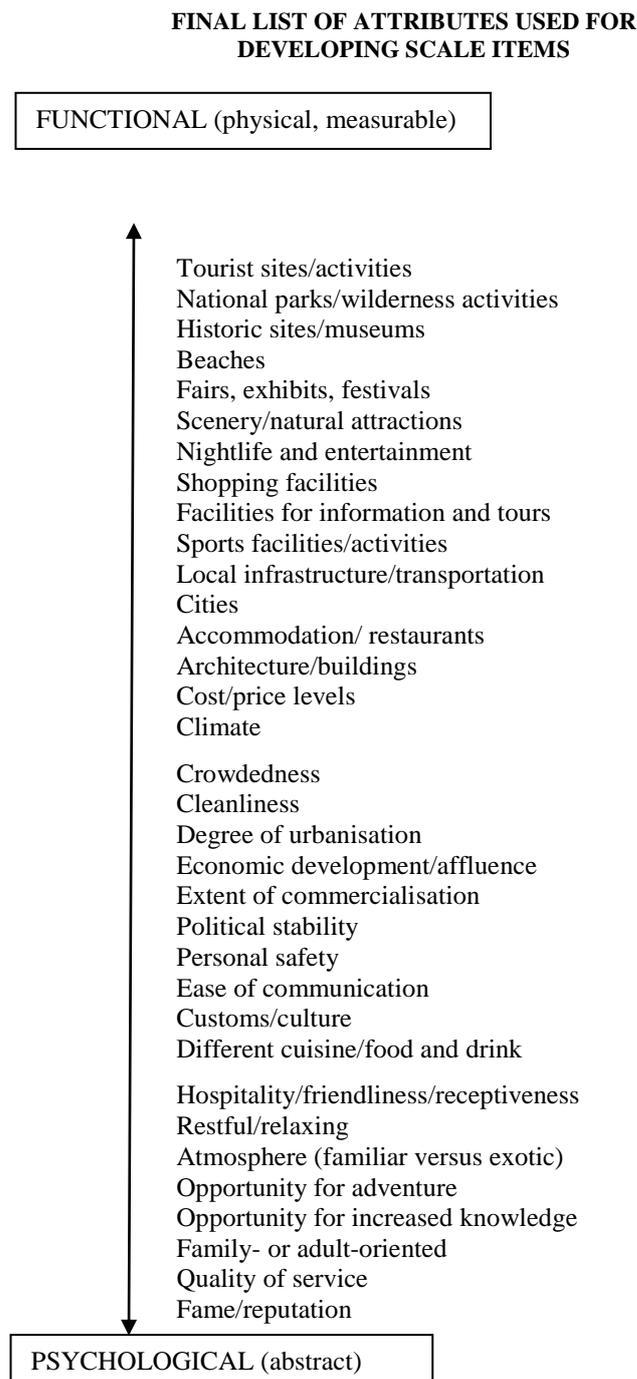
destination attributes (developed on the basis of experts' judgement, general reading, and tourism brochures) ranging from 10 to 32 attributes in structured questionnaires employing various scales such as Likert, check lists, comparative scales, and semantic deferential scales. With the evolution of the concept of destination image, researchers (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993) started to employ unstructured measurements such as open-ended questions in a structured questionnaire and qualitative interviews to measure the destination image. Nonetheless, structured methods to measure destination attributes still dominate destination image measurement (Nghiem-Phú, 2014).

According to Echtner and Ritchie (1991), the operationalisation or measurements of destination image should include both attributes and holistic impressions, with an emphasis on their psychological and functional characteristics. Furthermore, common (for all the destinations) and unique (features that distinguish a particular destination from other destinations) features have been considered as characteristics of a destination in measuring the destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Echtner and Ritchie (1993) propose a mixed method (quantitative and qualitative) approach to measure destination image. They developed some open-ended questions based on past research conducted on destination image and other images (images of other products) and tested these with a panel of experts. Based on the experts' judgements, the questions were then reset and finally pretested using a sample of 30 ($N = 30$) respondents. Echtner and Ritchie (1993, p. 5) then developed three open-ended questions and used them in the first part of the s questionnaire survey. These questions were:

1. What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of XXX as a vacation destination? (functional-holistic component)
2. How would you describe the atmosphere or mood that you would expect to experience while visiting XXX? (psychological-holistic component)
3. Please list any distinctive or unique tourist attractions that you can think of in XXX? (unique component)

These three questions cover the functional, holistic, and psychological aspects of destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

Figure 2-6. Functional-psychological destination image attributes.



Adopted from: (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993)

The next step of the study (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993) was to develop a list of destination image attributes to be used in the structured part of the survey. That list was produced by summarising 360 image statements given by the 12 focus groups that comprised respondents from 10 different countries. The list was finalised based on expert judgements. The attributes used in past studies were also

considered when selecting the final list of destination image attributes. Finally, a list with 35 attributes was produced, with all items arranged along the functional-psychological continuum (*Figure 2-6*).

While Echtner and Ritchie’s two studies (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993) laid a solid foundation for the measurements of destination image, it is also important to investigate how later research has measured destination image in different contexts.

The investigation conducted by Choi et al. (1999) studied Hong Kong’s image as a tourist destination. The importance of their study for destination image is its use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches simultaneously. In the qualitative part, the three questions (as mentioned at the beginning of this section) proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) were used in their original form. For the quantitative component, 25 pre developed 7-point Likert statements were used to measure the functional and psychological attributes (Choi et al., 1999).

Distinctively, this study added three new statements to the list of attributes to cover the unique characteristics of Hong Kong as a tourist destination. These items were ‘shopping is convenient’, ‘a wide variety of products’, and ‘the quality of product is good’. Moreover, Choi et al. (1999) introduced a new way of arranging image attributes under a unique-common and attribute-holistic continua with respect to the functional and psychological aspects of destination image (*Table 2-1*).

Table 2-1. An illustrative example of the three-image continua

	3. Functional	- Psychological
1. <u>Attribute-holistic</u> Attribute	Pleasant weather Good nightlife Skyscrapers	Friendly people Safe place to visit Crowded and stressful
Holistic		
2. <u>Unique-common</u> Unique	Victoria harbour	Return to China in mid-1997
Common	Shopping paradise	Oriental culture

Adopted from: (Choi et al., 1999, p. 362)

Jenkins (1999) creates a list of destination image attributes used in previous studies as an extension of the list prepared by Echtner and Ritchie (1993). This list contained a number of additional attributes such as ‘friends and relatives’, ‘wild

life', 'sophistication', 'interesting, busy/exciting', 'local people', 'small town', 'authenticity', 'language spoken', 'quality of merchandise', 'racial prejudice', 'water activities', 'wide open space', and 'theme parks'. Furthermore, Birgit (2001) used 24 image attributes of destination image and divided them into four dimensions, namely 'sociocultural amenities', 'natural amenities', 'participative recreational activities', and 'climate attribute interrelation'. A study conducted by Hui and Wan (2003) to measure the image of Singapore as a tourist destination categorised image items into a number of factors such as leisure and tourist amenities, shopping and food paradise, local residents and night life, political stability, adventure, weather, local culture, cleanliness, personal safety, and convenience. This same study summarised their results under the attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique aspects of destination image (*Table 2-2*).

Table 2-2. The attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique images of Singapore

	Functional	Psychological
<u>Attribute-Holistic</u> Attribute		
Holistic	Many modern buildings Wide variety of products available Food is varied and exotic Good shopping place Good transport links to other Asian countries Good hotel facilities	Safe place to visit Politically stable country Orderly country Safe place to visit Modern Clean and green
<u>Unique-Common</u> Unique		
Common	Orchard Road Sentosa Hawker centres Good shopping place Good hotel facilities Good transport system	Clean and green Regulated environment Disciplined citizens Modern Diverse culture and people Friendly and courteous people

Adopted from: (Hui & Wan, 2003, p. 311)

Ryan and Ninov (2011) apply five dimensions (authentic/sincere, excitement, competence, sophisticated, and ruggedness) of brand personality suggested by Aaker (1997) as the dimensions of destination image to model image formation and modification processes.

This section has highlighted only how some studies have measured destination

image attributes. However, it can be concluded that the majority of studies on destination image have used a similar set of attributes, with some modifications relevant to the research context concerned.

2.5.5 INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN DESTINATION IMAGE AND CONSUMPTION VALUE DIMENSIONS

This literature review has evaluated the various conceptualisations and measurements of destination image. The destination image research studies discussed in the previous sections demonstrate the use of destination image as a construct in tourism behavioural studies. Since this research study examines the role of values in destination decision-making, this section evaluates the conceptual and measurement issues of destination image while assessing the possible links between the dimensions of destination image and the consumption values.

The literature review has demonstrated that destination image is a multidimensional concept (Nghiem-Phú, 2014). Different authors (e.g. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Crompton, 1979a; Embacher & Buttle, 1989; Gartner, 1994; Hong et al., 2006; Martín & Bosque, 2008; Nghiem-Phú, 2014; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011) have named and interpreted these dimensions differently. This factor has increased the complexity of the concept of destination image and has gradually decreased the conceptual uniformity between studies. These different sub-conceptions of destination image differ from each other, not only in how they conceptualise destination image, but also on how they expect destination image to be formed. For example, organic image, induced image, and complex image are some of the sub-concepts of destination image and these three sub-concepts reflect a chronological formation of destination image in one's mind regarding a particular destination. This stance differs from the three continua proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1991) who describe destination image as a static concept. Moreover, some authors have stated that particular dimensions of destination image affect the destination selection behaviour of prospective visitors differently (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Given these premises drawn from the destination image literature, it will be argued that since consumption value theory describes five dimensions of choice behaviour, it is logical to envisage that examining the

links between value dimensions and sub-concepts of destination image will enable the incorporation of consumption values in destination decision-making studies via destination image. Moreover, it will be argued that the five value dimensions: functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional, by definition, reflect linkages with the various sub concepts of destination image. For example, the functional-psychological continuum of destination image proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1993) can be reflected by the functional value and emotional/social values. In the study of Choi et al. (1999), ‘shopping is convenient’, ‘everything is different’, and ‘friendly and helpful people’ can be linked with functional, epistemic, and social values respectively. Thus, the integration of the two concepts, destination image and consumption values, will facilitate studying the impact of values on destination decision-making. Moreover, since this study emphasises the influencing properties of destination image on destination decision-making, it is sufficient to link consumption values with destination image subconcepts. In particular, destination image sub conceptions which cannot be linked with any of the five consumption values will be disregarded when forming the proposed selective image construct on the premise that they are irrelevant to a selection process.

Another interrelationship between destination image and consumption values relates to the psychological and non-psychological aspects of destination image. It is commonly accepted that destination image is a psychological concept (Gartner, 1989; Singh, 2014) . According to Huang, Li, and Cai (2010, p. 255), “Image is a mental structure that integrates the elements, impressions, and values people project onto a specific place”. However, some authors (e.g. Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993) suggest that destination image can have both psychological and non-psychological aspects. One example is the three-continuum distribution of destination image proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1991), as previously discussed. Moreover, Russell and Pratt (1980) suggest that the affective and cognitive components of destination image should be evaluated separately to better understand the impact of the concept. This is an important issue to consider; that is, can destination image be divided into feeling and knowing components or rather is destination image a set of hierarchical sub constructs? This research investigation will argue that destination image is an outcome of the psychological

assessment of various external factors. In other words, prospective travellers compare the external factors associated with a destination with internal expectations or requirements (values) and develop a series of perceptions about a particular destination. Consequently, in this context, while there cannot be non-psychological components (dimensions) within destination image, there can be non-psychological factors (external factors) which influence the formation of destination image. To conclude, destination image is a psychological construct, which is an output of a psychological process where various external factors and internal factors are the inputs to the process. Particularly, when it comes to destination decision-making, the prescribed evaluation is performed to compare destination options. Therefore, consumption values can become assessment criteria with which to evaluate the external factors pertaining to each destination option.

As discussed, the conceptualisation of destination image has led to various sub-conceptions and definitions. However, operationalisation (measures) of destination image do not clearly link with the way that destination image has been conceptualised. Most studies have used an attributes-based approach to measure destination image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993), but they fail to reconcile their own conceptualisations (Gartner, 1989). Further, the arrangement of the image attributes by Choi et al. (1999) under 'unique-common' and 'attribute-holistic' with respect to the 'functional and psychological' aspects to cover the holistic component of destination image was a piecemeal approach. It will be argued that this arrangement does not reflect a significant difference from the conventional attributes-based approach because, on the one hand, the items used were more or less similar to attributes used previously. However, on the other hand, the classification of items under three distinct continuums (unique-common, attribute-holistic, and functional-psychological) has not explained why and how these classifications are important for marketers and researchers. This mismatch between conceptualisation and operationalisation of destination image leads the researcher to think about an alternative way to identify the dimensions and measurements of destination image.

The conceptual evaluation carried out thus far ascertains that destination image is

a complicated, multidimensional, and psychological concept with a good explanatory power in terms of tourists' behaviour.

As mentioned earlier in the current section, many of the subconceptions of destination image reflect a link with the consumption values. Ramkissoon et al. (2009), after a systematic review of destination image studies and related issues, suggest that researchers might take a values-based approach to conceptualise and measure destination image. They also examine the consumption values of travellers derived from a destination and the usefulness of those values in destination image studies. They argue that "destination image is a function of five consumption values: functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional, and these in turn influence travel behaviour" (Ramkissoon et al., 2009, p. 161).

Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) develop a concept known as 'beneficial image' in relation to 'destination image':

Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefit or consumption values including functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional benefits of a destination. These perceptions/impressions in turn lead to the decision to visit a country as a vacation destination. (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000, p. 38)

This study further argues that the selection of a particular destination by a potential visitor can be clearly explained by beneficial image rather than destination image. There aforementioned five consumption values were identified as dimensions of beneficial image.

Shanka and Phau (2008) posit that different dimensions of consumption value theory can be applied as a reliable tool in behavioural research in tourism. They arrange the attributes of destination image under consumption value theory. All items used in their survey were categorised under the consumption value dimensions: the functional, social emotional and epistemic, and conditional. Shanka and Phau (2008) confirm that consumption values are an important factor in perceived beneficial image and destination choice intention. Zins (2010) also uses this five-dimension array of consumption value to measure the image of Thailand. Carlsen and Boksberger (2015) apply this approach to assess the values of wine tourists. Moreover, Phau et al. (2014) again confirm that beneficial image is a function of five consumption values: i.e., functional, social, emotional,

epistemic, and conditional values.

Given the lengthy discussion about destination image and its links to consumption value theory, the research proposes that the influential properties of destination image on destination selection form a separate construct, which can then be termed 'selective image'. In other words, the act of identifying possible destination options (and the final selection) in order to make choice sets in the process of destination decision-making will be called selective image.

Therefore, selective image can be defined as 'a derivative of destination image comprised of five dimensions, namely functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional, which can be comprehensively used to explain the destination selection behaviour of tourists. The five value dimensions of consumption value theory can be used to derive measurements of selective image. Based on this, it will be argued that consumption values act as dimensions of selective image and selective image can be considered to be a function of the five consumption values.

The proposition that the consumption values can be used to evaluate destination decision-making with a new variable known as selective image is one of the key contributions of this research study. This argument is based on the followings. First, destination image cannot be overlooked in destination selection studies; second, no sound and substantial efforts have been made in previous research to develop a derivative of destination image which is suitable to use in destination decision-making and selection studies. Rather, the destination selection studies have used the common conceptualisation of destination image. Third, even though destination image demonstrates many sub-concepts in the literature, the measurements are not clearly linked with those sub-concepts, and conventional measures of destination image have been used irrespective of the sub-concept concerned. Fourth, consumption value theory has been developed especially to examine the selection behaviour of consumers and this particular theory shows links between the sub-concepts of destination image.

Fifth, the consumption value theory consists of five dimensions which can be manageable in a study, and, in turn, the destination image is considered to be a function of these five dimensions (Ramkissoon et al., 2009). Sixth, tourism studies need to be an interdisciplinary rather than a multidisciplinary field in order

to evolve as a separate discipline resting on its own doctrine (Jennings, 2010). This researcher will argue that a PhD study in tourism contributes to the development of the field of tourism research as a discipline separate from other disciplines like economics, marketing etc. Simply applying consumption value theory directly in the destination decision-making of travellers does not add new conceptualisation to tourism as a separate discipline. Therefore, this research proposes a new variable called selective image which is expected to reflect only the specific structures of destination image affecting tourist destination selection.

Based on the lengthy literature review carried out thus far, the research propositions are presented below:

Proposition 1: That selective image can be operationalised based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) proposed in consumption value theory

Proposition 2: That the five value dimensions of selective image jointly contribute to the choice sets and the final destination selection along the destination decision-making process

Proposition 3: That the five value dimensions of selective image contribute differently to the choice sets and to the final destination selection in the destination decision-making process.

This section of the literature review has discussed the operationalisation of selective image using consumption values. The next section will evaluate how travel constraints can impact destination decision-making. Both conceptual frameworks used to shape the qualitative and quantitative data collection incorporate travel constraints as an influential factor on destination selection. The qualitative data conceptual framework (figure 2.7, page 56) considers constraints as a separate stage of decision-making process at which some of the choice sets (dream set, unavailable set, and available set) are made. While the final conceptual framework (figure 2.11, page 81) considers travel constraints as a predecessor of travel motivations and selective image.

2.6 TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

The constraints affecting travel behaviour have been widely discussed (e.g. Chen, Hua, & Wang, 2013; Dale, Ritchie, & Keating, 2012; Hong et al., 2006; Lu, Fang, & Tseng, 2016; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). The leisure constraint model originally proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) and extended by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) made an important contribution to travel constraints studies. Crawford and Godbey (1987) propose a travel constraints model consisting of three dimensional constraints: intrapersonal, structural, and interpersonal constraints. Intrapersonal barriers include an individual's psychological states and attributes, and, moreover, these particular types of constraints interact with leisure preferences rather than mediating between preferences and participation. Stress, depression, anxiety, religiosity, kin and non-kin reference group attitudes, prior socialisation into specific leisure activities, and perceived self-skill are some examples for intrapersonal barriers (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Interpersonal barriers, on the other hand, are the outcomes of interaction between individuals' characteristics. These types of constraints are, sometimes, the results of spousal interactions (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Structural barriers represent the constraints that mediate the leisure preferences and the participations. Family life cycle stage, family financial resources, season, climate, etc. are examples of structural barriers (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). However, the extended model of leisure travel constraints presents a hierarchical model in which these three types of constraints are integrated and it, therefore, can be applied to a range of studies of leisure travel constraints (Crawford et al., 1991).

In particular, travel constraints have an effect on the formation of destination image as well as on the destination decision-making process (Botha et al., 1999; Chen, Chen, & Okumus, 2013; Park, Hsieh, & Lee, 2016; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Constraints influence not only the decision on whether to participate or not, but also on the choice of the travel destination and the destination selection process (Crawford et al., 1991; Hong et al., 2006).

Constraints are expected to play a considerable role in constructing the various types of choice sets in the destination decision-making process. Um and

Crompton (1992) posit that the role of inhibitors (constraints) activates in the later stages of the destination decision-making process, i.e., selecting an alternative in the evoked set as the vacation destination. Decrop (2010) argues that constraints lead the prospective travellers to categorise the evoked set as part of the available, unavailable, or dream set. Some authors argue travel constraints are more influential than destination image on destination selection. "... for a city-break vacation, the image of the destination seems of lesser importance than the cost and convenience of travel, and the requirement to vacation within tight time constraints" (Kenneth & Alain, 2011, p. 107). Conversely, some studies argue that strong destination image can lessen the impact of travel constraints on destination selection. "Destination image mediates between travel constraints and intention to visit, and thereby the negative impact of perceived constraints on intention to visit could be alleviated through the mediating effect of destination image" (P. J. Chen et al., 2013, p. 201). This particular quote suggests that one needs to accept travel constraints as a factor that has an array of effects on the process of destination selection. Li, Zhang, Mao, and Deng (2011) identify some travel constraints such as language, travel distance, obtaining a travel document, cost, and time with regard to the Chinese outbound tourist market.

Proposition 4: That the travel related constraints affect the destination decision-making process

This chapter has explored the previous literature on tourist behaviour studies and destination decision-making theories, destination image, links between destination image and destination selection, destination image and its attributes, and how destination image has been measured. It has been argued that consumption value theory can be operationalised and that consumer value dimensions can reflect destination image. Moreover, it has been established that travel constraints influence destination image, selection, and travel behaviours. The next section will propose the conceptual framework for the first phase of the data collection.

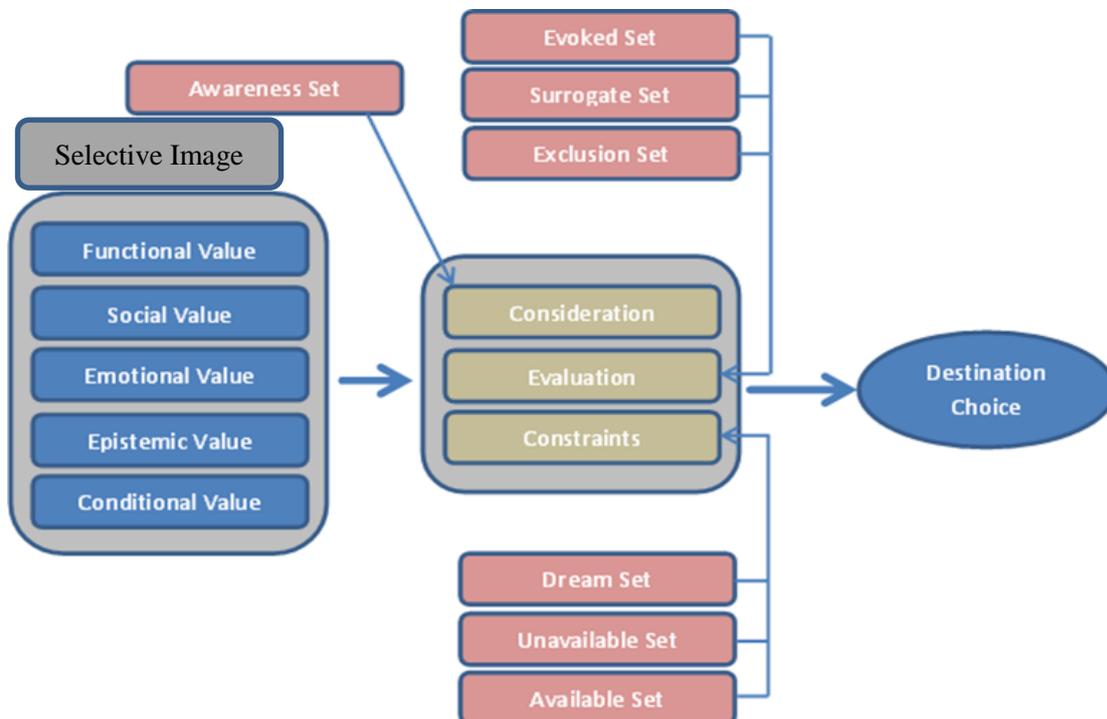
2.7 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

The literature review has identified that the choice set approach is simple and empirically practical and has advantages over other models such as process

approach and microeconomic models.

Informed by Decrop (2010), the destination selection process is recognised as a four-stage process for the qualitative data collection. The stages are recognised as the consideration stage, evaluation stage, constraints stage in which constraints influence the selection, and the final destination choice. Each of the stages, with the exception of the final destination choice stage, is expected to produce various choice sets, as shown in *Figure 2-7*. These choice sets and stages of the destination decision-making process are also framed in the model (Decrop, 2010). The influencing properties of destination image in the destination decision-making process, which will be identified and labelled as selective image, are depicted in the model along with the five dimensions derived from consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b). In particular, the qualitative data collection focuses on how the five dimensions of selective image affect the formation of choice sets corresponding to each stage of the decision-making process.

Figure 2-7. Conceptual framework for the qualitative study.



The basic purpose of this conceptual framework was to guide the qualitative study of the research, particularly the qualitative study data collection, to answer the

following four research propositions.

Proposition 1: Selective image can be operationalised based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) proposed in consumption value theory

Proposition 2: The five value dimensions of selective image jointly contribute to the choice sets and the final destination selection along the destination decision-making process

Proposition 3: The five value dimensions of selective image contribute differently to the choice sets and to the final destination selection in the destination decision-making process

Proposition 4: Travel-related constraints affect the destination decision-making process

2.8 LITERATURE REVIEW PHASE II

As a consequence of the qualitative study findings, which will be presented in chapter 4, the literature review was extended to capture the predecessors of selective image. The qualitative data helped to reveal the five value dimensions' effect on shortlisting the destination options within the destination decision-making process.

The findings of the qualitative data analysis raised concepts (themes) that went beyond the concepts of travel constraints, destination image, and consumption values as discussed in the literature review thus far. These concepts were found to be antecedents of consumption values; demonstrating that there could be various levels of values in the decision-makers' value system. In particular, the effect of human values on destination selection was deemed to be important and should be tested along with the effect of travel motivations.

Therefore, this second phase of the literature review explores and evaluates consumers' value systems. This section of the literature review led to further development of the conceptual framework, which in its final form incorporates travel constraints, human values, travel motivations, and consumption values (as dimensions of selective image) as the main constructs. This section of the

literature review links the various levels of values discussed in the general consumer behaviour literature with value-related concepts found in the tourism literature in order to arrive at the final conceptual framework of the research.

Phase II of the literature review explores the antecedents of consumption values described in the consumer behaviour literature. It first discusses the concepts that are antecedents of consumption values to derive a concept relationship comprised of frequently used terminologies namely human values, motivations, and consumption values in the consumer behavioural research (figure 2.9, page 69). These concepts are then linked with concepts developed in the tourism literature to arrive at a value hierarchy (figure 2.9, page 69) which can explain a hierarchy of levels of values of tourists: human values, travel motivations, selective image. The contribution of developing a value hierarchy for tourist behaviour is that it can help to develop measurements for travel behaviour concepts and a tourism value hierarchy, addressing a gap in the literature.

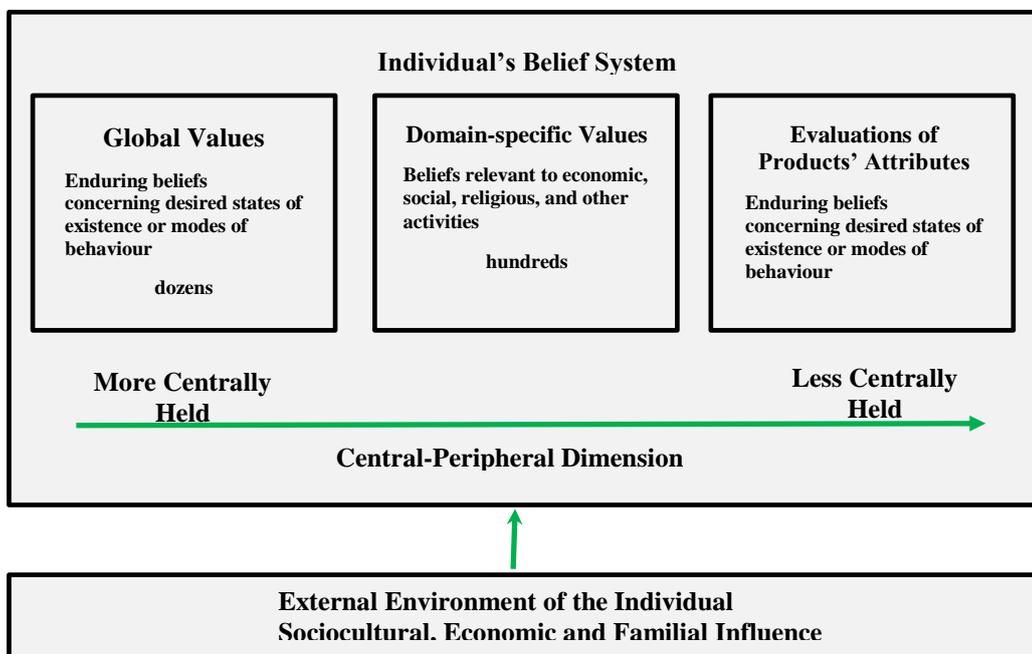
2.9 MODEL OF CONSUMERS' VALUE SYSTEM

Travel motivations are one of the new concepts that emerged from the findings of the qualitative data. There is extensive literature on travel motivations and destination selection (e.g. Josiam, Smeaton, & Clements, 1999; Nyaupane, Paris, & Teye, 2011; Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Zhang, 2009).

Having understood that there can be additional levels of consumer-related values that can impact on destination decision-making, some theories were evaluated for their suitability and congruence with the current study, while assessing the insights gained by qualitative study. The model of consumer values is a well-accepted and well-utilised model to explain consumer values for three different levels of values: global values, domain specific values, and evaluative beliefs (Vinson et al., 1977). Lessig (1975) proposed that consumer values order into different levels that range from more centrally held highly stable core human values to brand-oriented values. Furthermore, Lessig (1975) identifies three levels of beliefs systems and placed them between a person's goals and behaviour. The three belief systems are values, attitude toward product attributes, and brand attitude preference.

The model introduced by Vinson et al. (1977) provides a clear relationship between the subgroups (levels) of consumer values. Following a comprehensive review of the human values and consumer behaviour literature, Vinson et al. (1977, p. 45) propose that “values may be investigated at three mutually dependent and at least partially consistent levels of abstraction”. The model introduced by these authors (Vinson et al., 1977) is notable in the context of value and customer product evaluation as it explores not only how values drive brand choice but also why consumers evaluate product attributes differently and prefer one product or service to another. To answer the two questions, ‘why do consumers evaluate product attributes differently?’ and ‘how do changing national values influence consumption patterns?’ the authors were motivated to construct a model that incorporated values. In order to derive answers to these questions, a framework was developed integrating three levels of values, namely deep-rooted global values, generalised consumption values, and beliefs relating to product attributes. The authors further explain that these values are hierarchical and can be referred to as global or generalised personal values, domain-specific values, and evaluations of product attributes (*Figure 2-8*).

Figure 2-8. Organisation of the consumers’ value-attitude system



Adopted from: (Vinson et al., 1977, p. 46)

According to *Figure 2-8*, the value system of consumers is based upon three interrelated value types known as global values, domain-specific values, and evaluations and product attributes known as evaluative beliefs. Further, it illustrates that the formation and the development of these value systems are influenced by sociocultural, economic, and familial environment factors.

Global values form the core of an individual's value system and consist of closely held personal values that are highly influential in important evaluations and choice.

Domain-specific values intermediate the closely held global values and less closely held evaluative beliefs about product attributes. Moreover, domain-specific values reflect that people acquire values with respect to a specific situation which is being considered. Further, the evaluative beliefs are less abstract and consist of descriptive and evaluative beliefs about a product/place etc.

It is important to note the range of value terminologies that are used interchangeably in the literature. In the main, terms such as personal values, global values, and human values are used interchangeably to refer to the global values described in the Vinson's (1977) model. This research uses the term human values to refer to these kinds of values.

This particular model (Vinson et al., 1977) provides good insights into customer choice behaviour. It describes people's core values and the manner in which those values create an object-oriented value regarding a particular product or service. In other words, this model distinguishes clearly the core personal values and values derived towards a particular object, which in consumer behaviour is a product or a service.

The considerable interest generated by this seminal model is supported by 854 research citations on Google Scholar at 24th November 2016. Many studies have applied the concept of consumer values to a range of consumer behavioural research studies (Chrysohoidis & Krystallis, 2005; Lai, 1995) and in tourism marketing studies (Li & Cai, 2012; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Pitts & Woodside, 1986; van Veen & Verhallen, 1986; Weeden, 2008). It has been difficult to find applications that theoretically extend this model, but evidence of its use in

empirical research is extensive in the literature.

Dembkowski and Hanmer - Lloyd (1994) extend this model to explain the environmental concerns of consumers and name it the 'environmental value-attitude-system model'. van Veen and Verhallen (1986) use this model as a base for their study of vacation market segmentation; however, only two levels of values (domain-specific and evaluative beliefs) are reflected in their study. Building upon van Veen and Verhallen (1986) work, Fred van Raaij and Verhallen (1994) study the link between human values, domain-specific values, and product-evaluation values in a market segmentation study. This research obviously shows the theoretical relationships of three levels of values introduced by Vinson et al. (1977). However, Fred van Raaij and Verhallen (1994) do not cite the original work of Vinson et al. (1977).

This section has identified a consumer value-attitude model as a potential model to describe tourist-related value with regard to destination selection, which is the main aim of the current research. The next section will look at the three levels of values: human values, domain-specific values, and evaluative beliefs in consumer choice behaviour.

2.10 ASSESSING THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUNDS OF THREE LEVELS OF VALUES IN THE CONTEXT OF CONSUMER CHOICE BEHAVIOUR

The three levels of the consumers' value system are evaluated separately in this section. The conceptual structures of human values, domain-specific values, and evaluative beliefs are examined. Concepts studied in consumer behavioural studies such as motivations, perceived values, attitudes, and consumption values will also be examined to establish links between the three levels of values discussed in the consumers' value system.

2.10.1 HUMAN VALUES

Philosophers, since the ancient Greeks, have recognised the importance of human values, and social scientists have realised the significance of values for about 50 years. Rokeach (1973, p. 3) makes five assumptions about the nature of human values; these are that: the total number of values that a person possesses is

relatively small; all men everywhere possess the same values to a different degree; values are organised into value systems; the antecedents of human values can be traced to culture, society and its institutions and personality; and, the consequences of human values will be manifested in virtually all phenomena that social scientists might consider worth investigating and understanding.

Human values is a concept developed in the field of axiology, a branch of philosophy (Morris, 1956). Rokeach (1973) argues that human values, as a concept, should be clearly distinguished from other similar concepts like attitudes and social norms. In the process of trying to operationalise human values, two groups of human values were identified; i.e., the person “has a value” but also that an object “has a value”. Further, he emphasises the importance of human values in the context of social research, and by doing so, highlights the usefulness of studying a “person’s value” rather than studying the “value of objects”. This conclusion implies that values reflected with respect to an object are also an outcome of a person’s value.

The following offer some definitions of value:

“... what is preferable (or “desirable”) regardless of whether it is in fact preferred or conceived as preferable” (Morris, 1956, p. 11).

“A *value* is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5).

“A value refers to a single belief that transcends any particular object, in contrast to an attitude, which refers to beliefs regarding a specific object or situation” (Kamakura & Novak, 1992, p. 119).

“A value is a belief that some condition is preferable to its opposite” (Solomon, 2013, p. 138).

Schwartz (1994) conclude that the literature agrees on five features of the conceptual definition of values. A value is a 1) belief, 2) pertaining to desirable end states or modes of conduct, that 3) transcends specific situations, 4) guides selection or evaluation of behaviour, people, and events, and 5) is ordered by

importance relative to other values to form a system of value priorities.

These definitions generally talk about preferences. People tend to evaluate any condition or object based on their level of preferences; therefore, it can be argued that any kind of person's behaviour is driven by his or her underlying values and as a result, human values have been a very popular concept when evaluating people's behaviour. Vinson et al. (1977, p. 45) state that "values, then, are responsible for the selection and maintenance of the ends or goals toward which human beings strive and, at the same time, regulate the methods and manner in which this striving takes place".

The concept of value has been termed global values, human values, personal values, etc. by different authors and, sometimes, these terms have been used interchangeably by the same author (Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Rokeach, 1973; Vinson et al., 1977). Nonetheless, as mentioned above, this section of the thesis will focus on the human values which are held most centrally in an individual's value system and are more abstract than other levels of values and those values that are not tied to any object or situation. The term 'human values' will be used to refer to these specific types of values in this thesis. Human values are held in the core of a person's belief system (Honkanen, Verplanken, & Olsen, 2006; Lessig, 1975) and do not react to any specific object or idea; rather they establish standards relating to a mode of conduct, goals, and evaluations (Lessig, 1975).

Human values discussed here correspond to those discussed by Rokeach (1973) and which are widely accepted as a major contributor to the concept of human values and to behavioural research. Rokeach (1973) suggests that human values exist in a hierarchical and interconnected nature. Categorising human values as instrumental values or terminal values has been a popular approach (Rescher, 1969). As Rokeach (1979, p. 48) states, terminal values known as end values "refer to beliefs or conceptions about ultimate goals or desirable end state of existence that are worth striving for", whereas instrumental values, known as 'means values', "refer to beliefs or conceptions about desirable modes or behaviour that are instrumental to attainment of desirable end states". Rescher (1969) explains that certain values can be identified as systematically subordinate to others and that these are instrumental values or means values. Moreover,

according to Rescher (1969), other types of values are not viewed as subordinate and are self-sufficient; thus, the author identifies these values as intrinsic values or end values.

In trying to operationalise values, the survey conducted by Rokeach (1973) comprised of 36 items of human values categorised into ‘instrumental values’ and ‘terminal values’ so that each value category was represented by 18 items. The survey encouraged respondents to rank each value item in two lists of values according to the importance of those values in their lives. The results of this survey demonstrated that human values are structured in a hierarchical and interconnected manner aligned to instrumental and terminal values. Moreover, it can then be posited that humans differ from one another not only on the basis of the possession of terminal or instrumental values, but also on how they prioritise those values hierarchically (Rokeach, 1979). These value priorities further enable humans to choose between alternative goals and actions and help to resolve conflicts (Rokeach, 1979). Therefore, it will be argued that human values are considered as a central concept or variable that can be used to study people’s choice behaviours

The value study undertaken in 20 countries conducted by Schwartz (1992), analysed 11 personal value categories including self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, spirituality, benevolence, and universalism. Moreover, 10 values, with the exception of spirituality, were confirmed as human core values through this empirical study of 20 countries.

Besides these two studies (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992), the list of values (LOV) introduced by Kahle and Kennedy (1989) and Kahle, Beatty, and Homer (1986) to operationalise the global level personal values is notable. The LOV approach comprises nine values, namely self-respect, sense of accomplishment, being well respected, security, excitement, warm relationship with others, sense of belonging, fun and enjoyment in life, and self-fulfilment (Kahle & Kennedy, 1989). This latter approach is considered more efficient and practical for assessing consumers’ human values. “The LOV will not always be the optimal segmentation instrument, but it will often help one to understand the nature of the

consumers one wants to reach” (Kahle & Kennedy, 1989, p. 11).

2.10.2 DOMAIN-SPECIFIC VALUES

According to Vinson et al. (1977), domain-specific values bridge the gap between the closely held human values and less closely held evaluative beliefs. These kinds of values are beliefs formed towards a given context such as an economic, religious, and social context (Vinson et al., 1977, p. 423). They are more specific than human values but are more abstract than attitudes (Honkanen et al., 2006).

Nevertheless, Vinson et al. (1977) suggest that while consumer values are arrayed in three different levels, it is difficult to demarcate these three levels of values in subsequent studies that research consumer values and behaviours. Researchers have used different terms in different contexts without distinguishing between the different levels of values. This problem is associated more with domain-specific values. However, careful investigation of the literature reveals that this domain level of values is distinguished as a value category held between human values and more object-oriented consumption values. “Value is a more dynamic concept than attitude, having a more immediate link to motivation” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 19).

“Human beings, however, hold more than one value, and these values carry different levels of relevance in determining the motivations of each individual person” (Kamakura & Novak, 1992, p. 129). Researchers have claimed that human values affect motivations in consumers (Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Schwartz, 1994). “As end-states which give expression to human needs, we believe that values provide the goals towards which behaviour is motivated” (Gutman & Vinson, 1979, p. 335). According to Verplanken and Holland (2002, p. 436), “... centrality of a particular value (i.e., the degree to which an individual has incorporated this value as part of the self) varies between individuals” and the central values create the motivation to act.

Based on the above discussion, the concept of motivation can be identified as a value category informed by the personal values of an individual. “Human values have long been suggested as means for understanding consumers’ underlying motivations” (Kamakura & Novak, 1992, p. 129). In this context, it is argued that

the domain-specific values are a set of motivations that a consumer creates regarding a particular intended consumption event (Fred van Raaij & Verhallen, 1994). Therefore, this research proposes that the consumer motivations towards a particular context (product/service) should be used as a reflective means for identifying domain-specific values.

2.10.3 EVALUATIVE BELIEFS

Evaluative beliefs are important since “Once motivations that drive each segment are well understood, it becomes easier to make predictions regarding the pattern of beliefs, attitudes, and behaviour expected from each segment” (Kamakura & Novak, 1992, p. 130). According to Vinson et al. (1977), evaluative beliefs are the third level of values that are less abstract and less centrally held compared to the other two levels of values described in previous sections.

2.10.3.1 LINK BETWEEN EVALUATIVE BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES

The term attitude is commonly used; this section will examine this term in the context of evaluative beliefs.

Attitude links beliefs and groups of beliefs to evaluations. Attitudes are abstract generalizations about psychological adaption to life, as are values (we shall discuss this momentarily), but values are even more abstract, to the point of not having any clear reference or exact object of attention. (Kahle, 1983, p. 45)

“An attitude differs from a value in that an attitude refers to an organization of several beliefs around a specific object or situations” (Rokeach, 1968a, 1968b as cited by Rokeach, 1973, p. 18). “... a value is a single belief, an attitude refers to an organization of several beliefs that are all focused on a given object or situation” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 18). “... values occupy a more central position than attitudes within one’s personality makeup and cognitive system, and they are therefore determinants of attitudes as well as behaviour” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 18).

Attitudes and evaluative beliefs are similar, although attitudes, while broader, are shaped by beliefs or values. According to Verplanken and Holland (2002), attitudes are fixed or influenced by values. The link between the value-attitude relationship is also supported by the study of Fishbein (1963) which posits the attitude towards any object as a function of beliefs possessed about the object and

evaluative aspects of these objects. “The expectations and attitudes towards the object are determined by both the tourist’s felt needs and value system” (Gnoth, 1997, p. 299). According to Rokeach (1973), attitudes are distinct from human values because attitude refers to specific mental or physical object whereas human values do not. Sheth and Talarzyk (1972) and Aaker (1997) suggest that attitude toward a product/brand is determined by motives (value importance) of a particular consumer toward a particular product.

Therefore, it is argued that attitudes are generated towards a particular object, abstraction, or concept and refer to the evaluative beliefs described in the model introduced by Vinson et al. (1977). General attitudes developed towards a particular object make reference to evaluative beliefs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). “Compared to values, attitudes are more directed towards specific situations, objects, or behaviour, and more specific than domain specific values” (Honkanen et al., 2006). “An attitude represents a person’s general feeling of favourableness or unfavourableness toward some stimulus object” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 216). Moreover, attitude can be derived on the basis of the person’s direct or indirect experience with an object (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1994).

Attitudes are considered as drivers for a particular behaviour or behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). A number of studies have proven that there is a relationship between attitudes and behaviours (Honkanen et al., 2006; Kamakura & Novak, 1992, p. 119; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1994). Next section evaluates the theoretical links between perceived values and evaluative beliefs.

2.10.3.2 LINK BETWEEN EVALUATIVE BELIEFS AND PERCEIVED VALUES

A significant number of research studies suggest that values affect consumption behaviours (Donthu & Cherian, 1994; Jayawardhena, 2004; Vinson et al., 1977). The concept of perceived values is also widely used in consumer behaviour research studies. Through its application and interpretation, the concept perceived value relates with evaluative beliefs of three values of consumers’ value systems. Past research studies have defined ‘perceived value’ in different ways. At the initial stage, the concept was constructed by two components: benefits received

(economic, social, and relationship), and sacrifices made (price, time, effort, risk, and convenience). According to Bolton and Drew (1991), perceived value may be conceptualised as the result of the customer's trade-off between quality perception and monetary and nonmonetary sacrifices. Zeithaml (1988, p. 14) defines perceived value as the "consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given". This view was the definition used to conceptualise perceived value in later studies (Gordon & Terrence, 2000). In contrast to the definition of Zeithaml (1988), the broad definition given by Gordon and Terrence (2000, p. 394) conceptualises perceived value as "the results or benefits customers receive in relation to total costs (which include the price paid plus other costs associated with the purchase)". As Gordon and Terrence (2000) explain, in simple terms, value is the difference between perceived benefits and costs.

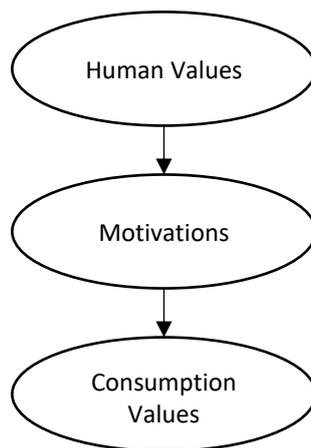
2.10.3.3 LINK BETWEEN EVALUATIVE BELIEFS AND CONSUMPTION VALUES

Customer/consumption values theories developed to understand consumer behaviours especially choice behaviour are related to (or even are part of) evaluative beliefs and attitudes. The reason is both evaluative beliefs and attitudes are formed with respect to particular objects and they are less abstract in nature. The consumer values expressed in the various consumer behaviour theories refer to similar values. As described in section 2.4.1, Holbrook (1994) presents a theory about the nature of consumption values. His argument is that "all products as performing services that potentially provide value-creating consumption experiences" (Holbrook, 1994, p. 21). Due to this link between consumption values and evaluative beliefs, the five value dimensions described in consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a) also represent the evaluative beliefs in the consumers' value system (Vinson et al., 1977). This association is important to the current doctoral research since selective image is proposed as a collection of consumption values.

2.10.3.4 LINKING CONCEPTS AND DERIVING THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE CONSTRUCTS

Previous sections discussed three levels of values that an individual can hold with reference to consumer related behaviours based on the model introduced by Vinson et al. (1977). According to this line of discussion, human values influence motivations with respect to a particular context and, in turn, motivations affect the consumption values with reference to a specific object, product, or service. Subsequently, consumption values affect the behaviour of a particular individual. “Human values guide object evaluation and attitude formation by motivating individuals to seek out objects that will satisfy or fulfil human values” (Allen et al., 2002, p. 114).

Figure 2-9. Theoretical relationship for value-motivation-consumption values.



The output of the discussion on levels of consumer values so far, is presented in *Figure 2-9*. This figure depicts the three levels of consumer values using the terminologies frequently used in the consumer behaviour literature. The next section of this literature review chapter will examine concepts from the tourism literature, which correspondingly generate a hierarchy representing the value system of tourists. A tourist value hierarchy will facilitate the identification of value related concepts found in the tourism literature.

2.11 TOWARDS A VALUE HIERARCHY FOR TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR

In this section, further theoretical underpinnings, along with empirical research on values, will be explored to inform each construct for subsequent testing. The

literature will be reviewed with special attention being paid to travel- and tourism-related studies. The following sections discuss human values and travel motivations as constructs and how they will inform the quantitative data conceptual framework.

2.11.1 HUMAN VALUES AS A CONSTRUCT

“Values provide an important means of assessing what people find important in their everyday life” (Kahle, Rose, & Shoham, 2000, p. 1). Human values are held in multiple forms and a combination of several values act together in any given time (Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Rokeach, 1973). The literature provides evidence about the relationships between human values and lower levels of value constructs such as motivations, attitudes, and consumption values (Allen et al., 2002; Grunert & Juhl, 1995; Jayawardhena, 2004; Maio & Olson, 1994). As described above, human values are stable and closely held by the individual. These values maintain stability in consumer-related decisions (Lessig, 1975). Gutman and Vinson (1979) propose that values set goals toward which behaviour is motivated, and Madrigal and Kahle (1994) posit that values serve as central determinants of attitudes and behaviour. However, Verplanken and Holland (2002) declare that values do not always affect behaviours and the centrality of values creates a necessary element for value-directed behaviour without directly involving the matters concerned.

Some researchers suggest that human values, along with other constructs such as product attributes, benefits, consumer preferences, demographics, and needs, can be used to segment a particular market (Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Zeithaml, 1988). Value-based research is common in tourism research. Tourist consumer behaviour research studies is one of the main areas (e.g. Lin & Wang, 2012; Moliner, Sánchez, Rodríguez, & Callarisa, 2007b; Polo Peña, Jamilena, et al., 2012; Szczechowicz, 2012). Some research provides evidence about the successful use of human values in market segmentation in the tourism industry (Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Muller, 1991).

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) conducted a study to segment the value system of people visiting Scandinavia using the LOV scale. Further, that study divides tourists into four homogeneous value segments. Boote (1981) successfully adopts

personal values as a construct to differentiate diners at two different restaurant chains.

Muller (1991) posits that personal values influence the choice of a vacation destination and that there are links between these values that are reflected in the attributes by which people evaluate travel alternatives. Crotts and Van Rekom (1999) apply human values as a way to identify underlying motivations for visiting fine art museums. Watkins and Gnoth (2011) successfully investigate the link between human values and destination choice behaviour of Japanese visitors to New Zealand adopting means-end chain theory.

2.11.2 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS AS A CONSTRUCT

This section evaluates the concept of travel motivation for its possible links with consumer motivations, which reflects the domain-specific values of the Vinson's (1977) model as shown in *Figure 2.8*, page 59. The section that follows conducts a detailed literature review on the topics of travel motivations and tourism behaviour, definition and formation of travel motivations, components of travel motivations, and impact of travel motivations on destination selection.

2.11.2.1 TRAVEL MOTIVATION AS A KEY DRIVER OF TOURIST BEHAVIOUR

Motivation is widely accepted as a predictor of human behaviour toward a particular phenomenon (McClelland, 1987; Stacey & DeMartino, 1965). Therefore, motivation has been used as one of the main constructs in the context of consumer behaviour research (e.g. Bayton, 1958; Bill, 2006; Freestone & McGoldrick, 2008; Giovannini, Xu, & Thomas, 2015; Lundblad & Davies, 2016; Ono, Nakamura, Okuno, & Sumikawa, 2012; Rana & Brett, 2011; Wang & Sun, 2011). The particular area of travel and tourism research also provides evidence for the use of motivation as a determinant variable for travel behaviour (e.g. Chiang, Wang, Lee, & Chen, 2015; Chon, 1989; Crompton, 1979b; Gilbert & Cooper, 1991; Pesonen, 2015; Wang & Walker, 2010).

“A perusal of the tourism literature indicates that motivation theories contribute to answering a fundamental question, why people travel?” (Hu, Wu, Bai, & Jang, 2009, p. 55). Travel motivation is considered as the starting point of travel

behaviour, including the travel destination selection process (Crompton, 1979b; Mansfeld, 1992a). “Travel motivation has been pointed out to be the stage that triggers the whole decision process and channels it accordingly” (Mansfeld, 1992a, p. 414). Furthermore, travel motivation is identified as one of the main constructs of tourist behaviour research that identifies what makes people take vacations (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Todd, 1999). Researchers, considering travel motivation as a construct in understanding travel behaviour, assume that potential travellers do articulate their travel needs (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983). Therefore, travel motivation, even though there are some other factors that affect travel behaviour (Crompton, 1979b), cannot be overlooked in a study of travellers’ destination selection behaviour, and is a viable construct that can help to answer the question ‘what makes tourists travel?’ (Dann, 1977; Hu et al., 2009)

2.11.2.2 DEFINING TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

“Motivation is purely a psychological concept, not a sociological one” (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 257). “Motivation to travel (or participation in a touristic activity) is that set of needs and attitudes which predisposes a person to act in a specific touristic goal-directed way” (Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979, p. 195). Based on a comprehensive review of a number of studies and theories on travel motivation, Dann (1981) formulated a definition for travel motivation as “A meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such a decision” (p. 205). According to Iso-Ahola (1982, p. 258) “motives are aroused when individuals think of certain activities they could, should, or might do in future, activities (e.g., playing blackjack in Las Vegas or lying on the beach in the Bahamas) that are potentially satisfaction-producing”.

2.11.2.3 FORMATION OF AND DRIVERS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

The formation of travel motivations has been widely discussed in the literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Hu et al., 2009; Plangmarn & Mujtaba, 2012). Needs are usually identified as a starting point of motivation (Stacey & DeMartino, 1965). Some researchers argue that travel motivations are formed by values (Beerli & Martín, 2004), cultural influences, and demographics of a person (Li & Cai, 2012; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Plangmarn & Mujtaba, 2012). Therefore, it is

accepted that there is a link between travel motivations and underlying values that generate the particular travel motivation (Thyne, 2001).

Furthermore, the approaches of push and pull factors are another way of explaining travel motivations. Push and pull factors were discussed in section 2.5.3 regarding destination image formation. In this section, push and pull approaches are discussed in the context of the formation of travel motivations. Push factors are considered as socio psychological motives and pull factors are considered as motives aroused by the destination rather than emerging from the traveller him/herself (Crompton, 1979b). In this regard, the push factors are considered to be generated within the person (e.g., culture, demographics, values, beliefs) and the pull factors are based on outside stimuli (e.g., destination attributes). In particular, push motives initiate a need for travel and pull factors indicate push needs can be achieved at a given place (Prayag & Ryan, 2011). However, push factors are generally considered as the main determinant for why a tourist really wants to go on a vacation. Mansfeld (1992a) postulates that the tourist is first motivated to go on a vacation by push factors like boredom with daily life, health problems, and need for relaxation. According to Dann (1981, p. 206) “potential tourists may also take into consideration various ‘pull’ factors which correspond adequately to their motivational ‘push’ however, a ‘pull’ factor is not a necessary component of the desire to travel”. Moreover, as Dann (1977) points out, push factors can be easily used to study the travel motivations.

2.11.2.4 COMPONENTS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

The previous section discussed the formation of travel motivations; this section evaluates the structure and the sub-conceptions of the travel motivations as a construct to study destination decision-making. Dann (1977) suggests that there are two basic factors in terms of travel motives: anomie and ego enhancement. Anomie is described as the need to get away from day-to-day life and ego enhancement as the need for a social recognition as a traveller. Iso-Ahola (1982) suggests that the satisfaction individuals expect through a travel activity is associated with two motivational forces: approach and avoidance, where approach is referred to as the feeling of mastery and competence (seeking), and avoidance is referred to as leaving (escaping) the typical environment. This two-force theory is

further divided into four subcomponents to form four forces that provoke travel motivations. They are: interpersonal diversion (escape from co-workers, family members, relatives, friends, and neighbours); personal competence (seeking of feelings of mastery, learning about other cultures, rest and relaxation, being recharged and getting renewed, ego enhancement, and prestige); escape from routine and problems (personal troubles, problems, difficulties, and failures); and, positive interpersonal development (seeking varied and increased social interaction, interacting with friendly natives or members of the travel group, interacting with old friends in a new place or with new friends in an old place). Kim and Prideaux (2005) summarise the travel motivation factors described in the related literature as 'escape from everyday environment', 'novelty', 'cultural experience', 'social interaction', and 'prestige'.

Some empirical studies on or associated with travel motivations have operationalised travel motivations using a number of components or items. Ryan and Mo (2002) use factor analysis to derive reasons for Chinese visitors to travel to New Zealand, i.e., relaxation, adventure and excitement, escape from daily life, and experiencing a new place. In their cross-cultural study, Kim and Prideaux (2005) identify motivational factors driving five different groups of nationals to travel to Korea, and suggest five different groups of factors as travel motivations, i.e., to enjoy various tourist resources, to experience culture and history, to escape from everyday routine, to socialise, and to gain social status. Among those five factors, the first two can be considered as external stimuli and the latter three as internal stimuli travel motivations. Based on their study of Taiwanese seniors, Hu et al. (2009) study points out five travel motivation factors such as novelty seeking, self-esteem, ego enhancement, socialisation, and rest and relaxation. The importance of these five factors is that these are internally oriented (push) rather than externally oriented (pull). Lo and Lee (2011) discover five motivational factors for Hong Kong volunteer tourists, i.e., cultural immersion and interactions with local people; desire to give back and show love and concern; shared experience with family members and an educational opportunity for children; religious involvement; and, escape from daily life. Jang (2002b) summarises the push and pull factors of travel motivations of British outbound tourists to different destinations and explores six push factors (novel experience, escape, knowledge

seeking, fun and excitement, rest and relaxation, and family/friend togetherness) and five pull factors (natural and historical environment, cleanliness and safety, easy to access and economical deal, outdoor activities, sunny and exotic atmosphere)

Two main conclusions can be drawn from the careful analysis of the factors discovered and used in the study of travel motivations. First, push factors always demonstrate consistency among studies and pull motivations vary highly with respect to various destinations. However, the choice to use either one of these two approaches (push or pull) or a combination of both approaches in studies of travel motivations and behaviours depends completely on the focus of research. The current study is concerned only about the push factors of travel motivations to directly answer the question of ‘why do people travel?’, as it explores underlying motives for a particular travel activity, that, in turn, influence destination decision-making.

2.11.2.5 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS AND DESTINATION SELECTION

The literature provides empirical evidence to support the relationship between travel motivations and destination choice (Jang, 2002a; Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Te Lang, & O’Leary, 1996). “A broad review of the related literature shows that travel motivations and destination choice are highly correlated” (Guillet, Lee, Law, & Leung, 2011, p. 557). Kinley, Forney, and Kim (2012) claim that desired shopping centre attributes are determined by the travel motivations of shopping travellers. Jang (2002b) discover that travel motivations of British outbound visitors are directly linked with the destination choice and these motivational factors do vary among various destinations they have chosen to travel to. Crompton and Ankomah (1993) and Crompton (1992) posit that travel motives affect the process of destination selection (setting various types of choice sets) of prospective travellers.

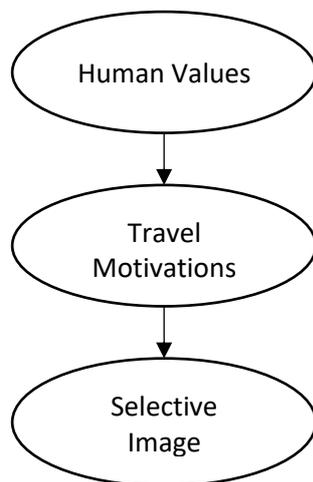
Each of the destinations appeals to specific motives to attract travellers. In other words, travellers holding similar motivations select more or less similar destinations (e.g., backpacking, medical). This conclusion is confirmed by exploring various travel motivations for various types of travel destinations and modes of travel, i.e., backpackers (Paris & Teye, 2010; Reichel & Fuchs, 2009),

medical tourists (Singh, 2013), and wine tourism (McCutcheon, Bruwer, & Li, 2009).

Destination image is considered as an intermediary or intervening variable between travel motivations and destination selection. Travel motivations are considered as the drivers (push factors) or components (pull factors) of destination image (Mohammad & Som, 2010; Sancho Esper & Álvarez Rateike, 2010; Van der Merwe, Slabbert, & Saayman, 2011).

This doctoral research will argue that travel motivations act as drivers of selective image. The concept of selective image (derived from destination image) was discussed in section 2.4.3 of this chapter.

Figure 2-10 Tourism Values Hierarchy.



Human values and travel motivations were discussed in this section as two levels of values that influence tourism behaviour. Human values act as drivers of travel motivations and travel motivations act as drivers of consumption values. As discussed in section 2.5.5 consumption values dimensions are captured in *selective image*. The tourism value hierarchy supported by this literature review is presented in *Figure 2-10*.

Given the relationships between human values, travel motivations, travel constraints, and selective image the subsequent set of research propositions are presented below.

Proposition 4: That human values has an effect on the travel constraints of a prospective traveller

Proposition 5: That human values has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller

Proposition 6: That human values has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller

Proposition 7: That travel constraints has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller

Proposition 8: Travel constraints has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller

Proposition 9: Travel motivations has an effect on a prospective traveller's selective image.

2.12 DEMOGRAPHICS AND TRIP CHARACTERISTICS IN DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING

Demographics generally play an important part in behavioural research studies (Venkatesh & Morris, 2000), thus demographics analysis be can be incorporated into this behavioural research study

Demographics are considered to be main determinants of consumer behaviour as well as tourist behaviours (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, Sinkovics, & Bohlen, 2003; Yacout & Hefny, 2015). Value-based approaches are also popular in behavioural studies (Allen et al., 2002; Maio & Olson, 1994; Polo Peña, Jamilena, et al., 2012; Tan, 2011; Vincent & Selvarani, 2013). Some researchers argue for values as an alternative for demographic-based consumer studies in examining consumer behaviour, since values can predict consumers' behaviour better than demographics (De Pelsmacker, Driesen, & Rayp, 2005; Doran, 2009; Kennedy, Best, & Kahle, 1988). However, value-based behavioural research studies often do not disregard the demographics (Laroche, Bergeron, & Barbaro-Forleo, 2001; McCarty & Shrum, 1993; Wu, Cai, & Liu, 2011). Laroche et al. (2001) and Lea and Worsley (2005) declare that both demographics and values are good predictors of the purchasing behaviours of those who buy green and organic food

products. A study on television viewing demonstrated that both values and demographics play a role in explaining television viewers choices (McCarty & Shrum, 1993). Conversely, some other studies claim that the values as more powerful proctors of behaviours than demographics are (Henrique & Matos, 2015; Worsley & Lea, 2008; Lingfei Wu et al., 2011).

This research study will employ visitors' demographics as a predictor of their travel behaviours, and mainly in terms of trip characteristics such as travel companions, length of trip, domestic vs. foreign trip, type of accommodation, mode of transportation etc. The main reason for examining demographics as the predictors of the trip characteristics of visitors was to demonstrate that demographics might predict the behaviours of tourists to a certain extent, which, in turn, helps with the initial segmentation of the market. In particular, one can identify some behaviours of travellers based on their demographics variables in a broader sense. For example, selection of the type of accommodation can be evaluated based on gender and can divide the market into two segments only. A value-based approach can study each of these two market segments in a deeper manner. Where destination decision-making is concerned, it has been shown that demographics can be a predictor of the type of trip in a broader sense (Cannon & Ford, 2002; Hsu & Kang, 2007; Yoo, McKercher, & Mena, 2004). The following section will evaluate the association between traveller demographics and their behaviours. To incorporate relationships between demographics and trip characteristics in the current research design, it is useful to review how these relationships have been studied in the past research.

In many instances, the sociodemographic background of the visitor has influenced destination image. Zhang, Qu, and Tang (2004) find a relationship exists between a majority of the demographic factors (gender, age, marital status, education, and income level) of respondents and some of the dimensions of destination image and traveller behaviour. Age is considered as a significant predicting factor in behavioural research. Many studies have revealed differences between age groups of visitors with regard to destination selection and travel behaviour (e.g. Birgit, 2001; Bjork & Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2011; Hui & Wan, 2003; Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2011; Kurgun, 2010; Lee, Huang, & Chen, 2010; Lee & Gross, 2011;

Ross, 1993; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Zhang et al., 2004; Zins, 2010). The review of the literature also found that differences exist between males and females regarding travel behaviours (e.g. Birgit, 2001; Lee et al., 2010; Lee & Gross, 2011; Ross, 1993; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Zhang et al., 2004; Zins, 2010). Besides age and gender, some other sociodemographic factors have been proven to correlate with travel characteristics; e.g., level of education (Hui & Wan, 2003; Kurgun, 2010; Lee et al., 2010; Lee & Gross, 2011; Ross, 1993; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Zhang et al., 2004); countries/state of origin or usual residence (e.g. Birgit, 2001; Hui & Wan, 2003; Shanka & Phau, 2008); culture (Hui, 2009); income level (e.g. Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2011; Lee et al., 2010; Lee & Gross, 2011; Zhang et al., 2004); and, marital status (e.g. Shanka & Phau, 2008).

The trip characteristics of visitors have also been studied in tourism behavioural research (Cai, Feng, & Breiter, 2004; Weaver, Weber, & McCleary, 2007). Past studies provide evidence for integrating trip characteristics such as accommodation (Cai et al., 2004); foreign vs. local (Pearce & Schott, 2011); length of stay (Cai et al., 2004); trip planning time (Schul & Crompton, 1983); travel companions (Cai et al., 2004); first time vs. repeat visit (Barros et al., 2008; Hong, Lee, Lee, & Jang, 2009; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002); and, travel information (Barros et al., 2008; Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Teichmann, 2011) in tourism behavioural research.

The association between demographics and trip characteristics has also been examined in the literature. Hsu and Kang (2007) segment travellers visiting Hong Kong using demographic factors like age and income and find that those socio-demographics determine trip characteristics such as length of stay and travel companions. Yoo et al. (2004) test cross-cultural differences of visitors to Hong Kong comparing demographic factors such as age, gender, level of education, and income with trip characteristics such as mode of travel, trip duration, travel party size and find that there are significant associations between demographics and trip features. Moreover, Cannon and Ford (2002) posit that the travellers' demographics can determine their spending patterns during the trip, while Alegre and Pou (2006) find that the length of stay of trip is also determined by the traveller's demographics. Sung, Morrison, Hong, and O'Leary (2001) also claim

that demographic factors can have an influence on the type of intended trip.

Given the literature reviews on traveller demographics and trip characteristics, it can thus be concluded that the demographic factors and trip characteristics are frequently incorporated in travel behavioural research. More importantly, as described above, some studies have demonstrated that the trip characteristics are dependent on the demographic factors of the respective traveller. Based on this idea, this research study formulated the next proposition:

Proposition 10: That demographic factors of the traveller determine the characteristics of the trip.

2.13 RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS AND THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

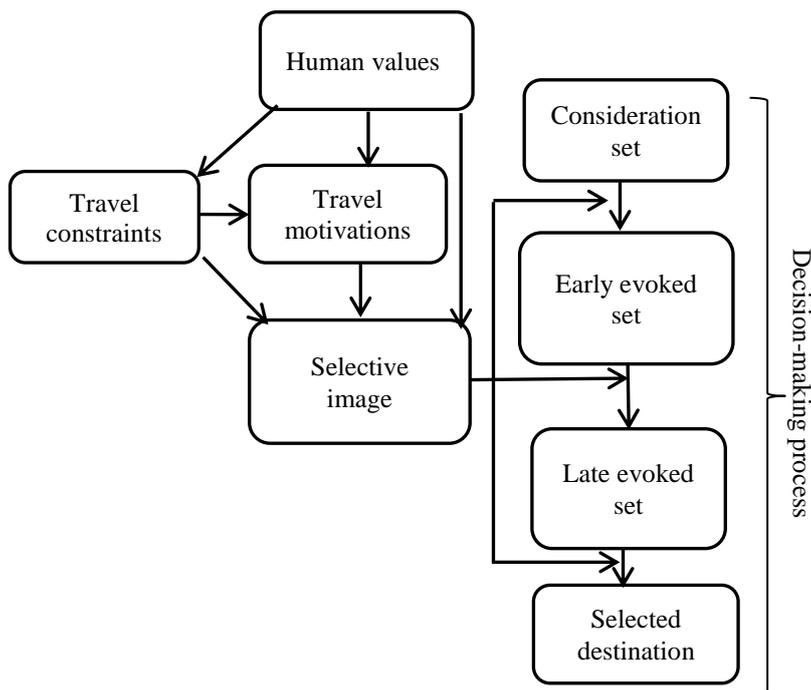
The final conceptual framework (*Figure 2.11*) extends the qualitative study conceptual framework by incorporating new concepts, such as consumers' value systems, travel motivations, and human values. On the other hand, the latter conceptual framework has also been simplified through the excluding of various choice sets (awareness set, evoked set, surrogate set, exclusion set, dream set, unavailable set, available set) which corresponded to the three stages (consideration stage, evaluation stage, and constraints activation stage) of the decision-making process. The final conceptual framework, therefore, focuses mainly on how a prospective visitor makes three choices (early evoked set, late evoked set, and final selection) within the destination decision-making process, and how the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of selective image influence these choices.

This conceptual framework consists of four main theories and concepts, destination decision-making, consumption value theory, destination image, and consumers' value hierarchy, drawn from both the consumer behaviour and tourism literature. It represents consumer and travel behaviour concepts, addressing a gap in the literature.

Destination decision-making theories have helped to understand the process of destination selection whereas consumption value theory has helped explain the choice behaviour of consumers. Through the integration of these two theories, the

selection of destinations along the decision-making process (making of choice sets) can be better explained. The tourism literature has conceptually acknowledged that destination decision making is a process (Um & Crompton, 1990) but has only ever empirically tested destination decision making as from the perspective of a selection event. In addressing this research gap this PhD thesis is making a further contribution to tourism research

Figure 2-11. Research conceptual framework.



The conceptual integration of consumption value theory and destination image generated a new variable, that has been labelled *selective image* and represents the qualities of both the destination image and consumption values. The contribution of *selective image* to the field, is that it behaves as a function of consumption values but reflects the qualities of destination image, which is a key concept in travel behaviour research. Therefore, the integration of destination image with consumption values facilitates conceptualisation and operationalisation of consumption values in destination decision-making research. The consumers' value hierarchy helps to streamline value related concepts discussed in tourism research as precursors to *selective image*.

The complexity of tourist behaviour does make tourism destination marketing

multi-faceted. Models of tourism behaviour can facilitate management of this complexity. The conceptual framework of this study, which integrates destination decision-making, consumption value theory, destination image, and consumers' value hierarchy, provides an insight to the complexity of tourists' destination decision-making. The practical application of this model however, is supported by empirical testing of this thesis.

The conceptual framework describes both the destination decision-making process and the effects of internal (psychological) forces on the destination decision-making process, addressing another gap in the literature.

Final Research Propositions

This study has been an iterative research process with the qualitative data findings leading to further development and a refinement of the conceptual model. This process has contributed to the exploration of additional concepts with regard to the values and destination selection. Consequently, some of the propositions for the qualitative research study were revised and new propositions were added. These propositions both guide the quantitative study and provide direction for the mixed methods data analysis whereby both the qualitative and quantitative data will be analysed and discussed together and presented in chapter 7.

The final research propositions to address the are:

Proposition 1: The selective image can be operationalised based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) proposed in consumption value theory.

Proposition 2: The five value dimensions of selective image jointly contribute to the choice sets and the final destination selection along the destination decision-making process.

Proposition 3: The five value dimensions of selective image contribute differently to the choice sets and to the final destination selection in the destination decision-making process.

Proposition 4: Human values has an effect on the travel constraints of a

prospective traveller.

Proposition 5: Human values has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 6: Human values has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 7: Travel constraints has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 8: Travel constraints has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 9: Travel motivations has an effect on a prospective traveller's selective image.

Proposition 10: Demographic factors of the traveller determine the characteristics of the trip.

Proposition 11: Indian travellers visiting Sri Lanka can be profiled based on five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of selective image.

2.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This PhD research investigation seeks to understand how tourists select a particular destination by examining how the behaviour of five consumption values: the functional; the social; the emotional; the epistemic and the conditional and vary across the three stages (consideration, evaluation, and selection) in the destination selection decision making process. The literature review chapter of this doctoral study comprised two phases. The first section evaluated the destination decision-making literature and the selection behaviours of consumers. It examined the applicability of integrating consumption value theory and destination image by reviewing the general consumer behaviour theories and their specific application to the field of tourism studies. A conceptual framework that informed the qualitative data collection was developed. As a consequence of the qualitative data findings, it was decided that the role of values in the destination decision-making process was needed. Thus, phase II of this literature review

chapter investigated the three levels of consumer values and linked these three levels of values with frequently studied concepts in the tourism motivation and travel constraints literature to arrive at the final conceptual framework that addressed the research gaps and shaped the quantitative data collection.

The next chapter presents the research philosophy underpinning the research design of this research investigation, the qualitative and quantitative data collection and data analysis methods and the research context for this study.

CHAPTER 3.

RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY, METHODOLOGY, AND DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the methodological and philosophical issues of the research, the qualitative research design, data collection methods and data analysis techniques. Various research paradigms that underpin the philosophical nature of the research are evaluated. Postpositivism is the major research paradigm that informs this investigation. Constructivism is examined with respect to the qualitative component of the research. Pragmatism is discussed in order to evaluate the philosophical debates arguing against the mixing of methods, since a mixed methods approach has been used in this investigation. Furthermore, the merits of the mixed methods research approach are discussed along with the ways in which this approach informs the research design. An overview of the research process for the quantitative and qualitative data is also presented. The next sections describe the qualitative research design, data collection and analysis. The final section of this chapter presents the research context, being the Indian travel market and the role of this market for Shri Lanka as a tourist destination.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

All research is underpinned by a philosophical view. Tourism research, therefore, also needs to choose a philosophical stance corresponding to the context being evaluated (Jennings, 2010). Tourism research can be both multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary (Botterill, 2001; Coles, Hall, & Duval, 2006; Jafari & Aaser, 1988; Jennings, 2010; Joppe, 2012; Tribe, 2009); consequently, its research methodologies and philosophies have also been borrowed from various social science disciplines such as economics, geography, sociology, social psychology, social anthropology, marketing, and history (Jafari & Ritchie, 1981; Jennings, 2010). Jennings (2010) identified theoretical paradigms that can inform tourism research, for example, positivism and postpositivism, interpretive social science

approach, critical theory, participatory paradigms, pragmatism, and critical realism.

Analysing these research paradigms to better understand the philosophical underpinnings of the current research is important in that the analysis helps to identify which research paradigm(s) will best inform this investigation.

The term paradigm is borrowed from the history of science; it guides scientists to answer questions like ‘what should be studied?’ ‘how should research be undertaken?’ and ‘how should results be interpreted?’ (Bryman, 2012). The research paradigm or philosophical stance has been defined and interpreted in different ways by different authors (Guba, 1990). Generally, a paradigm is “a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). Thus, a research paradigm guides a research or disciplinary inquiry. In social sciences inquiries, a paradigm explains the way of examining the social phenomena (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Greene (2007, p. 15) refers to a paradigm as “an integrated set of assumptions about the nature of the social world, about the character of the knowledge we can have about the social world, and about what is important to know”. These explanations and definitions demonstrate that a paradigm is a set of guidelines grounded on one’s beliefs/assumptions on how to perform various types of actions in an inquiry about a social phenomenon. These actions include: what is to be investigated; how the study may be done; how results are to be interpreted, etc. Guba (1990) summarised all these beliefs and actions as answers in response to three different questions:

- (1). Ontological: What is the nature of the “knowable”? Or, what is the nature of “reality”?
- (2). Epistemological: What is the nature of the relationship between the knower (the inquirer) and the known (or knowable)?
- (3). Methodological: How should the inquirer go about finding out knowledge?

Consequently, paradigms are identified as “Basic Beliefs Systems Based on Ontological, Epistemological, and Methodological Assumptions” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). Furthermore, each research paradigm has its own

ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. Consequently, a particular paradigm guides the researcher through these three key questions. The next section explains the postpositivism paradigm as this will be the main philosophical stance of the current research.

3.2.1 POSTPOSITIVISM

The worldview of postpositivism in social science research methodologies encompasses the paradigm of positivism in a social context (Creswell, 2009) and can be considered as a modified version of positivism (Guba, 1990). It emerged to overcome the limitations of the positivist paradigm in social science enquiry (Clark, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 2005).

Guba (1990) summarised the ontological, epistemological, and methodological stances of postpositivism as follows:

Ontology: Critical realist—reality exists but can never be fully apprehended. It is driven by natural laws that can be only incompletely understood.

Epistemology: Modified objectivist—objectivity remains a regulatory ideal, but it can only be approximated, with special emphasis placed on external guardians such as the critical tradition and the critical community.

Methodology: Modified experimental/manipulative—emphasize critical multiplism. Redress imbalances by doing inquiry in more natural settings, using more qualitative methods, depending more on grounded theory, and reintroducing discovery into the inquiry process. (p. 23)

For Guba (1990), the ontological stance of postpositivism still believes in realism; however, there is an inability to fully uncover that reality due to human frailties (imperfect sensory and intellective mechanisms). The epistemological stance recognises the limitations of assuming that an inquirer can undertake the investigation in a totally rational and detached way devoid of the “human” element and, therefore, objectivity is recognised as a “regulatory ideal” that cannot be achieved in an absolute sense, but rather can be ‘reasonably close’ (Guba, 1990). Moreover, postpositivism leads to multiple constructed realities since the different inquirers can uncover each reality differently, and, epistemologically, the researcher can act as a change agent and influence the outcome of the inquiry (Borland, 1990). As far as the generalisation of the

outcomes is concerned, postpositivists do not expect generalisation as in the positivistic paradigm; rather, they are concerned about the transferability of the outcome produced in one context to another context (but not to all contexts as the positivists claim it should) (Borland, 1990). In contrast to the above, the postpositivist believes the cause-effect relationship exists when interpreting the data (Creswell, 2009). Nevertheless, postpositivism still holds to (as positivism does) the ‘reductionistic’ approach which reduces ideas and concepts into small sets called variables that comprise research questions, propositions, and hypotheses (Creswell, 2009).

As far as its methods are concerned, postpositivism allows the use of both quantitative and qualitative techniques. “The post-positivist tenets are currently shared by both qualitatively and quantitatively oriented researchers because they better reflect common understanding regarding both the ‘nature of reality’ and the conduct of social and behavioural research...” (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008). Quantitative methods are believed to be key to the postpositivistic researcher (Creswell, 2009), which is the case of this research investigation. Qualitative methods, inductive data analysis, emergent design (whereby the research design is yet to emerge, but will, as a consequence of the interaction between the researcher and the context rather than preplanning), human instrument (the involvement of human factor can effect on the research process and the outcomes), and purposive sampling are all utilised in this research and are methodological features that are relevant to the postpositivist paradigm (Borland, 1990). Mertens (2005) outlined the main categories (steps) of a postpositivist research study, namely a research problem, question, methods (participants, instruments, and procedures), results, and conclusion.

Postpositivism, as a paradigm, has been extensively used in social science research (Willis, 2007) including tourism studies (Goodson & Phillimore, 2004). Among the tourism studies grounded on postpositivism philosophy, destination image and selection behavioural studies are notable (e.g. Hong et al., 2006; Josiam et al., 1999; Nyaupane et al., 2011; Prayag, 2009; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). The research design section (3.4) of this chapter will further elaborate on the applications of postpositivism in destination selection studies.

Early tourism research used positivistic and postpositivistic approaches in the main (Decrop, 1999a). The current research also holds a postpositivistic stance, since it uses both a quantitative and qualitative approach in its inquiry. In addition, the quantitative approach is armed with an array of statistical techniques that can be used to examine the causalities and relationships between constructs, explore the differences between groups, and test propositions. However, the philosophical stance of constructivism is also discussed, since it will be argued that the qualitative phase of the study is underpinned by philosophical assumptions of constructivism.

3.2.2 CONSTRUCTIVISM

Constructivism is a major underlying philosophy for qualitative research (Creswell & Clark, 2011). In a study seeking understanding of destination decision-making with a values-based approach, a combination of both paradigms (postpositivism and constructivism) is possible. Constructivism can source valuable in-depth information to understand each construct in the conceptual model and the intervening relationships between constructs, whereas a positivist approach alone will examine only the statistical viability of causalities and relationships between the constructs of the conceptual framework. Sarantakos (2005, p. 37) summarised the basic assumptions of constructionism as follows:

- There is no objective reality; the physical world exists but is not accessible to human endeavour.
- There are no absolute truths.
- Knowledge does not come through the senses alone.
- Research focuses on the construction of meanings.
- Meanings are not fixed but emerge out of people's interaction with the world.
- Meanings do not exist before a mind engages them.
- The world is constructed by people who live in it.

Sarantakos (2005) claims that reality is not independent of actors but is what people construct through their experience and interpretations. "Impressions of reality gained by researchers who listen to respondents talking about their lives are constructions of the constructed reality of the respondents; they are

impressions of the constructed reality” (Sarantakos, 2005, pp. 37-38). Therefore, it is necessary to stimulate the respondent to critically evaluate the phenomenon under investigation through an interaction between the researcher and the respondent. Presenting a similar argument, Creswell (2009) explained that the constructivist addresses the process of interaction among individuals and specific contexts that people live and work in, in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants. “Constructivists believe that researchers individually and collectively construct the meaning of the phenomena under investigation” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 6).

3.2.3 MULTIPLE-PARADIGMS AND PRAGMATISM

Postpositivism and constructivism, as described above, hold mutually exclusive ontological, epistemological, and ontological assumptions. Thus, when new research paradigms began to emerge to overcome the deficiencies/shortcomings of those prevailing positions, paradigms began to compete with each other; this competition has variously been termed paradigm dialogue, paradigm wars, or competing paradigms. (Denzin, 2008; Gage, 1989; Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). However, when considering the conflicting underpinning philosophical assumptions (paradigms) of using both qualitative and quantitative methods, the question of “whether methods can be mixed or not?” has arisen. This issue has been widely discussed in the research methodology literature (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The incompatibility between various research paradigms is a major issue in mixed methods research

When two methods (qualitative and quantitative) are used in one particular study (mixed methods), the underlying philosophies for each of the methods can clash. Regarding the philosophical basis of mixed methods research, two important issues have been discussed: ‘paradigm-method fit’ and ‘best paradigm’, where the first relates to “does the philosophical paradigm and research method have to fit together?” and the latter relates to “which philosophical paradigm is the best foundation for mixed methods research?” (Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005, p. 225).

‘Paradigm-method fit’ refers to the argument that positivistic paradigms should necessarily be connected with quantitative methods and that naturalistic

paradigms should necessarily be connected with qualitative methods (Hanson et al., 2005). Therefore, as some writers argue, mixed methods research is not feasible because of the incompatibilities between methods and philosophies (Smith, 1983; Smith & Heshusius, 1986). The context of the ‘incompatibility thesis’ also supports this argument. “Incompatibility thesis states that compatibility between quantitative and qualitative methods is impossible due to incompatibility of paradigms that underlie the methods” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a, pp. 18-19). However, this issue of the paradigm-method fit is highly criticised by others, and they state that using both qualitative and quantitative methods is feasible for studying the phenomenon (Jennings, 2010; Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). Bryman (2012) posits that qualitative and quantitative methods are comparable and can be used for a wide variety of tasks. Some scholars argue that the paradigms can be used in a collective manner: an approach called the ‘multiple paradigm’ thesis (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a) or ‘complementary strength thesis’ (Denzin, 2008). In contrast, the ‘best paradigm’ issue has multiple perspectives, e.g., the ‘dialectical’ and ‘pragmatic’ (Hanson et al., 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a). The dialectical perspective “assumes that all paradigms have something to offer and that the use of multiple paradigms contributes to greater understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 99).

However, researchers have claimed that ‘pragmatism’ is the best justification for the use of mixed methods research (Christ, 2013), and have recommended pragmatism as an alternative to overcome the limitations caused by relying on only one of the traditional paradigms (Christ, 2013, p. 113). Thus, pragmatism is typically associated with mixed methods research (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Here the focus is on the consequences of the study and the importance of the research questions asked, rather than on the methods used. Importantly, pragmatism allows the use of multiple methods of data collection to inform the problem being studied (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Therefore, pragmatism is objective-focused and can be used to justify mixed methods research grounded on different philosophies to answer different types of research questions related to the any given set of research objectives pertaining to a specific research subject.

Pragmatism has been discussed from various viewpoints. According to (Creswell, 2009, p. 10), “pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in positivism)”. Pragmatism is expected to be a philosophy that develops theories directly from actions and applies them back to practice (Christ, 2013). Moreover, pragmatism debunks concepts such as ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ and focuses on ‘what works’ when answering the research questions being investigated (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b). Importantly, pragmatism supports different types of methods (qualitative and quantitative) grounded on different paradigms in one investigation (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 87). Thus, pragmatism rejects the either/or choices discussed in paradigm debates and accepts both the qualitative and quantitative methods where applicable, while acknowledging the influence of the researcher’s values in the interpretation of results. Therefore, for pragmatism, the inductive and deductive methods of research are not two distinct approaches; rather, they fit along the same continuum where one end represents the purely quantitative and the other represents the purely qualitative. “... pragmatists believe that research on any given question at any point in time falls somewhere within inductive-deductive research cycle” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 87). Finally, it is concluded that, based on the advantages and the philosophical stances of pragmatism, the mixed method approach taken by this research investigation is acceptable and that the different worldviews corresponding to different methods can be linked and justified within the stance of pragmatism.

3.2.4 PHILOSOPHICAL STANCE OF CURRENT RESEARCH

Research philosophies, their underpinning philosophical assumptions, and their applicability to this research investigation have been discussed so far in this chapter. However, the question of ‘which philosophy actually applies to this research?’ still needs to be addressed.

Creswell and Clark (2011) proposed four stances to explain the philosophical assumptions of mixed method research: “best” worldview for mixed methods; multiple worldviews in mixed methods; worldviews that relate to the type of mixed methods design; and, worldviews dependent on the scholarly community. However, the philosophical (research paradigm) assumptions of current research

investigation cannot fit exactly within one of these four stances. The main reason is that the research was designed to solve the core research problem and, therefore, it took the pragmatic stance (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). However, when considering the various methods of inquiry applied in the research, it is important to study the governing rules which underlie each of the methods. Postpositivism is identified as the main paradigm governing the research, since it covers all the methods applied in the research study, including the qualitative techniques as described in a previous section of this chapter. Moreover, since the research study employs qualitative methodologies, constructivism can also inform the research study. *Table 3-1* summarises the three research paradigms that are applicable to this doctoral research.

Table 3-1. Basic characteristics of three worldviews applied to the study

	Postpositivist Worldview	Constructivist Worldview	Pragmatist Worldview
Characteristics	Determination	Understanding	Consequences of actions
	Reductionism	Multiple participant meanings	Problem-centred
	Empirical observations and measurements	Social and historical constructions	Pluralistic
	Theory verification	Theory generation	Real-world practice oriented

Source: Prepared based on (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 40)

As depicted in *Table 3-1*, the current research has characteristics that are representative of these three worldviews, particularly postpositivism, since it permits both qualitative and quantitative methods in one study. The qualitative phase of the study demonstrates the characteristics of a constructivist worldview, and finally, the overall research study was designed to focus on the research problem rather than on the paradigms and philosophies which are supported by the worldview of pragmatism. Therefore, while the current research investigation is premised primarily on postpositivism, it is also informed by constructivism. Finally, pragmatism justifies the use of a mixed methods approach which is grounded on two (postpositivism and constructivism) different worldviews.

The next section explores mixed methods research.

3.3 MIXED METHODS RESEARCH

3.3.1 DEFINING MIXED METHODS RESEARCH

Mixed methods research designs emerged as a way to combine both quantitative and qualitative methods in one particular research inquiry. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) refer to mixed methods research as the third research community, where qualitative and quantitative research are identified as the first and the second research communities. The main advantage of this method is that it offsets the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The current research study employs a mixed methods approach because the inquiry needs to employ both inductive and deductive reasoning to answer the research propositions. Particularly, the inductive approach, which is often associated with qualitative research (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2010), is used to uncover underlying insights regarding each of the research concepts being studied, and the deductive approaches are used to examine the cause-effect relationships between variables and to make comparisons between groups (Saunders et al., 2007).

Some of the most well-known definitions for mixed methods research are those of Tashakkori and Teddlie, and Tashakkori and Creswell and these are given below:

“Mixed method research studies use qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis techniques in either parallel or sequential phases” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a, p. 11).

“Research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry” (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007b, p. 4)

Mixed methods research is always a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches. The integration of two types of approaches can happen at any point (data collection, analysis, etc.) in the research process depending on the research problem being addressed and the design of the research. Some authors explain mixed methods as an approach that accommodates both inductive and deductive reasoning (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Creswell and Clark (2011, p.

13) say it is a process in which “Individuals tend to solve problems using numbers and words, combine inductive and deductive thinking, and employ skills in observing people as well as recording behaviour”. Put simply, the main argument of all these definitions and explanations is that a mixed method research uses both qualitative and quantitative methods (words and numbers) to address a particular research problem and moves between inductive and deductive reasoning.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCESS

This chapter has established the paradigms that inform this research investigation and discussed the implications of using a mixed methods approach. This section will describe the research design of values and selection behaviour as well as destination image and selection studies to better inform the research design of this doctoral investigation.

3.4.1 REVIEW OF RESEARCH DESIGNS: VALUES, DESTINATION IMAGE, AND SELECTION BEHAVIOUR

Thøgersen and Ölander (2002) studied consumption patterns based on individuals’ value priorities using a two-wave panel survey. Moreover, this particular research analysed data using structural equation modelling to reveal the relationship between values and behaviour. The study conducted by Allen et al. (2002) was designed as two independent survey studies to examine the value-attitude-behaviour system using value-based measurements. A study conducted to explore the relationship between personal values and travel decisions was also designed as a longitudinal study which collected data from two separate mailing surveys (Pitts & Woodside, 1986).

In addition to value and behaviour research designs, the literature provides evidence of a diverse range of research designs for destination image and selection (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1988; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). Longitudinal and cross-sectional research designs are evident in the literature. Among the longitudinal designs, Decrop (2010) conducted a grounded theory research study to investigate the choice sets of consumers (vacationers) in terms of their decision-making process. This study employed three rounds of in-depth

interviews with respondents about the process of destination decision-making. This design helped to sensibly examine the process of destination decision-making as it evolves. Its approach offers a good design to explain the process of destination decision-making by identifying the stages of decision-making as they occur. Longitudinal designs have also been applied in quantitative studies to study the differences of selected variables (e.g., facilitators and inhibitors) between the various stages of the destination decision-making process (Um & Crompton, 1992). Cross-sectional studies of destination selection study the impact of destination image attributes on place selection. Studies of the relationships between destination attributes and destination selection are popular in the study of Pacific destination attributes and selection (Barros et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010; Mohammad & Som, 2010; Mohan, 2010).

The strengths of mixed methods design in tourism studies have also been attested. For instance, according to Zoë (2012), the “mixed methods design approach of this study proved useful as it allowed us to gain a broader understanding of the impact of volunteer tourism on the volunteer, and to develop engagement theory in volunteer tourism” (p. 797). A sequential mixed methods design which used quantitative surveys followed by in-depth interviews was successful in studying destination selection for city-break holidays (Dunne, Flanagan, & Buckley, 2011). This mixed method approach was able to discover the factors affecting the selection decision with regard to each stage of the decision-making process (i.e., need recognition, evaluation of alternatives, and postpurchase evaluation) (Dunne et al., 2011). These examples of empirical studies of destination image and selection highlight a range of the research designs applied in the area. This research investigation also adopted an empirical cross-sectional approach in its original design. Moreover, an exploratory mixed method design helped it to explore new factors affecting destination decision-making with regard to the Indian travel market.

3.4.2 OVERVIEW

The previous section described the research design of destination decision-making and tourist behaviour studies that inform this investigation. The next section will explain the research design adopted in this study and why this was considered to

be the best approach.

3.4.2.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Creswell (2009), four important aspects need to be considered in designing the procedures of mixed methods research; these are: timing, weighting, mixing, and theorising. Regarding timing and weighting, the current research took a sequential approach, starting with a qualitative study followed by a quantitative study. The mixing of both qualitative and quantitative methods was done in a number of ways. The findings of the qualitative study helped to develop the quantitative questionnaire, and concurrently provided separate results which contributed to the discussion chapter. Moreover, the qualitative findings also contributed to reshaping the conceptual framework through a second phase of literature review. When it comes to theorising the study, the research builds upon several social sciences and tourism related concepts and theories. The qualitative component was informed by the literature and the quantitative study was informed and designed based on qualitative findings and the literature.

The next step was to identify the relevant mixed method design for the study. Creswell and Clark (2011) discuss six major mixed method research designs: convergent parallel design, explanatory sequential design, exploratory sequential design, embedded design, transformative design, and multiphase design. However, the research investigation did not completely align to any of these mixed methods research design types. “In some cases, you may have to develop a new MM [mixed methods] design, using flexibility and creativity, because no one best design exists for your research project, either when it starts or as it evolves” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 164). The current research study embodies multiple design features, mainly exploratory sequential design and embedded design.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) define sequential mixed designs as the chronological order of quantitative and qualitative components of a study. Sequential mixed methods designs generally answer exploratory and confirmatory research questions in a pre-specified order (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). One sequential mixed designs option is to commence with the collection and analysis of qualitative data as a first step followed by a quantitative step to test or

generalise initial findings (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 71). However, the theoretical grounds of the exploratory sequential mixed design can only be partly applied to this research. The current research, on the one hand, does not reflect a need for generalisation of the findings it generated; rather, it utilises the qualitative techniques to develop a quantitative questionnaire and to develop the conceptual framework of the study. Given the matches and mismatches of exploratory sequential mixed design, it can be argued that the study also shares some of the features of an embedded mixed method design. Creswell (2014) argued that:

An embedded mixed methods design involves as well either convergent or sequential use of data, but the core idea is that either quantitative or qualitative data is embedded within a larger design (e.g., an experiment) and sources play a supporting role in the overall design. (p. 16)

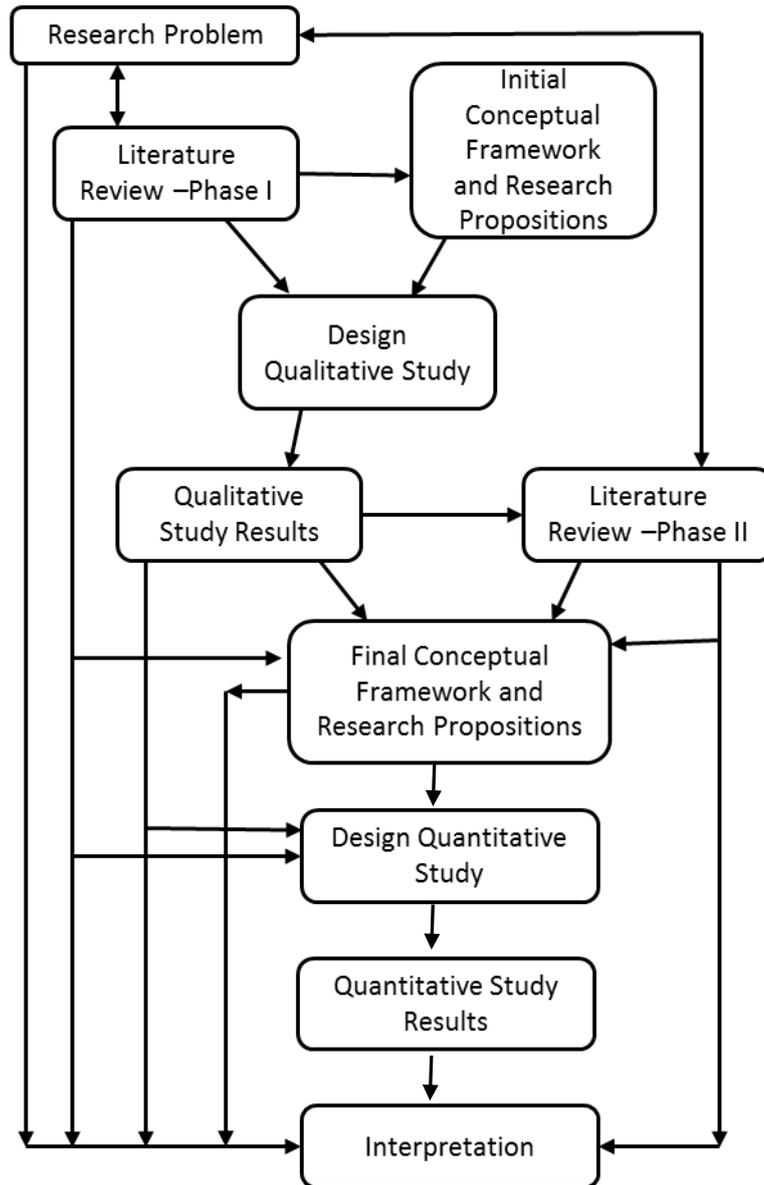
The main feature of embedded mixed methods research design is that one type of data (e.g., qualitative) always plays a supportive role to the other type of data (e.g., quantitative) in solving the research problem (Creswell, 2009). The use of supportive qualitative results to inform and design the quantitative study indicates an embedded design rather than a sequential exploratory design. However, it will be concluded that the research demonstrates the features of both designs (exploratory sequential, and embedded).

3.4.2.2 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

As described in the literature review chapter, this research investigates the destination decision-making process from a psychological perspective. The initial conceptual framework was developed on the basis of destination decision-making theories (e.g., Decrop, 2010; Goodall, 1991; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002; Um & Crompton, 1990, 1992; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989) and consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b). Destination image (e.g., Byon & Zhang, 2010; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hui, 2009; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Ryan & Cave, 2005; Ryan & Ninov, 2011) was also incorporated to operationalise and conceptualise consumption values (Phau et al., 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). The research initially adopted a deductive approach, since it started with known facts or theories (Saunders et al., 2007; Sekaran, 2003). However, although the

research was initially developed on the basis of certain theories, the first phase of the research design was undertaken with the intention of discovering new things. The qualitative study was designed to understand the context within which destination decision-making is implemented. In this sense the research demonstrates an inductive approach as well as depicting both inductive-deductive characteristics (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2010; Saunders et al., 2007).

Figure 3-1. Research process.



The initial qualitative study was guided by a separate set of questions (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007a) and, since the qualitative findings identified new patterns beyond the theories considered initially, a second phase of literature review was

undertaken and the theory of consumers' value system (Vinson et al., 1977) was incorporated into the conceptual framework of the study. Next, as a consequence of the qualitative study and the second phase of the literature review, the quantitative study was developed using a new set of research propositions, as suggested by (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007a) who advise: "Write research questions for each phase of a study as the study evolves" (p. 208). Finally, the discussion was informed by both the quantitative and qualitative study findings. *Figure 3-1* presents the graphical demonstration of the overall research process.

3.5 QUALITATIVE STUDY DESIGN AND PROCESS

This chapter so far has discussed the role of research paradigms and the philosophical underpinnings of the mixed methods research design. The next sections of the chapter describe the qualitative data research methods and the research context. This section elaborates the qualitative study purpose, design, and the process. An evaluation of qualitative data collection is conducted to select a suitable data collection method which can produce a set of qualitative data to fulfil the qualitative study purposes of this research. After that, the preparation of qualitative questionnaire is discussed along with a description about qualitative data collection followed by a brief discussion about techniques of qualitative data analysis which will be used to analyse the data.

3.5.1 PURPOSE OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

The main goal of the qualitative research phase of this study was to understand the 'context of values and destination decision-making process' of the prospective travellers and to inform the quantitative phase of this research study. In particular, the qualitative study had two main purposes: to prepare a list of sub-themes (for each of the value dimensions and travel constraints) to be developed as questionnaire items for the quantitative phase of the research, and to assess and extend (strengthen) the initial conceptual framework to inform the quantitative phase of the research.

3.5.2 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Qualitative studies are designed to understand how individuals or groups ascribe to social or human problems (Creswell, 2014) and are a means to study the

behaviours of people and their social relations (Flick, 2006). Qualitative methods involve the orderly collection, recording, organising, analysing, and interpretation of textual material derived from conversations or observations (Malterud, 2001). Literature on qualitative research methods presents a range of data collection techniques. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) described a variety of empirical materials available to understand the subject under investigation. These materials (or techniques) include case studies, personal experiences, introspection, life stories, interviews, artefacts, cultural texts and productions, observations, and historical, interactional and visual texts (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Patton (1987) outlined three kinds of qualitative data collection techniques: (1) in-depth, open-ended interviews, (2) direct observations, and (3) written documents including such sources as open-ended written items on questionnaires, personal diaries, and programme records.

The aim of the interviews in this study was to collect data on how respondents actually arrived at particular decisions in their destination selection process (King & Horrocks, 2010). The use of qualitative interviews offers some advantages over quantitative methods of data collection. Guba and Lincoln (1981) emphasised the qualities of interviews as they are flexible, personal, and exploratory, and because they help to note the affective responses of the respondents and approximate real-time situations more closely than questionnaires can. Moreover, interview techniques facilitate exploration of a topic in greater depth than does a traditional quantitative survey (Ruddell, 2011). Qualitative interviews allow real-time questioning and so construct data required to answer the questions under investigation in the research. “The interviewer can probe the interviewee for clarity or for more detailed information when needed” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b, p. 305). Guba and Lincoln (1981) outlined some of the advantages of interviewing as a data collection method as having less chance of misunderstanding between the inquirer and respondents, generating an ability to tailor questions to fit respondents’ knowledge, a high degree of involvement status on the part of the inquirer, high probability of receiving more accurate and in-depth responses, and a high degree of flexibility. Another advantage is that the interviewer can fully control the interview by enabling, where appropriate, new concepts and descriptions to emerge so that the interviewer can go more deeply

into the subject under investigation (Bernard, 2013). Pizam (1994, p. 100) summarised the advantages and disadvantages of interviews as a data collection method for research thus:

Advantages

- Permit greater depth and probing
- Often have a higher response rate than questionnaires
- Provide information on nonverbal behaviour
- Enable control over the environment in which it is conducted
- Enable spontaneity
- Provide greater sensitivity to misunderstanding by the respondents
- Are more appropriate for revealing information about feelings and emotions regarding different subjects

Disadvantages

- Expensive
- Time-consuming
- Prone to interviewer personal bias
- Usually lack anonymity
- Inconvenient

3.5.3 FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEWS

Amongst the various techniques for qualitative data collection, interviews are popular in consumer behavioural studies (Makatouni, 2002), and the use of qualitative interviews is also evident in tourist behavioural research (e.g. Mason, Augustyn, & Seakhoa-King, 2010; Pizam, 1994, p. 100; Prayag & Ryan, 2011; Ruddell, 2011). Interviews help “to find out what is in someone’s mind” (Patton, 1990, p. 278) and thus, interviewing is a good way to understand how tourists actually make their decisions and choose between destinations.

For some authors (Pizam, 1994), interviews are either structured or unstructured. For others, interviews are highly structured, semi-structured, or open interviews (Willis, 2007). Bernard (2013) divided interviews into four broad groups: informal interviewing, unstructured interviewing, semi-structured interviewing, and structured interviewing. When the structure of the interview is higher, the

interviewer can lead the interview on a particular subject and can go deeper, or at least be more specific in a particular area. When the interview is unstructured, the interviewer can grasp data on a broad level about the subject under investigation. “Semi-structured interviews, in particular, have attracted interest and are widely used” (Flick, 2006, p. 149).

Semi-structured interviews were the most appropriate qualitative data collection instrument because data was being sought to understand the process of destination decision-making of prospective visitors; specifically to understand at what stage of the decision-making process a particular respondent belongs. Destination options of each respondent were expected to vary and it was then important to understand the reasons used to shortlist destinations (to form choice sets) along the process of destination decision-making. The information required was quite specific, yet the data collection instrument needed to facilitate the unique decision making process of each respondent so that a semi-structured face to face interview was a preferable instrument over the unstructured interview. The study was also seeking the personal experiences of the respondents rather than group experiences of the destination decision-making process. Therefore, face-to-face semi-structured interviews rather than focus groups, which look for common experiences of the respondents on a given phenomenon, (Powell & Single, 1996) was the most appropriate qualitative data collection instrument.

3.5.4 DATA COLLECTION TOOL

The interview guide (Appendix 1A) comprised a series of open-ended questions prepared for various types of respondents. Respondents were classified according to the stage of the decision-making process they were at and the destinations considered. The interview guide was not highly structured; rather, it was used as a checklist for the interview and it allowed flexibility within the interview. As a result, new insights were able to be discovered and explored (Bernard, 2013; Bryman, 2012; Veal, 2011). Additionally, using an interview guide facilitated a conversation to gather data to meet the research requirements (Bernard, 2013; Ruddell, 2011).

All the interview questions for the qualitative questionnaire were originally developed for this research and were informed by the conceptual framework

(Figure 2.7, p. 56.). They were informed by the three theories/concepts, discussed in Phase I of the literature review, namely destination-decision-making, consumption value theory, and destination image. AS a result, the qualitative interview guide (questionnaire) was informed by these three theories.

The questions sought to understand the ways in which destination attributes and the development of various choice sets in each stage of the decision-making process of destination selection were formed. The interview guide allowed different types of questions to be created for various subgroups of the sample. These subgroups represented people at the three main stages of the destination decision-making process: consideration stage, evaluation stage, and constraints stage in which constraints influence the selection. The questions were informed by the concepts drawn from destination decision-making studies (Crompton, 1992; Decrop, 2010; Klenosky, Gengler, & Mulvey, 1993; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

The interview guide facilitated evaluation of the three stages of the decision-making process (consideration, evaluation, and selection) by participants. It should be noted however that no direct questions were asked to explore each concept/theory of the conceptual model (e.g., value dimensions); rather, the participant was encouraged to answer questions freely to explore all possibilities. The interviewer, depending on the answers of the participant, probed further using sub-questions to explore other values that might influence the destination selection process. The interview was structured around three main questions:

1. *Could you please tell me about your future vacation plans?*

This particular question provided an introduction to the interview. It explored the participant's priority destination options and reasons for considering these destinations. Other open-ended questions were based on the participant's answers, with the additional questions being used to understand the values pertaining to the destinations mentioned. This section was aligned to the 'evaluation' stage of the decision-making process.

2. *Why do you like X destination over the other destinations you mentioned?*

This question relates to the 'selection' stage of the decision-making process. Sub

questions explored the consumer value attributes regarding that choice. Here, the participants were encouraged to compare and contrast their top destination preferences. This probing helped to explore why they liked (or selected) one destination over others and the reasons and factors for selecting (or not selecting) a particular destination.

3. *What were the destinations other than the destinations you mentioned that you were considering this time?*

These questions sought to evaluate the ‘consideration’ stage of the decision-making process and to explore relevant values. The researcher understood these destinations as the consideration set. Based on their responses, further probing uncovered the participants’ reasons for abandoning some destinations that had been considered for this particular vacation.

The semi-structured interview questions and the probing questions can be found in Appendix 1A.

3.6 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Population and Sample

Participants were English-speaking Indian tourists. Those over 18 years of age were considered as that is the general norm (Morais & Lin, 2010). They were planning to travel or considering travelling out of the Indian state in which they lived or out of the country in the next year and might consider Sri Lanka as one of a number of alternative holiday destinations.

Interviews were held in two cities in India: Bangalore and Delhi. It is worth noting that the original plans for qualitative data collection changed significantly. The researcher is a Sri Lankan, and an academic from a department for tourism and hospitality management in a Sri Lankan national university with contacts to Sri Lankan travel agents, some being graduates from the same university.

The researcher described this research project to the travel agents and explained the importance of accessing potential Indian visitors. The two largest travel agents operating in Sri Lanka agreed to help with accessing research respondents. They confirmed they would discuss this research project with respective Indian travel

agents. The plan was to meet travel agents in India and obtain contact details of their clients, following the process for inviting participants approved by Waikato Management School ethics committee.

First, the researcher visited Bangalore to start data collection. However, the city was entirely unfamiliar to the researcher in every aspect: the people, the language spoken, food, accommodation combined with a lack of travel information. The researcher was intimidated and felt quite insecure.

The following day, the researcher started to locate the respective travel agents from whom information was to be obtained about suitable participants to interview. The first travel agent was met with. He acknowledged his contact with the travel agents operating in Sri Lanka. However, after an internal staff discussion, the agency decided not to disclose its clients' details for many reasons such as fear of losing and disappointing existing customers, and the legal implications of disclosure. The next travel agent, visited on the same day, responded in a similar manner. None of the other travel agents visited over the following two days was interested in meeting the request of the researcher.

Then the researcher, after consulting his chief doctoral research supervisor, started to look for alternative respondents. He visited Bangalore University and met some academics to discuss his predicament. Following their directions, the researcher found a few respondents who were planning a foreign or out of the state visit for the purpose of vacation. Therefore, the sampling technique actually adopted was purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Bryman, 2012). Face-to-face qualitative interviews were undertaken and the total number of interviews conducted in Bangalore was 11.

According to the original plan, interviews were to be held in four cities in India (Bangalore, Surat, Mumbai, and Delhi) to evaluate the area difference in the investigation. However, data collection was limited to two cities due to the unexpected problems faced by the researcher. Since it was hard to find more respondents in Bangalore, plans were made to leave Bangalore and to start data collection in Delhi.

The train from Bangalore to Delhi was overcrowded, all facilities were at a

minimal level, and the journey took over 40 hours. Delhi was again a new place to the researcher, but it presented the same problems as those faced in Bangalore. Additionally, Delhi was more expensive.

In Delhi, recalling the adverse responses received in Bangalore, the researcher made no attempts to meet travel agents. However, after spending two days in Delhi, data were collected by approaching people in Delhi in popular and/or tourist attractions: cultural shows, shopping malls, the metro station, coffee shops, and Delhi University. The total number of interviews conducted in Delhi was 12. As it was desirable to collect more interview data the researcher decided to interview Indian visitors during their visit to Sri Lanka. Seven interviews were thus conducted in Sri Lanka.

In total, thirty interviews were conducted with Indian travellers. All interviews were digitally recorded (Bernard, 2013). Data were analysed for two main purposes: to inform the quantitative questionnaire, and to assess the conceptual framework.

Table 3-2. Demographic distribution of sample — qualitative study

Category	Frequency (%)	Category	Frequency (%)
Gender		Marital Status	
Male	17(57%)	Single (never married)	16(53%)
Female	13(43%)	Married	14(47%)
Age group		Monthly Income	
18-29	14(47%)	Less than Rs.35,000	8(27%)
30-39	9(30%)	Rs.35,000 - Rs.45,000	7(23%)
40-49	5(17%)	Rs.45,000 - Rs.55,000	3(10%)
50<	2(6%)	Rs.55,000 - Rs.65,000	4(13%)
		More than Rs.65,000	8(27%)

The interviewed sample represented a vast range of trip characteristics as well as demographics. In particular, the prospective travellers represented males, females, professionals, students, executives, long-haul travellers, short-haul travellers, out the state travellers, foreign travellers, family travellers, those travelling with friends, those travelling with a spouse or partner, etc. Table 3.2 shows the demographic distribution of the sample.

Therefore, the interviewed group was diversified enough to gather the data to

cover the concepts in the initial conceptual framework and to develop items for the quantitative questionnaire. “For the constructivist, maximum variation sampling that provides the broadest scope of information (the broadest base for achieving local understanding) is the sampling mode of choice” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 178).

3.7 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The previous section described how the semi-structured interview was developed and the data were collected. This section will explain how the data were analysed.

3.7.1 OBJECTIVES OF QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative data analysis was conducted to achieve two main objectives. First, the analysis was expected to contribute to the quantitative questionnaire design. The main research variables, according to the conceptual framework at that stage, were five value dimensions of destination image (the functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) and travel constraints. Secondly, the findings from the qualitative data were to be used to evaluate the initial conceptual framework and to redesign it, if necessary, for the quantitative study. This action expected to meet two sub objectives: first, to assess the existing model using the data collected, and secondly, to search for any factors affecting value dimensions and/or destination selection that were not included in the original conceptual framework.

The next section will discuss the data analysis techniques used.

3.7.2 THEMATIC AND CONTENT ANALYSIS

Thematic analysis identifies, analyses, and reports the patterns within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In other words, this particular technique of qualitative data analysis refers to the extraction of key themes from one’s data (Bryman, 2012) to inform the research topic that assumes the use of common-sense (King & Horrocks, 2010).

Encoding qualitative data is often the main way of identifying themes. These themes can be a complex model with themes or indicators, or something in between (Boyatzis, 1998). The notion of research question-driven or purpose-driven theme identification and generation is frequently suggested in the literature

(Braun & Clarke, 2006). To King and Horrocks (2010, p. 150), “Themes are recurrent and distinctive features of participants’ accounts, characterising particular perceptions and/or experiences, which the researcher sees as relevant to the research question”. It is evident, in the above definition, that the theme is always related to a research question or what has been investigated. Hence, one qualitative data set will generate different themes depending on the research purpose or research questions. Moreover, the generation of themes (codes) with respect to the research purpose or questions needs to answer the important question of “what counts as a pattern/theme, or what ‘size’ does a theme need to be?” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). The answer to these questions indicates the size and level of the importance of the themes identified for the research topic. This direction is more helpful in identifying correct themes and the prioritising of them according to their relevance and importance in answering research questions and testing a research model. Identification of themes can differ according to the depth of observation. The literature identifies two theme levels: manifest level and latent level. The manifest level refers to the identification of themes directly from information, whereas the latent level refers to underlying phenomena of the information (Boyatzis, 1998). Moreover, manifest analysis describes the content appearing on the surface of the communication, while the latent analysis seeks out the deep structural meaning conveyed by the content of the message (Berg & Lune, 2012).

Content analysis is also a popular technique used to analyse qualitative data. When using content analysis, the investigator examines the artefacts of social communications (Berg & Lune, 2012). Content analysis does not look for themes, but is rather a quantifying activity. Here qualitative data based on categories is identified in a systematic and replicable manner (Bryman, 2012). The coding of categories is the main activity in content analysis. Here, each characteristic of the text that is interesting to an investigator is formalised as a coding category (Franzosi, 2004). Another provision of content analysis in the social sciences is that it facilitates the comparison of outcomes or categories between interviews. Thus, it can help the researcher to understand deviations of outcomes which have

occurred mainly due to demographics (King & Horrocks, 2010).

Two main outputs are possible in systematic content analysis of qualitative data: theoretical insights and data for further analysis using quantitative techniques.

The systematic process of content analysing qualitative material results in two major final outputs. On one hand, it leads to *new theoretical insights* on the particularities in the field of interest reflected in the adapted category scheme and the newly developed categories in particular. Alternatively, it provides *coded data* that can be used for subsequent quantitative (exploratory, descriptive, or hypotheses testing) analyses. (Auer-Srnka & Koeszegi, 2007, p. 39)

Thematic analysis and content analysis have their own distinct capabilities in analysing the qualitative data. Thematic analysis can provide more insights into the data set, while content analysis provides quantified and/or summarised data from the data set, and both are applicable to this study. Thematic and content analysis were used simultaneously by combining both of the techniques to analyse the qualitative data. In particular, thematic analysis dealt with the identification of themes, whereas the content analysis dealt with the classification and quantifying of themes. The next section explains the data analysis process using both thematic and content analysis.

3.7.3 APPROACH AND PROCESS OF QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

In regard to the objectives of the data analysis, a combination of thematic and content analysis techniques was appropriate since both methods can assist in the analysis by mutually mitigating the shortcomings of the other technique. Therefore, thematic analysis and content analysis techniques were used simultaneously. Qualitative data analysis was performed inductively and deductively.

The researcher had read a substantial amount of the literature on the central focus of the research, i.e., on the concept of destination image, the five consumption values affecting the customer choice behaviour, the process of destination decision-making, and travel constraints primarily. Therefore, the knowledge gained from the literature affected the thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). From the onset of the research project, the main argument was that destination

image features and attributes were represented by the five consumption values. Therefore, the predetermined themes were developed on the basis of the literature. However, new themes, in addition to the prescribed themes, were identified on the basis of different patterns that emerged from the data.

The following sections describe the data preparation and the steps of data analysis in detail.

3.7.3.1 DATA PREPARATION

Interviews were recorded as audio files. Four interviews, in which the interviewee did not demonstrate a clear intention about a future vacation, were not included in the analysis. The audio clips were transferred to the computer and each clip was saved separately and a serial number (e.g., Interviewee 1, 2, and 3) was assigned to each interview. This system ensured easy accessibility and identification. Backups of audio clips were stored on various storage devices (USB sticks, USB hard drive) and virtual storages (Dropbox) to ensure data security (Veal, 2011). Subsequently, each clip was played using audio playing software and was transcribed by the researcher. First, audio voice records were transcribed and recorded in a handwritten format. When the interviewer listened to the interview, he sometimes made special notes in the text when he identified something special or new theoretical insights. Furthermore, certain sections of the audio clips were replayed several times to try and grasp the real meaning of what was being said. This replaying of data was also a form of analysis, and so it made it possible for some important insights that could not (at times) be identified by reading the interview transcript to emerge. After transcribing the entire interview, this handwritten document was typed into a MS Word file and saved with the same name as the corresponding audio clip. Special notes were made while transcribing and were typed within brackets for easy reference and effective analysis of the data. When a transcript for a particular interview was completed, it was checked against the audio to confirm accuracy (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Likewise, all interviews were transcribed and transferred into MS Word format. Finally, all data files for interviews were printed and preserved with the respective file name. For data analysis, the procedure stipulated by Braun and Clarke (2006) for thematic

analysis, and which is described below, was utilised as a guideline.

3.7.3.2 STEPS OF ANALYSIS

Step 1: Familiarisation of data

All transcripts were read and reread in order to gain familiarity with the data, even though the researcher was familiar with the data because he had himself conducted the interviews and undertaken the data transcription. Data screening suggested that most data were compatible with the literature. The data yielded evidence for destination image features and attributes; factors considered in selecting a vacation destination were also evident. Many such factors could be clearly identified as a feature of one of the five consumption values (based on the researcher's knowledge through the initial literature review). However, other types of emergent information were identified which had not been seen in the literature review as it stood at the time or in the initial the conceptual model.

In addition to identifying the overall content and patterns in the data, an attempt was made to demarcate the three blocks of data corresponding to the three stages of the decision-making process (consideration, evaluation, and selection) for each interview separately. The stages were labelled for easy identification during analysis. Even though a semi structured qualitative interview guide was used to separately collect data for each stage of decision-making, in certain instances, the order of questions deviated from its original form. This deviation was created by various things that happened during the interview (e.g., sometimes respondents' answers went beyond the question, and sometimes questions that were meant to be asked at the end of the interview were answered earlier in the interview).

Step 2: Generating the initial codes

Once familiarity with the data set had been gained, it was reviewed once more to generate initial codes. In this process, the broad context of destination decision-making was applied to identify and code data. As previously described, the existing knowledge of the researcher about destination decision-making and theories (including consumption value theory) which were used to explain the process of destination decision-making were applied to generate initial codes. This particular section of data analysis was influenced by the literature and, thus,

was a deductive or theory-driven approach to data analysis. This coding was accomplished using coloured highlighters and notes made against the highlighted sections of the text of data. After coding against the existing literature, it became evident that more data that was more or less relevant to destination decision-making, and relevant to the research propositions (or the qualitative data analysis objectives) existed.

Step 3: Content analysis

Step 3 involved categorising the codes under concepts. Initially, six concepts were identified through the literature review: functional value of the destination, social value of the destination, emotional value of the destination, epistemic value of the destination, conditional value of the destination, and travel constraints. Here, all the theory-driven concepts, the sub concepts of selective image, and the travel constraints were applied.

Each interview was considered as a separate case and analysed individually. Sub-themes were identified for the five value dimensions and travel constraints. The identification of subthemes was theory-driven, informed by the literature review. In analysing each interview, due attention was given to the reasons provided for selecting or short listing the destinations along the decision-making process. Where relevant, these reasons were categorised as representing at least one of the five value dimensions of selective image based on the researcher's judgement which was informed by the evidence of past studies from the literature review. For example, if 'food' was a factor considered in selecting a particular destination, then 'food' was identified as a reason in selecting destinations. 'Food' was then compared with the technical definitions provided for the five values in consumption value theory along. Finally, the reason/concept 'food' was interpreted and categorised as a sub-theme of functional value. It should be noted that in some instances, categorisations of values were similar, or even identical to past studies (Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010). For other example, if a particular interviewee had mentioned 'friends' as a reason to select a destination, 'friends' is considered as a subtheme of social value affecting destination selection (Shanka & Phau, 2008).

Additionally, sub-themes related to travel constraints were also collated under the

concept of travel constraints. Once a concept was extracted from the data set, then the stage of the decision-making process (consideration, evaluation, selection) to which that particular theme was related was determined and collated accordingly.

A MS Excel worksheet was used to facilitate the analysis (see Appendix 1B for an extract from the worksheet). All codes for theory-driven concepts (with quoted extracts) were recorded in columns on the spreadsheet and the respective concept for the code were recorded under the corresponding stage of destination decision-making. Then a formula was set to calculate the number of occurrences of each concept under each stage of decision-making process separately. At this point content analysis was used to analyse the data. In addition, separate columns were inserted for newly identified concepts and codes.

Step 4: Reviewing new themes and establishing interrelationships between themes

After recording all codes under themes, the congruency of identified new themes and their subthemes was checked once more. The relationships among the themes, with reference to the destination decision-making, were also assessed in this step.

This chapter so far has presented the research paradigms that informed the mixed method research design of the study and the research methods for the qualitative research component of the thesis. The final section of this chapter will discuss the research context.

3.8 RESEARCH CONTEXT

The research context of this research is mainly twofold: India as a travel market, and Sri Lanka as a fast-growing tourism destination having good potential for attracting travellers from the Indian travel market.

3.8.1 INDIAN TRAVEL MARKET

This research takes the Indian domestic (Indians travelling out of their home state but within India) and the outbound market as one of its contexts. India is expected to be a major economy in the near future due to its high economic and population growth. Therefore, the travelling of Indians is also expected to increase (Joppe & Yun, 2013). Moreover, India is among one of the largest countries by

geographical area, being the seventh-largest country in the world (Henama, 2013). India's population is recorded as the second largest country by population next to China (Go See Feel, 2015; Henama, 2013). There are 122 major languages in India, with Hindi and English being considered as the national and official languages (Go See Feel, 2015). Hindus form the largest religious group with 80% being Hindu. India's other religions include Islam, Christianity, Sikhism, and Buddhism (Go See Feel, 2015)

According to consumer behaviour researchers and economists, India is a consumption-driven market (Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013; Mathur, 2015). Moreover, according to Atwal and Jain (2012), India has moved from a payment market to a luxury market over the last 20 years. This change is not only due to India's being one of the fastest growing major economies in the world, but also due to its large and young working population, rising income levels, and the expansion of consumer markets far beyond expected levels (Atwal & Jain, 2012; Bijapurkar, 2007; Tretheway & Mak, 2006). The expansion of the middle class of India has also created a vast market with a shift in the income pattern from farm-based businesses to nonfarm based businesses (Atwal & Jain, 2012; Bijapurkar, 2007). However, India has a very high discrepancy in terms of the lifestyles of its population (Go See Feel, 2015).

These socioeconomic trends have also influenced Indian travel behaviours. The contribution of India to the world's outbound tourism market is remarkable. India is recognised as one of the world's fastest growing outbound tourism markets and is second only to that of China (Choong & Hedrick-Wong, 2014; Goyal, 2014; Sharma, 2013). Spending time with family and loved ones, physical and mental well-being, having a break and a change from routine, and broadening one's knowledge are some of the highest motivations for Indians to travel abroad (Pacific Asia Travel Association, 2015). According to Joppe and Yun (2013), of the outbound tourist destinations for Indian outbound visitors, South East Asia ranks highest, whereas Europe, Australia, and the United States take the second, third, and fourth places respectively. Renub Research (2015) listed the destinations visited by Indians based on the number of visitors to them. They are, in order: Singapore, Thailand, United States, Malaysia, Hong Kong, United

Kingdom, Australia, China, Switzerland, Canada, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Japan, South Africa, and South Korea. Word of mouth, social media and travel websites are the main information sources used by Indian visitors in their travel decision-making (Pacific Asia Travel Association, 2015) .

Some countries seek to attract Indian visitors through various tourism marketing strategies. Among those countries South Africa (Henama, 2013), Australia (Tourism Australia, 2013), Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand (ASEAN, 2012), Canada (Canadian Tourism Commission, 2013), Germany (Indo-Asian News Service (2014), Ethiopia (Indo-Asian News Service, 2014), Egypt (de Jorre, 2014), Japan (Sawaki, 2014), and Spain (Indo-Asian News Service, 2011) are notable.

Domestic tourism also helps a country's economic development and, given the cultural and geographic diversity of its provinces (Kaur, Chauhan, & Medury, 2016; Kumar, 2016), India is trying to foster domestic tourism. Domestic tourism in India is popular and it has seen significant growth in recent years. The number of domestic tourists recorded in 2015 was 1,432 million compared to 748 million in 2010 (Statista, 2016). The rail transportation network and budget domestic airlines have significantly influenced the growth and the popularity of domestic tourism in India (Kumar, 2016). Domestic travel is popular as it involves less formality and bureaucracy than outbound travel. In particular, domestic travellers do not need to have a passport and visa to travel within India, and, compared to overseas destinations, they know the languages and are familiar with the destinations (Kumar, 2016).

Given the huge potential of the Indian travel market, there has been relatively little academic research relating to this market. However, the following areas have been investigated. Rao (2000) studied the positive travel potential of the Indian outbound market. Vinayek and Bhatia (2013) examined Indian tourists' perception of Singapore as a vacation destination. Pandey and Srivastava (2013) evaluated the factors that influence the purchase intentions of Indian domestic tourists. Kumar (2016) studied the domestic travel context of Indian travellers and emphasised the importance of domestic travel market in India. This research study, therefore, offers both timely and necessary research which addresses a

research gap in relation to this increasingly important market.

3.8.2 TOURISM INDUSTRY IN SRI LANKA

As a tourist destination located in close proximity to India, Sri Lankan tourism context is introduced in this section. Sri Lanka's geographical location, the role played by the tourism industry in its economy, a profile of the main tourism markets, and the country's tourism supply are then discussed in turn.

3.8.2.1 GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION

Sri Lanka is an island country located in the Indian Ocean to the south of India. It is separated from India by the Palk Strait (*Figure 3-2*). Sri Lanka lies just above the equator between 5°55'N and 9°05'N and between the eastern longitudes 79°42'E and 81°05'E. The maximum length and width of Sri Lanka are 435 km and 225 km respectively. The total area of Sri Lanka is 65610 km² (land area: 64740 km², water area: 870 km²) (Savion Travel Services, 2012).

Figure 3-2. Geographical location of Sri Lanka.



Adopted from: Google Maps (2012)

The geographical location of the country offers distinct advantages for the tourism industry. In particular, Sri Lanka is part of a region which includes already

developed economies such as Japan, Korea, and Singapore. It is also in the same area as emerging economies like India and China, which are also emerging global powers (Enrico & Marcello, 2011; Shirish & Yan, 2011).

3.8.2.2 TOURISM AS A MAJOR FOREIGN EXCHANGE EARNER

The tourism industry in Sri Lanka is one of the major foreign exchange earners for the Sri Lankan economy. In 2008, tourism’s ranking dropped from fourth to sixth place in terms of earning foreign exchange for the economy (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2008) due to unfavourable conditions prevailing both locally and globally. With a civil war in the country, travel advisors of key tourist generating countries issued travel warnings about the local situation; additionally, the global financial crisis also accounted for a decline in arrivals in 2008.

However, since the three-decades old internal conflict in the country’s was resolved, tourism has recorded a remarkable growth: (21.9%) in the second half of 2009 (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2009). Since then, Sri Lanka Tourism has seen a significant growth in its tourist arrivals, foreign exchange earnings, and foreign exchange receipts per tourist per day (*Table 3-3*)

Table 3-3. Tourist arrivals and foreign exchange earnings of Sri Lanka

Particulars	Year		
	2013	2014	2015
Number of tourist arrivals	1,274,593	1,527,153	1,798,380
Foreign exchange earnings (US\$ million)	1,715.5	2,431.1	2,980.6
Foreign exchange receipts per tourist per day (US\$)	156.5	160.8	164.1

Adopted from: (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2015) and (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2014)

When comparing the latest statistics (those for 2015) with those for 2014, it can be seen that the Sri Lankan tourism industry has improved its ranking from being the fourth largest earner of foreign exchange to becoming the third largest foreign earner. Moreover, Asia is the main source of inbound visitors for Sri Lanka, accounting for 45.7% of total tourist arrivals in 2015. (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2015).

3.8.2.3 PROFILE OF THE SRI LANKAN INBOUND VISITORS

India continues to be the main market for Sri Lanka’s inbound visitors,

accounting for 17.6% of total traffic (Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority, 2015). China has progressed to the second place in Sri Lanka, pushing the UK to third place in 2014. India, China, the UK, Germany, and France were the top five tourist markets by country in 2015 (*Table 3-4*).

Table 3-4. Main tourist markets of Sri Lanka

Country of Nationality	2013	2014	2015	Growth % (2013-2015)
India	229,674	238,951	278,017	21
China	51,704	112,867	224,210	334
UK	135,425	153,875	175,559	30
Germany	91,150	105,432	125,376	38
France	62,771	82,874	96,505	54

Adopted from : Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority (2015)

However, when the growth of each of the markets is considered, India shows a comparatively low growth rate, whereas China shows the highest growth rate during the time period from 2013 to 2015 (*Table 3-4*).

3.8.2.4 THE POTENTIAL OF SRI LANKAN TOURISM

The tourism sector of Sri Lanka contributes to the national economy by generating substantial foreign exchange earnings. The government has also identified this specific industry as a driver for its economic growth, stating: “the tourism sector has been identified as one of the key sectors propelling the country’s economic growth” (Ministry of Economic Development, 2011, p. 2).

A peaceful environment and tourists’ safety are essential factors for a tourism destination to grow, as the literature has highlighted increasing expectations of a safe and hassle free environment for tourist destinations. Ryan (1993) emphasised the seriousness of crimes and violence on holiday makers. Araña and León (2008) studied the impact of the September 11 attacks on New York and concluded that the attacks were able to shock tourists and to change the image and profile of destinations. Henderson (2003), in assessing the Bali bombings in 2002 in Indonesia, found the incident had adversely affected tourist arrivals. Sri Lanka, as a country, also experienced the negative consequences of its three-decade long internal civil war until the problem was resolved in 2009. The civil war severely affected the tourism industry in Sri Lanka as governments advised their citizens not to visit Sri Lanka because of the volatility in the country and its risks to safety.

Australia, Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Russia were some of the countries which declared Sri Lanka as an unsafe place to travel to. Now some of these countries are the main markets of the Sri Lankan tourism industry. However, now that the internal conflict has been resolved, the time has come for the restructuring of the country's tourism industry. Sri Lanka now has the opportunity to develop its tourism sector in a peaceful environment more suitable for tourism and the Sri Lankan Government is also giving its prompt attention to this sector.

3.8.2.5 TOURISM SUPPLY IN SRI LANKA

Kotler and Gertner (2002) defined country image as:

the sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about places. Images represent simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with a place. They are a product of the mind trying to process and pick out essential information from huge amounts of data about a place. (p. 251)

Sri Lanka, which has a 2500 years' old culture, is rich in diverse tourist attractions and all these unique tourism products are compacted within a just 65,000 square kilometre area. The uniqueness of Sri Lanka as a tourist destination can be classified under three main features: authenticity (culture), diversity (different attractions), and compactness (small geographical area) (Ministry of Economic Development, 2011, p. 14). In its Visit Sri Lanka 2011 campaign, the Sri Lankan tourism industry focused on eight product categories and the Ministry of Economic Development (2011), in its tourism development strategy, highlighted these product categories under eight different themes: beaches (pristine), sports and adventure (thrills), heritage sites (heritage), mind and body wellness (bliss), scenic beauty of the country (scenic), wild life and nature (wild), people and culture (essence), and year-round festivals (festive).

Focusing on India as a travel market and Sri Lanka as a travel destination, this section has described the context of the research. The characteristics of the Indian market highlight the economic importance of this particular market for both the Indian and global economies. However, despite the fact that the original motivation for this research area was knowledge about the Indian inbound market for Sri Lanka, as the research evolved, the focus shifted to becoming the Indian market's destination decision-making process, thus putting less emphasis on the

importance of this particular market for Sri Lankan tourism. However, the destination of Sri Lanka was useful to test the conceptual model and therefore retained in the study.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The philosophical and methodological background of the research was outlined in this chapter. The philosophical underpinning of the research was complex primarily because of the mixed methods approach. The research paradigms of postpositivism, constructivism, and pragmatism that were relevant to this research were discussed and a postpositivism stance was taken as the main philosophical underpinning of the study. Moreover, the research design was considered as a mix of exploratory sequential, and embedded designs. The research process was outlined and graphically presented in *Figure 3.1 The Research Process*. This chapter also outlined the qualitative research design and research methods and the research context. The next chapter will present the qualitative research findings.

CHAPTER 4.

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the research design for the whole thesis and methodologies adopted for the qualitative phase of the study. This chapter presents the qualitative research findings. The results are presented according to the five value dimensions of functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value, and stages of the destination-decision-making process. Finally, the themes not included in the qualitative research conceptual framework, which emerged from the qualitative data are discussed with regard to destination decision-making and why they need to be considered for the quantitative research.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF QUOTES

The words in italics are extracts from the interviews and the contents within square brackets show the relevant concept extracted (determined) from that part of the interview. Importantly, in some instances, the same quotation from the same respondent will be used to explain two or more different concepts, because one short statement in an interview can reflect two different values; i.e., functional and epistemic values. Moreover, the travel motivations (widely known as push factors) and the things expected in the destination go together. Therefore, a short statement can reflect both the five value dimensions and travel motivations.

4.3 FUNCTIONAL VALUE

The theme, functional value of destination, emerged from the data. *Table 4-11* shows the attributes/features of the functional values with their corresponding figures resulting from the subsequent content analysis. Some similar features were integrated to reduce complexity and the length of the results table.

The following quotes offer some selected examples for the functional value of a

vacation destination.

“I like the place very much, geographically [landscapes] also” [Respondent1].

“I would like to do some adventure or sports [activities] and go to places where I can have some adventure as well, so somewhere Rishikesh or river rafting [activities] or mountain climbing” [Respondent 19].

“One place that I want to go is Singapore because I know it is a very clean city and the airport is really good; they have the biggest lounges, the longest runway, I want to see all that [well designed and maintained destination]” [Respondent 5].

“It is a beautiful [beautiful] city, and one more thing it has very good sightseeing [attractions]” [Respondent 3].

Table 4-1. Summary of functional value items – qualitative analysis

Item	Count
Many places to visit/attractions/scenery/beauty	23
Nature/landscapes	17
Beach/sea	14
Adventure sports/rafting/water sports/riding/hiking	13
Culture	10
People/lifestyles	10
Restaurants/resorts/hotels/food	11
Religion/temples	9
Mountains	6
Weather/temperature/cold/hot	8
Value for money	5
Architecture/buildings	4
Shopping	3
Well-designed and maintained destinations	3
Wildlife	3
Technology/advancement	3
Historical sites and culturally-bounded stories	3
Countryside	2
Monuments	2
Casino/city	2
Easy living	1
Herbal massage	1
Less explored places	1
Lighthouse	1
Open space	1
Party	1
Safari	1
Sex	1
Small country	1
Snow	1

“Because I have never seen sea and beach [sea and beach] I like that is why I like to go to Goa. Gujarat it has also sea and the beach [sea and beach]” [Respondent 10].

“I would definitely like to go to Italy, yes because the food [food] fascinates me a lot, the culture [culture] fascinates me a lot; I like the art...” [Respondent 19].

Given the extracted items for the functional value, it is evident that people talk about and consider the functional things when they select their vacation destinations. A vast range of functional attributes was discovered, as shown in *Table 4-1*, demonstrating that the functional values pay a significant role in the destination selection.

4.4 SOCIAL VALUE

Table 4.-4-2 summarises the social value of items identified in the qualitative analysis. Only four subthemes were identified under the social values.

Table 4.-4-2. Summary of social value items — qualitative analysis

Item	Count
Suitable for all companions	27
Know people in destination (friends and relatives)	9
Popular destination	4
Good/bad people	3

Suitable for all companions

People value the travel needs of each companion in the travel party. Therefore, when they select a destination, they consider the travel preferences, needs, and special circumstances of the members of the travel party. The following quotes demonstrate the concerns about travel companions.

“I have children 12 and 8 years old, so if the flight is 8 hours or 10 hours they become very restless [selection of a destination with less travel time since the children cannot fly for a long time]” [Respondent 26].

“... normally friends also give their ideas and we discuss and decide a place where all like to go [selecting a place all like to go to]” [Respondent 10].

“Going to a new place with family, one has to have some knowledge about it as

it's not a good idea to visit a totally new place with family" [Respondent 14].

"... first my father is unwell having some medical problems so we want to be closer and have less flying time..." [Respondent 23].

The consideration of the needs, preferences, and circumstances of travel companions implies that people expect some sort of social gathering through their travelling. The following quotes demonstrate the needs created by going in a group, and sacrificing certain of each other's travel needs.

"Expenses...mmm... I go with my friends. Some people's budget is low [special circumstances of travel companions]. I'm OK to go to NZ [a person really wanting to go], but, I don't want to go alone, I prefer going in a big group [thinking of another destination based on the travel party circumstances]" [Respondent 2].

"... Bhangarh is like quite a mountainous place, so a few of my friends were very hesitant about it and if they wanted to go, then we cancelled that ..." [Respondent 8].

Know people in destination (friends and relatives)

Having friends and relatives in the destination is a value considered in the destination decision-making process. However, this particular concept is two-dimensional. In one way, people visit their friends and relatives because they actually want to meet their loved ones:

"... my friends and relatives over there, they ask us to go there..." [Respondent 21].

"I have my friends and relatives already staying in the US as well, so we just selected, ..., US as I am going out of the country for the first time" [Respondent 12].

"... and I do not have friends or relatives there, and have not thought about it..." [Respondent 21].

Conversely, in line with the second dimension, people tend to get their trips arranged through friends and relatives who live in the destination and, thus, they expect assurance of safety and security, food and accommodation, good guidance

for travel, and control over their expenses.

“Yes the main thing is my friends know the place well, I will have people to guide over there more than in other places” [Respondent 3].

“Some friends are there so we thought we can go to Bali” [Respondent 6].

However, both of these two dimensions (1. travelling to see friends and relatives; 2. selecting a destination where relatives and friends reside since they can provide safety, accommodation, food, guidance) of visiting friends and relatives are considered as a social value in this study. The following quote demonstrates both these dimensions:

“... Because there are two reasons, many stupid kind of things, and the first is my friend resides there, and my brother resides there ...” [Respondent 11].

Popular destination

The third dimension, ‘popular destination’, refers to the image value of the destination. That is the value gained socially by visiting a particular place that is very popular among one’s respective social group.

“I think the main reason is there are lots of ads on TV and my friends are always talking about Malaysia, it’s popular among our community” [Respondent 10].

“... Mauritius, as you know, it is a tourism place, most couples visit that place” [Respondent 1].

Good/bad people

The fourth dimension, ‘good/bad people’ refers to a kind of social value. Interaction with the people in the destination and their qualities are also considered in vacation destination decision-making.

“Beggars and tricky people are also there” [Respondent 11].

The social considerations regarding travel destination selection were also evident within the data set. As the results demonstrate, people tend to look for destinations that suit their travel companions.

4.5 EMOTIONAL VALUE

Table 4-3 presents the list of items generated by the qualitative study for the

theme of emotional value. ‘A must-visit place/attachment’ was found to be the most frequent subtheme for the emotional value of a vacation destination, followed by ‘calm and quiet’, and ‘fascinating/fun’ respectively.

The following are some examples of quotes for the theme of the emotional value of a vacation destination:

“The place where one of my favourite persons [ideals] lived...” [Respondent 1].

“I like southern Africa where I used to live [place of attachment]” [Respondent 2].

Table 4-3. Summary of emotional value items — qualitative analysis

Item	Count
A must-visit place/attachment	6
Calm and quite	5
Fascinating/fun	5
Ideal persons/role models/favourites	4
Relaxation	3
Enjoyment	2
Wonderful	2
Comfortable	1
Desire to visit own country	1
Interesting	1
Lonely	1
Pleasure	1
Satisfaction of visiting all the places	1

“First I want to visit in and around the country and we should visit the other places later [attachment to native places]” [Respondent 3].

“I don’t want to connect with anybody if I go on a vacation, I don’t want to connect with any one, I like calm and quiet places [calm and quiet]” [Respondent 16].

“... visit USA, it is a very beautiful country, and more places, you know, we can visit and have fun, enjoy [fun and enjoy] well ...” [Respondent 21].

As the results show, emotion-related factors are also evident as drivers of the destination selection process. People let their emotions play a considerable role in destination decision-making.

4.6 EPISTEMIC VALUE

Table 4-4 depicts subthemes/items related to epistemic values developed through the qualitative study.

Table 4-4. Summary of epistemic value items — qualitative analysis

Item	Count
New place/having novel experience	13
Having/not having previous experience	5
Knowing new things	3
Curious	3
Similar to my country	2

Considerations about novelty and new experiences are categorised under this theme. The following are some example for this particular theme:

“I want my children to know the impact of the cultural relationship India has got with Sri Lanka, and I think it is very important for my children to know our surrounding countries, that we know what kind of food they eat, what kind of cultural things they have, what is similar between our countries [similar to my country], what is different between our countries, I want all of us to know that” [Respondent 26].

“... we like go out of the state to visit some new places otherwise we see other places which we haven't seen [having/not having previous experience] in our own state ...” [Respondent 7].

“To be honest, Thailand, I went last year [having/not having previous experience], so I didn't see any point to going again there” [Respondent 2].

“I have never seen sea and beach [novel experience, I like, that is why I would like to go to Goa. Gujarat, it has also sea and the beach” [Respondent 10].

“...if I go through the history of Hitler, I just want to know how he was spending the time in a place like that ...” [Respondent 1].

“... and I am keen to know about their cleanliness and perfect maintaining of the country” [Respondent 3].

“... but I haven't been to South East Asia till now... so we can see the two

different sites...” [Respondent 6].

“... and Orissa is one place that I have not travelled... [having/not having previous experience]” [Respondent 11].

People like to experience new things in their vacation trips. Therefore, epistemic value is also an influential factor in destination selection.

4.7 CONDITIONAL VALUE

Table 4-5 presents subthemes identified for the theme of conditional value of vacation destination. These are the situational factors influencing the destination selection for a vacation.

Table 4-5. Summary of conditional value items — qualitative analysis

Item	Count
Fit with time available for the trip	15
Cheap flights	9
Proximity and flight time	9
Fit within the budget	8
Safety and security	7
Time left for planning	5
Package availability	2
Language spoken at the destination	1

The following are examples of statements relating to the theme of conditional value in selecting a vacation destination.

“... how much will be the expenses [fit to budget] and also we checked the travelling time [fit with the time available for trip] that is the main thing ...” [Respondent 7].

“...if I get a good package [package availability] I will be going there definitely” [Respondent 3].

“... there are Tamil speaking people [language spoken at the destination], isn't it in Sri Lanka? so it is easy for me to communicate...” [Respondent 5].

“... we want to save time also reach there as quickly as possible and return as quickly as possible ... [fit with the time available for trip]” [Respondent 8].

“Travel cost is cheaper ... [cheap flights]” [Respondent 24].

“We have actually not thought about an out of the country visit, and expenses are

another matter, because of cost and time” [Respondent 10].

“... it is going to probably fit within my budget [fit to budget] ... ” [Respondent 18].

“... first of all that budget, Indian tendency is budget ... [fit to budget]” [Respondent 16].

According to the results for the conditional value, the situational factors also influence the destination selection. The travel destination can sometimes be completely decided on an unexpected situational factor.

4.8 TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

Travel constraints, as a theme, were identified in the qualitative data analysis.

Table 4-6 shows the identified subthemes and their occurrences in the data set.

Table 4-6. Summary of travel constraints items — qualitative analysis

Item	Count
Financial constraints	18
Visa/laws and legislations applied	5
Special needs for travel companions	5
Permission from family	2
Cultural barriers	1
Language barriers	1

‘Financial constraints’ was found to be the most highly reported constraint in the process of destination selection decision-making, followed by visa/laws and legislations. The following demonstrate some of the travel constraints experienced by potential visitors:

“I want to go to many places, but I don’t have money [financial constraints], right now I don’t have money to go abroad that is why I go to Goa this time” [Respondent 17].

“Because, of course, money, the amount of the money you know, that it would require for me to go there is not there with me right now [financial constraints]” [Respondent 19].

“Not dropping actually, like maybe because of financial feasibility we can go for Sri Lanka for this time and later on we will think about other options”

[Respondent 4].

“I think the first and foremost thing is the visa [law and legislations] and the finance” [Respondent 9].

“... Just because of the financial difficulties, major problem is that” [Respondent 15].

“... first my father is unwell [special needs of travel companions] having some medical problems so we want to be closer and have less flying time” [Respondent 23].

“... and parents, whether they allow me or not [permission from family], and, of course, money is the major thing” [Respondent 19].

Travel constraints represents influence the destination selection process, and these constraints also can affect the selection decisions. Therefore, the influence of travel constraints also needs to be considered when studying the destination selection process.

4.9 FIVE VALUES OF DESTINATION AND TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS IN THE THREE STAGES OF DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING

The previous section presented the findings from the thematic and content analyses of the five values and travel constraints. This section examines whether these five values and the travel constraints change across the three stages of the destination decision-making process: i.e., the consideration, evaluation, and selection stages.

4.9.1 STAGE-WISE VALUE COMPOSITION

As described in section 3.7.3.2, the textual data were quantified on the basis of the main research concepts and themes in the conceptual framework. The results of the content analysis are presented in *Table 4-7*.

Table 4-7. Consumption values and travel constraints in the three stages of destination decision-making

Value	Consideration		Evaluation		Selection	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Functional	44	52	54	40	47	36
Social	8	10	14	10	15	12
Emotional	16	19	24	18	16	12
Epistemic	12	14	17	13	14	11
Conditional	4	5	25	19	37	29
Value total	84	100	334	100	129	100
Travel constraints	14		20		17	

As the table depicts, the results are organised into three stages of the destination selection decision-making process. The numbers given in each cell refer to the occurrence of each of the five values and travel constraints with respect to each stage of the decision-making process.

Consideration stage

In the consideration stage, the functional value shows the highest influence followed by emotional and epistemic values respectively. Functional value represents over half (52%) total of five values in this stage of decision-making.

The following reflects functional value in the consideration stage:

“One place that I want to go is Singapore because I know it is a very clean city and the airport is really good; they have the biggest lounges, the longest runway, I want to see all that” [Respondent 5].

Emotional (19%) and epistemic (14%) values then follow the functional value in terms of their influence on destination selection, particularly during the consideration stage. The following quote mirrors some forms of emotion like ‘love adventure sports’ and ‘where I used to live’.

“I would say few places, I like Southern Africa, where I used to live, then Egypt and New Zealand because I love adventure sports and few destinations will be this” [Respondent 2].

The next quote reflects epistemic values, as it is about seeking knowledge:

“First of all, I want to go for Germany, and I like the place very much, geographically also, and more than that, if I go through the history of Hitler, I

just want to know how he was spending the time in a place like that” [Respondent 1].

Social and conditional values reflect a comparatively lower importance for vacation makers in the consideration stage of the destination decision-making process. However, the data provide evidence that the consideration stage of the vacation decision-making process comprised a combination of the five consumption values that the vacationer considers important. Moreover, the composition of these values highlights some variations between each value.

Evaluation stage

This is the second stage of the destination decision-making tree. According to the content analysis, this stage is also dominated by functional value (54%), while the conditional (25%) and emotional values (24%) respectively take the second and third places. The following quotes reflect these values, while also mirroring the involvement of these values in the evaluation of destination options:

“To be honest, I went to Thailand last year, so I don’t see any point to going there again, mmmm, Sri Lanka I went also two years back. And for Sri Lanka, I want to go for a much longer time, honestly, rather than just for few days, and Singapore is little more expensive so I don’t want to go there, in terms of living and in terms of shopping all that” [Respondent 2].

The above quote reflects consumption values. The epistemic value emerges, since the visitor talks about new experiences and the conditional value is reflected in her/his explanation of travel time. The functional value is also evident since cost is mentioned (value for money).

The quote *“Just for a change seeking pleasure and entertainment that is the main thing”* [Respondent 4] reflects emotional value and the following quote *“I have my friends and relatives already staying in US as well”* [Respondent 12] mirrors the social value.

Selection stage

As indicated in *Table 4-7*, the selection stage of the decision-making process was

shaped by functional and conditional values.

“Mmmm, flights are very cheap to Malaysia, and the other reason is I know lots of people in Malaysia [Respondent 2] reflects conditional values (prices of flights, knowing people). Functional values like beautiful city, sightseeing, and good places are highlighted in the next quote:

“It is a beautiful city, and one more thing it has very good sightseeing, and one more thing is that most of my friends are there. They know the place well; they have told me that there are very good places” [Respondent 3].

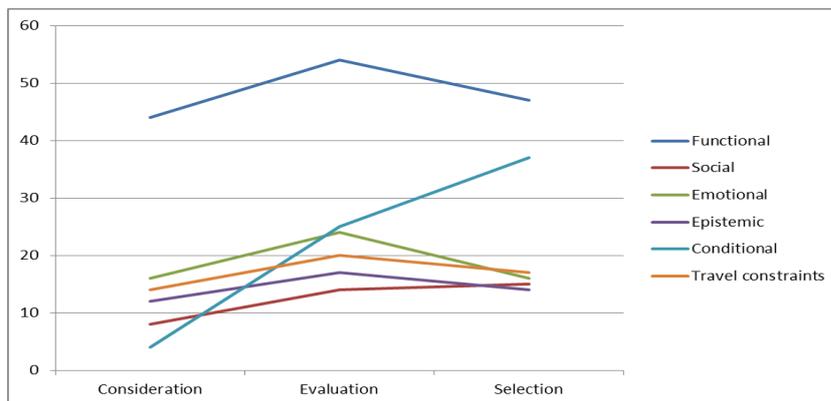
These quotes reflect how and why a particular destination gets selected. Both respondents (Respondent 2 and Respondent 3) have already selected or identified their destinations and they explain why and how they selected the particular destination.

In addition to these findings for the five consumption values, the travel constraints were also identified in the qualitative data set. As *Table 4-7* demonstrates, prospective travellers talk about or consider the travel constraints mostly in the evaluation stage.

4.9.1.1 VALUES BETWEEN STAGES

As *Figure 4-1* shows, the functional value was highest in each stage.

Figure 4-1. Behaviour of consumption values across three stages of destination decision-making.



Emotional and epistemic values were generally constant across every stage with a small peak in the evaluation stage. Social and conditional values increase as one moves along the decision-making process.

4.10 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

In addition to the consumption values of destination image and travel constraints identified through the theory-driven analysis, other themes were also identified from the qualitative data. Out of these themes/patterns, ‘travel motivations’ was identified as the main theme, and which can be an influencing factor in the process of destination decision-making.

The data reflected that all those interviewed had some reasons to travel. As the data demonstrated, these reasons also affect the travel destination selection. However, since the interview was semi structured and the researcher had not considered travel motivations when preparing the interview guide, the density of data to support this particular relationship was not as large as it was for the other key themes identified above. However, important codes were developed as subthemes of the travel motivations. Those codes are ‘must-see place’, ‘engage in activities’, ‘social requirements’, and ‘need for novelty’ and they are described below.

Must-see places

People have some places that are ‘must-visit’ places for them. For some people, this motivator is the main reason to take a vacation. The following quotes demonstrate people’s attachment to these places.

“Whatever the countries coming under Europe, most of the countries I want to visit” [Respondent 1].

“So I have a very long time wanted to see that place” [Respondent 5].

“... it is a kind of a dream destination” [Respondent 9].

“First I want to visit in and around the country and we should visit other places later” [Respondent 3].

Social requirements

According to the qualitative data, the social requirement for travel is three-dimensional, i.e., to visit friends and relatives, to strengthen social ties with travel companions, and to fulfil the travel needs of the travelling parties. The following quotes provide good evidence for the theme of social requirements and its

subthemes:

“I prefer going in a big group [social tie-ups]” [Respondent 2].

“... and the first is my friend resides there, and my brother resides there [visiting friends and relatives]” [Respondent 11].

“I have my friends and relatives already staying in the US as well, so we just selected... [visiting friends and relatives]” [Respondent 12].

Engagement in activities/shopping/sports

The data reflect the need to engage in activities as a reason for travel. Evidence for this motivator appeared in the data set as follows:

“I would like to go to some adventure or sports place where I can have some adventure as well, so somewhere Rishikesh for river rafting or mountain climbing” [Respondent 19].

“I’m looking at casino, shopping etc. There are lots of shopping facilities in Malaysia” [Respondent 2].

“Because, I like adventure tourism, Sri Lanka and Andaman Nicobar Islands will be the best for that” [Respondent 3].

Need for novelty

Need for novelty is one of the reasons given for people to travel. This reason is evident in the data and some examples follow:

“I basically expect new knowledge in my travelling [new knowledge]” [Respondent 13].

“Next vacation, I would like to go to Goa, to explore new places, because I want to travel in India as I have many things to explore here, and I have never been to many places” [Respondent 17].

“I want to see that and little bit kind of their culture I want to get familiar about” [Respondent 11].

The above three extracts reflect that novelty or seeking an experience or something new is one of the reasons for people to travel. People expect to increase

their knowledge through travelling; people like to see new things and places reflecting the novelty seeking requirements in the above three quotes. These results demonstrate that people have reasons for wanting to have a vacation. These reasons are found to be independent of particular destinations. In particular, people first have travel motivations and then they search for destinations to travel to.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter described the qualitative data findings, in order to fulfil the two objectives of the qualitative data component of this thesis: development of the quantitative questionnaire and exploring new themes and concepts besides those presented in the conceptual model (figure 2.7, page 56) at the end of phase I in the literature review chapter. The qualitative data results were sufficient to establish the conceptual integrity of the five consumption values as sub concepts of selective image. Moreover, the variables travel constraints and travel motivations emerged within the data and led not only to an additional literature review as explained in chapter 2, but also informed the revised conceptual model, *Figure 2-11*.

The next two chapters deal with the quantitative component of this research investigation. The quantitative research design is presented in chapter 5 and chapter 6 describes the quantitative data analysis and findings.

CHAPTER 5.

QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the findings of the qualitative study. The purpose of this chapter is to detail the design of the quantitative data collection. More specially, this chapter discusses the online data collection, the sample selection, and the design and structure of the questionnaire. Moreover, the development of the indicators for each of the research variables is also discussed in detail.

Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, travel motivations, human values, and travel constraints were the main variables of the research's conceptual framework (*Figure 2-11*, p.81).

5.2 ONLINE SURVEY

The online survey mode was selected for several reasons. India is a country comprised of 28 states (Maps of India.com, 2004) distributed across 3,287,240 sq. kms (Registrar General & Census Commissioner, 2011). An online survey method is suitable because it can cover a sample which is widely distributed geographically (Sue & Ritter, 2007). In addition, facility to receive high speed responses, ability to maintain the anonymity of the respondent, availability of user-friendly software, facilitate analysing data and importing data into statistical programs, ease of administration, and being more economical in terms of time and money are significant advantages (Bernard, 2013; Bryman, 2012; Sue & Ritter, 2007). However, online data collection does attract some criticism when compared to conventional data collection methods. The following criticisms have been frequently been made: a) there are no sampling frames for Internet users; b) there is a need for prior relationships when sending the survey request; c) respondents may abandon the survey (respondents can easily quit the survey); d) the survey is dependent on software (using software to design a survey can be costly and using the software can be difficult for the researcher); e) there are variations in people's access to computers; and, f) confidentiality issues of participants are frequently noted (Bryman, 2012; Dillman, Smyth, & Christian,

2009; Sarantakos, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007).

As a solution, this research uses a large list of Internet users who are willing to participate in web surveys; these are known as Internet panels (Dillman et al., 2009).

However, the use of online panels has also received some criticism (Dillman et al., 2009). Coverage error problems exist as not all have access to the Internet and some people lack computer skills; consequently, those who are in Internet panels differ from those who are not in these panels. Sample representation is, therefore, not present. This shortcoming is coupled with self-selection and sampling error problems in that only people who see the advertisement and third party referral email become panel members and this reach may not represent the real population. There can also be measurement error problems, with no honest and careful answers and a nonresponse error problem. In addition, some people do not respond even though they are in the sample and this lack of response can intensify the nonprobability nature of the sample (Bryman, 2012; Dillman et al., 2009; Sarantakos, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007). In spite of these limitations and criticisms of the online survey method, this research adopted this particular method (online survey) to collect data, since most of the issues mentioned above are either irrelevant or mitigated in the current research. This research investigation obtained the services of a market survey company (MRB International, Mumbai, India) in collecting the data. Since market survey companies use various incentive schemes to encourage participants to complete a survey, the issue of low response rate is mitigated. Since about 50% of Indian online traffic is for travel-related purposes, and 47% Indian travellers use social media while they are travelling (MyTravel Research.com, 2015), the Internet access criticism and sample representation criticism are diminished. Moreover, this research intended to study the various stages of the destination selection decision-making process, and, therefore, the intended sample was comprised of four independent subsamples (three stages of the decision-making process plus one group of people who had already selected Sri Lanka as their next vacation destination). Given the main purpose of this sampling, issues like self-selected sampling, coverage error, etc. were irrelevant to this study.

5.3 SAMPLE SELECTION

The sample comprised English-speaking Indian tourists over 18 years of age (Morais & Lin, 2010) who are planning to travel or considering travelling out of their home state or out of the country on a holiday within the next 9 months. In order to study travellers' consumption value dimensions behaviour when in the process of destination decision-making, it was important to access prospective Indian visitors had a future vacation plan in mind.

The questionnaire respondents were categorised into four groups based on the stage of destination selection process they had reached, and their final selected destination as follows:

Group I: People who have already selected Sri Lanka as their next vacation destination.

Group II: People who have already selected a destination other than Sri Lanka.

Group III: People who have not yet decided their destination but who have shortlisted at least two travel options in their mind.

Group IV: People who have not yet decided the destination but who have more than two options in mind for their next vacation.

5.4 STRUCTURE OF THE QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire had three sections:

Section I

This part of the questionnaire was comprised of filtering questions designed to select the right respondents for the research study and to identify the relevant stage of decision-making process of destination selection the participant was at. For example, section 1 ensured that: the respondent is an Indian; is aged 18 years or older; had travel plans in his/her mind; determined if the next vacation destination has been decided; probed how many options the respondent was currently considering, and so directed the correct sets of questions to the right respondents.

An open-ended question and the Likert-scaled questions (on an agree-disagree

scale) for travel motivations were placed at the end of section I of the questionnaire. A separate column termed 'not applicable' was also provided. A blank textbox was provided so that participants could indicate their travel motivations.

Section II

This section evaluated the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) and travel constraints. The measurement items were derived from two sources: the literature review and the results of the qualitative analysis.

An open-ended question and the Likert-scaled questions relating to the five value dimensions were included in section II of the questionnaire. Once again, a blank textbox was included so that the respondents could provide answers to the open-ended question regarding the five value dimensions. A Likert scale was used for the scaled questions with the scale measuring the importance-lack of unimportance for five value dimensions' items. Moreover, for the variable travel constraints an influential-uninfluential scale was used. A separate column 'not/applicable' was also given for both the five value dimensions and travel constraints.

Notably, each of the four groups (as mentioned in the previous section) of respondents answered the same set of questionnaire items, but the directions given to them differed based on the position (stage) they were at in the destination selection process. Each group provided answers on how they had arrived at their current options or destination selection. For example, Group I and Group II were asked about the extent to which these five variables affected their final destination selection. Group III and Group IV were asked the extent to which these six variables affected the shortlisting of alternative destinations in their current set of possible destinations (two or more than two).

Section III: This section sought information on trip characteristics and respondents' demographics.

Finally, a Likert-scale question for human values was given on an important-unimportant SCALE.

5.5 SOURCES OF CONSTRUCTS OF VARIABLES AND QUANTITATIVE SCALES DESIGN

The questions developed for the quantitative questionnaire were based on two main sources of information: the results of the qualitative data analysis and the related literature. When using the findings of the qualitative study, the identified items under each value category were shortlisted and grouped to avoid complexity and to avoid the questionnaire's being unnecessarily lengthy. In addition, the most commonly counted items from the qualitative findings were also included on the basis that these items might be key reflections of each value dimension of destination image.

A 7-point Likert scale was used to measure all the eight variables (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value, human values, travel motivations, and travel constraints) based on the premise that it affords greater degrees of discrimination than a 5-point Likert scale while it is easy to understood by respondents (Dawes, 2008).

The research conceptual framework consists of four main variables namely human values, travel motivations, travel constraints, and selective image. The main variable selective image comprised of five value dimensions namely functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, both the qualitative study results and literature were used to develop the quantitative questionnaire items for these constructs.

As a result of qualitative study, sub themes have been developed for each of the five value dimensions of the main construct *selective image*. These sub themes from the qualitative research findings and the literature review were used to develop the questionnaire items. Two types of literature were used: studies that used a particular questionnaire item as an indicator of consumption values and the studies that used a particular questionnaire item as an indicator of destination image.

An 'important-unimportant' scale was used to collect data on five value dimensions of selective image. Here, the respondents were expected to rate the

level of importance of each of the questionnaire items for them to select or shortlist destinations in the process of destination decision-making process. In this case, the importance of five values in selecting or short listing destinations were expected to be assessed. When developing the questionnaire items, items for the functional value were arranged as a list of attributes in the destination. The destination attributes mentioned in the qualitative interviews were used here. The questionnaire items for the other four value dimensions were presented as statements developed mainly based on the subthemes identified in the qualitative study and the literature. For example, the social value dimensions discovered in the qualitative study were used to develop the social value statements. The subtheme- 'knowing people reside their'- developed in the qualitative study was used to create two questionnaire items: 'to visit my friends reside there' and 'to visit my relatives reside there'

For travel motivations, an 'agree-disagree' scale was used. Here, the respondents rate their level of agreement for the given travel motivations as an answer for the question 'why do you want to take a vacation in the near future?' The sub-themes identified in the qualitative study as well as travel motivations mentioned in the previous researches were used to develop questionnaire items for the travel motivations. For example, sub theme – 'must see place' was used to develop the questionnaire item 'to see a must-see place to me or my travel companion'.

An 'influential-uninfluential' scale was used to assess the travel constraints. Here, the respondents rate the level of influences of given travel constraints on their vacation destination selection. Similar to the previous examples, the questionnaire items for the travel constraints also were informed by the subthemes developed in the qualitative study and the related literature. For example, sub theme – 'special needs for travel companions' was used to develop the questionnaire item 'health and physical conditions of travel companions'. Interestingly, most of the questionnaire items of all the variables, developed based on the qualitative results, were supported by the previous studies.

A pre-prepared scale for human values were used directly for human values as

the qualitative interview data had not generated themes for the human values.

5.5.1 CONSUMPTION VALUES

When developing the items for consumption values, two main sources were used. First, attributes (items) derived for the five consumption values based on destination image were directly used to measure the value dimensions. Secondly, attributes used in destination image studies were categorised into five value dimensions based on the conceptualisations of value dimensions explained in the consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b)

A few tourism behavioural researchers (Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010) have applied destination image to operationalise and conceptualise the five dimensions of the theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b). As *Table 5-1* shows, there are, however, some contradictions between the items identified in each study. For example, Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) identified ‘friendliness’ as an item of functional value, while Zins (2010) used it as an item of emotional value ‘Proximity’ was an item of conditional value for Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) but was a functional value for Shanka and Phau (2008).

Table 5-1. Literature evidence for attributes of image value dimensions

Author year	Destination Attributes Under Value Dimension				
	Functional	Social	Emotional	Epistemic	Conditional
Tapachai and Waryszak (2000)	Fascinating or cheap shopping Exotic food Famous theme parks Well-known Friendliness Historical sites Tropical, landmark Big cities Beautiful scenery and landscape	Suitable for all people Popularity	Relaxed and calm Diverse Fun Dynamic Modern	Cultural experience Climate experience Novel experience Variety of things to do and to see	Proximity Cheap travel Accessibility No language barriers Good and cheap transport Special to other sporting events
Zins (2010)	Beautiful, scenery Many attractions Warm climate Healthy and country-specific food Cheap shopping Quality sea water Quality beach Family-friendly service Authentic, spa, Wellness service	Recommended by friends and relatives Many visitors come back again and again Opportunity to meet people of every age Plenty of parties	Exotic Relaxing Romantic Calm Safe Open-minded local people Friendliness of locals Hospitable people.	Different culture Rich variety of traditions Opportunity to learn lot about culture and heritage	Easily accessible Good value for money Lot of offers and attractive deals Holidays there means low incidental expenses
Shanka and Phau (2008)	Proximity to my country Tropical unspoiled countryside Exotic food/varied gastronomy Historical sites Quality of infrastructure	Developing close friendships Meeting people with similar interests	Experiencing new/different places Having fun Being entertained Escaping from the routine Relaxing physically and mentally	Friendliness of locals Personal safety, Good value for money Good quality of life	

Moreover, the use of similar items in the different value categories could also be found in the same study. For example, Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) identified ‘well-known’ as an item for functional value and, at the same time, ‘popularity’ was identified as an item for social value, despite the fact that both concepts are obviously similar.

All the above examples reflect the complexity of identification of items to measure the value dimensions of destination image. However, the identification of items (indicators) for each of the variables depends mainly on the purpose of the research and the variable conceptualisations.

The following sections explain the selection of indicators for the main research variables in this study.

5.5.2 FUNCTIONAL VALUE

Table 5-2 shows the list of selected items for functional value in the questionnaire and the original sources of each of the items in terms of a categorisation. As the third column in *Table 5.2* indicated all functional value items were informed by both the qualitative study findings and previous research.

Table 5-2. Measurements of functional values and sources.

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of functional value	As an attribute of destination image/ as a reason for destination selection
Many places to visit	(Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Jenkins, 1999)
Scenery	(Henkel, Henkel, Agrusa, Agrusa, & Tanner, 2006; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012)
Nature	(Henkel et al., 2006)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kumar, Go, & Govers, 2007; Prayag, 2012)
Sea	(Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Kumar et al., 2007; Prayag, 2012)
Sports and activities		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1992)

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of functional value	As an attribute of destination image/ as a reason for destination selection
Wildlife		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999)
Weather/climate	(Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Um & Crompton, 1992) (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Kumar et al., 2007; Prayag, 2012)
Heritage	(Henkel et al., 2006; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Barros et al., 2008; Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kumar et al., 2007; Prayag, 2012)
Culture		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Barros et al., 2008; Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kumar et al., 2007; Prayag, 2012)
Food	(Henkel et al., 2006; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012)
Accommodation		(Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012)
Buildings and architecture		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Kumar et al., 2007)
Cleanliness		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012)
Technological advances		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999)
Shopping	(Henkel et al., 2006; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kumar et al., 2007; Prayag, 2012)
Night life/casinos/parties/ entertainments		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012)
Safety		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Barros et al., 2008; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Prayag, 2012)
Cities		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Jenkins, 1999)

As shown in *Table 5-2*, 18 items were used as indicators of functional value. As the table shows, some of the functional value items are found as indicators in the literature, and all of the items are either attributes of destination image or factors influencing destination selection and, importantly, these elements were confirmed by the qualitative research results. Given this level of support in the literature and the qualitative research results, the indicators derived for the functional value are

expected to measure the variable effectively. Moreover, a list of functional attributes was identified as indicators of functional value. These indicators are not destination-specific attributes and are common for any given destination, because this research does not specify any destination as a potential destination to the Indian visitors. Rather, it considers any ‘out of the State’ or ‘foreign’ destination. Consequently, the indicators of functional value consist with a list of attributes common for any destination and, more specifically, the respondent was expected to rate the importance of these to the destination selection decision-making process. Thus, these items can provide different meanings for different respondents. For example, if ‘accommodation’ is considered, the concept may be a five-star hotel for one respondent and a backpacker place for another respondent. This question of precise meaning is not an issue for the current study, and so it evaluates to what extent ‘accommodation’ affected the selection decision based on the type of accommodation (which is not made explicit) each respondent was assumed to have in mind.

5.5.3 SOCIAL VALUE

Table 5-3 shows the seven indicators of social value. All seven indicators were directly taken from previous studies which had used them as socially-related indicators. They are, therefore, deemed suitable for this research too.

Table 5-3. Measures of social value and sources.

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of social value	As an attribute of destination image/as a reason for destination selection
Preferred by my travel companions	(Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995; Prayag, 2012; Um & Crompton, 1992)
Suitable for my travel companions	(Henkel et al., 2006; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Bronner & de Hoog, 2011)
To visits my friends resides there	(Asiedu, 2008)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Ericsson et al., 2006; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995; Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green, & O’Leary, 2000)

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of social value	As an attribute of destination image/as a reason for destination selection
To visit my relatives who reside there	(Asiedu, 2008)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Ericsson et al., 2006; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995; Moscardo et al., 2000)
It is a destination visited/being visited by most of the people I know.	(Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012; Um & Crompton, 1992)
It is a destination talked about by most of the people.	(Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Prayag, 2012)
It is a destination where I can meet friendly people.	(Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Kumar et al., 2007; Polo Peña, Jamilena, et al., 2012; Prayag, 2012)

In addition, the literature has used these items to explain destination image, as well as factors in destination selection. Moreover, the results from the qualitative data analysis also informed the questionnaire items. The indicators are multidimensional in nature and can be categorised into four categories: influence of travel companions, visiting friends and relatives, having social prestige and respect, and meeting friendly people (*Table 5-3*).

5.5.4 EMOTIONAL VALUE

As *Table 5-4* highlights, five items were used as indicators of emotional value.

Table 5-4. Measures of emotional value and sources

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of emotional value	As an attribute of destination image/as a reason for destination selection
It is a “must-see” place for me to visit.		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Connell, 2005; d’Hautesserre, 2000; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Prentice & Andersen, 2003)
It is a calm and quiet destination.	(Henkel et al., 2006; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Custódio & Gouveia, 2007; Larsen & George, 2006)
It is a destination which fascinates me.		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Chi & Qu, 2008; Choi et al., 1999),
It is a destination which makes me relax.	(Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Henkel et al., 2006; Jenkins, 1999; Um & Crompton, 1992)
It is a fun and enjoyable destination.	(Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Polo Peña, Jamilena, et al., 2012) (Um & Crompton, 1992) (Beerli & Martín, 2004)

These items were derived from the literature and the qualitative research results. All the indicators were found to be either a feature of destination image or a reason for destination selection. Given all the literature and qualitative study evidence, these indicators are expected to measure the emotional value in the destination selection process effectively.

5.5.5 EPISTEMIC VALUE

Table 5-5 lists the three indicators that were identified as having epistemic value.

Table 5-5. Measures of epistemic value and sources

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of epistemic value	As an attribute of destination image/as a reason for destination selection
I have not been there before.		Results of qualitative study of the research
That destination gives me a different experience.	(Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005)
I can learn many things.	(Zins, 2010)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Jenkins, 1999; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Polo Peña, Jamilena, et al., 2012)

The first questionnaire item: ‘I have not been there before’ is supported only from the qualitative study results. However, it was expected to be an effective indicator in measuring the epistemic value of a destination. The other two indicators are supported by both streams of literature. These items are expected to reflect the educational aspirations of the travellers with regard to a vacation destination.

5.5.6 CONDITIONAL VALUE

As Table 5-6 shows, seven indicators have been identified for the variable conditional value. Value for money, travel time, and travel agents’ offers are identified as indicators of conditional value in the literature. In addition, other indicators are identified as reasons for destination selection in many other studies. Both types of literature support the point that these situational factors can affect the destination decision-making process, and they, therefore, can be used as indicators of conditional value in destination selection. Moreover, all of these conditional factors were evident in the qualitative research phase of the study. Overall, these seven indicators reflect the situational factors affecting destination decision-making.

Table 5-6. Measures of conditional value and sources

Item	Sources	
	As an indicator of conditional value	As an attribute of destination image/as a reason for destination selection
It fits my 'budget for vacation' well.		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Sirakaya, McLellan, & Uysal, 1996; Yuan & McDonald, 1990)
I know people who currently live there.		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Jenkins, 1999)
It fits well with my available time for the vacation.		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Belch & Willis, 2002; Richardson & Crompton, 1988b)
The trip can be planned within the time available.		Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Schul & Crompton, 1983)
It can be reached with a convenient travel time.	(Henkel et al., 2006; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000)	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Um & Crompton, 1992)
Travel agent/airline gave me a good package deal.	(Zins, 2010)	
It gives me good value for money.	(Henkel et al., 2006; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Zins, 2010)	(Al-Sabbahy, Ekinci, & Riley, 2004; Prayag, 2012)

It should be noted that these conditional factors show certain links with some of the other value dimensions discussed previously. For example, one can interpret value for money as a functional value and people living at the destination as a social value. However, this study treats these as factors of only situational advantage, rather than as a value fulfilment of the decision-maker.

5.5.7 TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

Travel constraints play a vital role in destination decision-making and seven indicators were identified from the literature and the qualitative research results. As (Table 5-7) demonstrates, the literature frequently reports financial constraints as restraints on travel. In addition, all the other selected indicators are extensively reported in the literature as obstacles to travelling (destination decision-making). These indicators are expected to measure the variable travel constraints in the final research model.

Table 5-7. Measures of travel constraints and sources

Item	Source
Financial constraints	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Bedini & Gladwell, 2006; P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Crawford et al., 1991; Crawford & Stodolska, 2008; Dale et al., 2012; Li et al., 2011; Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, & Voneye, 1993a; Searle & Jackson, 1985; Um & Crompton, 1992; Witt & Goodale, 1981; Zhang, 2009)
Visa/passport requirements	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Dale et al., 2012; Zhang, 2009)
Health and physical conditions of travel companions	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Bedini & Gladwell, 2006; P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Crawford et al., 1991; Nyaupane et al., 2004; Searle & Jackson, 1985; Witt & Goodale, 1981)
Permission/consent from parents/family	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Nyaupane et al., 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002; Raymore et al., 1993a; Searle & Jackson, 1985)
Lack of knowledge and information about destinations	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Crawford et al., 1991; Dale et al., 2012; Li et al., 2011; Witt & Goodale, 1981; Zhang, 2009)
Language problem	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Li et al., 2011; Zhang, 2009)
Work/job commitments	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Searle & Jackson, 1985; Witt & Goodale, 1981; Zhang, 2009)

Moreover, all the items selected for travel constraints have been informed by the qualitative study findings.

5.5.8 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

Some key travel motivation dimensions were used to measure the link between travel motivators and consumption values in the process of destination selection.

Table 5-8. Measures of travel motivations and sources

Selected dimension	Sources
To experience new and different things and places	Results of qualitative study of the research and related literature (Hu et al., 2009; Kim & Prideaux, 2005; Lo & Lee, 2011; Mohammad & Som, 2010; Prayag, 2009; Ryan & Mo, 2002)
To engage in activities (adventure/sports/shopping etc.)	
To get away from normal life and atmosphere	
To increase family/kinship or friend ties	
To make pilgrimage	
To fulfil the travel needs of loved ones (children, spouse, relations etc.)	
To see a 'must visit' place for me or my travel companions	
To be socially accepted by becoming a traveller	

Table 5-8 lists selected items to explore the travel motivations. Being time-

conscious, the online questionnaire was restricted to a limited number of items that represent general travel motivations.

5.5.9 HUMAN VALUES

The measurement items for human values were not developed for this study specifically. As it is argued that human values are less responsive to the external environment, a pre-prepared scale was used.

The 9-item instrument introduced by Kahle (1983) was adopted (Table 5-9). The items were arranged as a 7-point Likert scale based on Kahle and Kennedy (1989) where the lowest end represents ‘not at all important’ and the highest end represents ‘extremely important’. An explanation for each of the items was provided within brackets, thereby adopting the scale of Kropp et al. (2000).

Table 5-9. Measures of human values and sources

Selected dimension	Sources
Sense of belonging (to be accepted and needed by friends, family, and community)	(Kahle, 1983; Kahle & Kennedy, 1989; Kropp et al., 2000)
Excitement (to experience stimulation and thrills)	
Warm relationships with others	
Self-fulfilment (to find peace of mind and to make the best use of your talents)	
Being well-respected (to be admired by others and to receive recognition)	
Fun and enjoyment of life (to lead a pleasurable, happy life)	
Security (to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack)	
Self-respect (to be proud of yourself and confident in who you are)	
A sense of accomplishment (to succeed at what you want to do)	

5.5.10 DEMOGRAPHICS

Information on respondents’ demographics was also collected under the headings of age, gender, education, marital status, occupation, income, etc. All the variables were arranged as closed-ended questions in the questionnaire, with the exception of occupation, which was an open-ended question. The answers to these questions were later categorised into a small number of occupational categories based on the answers given by the respondents.

5.5.11 TRIP CHARACTERISTICS

The various trip characteristics of the various respondents also were considered.

Table 5-10. Measures of trip characteristics and sources

Dimensions	Sources
Accommodation	(Cai et al., 2004)
Foreign vs. local trip	(Pearce & Schott, 2011)
Length of trip	(Cai et al., 2004)
Trip planning time	(Schul & Crompton, 1983)
Travel companions	(Cai et al., 2004; Yoo et al., 2004)
First time/repeat visits	(Barros et al., 2008; Hong et al., 2009; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002)
Mode of transport	(Yoo et al., 2004)
Travel information	(Barros et al., 2008; Bronner & de Hoog, 2011; Teichmann, 2011)

Although these trip characteristics were not explicit in the conceptual framework, this information was collected in order to have a clear picture about the intended visits of the respondents. Each characteristic was assigned a closed- ended question with a number of possible options. Travel information was a multi-answer question for which respondents could select all the answers (options) applicable to them.

5.6 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The quantitative data were analysed using SPSS and Smart PLS (Version 2 and Version 3) software. The data preparation, demographic analysis, ANOVA, and CHAID analyses were done using SPSS, and the PLS path model analysis was done using the SmartPLS software.

Table 5-11 demonstrates both the research propositions and respective questionnaire items and the analytical techniques used.

In addition to the quantitative techniques, Leximancer text analysis software was used to analyse the text data collected from the two open-ended questions in the quantitative online questionnaire.

Table 5-11. Research propositions, questionnaire items, and analysis techniques

Research proposition	Questionnaire Item	Analytical technique
Proposition 1: That the selective image can be operationalised based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) proposed in consumption value theory	Items of functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values	PLS path modelling
Proposition 2: That the five value dimensions of selective image jointly contribute to the choice sets and the final destination selection along the destination decision-making process	Items of functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values	PLS path modelling, ANOVA
Proposition 3: That the five value dimensions of selective image contribute differently to the choice sets and to the final destination selection in the destination decision-making process	Items of functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values	PLS path modelling, PLS multi-group analysis, ANOVA
Proposition 4: That human values has an effect on the travel constraints of a prospective traveller	Items of human values and travel constraints	PLS path modelling
Proposition 5: That human values has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller	Items of human values and travel motivations	PLS path modelling
Proposition 6: That human values has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller	Items of human values and latent variable scores of five value dimensions	PLS path modelling
Proposition 7: That travel constraints has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller	Items of travel constraints and travel motivations	PLS path modelling
Proposition 8: Travel constraints has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller	Items of travel constraints and latent variable scores of five value dimensions	PLS path modelling.
Proposition 9: Travel motivations has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller	Items of travel motivations and latent variable scores of five value dimensions	PLS path modelling.
Proposition 10: That demographic factors of traveller determine the characteristics of the trip	Demographic items and trip characteristics	CHAID analysis
Proposition 11: Indian travellers visiting Sri Lanka can be profiled based on five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of selective image.	Items of functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values	Mean values of five value dimensions and travel motivations

In addition to these quantitative data results and the Leximancer maps, the results obtained by the qualitative data analysis also were used to discuss the research propositions.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter described the online survey design. It evaluated the online survey as a method of data collection in contemporary research and identified the merits of online data collection and its suitability for the current research's purposes. The nature of respondents and their geographical distribution also justified the use of an online survey. In addition, the structure of the questionnaire was discussed in detail and, more importantly, the measures for each of the research variables was discussed and the specific sources of these items were listed.

The quantitative study was therefore applicable to evaluate the conceptual framework, which was also developed and improved by the literature and qualitative study findings. The next chapter will present a detailed discussion of the quantitative data analysis.

CHAPTER 6.

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents the results of the quantitative analysis. It consists of an introduction to the questionnaire; data collection and preparation of data; demographic analysis of the sample; ANOVA analysis; PLS analysis with a model comparison between three independent groups who represented the three stages (consideration, evaluation and selection) of the destination decision-making process; Leximancer analysis on textual data; and, a descriptive analysis of Indian travellers who selected Sri Lanka as a travel destination.

6.2 QUESTIONNAIRE FORMAT, NATURE, AND TESTING

The research questionnaire employed Qualtrics software, a software package which facilitates the development of online questionnaires. As described in the previous chapter, the questionnaire contained three main sections: i.e., filtering questions to identify the correct respondents; the main research variables; and, trip characteristics and demographics of respondents (see Appendix 2). In addition, two open-ended questions were included, one relating to travel motivations, and another exploring the value dimensions of destination selection.

The main purpose of the questionnaire was to evaluate the destination selection decision-making process of potential visitors. The destination selection process, for this study, is identified as a three-stage process. To evaluate each stage of the decision-making process, it was decided to identify three sample groups corresponding to the three main stages of the decision-making process. The three groups of respondents are identified as: people who had already selected their final vacation destination; people who had not yet selected their final vacation destination but who had shortlisted two options; and, people who had not yet selected a final vacation destination but who had identified more than two options. Furthermore, the first category (those who had already selected their final destination) were again divided into two categories, i.e., respondents who had

selected Sri Lanka as their final destination, and those who had selected a holiday destination other than Sri Lanka. Therefore, the questionnaire had a categorical variable that divided the total sample into four.

The questionnaire was initially complex. The main issue that needed to be addressed was how to prepare a common questionnaire for four different subsets of samples. As a solution, the main variables related to the destination decision-making process (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value) were repeated in the questionnaire so that each particular subsample saw only the section relevant to them. However, the questionnaire items which were used were exactly the same for each subset of the sample, and the only difference was the headings/instructions relating to each main variable. For example, respondents who had already selected their destination were asked to evaluate how important the items had been when selecting the final vacation destination, and those who had not yet selected the final vacation destination were asked to evaluate the importance of the given items when shortlisting their potential destination options. Therefore, the special character of this questionnaire was to encourage respondents to engage in two temporal models of thinking relevant to their decision-making stage. To incorporate all these elements into the questionnaire, Qualtrics' advanced features such as display logic, skip logic, and question piping were used.

In particular, this questionnaire identified the main categories of the sample at the very beginning and asked questions relating to how they selected (or shortlisted) destinations with respect to the given questionnaire items. This approach is quite different from the conventional questionnaire design in which questions for independent and dependent variables are asked independently and then linked only in the analysis stage. However, other variables (those not directly connected to the destination selection process) such as human values, travel constraints, and travel motivations were used as independent variables to the various stages of the decision-making process.

Given these issues, the questionnaire was altered and formatted several times in the process of finalising its design. Regular lengthy discussions with doctoral supervisors also helped the researcher to come up with a user-friendly

questionnaire which fulfilled the needs of the study. In addition to the guidance provided by the supervisors, additional Waikato Management School faculty members, especially a professor in the Marketing Department, were also involved in the questionnaire design process and this professor gave her opinions as to the wording of the questions and potential data analysis.

The target group for the questionnaire was Indian potential holiday makers. For that reason, the questionnaire had to be suitable for Indian people. As the questionnaire was developed by a Sri Lankan, it was assumed that the questionnaire would be appropriate for Indian respondents because of the two countries' cultural similarities. In addition, the experience and information gained through the qualitative data collection were also drawn on in constructing the questionnaire. Moreover, the researcher continuously received feedback and comments from Indians living in Hamilton, especially doctoral students, to ensure the suitability and comprehensibility of the questionnaire to an Indian audience.

When the questionnaire was finalised, a pilot test was undertaken with Indians who were accessed through social media sites such as LinkedIn, Facebook, and, with Indian friends living in New Zealand and elsewhere. The pilot test received 69 total hits for the questionnaire with 12 being completed.

Based on the data collected from the pilot test, one more filtering question was added to the questionnaire to exclude non leisure-oriented travellers (business, study, etc.) from the sample.

6.3 DATACOLLECTION

Once the questionnaire had been finalised, the final data collection was carried out by a market survey company based in Mumbai, India. The link of the questionnaire (http://waikatomngt.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3K82dIzId1NU6eV) was sent to the company and it distributed the link among its existing panels. A quota was assigned in advance to each of the four subsets of samples to ensure an adequate number of questionnaires were fully completed for each sample category and this condition for data collection was given to the market survey company. A total of around 10,000 people were sent the questionnaire; 6,706 people tried the

questionnaire, with 2,388 qualifying as the right respondent for the study. After receiving the full data file from the market survey company, nonqualified responses, careless responses, and incomplete responses were removed. A total of 766 completed responses remained for analysis.

6.4 SAMPLE DESCRIPTION AND DATA PREPARATION

The 766 respondents in the sample represent three independent groups corresponding to the three stages of the destination decision-making process: consideration (191), evaluation (200), and selection (375). Moreover, the selection stage was again divided into two main subsamples: respondents who had selected Sri Lanka (181), and respondents who had selected a destination other than Sri Lanka (194). The sample which had selected Sri Lanka was excluded from the main analysis for two reasons. First, the research objective of this thesis is to assess the influence of values on each stage of the decision-making process. Removing one of the subsamples of the selection stage helped to make all the three stages' sample size comparable (191; 200; 194). Second, the responses of the Sri Lanka-selected sample (181) are destination-specific responses, whereas the responses of the other subgroup are based on a range of other destinations. However, the subsample for Sri Lanka was analysed separately in order to gain Sri Lankan-specific insights relating to the Indian market.

Hence, the data sample of 585 (191+200+194) respondents was used in the quantitative data analysis. The answers for 'not applicable columns' for the seven variables (travel motivations, functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value, and travel constraints) were coded as zero values in the data set. Therefore, it was decided to address this issue before starting the data analysis to ensure no problems existed within the data set.

Prior to analysis, a zero value was then treated as missing data. Such missing responses in the data set accounted for less than 10% in all and were below 5% for many individual items (41 in all) (Appendix 3A).

The question remained, however, of whether these values were actually missing or represented a particular value. "Before applying a missing-data procedure, one should consider whether an underlying 'true' value exists and, if so, whether that

value is unknown” (Schafer & Graham, 2002, p. 148). As a result, it was determined that the answers recorded in the ‘not applicable’ column were significantly closer to the ‘extremely unimportant’ column in important-unimportant scales that were used to measure responses to the five consumption value variables (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, conditional). As Acock (2005) notes, a lack of importance is not akin to a measure of indifference on an agreement scale and, thus, the implication of ‘no importance’ appeared to indicate ‘not applicable’. Therefore, the ‘not applicable’ column answers for the prescribed five variables were recoded into the lowest possible score (which is 1) in the 7-point Likert scale.

The variables travel motivation and travel constraints were measured on agree-disagree and influential-uninfluential scales respectively. Therefore, the responses recorded in the ‘not applicable’ column were imputed using EM (expectation maximisation) method in SPSS software. EM is considered as an advanced method (compared to traditional missing values imputation methods) and imputes values for all the missing values based on maximum likelihood values. This particular method is suitable when the pattern of missing values is random and the percentage of missing values is low for each of the indicators in the data set (Acock, 2005). The pattern of missing values for the indicators showed random distribution over the data set with the most of the missing data accounting for less than 5% of the responses (Appendix 3B-1, 3B-2, 3B-3)

The use of Likert scaled items precluded outliers (Tsang, Prideaux, & Lee, 2016). However, the mean and trimmed mean values were calculated for the questionnaire items to examine any adverse effects on outliers of the data set. According to the results, very marginal differences between mean and trimmed mean were reported with the highest difference being 0.17 and the lowest being 0.06 (Appendix 3C). Therefore, for the subsequent analysis, the data set was treated as being free from outliers (Healy, 1979; Hu & Sung, 2004).

6.4.1 DEMOGRAPHICS AND TRIP CHARACTERISTICS

This section presents the demographic and characteristics of the intended trip distribution of the sample.

6.4.1.1 DEMOGRAPHICS

Table 6-1 shows the demographic distribution of the sample. The gender distribution demonstrates that the majority of the respondents in the sample were males, with a ratio of five male respondents to one female respondent. Moreover, 92% of the sample were aged between 18 and 35 years. When it comes to the marital status of the respondents, most of the respondents in the sample (399) are single (never married), and they accounted for 68% of the total sample. As can be seen in Table 6.1, 73% of the respondents have at least a bachelor's degree and 14% of the sample stopped their education after the high school. The occupational breakdown shows a fair distribution among the categories with 34%, 22%, and 19% being students, clerical employees, and professionals respectively. Businesspeople (72) represent 12% of the sample.

Table 6-1. Demographic distribution of the sample

Category	Frequency (%)	Category	Frequency (%)
Gender (N = 585)		Marital Status (N = 585)	
Male	486 (83%)	Single (never married)	399(68%)
Female	99(17%)	Married	182(31%)
		Other	4(%)
Level of Education (N = 585)			
Bachelor's degree	271(46%)	Age group (N = 585)	
Postgraduate	158(27%)	18-25	347(59%)
High school	79(14%)	26-35	191(33%)
Certificate/Diploma	48(8%)	36-45	33(6%)
Professionally qualified	29(5%)	46-55, 56-65, and >65	14 (2%)
Occupation (N = 585)		Monthly Income (N = 585)	
Student	199 (34%)	Less than Rs.35,000	364(62%)
Clerical employee	129(22%)	Rs.35,000 - Rs.45,000	95(16%)
Professional	112(19%)	Rs.45,000 - Rs.60,000	42(7%)
Business	72(12%)	More than Rs.1,10,000	33(6%)
Admin./Executive	49(8%)	Rs.60,000 - Rs.80,000	30(5%)
Other	24(4%)	Rs.80,000 - Rs.1,10,000	21(4%)

The majority i.e., 364 of the sample earn less than Rs.35000 (550 USD) a month and they accounted for 62% of the sample. A total of 95 respondents earned between Rs.35000 (550 USD) and Rs.45000 (715 USD) a month, placing them in the second highest income category.

Overall, the sample is mainly comprised of young educated single males. The

sample approximates the gender distribution of Internet users in India where 61% of the Internet users are males (Statista, 2013b). Moreover, the age distribution of Internet users is congruent with the sample age distribution. According to (Statista, 2013a), 75% of Indian Internet users are below 34 years of age. On the other hand, 50% of Indian online traffic goes to travel-related purposes, and 47% of Indian travellers use social media while they are travelling (MyTravel Research.com, 2015). Consequently, Indian Internet users represent the majority of Indian travellers and the sample is representative of Indian travellers.

6.4.1.2 TRIP CHARACTERISTICS

In addition to the demographics, the intended vacation trip characteristics were examined. These trip characteristics can be used to further understand the sample. The trip characteristics include information about type of accommodation preferred, length of trip, time to trip, and travel companions.

Table 6-2. Trip characteristics

Category	Frequency (%)	Category	Frequency (%)
Accommodation (N = 585)		Length of trip (N = 585)	
Hotels	373(64%)	Less than a week	151(26%)
Stay with friends and relatives	207(35%)	1 week to 2 weeks	243(42%)
Other	5(1%)	2 weeks to 3 weeks	129(22%)
		More than 3 weeks	62(11%)
Travel Companions (N = 585)			
Alone	75(13%)	Time to trip (N = 585)	
With friends	203(35%)	After 1 week	44(8%)
With spouse or girl/boy only	91(16%)	After 2 weeks	51(9%)
With family members	165(28%)	After 1 month	88(15%)
With family members and friends	46(8%)	After 2 months	113(9%)
other	5(1%)	After 4 months	92(16%)
		After 6 months	153(26%)
		After 8 months	44(8%)

As shown in Table 6-2, most respondents plan a trip for ‘1 week to 2 weeks’ and this characteristic applies to 42% of the sample. Moreover, trip durations of ‘less than 1 week’ and of ‘2 weeks to 3 weeks’ are also popular; together both these options report an aggregate of 48% of the total sample. The majority of the

sample ($n = 153$, 26% of the sample) planned to take the trip 6 months after completing the online questionnaire. According to *Table 6-2*, 203 respondents plan to go on vacation with friends (representing 35% in the sample), indicating friends are popular travel companions. Going with family members is the second highest preference in terms of travel companions ($n = 165$, 28% of the sample), whereas spouse girl/boyfriend is only the third highest preference among the total sample when it comes to travel companions ($n = 91$, 16% of the sample).

It is important to understand travel behaviours in terms of the type of accommodation people choose while on their trip. As *Table 6-2* reveals, most of the sample's respondents ($n = 373$) prefer hotel accommodation, a preference which represents 66% of the total choices made. Staying with friends and relatives is the second highest preference for the choice of accommodation ($n = 207$, 35% of the sample). Overall, the given trip characteristics are shown to be fairly evenly distributed across respondents.

6.4.1.3 SOURCES OF INFORMATION USED IN TRAVEL DECISION-MAKING

Information is vital in destination decision-making. *Table 6. 6-3* shows the various types of information sources used by the respondents to plan their trip.

Table 6. 6-3. Sources of information used by the sample to plan the trip

Sources of information	Frequency (%)
Internet search	284 (49%)
Travel agencies	207 (35%)
From friends and relatives	239 (41%)
Internet advertising	198 (34%)
Own knowledge	212 (36%)
Radio/TV	134 (23%)
Newspaper/magazine	151 (26%)
Travel blogs and forums	135 (23%)
Guide books	126 (21%)
Outdoor advertising (promotion campaigns, trade fairs etc.)	76 (13%)

Internet searching was used by 284 (49% of respondents) respondents. Friends and relatives, own knowledge, and travel agency ranked second, third, and fourth as popular information sources for the respondents in the sample, representing 239 (41%), 212 (36%) and 207 (35%) respectively. However, all the other information sources are shown to be reasonably popular among the respondents, with the

exception of outdoor advertising, which was used by only 13% of the sample.

6.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHICS AND TRIP CHARACTERISTICS

Chi-squared automatic interaction detection (CHAID) was performed to reveal the statistical relationship between the demographics of prospective travellers (predictor variables) and the trip characteristics (target variables). Additionally, CHAID analysis is one of the decision tree techniques which can be used to find the statistically significant relationships between one dependent variable and more than one independent variable (Avsar & Yalçin, 2015; Kagnicioglu & Mogol, 2014; van Diepen & Franses, 2006).

Traveller demographics and trip characteristics are either nominal or ordinal, and, therefore, CHAID analysis was selected over other similar techniques like CRT (classification and regressions trees) (Berry & Linoff, 2004). The CHAID test generates hierarchical nodes for each predictor variable with regard to the given target variable, if respondents for the target variable can be classified into significantly different groups with regard to a predictor variable (Berry & Linoff, 2004). In this case the significant difference is measured by the *p* value which is calculated by a statistical test and compared with a threshold (Kagnicioglu & Mogol, 2014) (Rokach & Maimon, 2007).

When classification is performed, the highest chi-square value nodes come first in the diagram and the lowest chi-square value nodes are set at the bottom (Althuwaynee, Pradhan, Park, & Lee, 2014). This particular test can merge categories in the predictor variables to reveal significant classifications in the target variable (van Diepen & Franses, 2006).

Six demographics variables (gender, age, marital status, level of education, occupation, and monthly income) and six trip characteristics (domestic vs. foreign trip, length of stay, travel companions, first time vs. repeat visitation, type of accommodation, and mode of transport) are considered in this study. IBM SPSS statistics (version 24) was used to perform the CHAID analysis; the six independent variables (demographic variables) were used together with one of the

six dependent variables at a time.

The results (Appendix 4A) of the CHAID analysis for travel companions as the dependent variable shows travel companions for the intended trip depend on the marital status, gender, and occupation of the respondents. Married people plan to travel with their family members/spouse, whereas unmarried people like to travel mostly with friends ($\chi^2=58.19$, $df=2$, $p<0.001$). Moreover, when unmarried people are considered again, it can be seen that male respondents like to travel with friends, whereas female respondents like to travel with their family members ($\chi^2=9.70$, $df=2$, $p<0.05$). As a result, the single male respondents were again divided into two groups based on their occupations. According to the nodes, those in administrator/executive, students, and clerical occupations travel mostly with their friends and professionals and business people travel mostly with their friends, girlfriend, or family members ($\chi^2=13.89$, $df=2$, $p <0.05$).

Length of trip as a dependent variable produced only two child nodes (Appendix 4B). The results show that the marital status of the respondent determines the length of the potential trip ($\chi^2=5.94$, $df=1$, $p <0.05$). However, most married and unmarried respondents preferred '1 week to 2 weeks' for the length of their trip.

The test for mode of accommodation also produced one level of CHAID nodes (Appendix 4C). The occupation of the respondents classified the whole sample into two groups with regard to accommodation selection ($\chi^2=18.02$, $df=1$, $p<0.05$). Professionals, clerical employees, and business people demonstrated a higher percentage (72%) using hotels than did the administrative/executive and student (56%) groups.

The CHAID analysis produced three first-level child nodes for the transportation mode as the dependent variable (Appendix 4D). The monthly income of the respondents broke the total sample down into three statistically significant groups based on the trip's mode of transport ($\chi^2=87.71$, $df=6$, $p<0.001$). According to the results, lower income people (<Rs. 35000 monthly income) prefer to travel by train (54% of respondents) and middle income (Rs. 35000-45000 monthly income) and high income (>Rs.45000 monthly income) earners prefer air

transportation (mid-income 56% and high-income 72%).

The trip can be domestic or foreign. According to the CHAID analysis, the decision to choose domestic rather than foreign travel depends on the monthly income of a prospective visitor. The decision tree diagram (Appendix 4E) divided the whole sample into three first level nodes based on the monthly income with regard to the type (foreign vs. domestic) of the intended trip ($\chi^2=48.47$, $df=4$, $p<0.001$). Accordingly, people who earn comparatively less monthly income prefer domestic trips and people who earn comparatively more prefer foreign trips. Moreover, the group of respondents whose monthly income was less than Rs. 35,000 was again divided into two categories based on age with respect to the type of the trip (foreign vs. domestic) ($\chi^2=8.79$, $df=2$, $p<0.05$). Here the results show that 59.5% of those people under 25 prefer domestic travel and this percentage rises to 68% for respondents who are over 25. Moreover, 27.3 % of those under 25 earning less than Rs. 35000 a month have planned foreign travel, while for those over 25, the percentage planning foreign travel is 13%.

Appendix 4F shows the tree diagram created for first time vs. repeat visit as the dependent variable based on independent demographic variables. According to the decision tree, the group of respondents who have already selected their vacation destination can be divided into two nodes based on marital status. As that diagram shows, 62% of the married visitors have chosen a destination which they have previously visited and 60% of the unmarried respondents have chosen a new destination for their next vacation ($\chi^2=7.89$, $df=1$, $p<0.05$).

6.6 TESTING THE DIFFERENCE OF VALUE DIMENSIONS BETWEEN STAGES OF DECISION-MAKING (ANOVA)

This research investigates the influence of consumption values (dimensions of selective image) in each of the stages of the destination selection decision-making process. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the differences between three independent subgroups that represent the consideration, evaluation, and selection stages of the process.

Descriptive statistics of the questionnaire items pertaining to the five value dimensions were calculated before undertaking the ANOVA test (Appendix 5A).

Table 6-4 lists value items that recorded the highest mean scores.

Table 6-4 Extraction of items based on descriptive statistics of five value dimensions

Questionnaire Item	Mean	Standard deviation
<u>Functional value</u>		
Safety	5.57	1.71
Cities	5.30	1.62
Nature	5.28	1.76
Cleanliness	5.28	1.77
Accommodation	5.27	1.66
Weather/climate	5.25	1.70
<u>Social value</u>		
Destination talk about by most of the people	4.86	1.68
Suitable for travel companions	4.85	1.83
Destination I can meet friendly people	4.84	1.74
<u>Emotional value</u>		
Fun & Enjoyable destination	5.47	1.64
That destination makes me relax	5.33	1.64
<u>Epistemic Value</u>		
That destination gives me different experience	5.13	1.79
I can learn many things	5.07	1.78
<u>Conditional Value</u>		
Convenient travel time	5.18	1.68
Trip Can be planned within the time available	5.15	1.65
It fits with my budget	5.14	1.68

The results indicate that safety, cities, and nature are the main functional values considered by participants when they select vacation destinations. Moreover, Indians like to travel to places that are talked about by many people. However, the suitability of the destination for their travel companions also is considered in their travel decisions. Having fun and relaxation are the main emotional values and having different experiences and to learn while traveling are the main epistemic values they hold. Finally, convenient travel time, trip planning time, and financial viability are the main conditional values considered by the Indian market when they select the vacation destinations.

The next section presents the results of ANOVA test performed to discover the mean value differences of questionnaire items between the three stages of the destination decision-making process.

Descriptive statistics (standard deviation, mean, kurtosis, and skewness) were calculated to understand the data distributions and rating patterns for each of the

indicators of five variables i.e., functional value, social value, emotional value, and conditional value. As previously mentioned, these variables were constructed using a 7-point important-unimportant scale. Descriptive statistics results (Appendix 5A) show a negative skewness for all the variables, indicating a generally high-end ranking for variables (Field, 2009). However, most of the variables meet the condition for ‘at least approximately normal’ distribution as those variables’ skewness values reported between +1 and -1 (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2008).

ANOVA is expected to be robust with approximately normally distributed data (Field, 2009). As a prerequisite for ANOVA, the homogeneity of variance was calculated based on Levene’s test for all the test indicators. According to the results (The test results of indicators were obtained separately for each of the value dimensions and were presented in the appendixes.), the homogeneity of variance assumption was found to be violated, since the Levene statistic for the indicators was less than 0.05 (Field, 2009) (Appendix 5B, 5C, 5D, 5E, and 5F). Since the homogeneity of variance assumption was found to be violated, Welch’s *F* values were calculated and examined instead of values in the main ANOVA table (Field, 2013). The sample sizes of the three subgroups were slightly different (191, 200, 194). In this case, Field advised; “If sample sizes are slightly different then use Gabriel’s procedure because it has greater power, but if sample sizes are very different use Hochberg’s GT2” (Field, 2009, pp. 374-375). Therefore, Gabriel’s test was selected (as a post hoc test) to examine the real sources of differences, as the samples sizes were slightly different (Field, 2013).

6.6.1 FUNCTIONAL VALUE

Table. 6-5 shows the 14 items (out of 18 questionnaire items) showing a significant difference in the mean values between the three stages of the decision-making process. Overall, there are variations in the importance of functional attributes when selecting a destination(s) between the three stages of decision-making process where the mean scores decrease.

Gabriel’s test results (Appendix 5B) showed that 12 items (‘many places to visit’, ‘scenery’, ‘nature’, ‘sea’, ‘wildlife’, ‘heritage’, ‘food’, ‘accommodation’, ‘cleanliness’, ‘technological advances’, ‘safety’, and ‘cities’) differ significantly

between the evaluation and selection stages, as well as between the consideration and selection stages. Two items ('weather/climate', 'culture') differ between only the consideration and selection stages.

Table. 6-5. Mean differences of indicators — functional value

Variable	Consideration (N=191)		Evaluation (N=200)		Selection (N=194)		Welch*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
Many places to visit	4.83	1.807	4.97	1.704	4.36	2.109	5.13	.006
Scenery	5.27	1.773	5.18	1.694	4.65	2.111	5.31	.005
Nature	5.55	1.598	5.55	1.539	4.75	1.998	11.74	.000
Sea	5.25	1.676	5.36	1.550	4.45	1.998	13.62	.000
Wildlife	5.02	1.588	5.12	1.539	4.60	1.850	4.89	.008
Weather/Climate	5.55	1.558	5.26	1.630	4.95	1.853	5.99	.003
Culture	5.40	1.559	5.17	1.526	4.82	1.913	5.29	.005
Heritage	5.30	1.603	5.17	1.526	4.76	1.840	4.90	.008
Food	5.52	1.545	5.36	1.553	4.86	1.873	7.34	.001
Accommodation	5.51	1.552	5.40	1.517	4.91	1.830	6.68	.001
Cleanliness	5.58	1.600	5.45	1.609	4.82	1.985	9.24	.000
Technological advances	5.25	1.735	5.32	1.581	4.66	2.022	6.96	.001
Safety	5.92	1.504	5.66	1.602	5.12	1.909	10.43	.000
Cities	5.42	1.580	5.48	1.428	4.99	1.794	4.71	.010

*The *df*1 for each item was 2 and the *df*2 was between 382 and 385.

Since the majority of attributes (14 out of 18, 77%) of the functional value differ significantly between the three stages, this result indicates that the level of importance of a destination's attribute can vary within the various stages of the destination decision-making process. Particularly, the discovery that 12 items differ significantly between the evaluation and selection (last two stages), and that 14 (prescribed 12+2 other) items differ between consideration and selection [the first stage and last stage] shows that there is a pattern of relative importance of attributes along the process. There are significant differences between the last two stages and between the first stage and the last stage for the same set of functional attributes, indicating a significant gap between first and last stages of the decision-making process regarding the relative importance of the destination's attributes.

6.6.2 SOCIAL VALUE

ANOVA analysis revealed (*Table 6-6*) two items out of seven questionnaire items as significantly different between the three stages of decision-making.

Table 6-6. Mean differences of indicators — social value

Variable	Consideration (N=191)		Evaluation (N=200)		Selection (N=194)		Welch*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
Proffered by travel companions	4.85	1.783	4.95	1.699	4.40	2.119	4.183	.016
Suitable for travel companions	4.97	1.704	5.05	1.665	4.53	2.069	4.040	.018

*The *df*1 for each item was 2 and the *df*2 was between 383 and 384.

Gabriel’s test (Appendix 5C) confirms that both items differ significantly between the evaluation and selection stage.

As only two items were significantly different when the three stages were compared; social value does not seem to be a key factor in determining choice sets during the decision-making process. Nevertheless, prospective visitors appear to consider the suitability of the destination for their travel companions and the preferences of the travel companions when they shortlist the potential destinations during the decision-making period.

6.6.3 EMOTIONAL VALUE

Table 6-7 depicts the three items (out of five items) that varied significantly in the three stages. According to Gabriel’s test (Appendix 5D), two items (‘that destination fascinates me’, ‘fun and enjoyable destination’) were found to differ significantly between the evaluation and selection stages as well as between the consideration and selection stages. The remaining item (‘destination makes me relax’) was found to differ significantly between consideration and selection stage.

Since most of the questionnaire items (three out of five) measuring emotional value were found to be significantly different between stages, emotional value can be considered as a factor that influences the shortlisting of destinations during the destination decision-making process. Being ‘fun and enjoyable’ and ‘that destination fascinates me’ appear to have affected the selection of the final destination.

Table 6-7. Mean differences of indicators — emotional value

Variable	Consideration (N=191)		Evaluation (N=200)		Selection (N=194)		Welch*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
That destination fascinates me.	5.41	1.680	5.33	1.470	4.91	1.715	4.878	.008
That destination makes me relax.	5.62	1.614	5.34	1.592	5.04	1.675	6.013	.003
Fun and enjoyable destination	5.70	1.556	5.63	1.478	5.08	1.804	7.622	.001

*The *df*1 for each item was 2 and the *df*2 was between 384 and 386

Both of these and the remaining factor showed significant differences between the first and last stages of the decision-making process, thus, demonstrating a pattern of reducing means along the decision-making process.

6.6.4 EPISTEMIC VALUE

Two questionnaire items (out of three) were found to significantly differ between the three stages of the decision-making process (Table 6-8), and, according to Gabriel's test (Appendix 5E), both items differed between the evaluation and selection stages as well as between the consideration and selection stages.

Table 6-8. Mean differences of indicators — epistemic value

Variable	Consideration (N=191)		Evaluation (N=200)		Selection (N=194)		Welch*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
That destination gives me different experience	5.40	1.726	5.26	1.613	4.73	1.980	6.868	.001
I can learn many things	5.29	1.765	5.28	1.518	4.62	1.971	8.169	.000

*The *df*1 for each item was 2 and the *df*2 was between 381 and 385

As the results show, epistemic value also contributes to shortlisting destinations along the decision-making process.

6.6.5 CONDITIONAL VALUE

According to Table 6-9, four items (out of seven) were found to possess significantly different mean values between the three different stages. Gabriel's test (Appendix 5F) revealed that the item 'it fits with my budget' significantly differed between the evaluation and selection stage as well as the consideration

and selection stages. The item ‘I know people who live there’ was found to have differed only between the consideration and selection stages. However, the remaining two items (convenient travel time, travel agent/airline gave me a good package) did not show any significant differences between stages.

Table 6-9. Mean differences of indicators — conditional value

Variable	Consideration (N=191)		Evaluation (N=200)		Selection (N=194)		Welch*	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	Sig.
It fits with my budget.	5.33	1.626	5.27	1.522	4.82	1.838	4.727	.009
I know people who live there.	4.29	1.874	4.82	1.616	4.43	1.928	4.932	.008
Convenient travel time	5.31	1.571	5.32	1.559	4.92	1.872	3.237	.040
Travel agent/airline gave me a good package.	4.69	1.998	5.08	1.653	4.70	1.908	3.040	.049

**The df1 for each item was 2 and the df2 was between 383 and 386.*

As the results show, the conditional value also reflects significant differences between the stages of destination decision-making, indicating that situational factors can also shape the characteristics of the various choice sets during the process.

6.6.6 COMMON INSIGHTS

The ANOVA results indicate that, generally speaking, the mean values of the questionnaire items were decreasing, while the respective SD values were increasing along the process of destination decision-making. Since the different respondents evaluate certain items as more and less important, the mean value can decrease with an increase of the SD. This variation might be because the prospective visitors consider that more items are important at the earlier stages of the decision-making process, whereas they consider only a very few items as important at the latter stages. This reasoning leads to a conclusion that even though prospective visitors think about many requirements and features when they develop alternative destinations, they actually rely on only a few very important features and requirements when shortlisting options and selecting the final vacation destination.

In addition, the overall results of the ANOVA (Gabriel's) test could reveal that the importance of the indicators of the five values demonstrate significant differences at the later stages of the decision-making process than at the earlier stages.

Figure 6-1. Number of significantly different value indicators between stages of designation decision-making process.

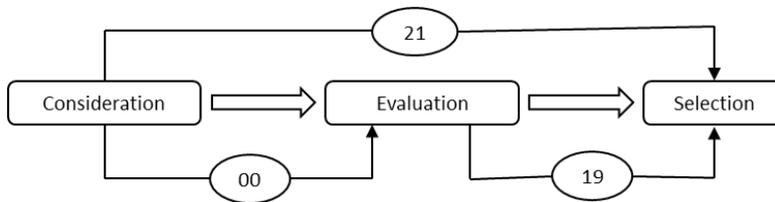


Figure 6-1 indicates the importance of 19 value attributes that were found to be significantly different between the evaluation stage and the selection stage and that no value attribute was found to be significantly different between consideration and evaluation. However, there are 21 value attributes whose importance is significantly different between the consideration and selection stages.

6.7 PATH MODELLING TO ASSESS VALUE BEHAVIOUR IN DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING (PLS)

6.7.1 INTRODUCTION TO PARTIAL LEAST SQUARE

The technique of structural equation modelling (SEM) can overcome three common limitations found with classical methods of data analysis (multivariate regression, discriminant analysis, logistic regression, analysis of variance, factor and cluster analysis, etc.) (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). According to Haenlein and Kaplan (2004), three types of capabilities advance SEM over other methods; they are: ability to deal with several independent and dependent variables, while assessing the effects of mediating and moderating variables; ability to deal with unobservable variables (deriving unobserved variables latent to observed constructs); and, taking the observational errors (random error and systematic error) into account in the process of analysis.

Two distinct approaches in SEM are widely used in social research: covariance-based SEM and variance-based SEM (Wong, 2013). Covariance-based SEM is recommended for research studies whose analysis aims are theory testing, theory

conformation, and comparisons between alternative theories. In contrast variance-based SEM is recommended for exploratory studies, whose aims are to identify the key target constructs or key driver constructs (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). Since this particular study is seeking to explore the value based constructs influencing destination decision-making behaviour, variance- based SEM known as partial least squares (PLS) was selected.

In particular, the reasons for selecting the PLS approach for this research were: use of a large number of indicators (18 for functional value, 11 for travel motivations, 9 for human value, 7 for social value, 5 for emotional value, 8 for travel constraints, 7 for conditional value, and 3 for epistemic value) per one construct (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004) and non-normal distribution of observed indicators (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009); the ability to model second-order constructs (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014); and, the ability to use latent variable scores in subsequent analysis (Hair et al., 2011). Furthermore, as this study uses a reasonably large sample of 585, size of the sample does not affect the PLS results (even though PLS is recommended for smaller sample sizes), since it always stipulates only the minimum sample sizes based on number of indicators for a construct and/or number of structural paths directed to a construct in the model (Hair et al., 2011). On the other hand, alternative statistical analysis techniques like discriminant analysis, cluster analysis, multinomial logistic regression, etc. was not congruent with the data set, since the initial parameters of these techniques were found to violate of basic assumptions of the tests mainly due to non-normal distribution of the data.

A PLS model, like any SEM analysis, has main two components: a structural model (typically referred as the inner model in PLS), and a measurement model (typically referred to as the outer model) (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Hair et al., 2011). In the structural model, two types of latent constructs can be identified: exogenous and endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2011). Exogenous variables are the latent variables that do not have any path relationships pointing to them (Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013). Endogenous variables are the latent target variables that are explained by the other constructs in the model and an endogenous variable has at least one path leading to it (Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013). The

measurement model indicates the unidirectional relationships between the latent variables and their respective, observed indicators. Moreover, a particular indicator variable can associate with only one latent construct (no multiple relations are allowed in PLS) (Hair et al., 2011). However, in addition to the two parts of the measurements and structural models, PLS has a third component (specifically for PLS) which consists of the weighted relations on which case values for the latent variables are estimated (Chin, 1998b).

The indicators used in the model of PLS (as with other SEM models) are divided into two types: formative measurement scales and reflective measurement scales (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Wong, 2013). Formative measurement should be used when there is no correlation between indicators of a particular latent variable (Wong, 2013).

The research conceptual framework in this study has four major variables: human values, travel motivations, travel constraints, and selective image. The selective image, as the main variable in the conceptual framework, was modelled as a second-order variable to the five first-order variables: i.e., functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value, given that the research questionnaire consisted of 68 indicators for eight first-order variables. Since the SEM techniques need to identify whether a particular set of indicators is reflective or formative for the respective latent variable (construct), reflective/formative modelling is briefly discussed in the next section as a foundation for the current research model.

6.7.2 REFLECTIVE AND FORMATIVE INDICATORS

The relationship between indicators (observed variables) and constructs (unobserved latent variables) of research models is twofold: i.e., formative and reflective (Baxter, 2009; Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008). In reflection models, the direction of arrows is set from the construct to the indicators, and in formative models, the direction of arrows is set from the indicators to the construct (Hair et al., 2014).

However, recent literature extensively criticises the improper establishment of relationships between indicators and constructs for SEM analyses (Baxter, 2009;

Coltman et al., 2008; Diamantopoulos, 2008; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Lee, 2003). "... different results are obtainable from analysis depending on whether the conceptualization is formative or reflective" (Baxter, 2009, p. 1371). Therefore, it is important to examine how these relationships are correctly established. Some authors argue selecting between formative and reflective depends mainly on how the researcher conceptualises these relationships (Baxter, 2009; Coltman et al., 2008). "... a construct is not intrinsically either formative or reflective: construct conceptualization determines the formative or reflective nature" (Baxter, 2009, p. 1377). However, as Podsakoff et al. (2003) state, certain constructs need to be modelled as formative; "... some constructs ... are fundamentally formative in nature and should not be modelled reflectively" (p. 650). In addition to the conceptualisation and the theoretical stance of the concept, the nature and the way of asking the questions (of course, the questions are set on a theoretical base) in the questionnaire are also to be considered when deciding between formative and reflective modelling (Baxter, 2009; Coltman et al., 2008). Reflective measurements assume that the construct causes the measurement of indicator variables (Hair et al., 2014), which is considered as deductive reasoning (Baumann, Elliott, & Hamin, 2011). In the reflective modelling, it is expected that the indicators are correlated moderately strongly (Baxter, 2009).

Formative measurements assume that the indicator variables cause the measurement of the construct (Hair et al., 2014), which is considered as inductive reasoning (Baumann et al., 2011). The formative measures are more appropriate if the indicators are independent causes of the construct being measured with little correlation between them (Baxter, 2009).

6.7.3 ASSESSMENT OF MEASUREMENT MODEL

This section assesses the outer (measurement model) of the PLS path model created for the current study. The model was basically created to measure the relationships between variables and to compare the model across the three groups of data that represent the three stages (consideration, evaluation, and selection) of the decision-making process.

6.7.3.1 ASSESSMENT CRITERIA AND GUIDELINES

“... researchers applying PLS-SEM first have to examine the measurement model’s characteristics and deal with those that are unacceptable” (Hair et al., 2011, p. 143). The literature suggests assessing the measurement model (with reflective indicators) with regard to their reliability and validity (Hair et al., 2011; Hulland, 1999).

The reliability of individual items (indicators) of the PLS measurement model is to be assessed based on their loadings with the respective constructs; loadings of 0.7 or more are generally accepted (threshold value) as good item reliability (Hulland, 1999). When assessing the reliability of the constructs (internal consistency reliability), it is suggested that the researcher should focus on composite reliability as an estimate of a construct’s internal consistency, since composite reliability prioritises indicators’ reliability during model estimation rather than assumes all the indicators are equally reliable, as in Cronbach’s alpha (Hair et al., 2011). The composite reliability value should be 0.7 or higher to ensure a good internal consistency of constructs (Hair et al., 2011).

When assessing for the validity, two types of validity are recommended for testing: convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011; Hulland, 1999). Convergent validity is defined as the “Extent to which a set of measured variables actually represents the theoretical latent constructs those variables are designed to measure” (Hair, 2010, p. 689). In PLS models, an average variance-extracted (AVE) value of 0.5 and higher (Hair et al., 2011) indicates a good convergent validity. Discriminant validity is defined as the “Extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs” (Hair, 2010, p. 689), and “the extent to which measures of a given construct differ from measures of other constructs in a same model” (Hulland, 1999, p. 199). Discriminant validity is secured, in a PLS model, if an indicator’s loading with its associated latent construct is higher than its loadings with all other latent constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2011). In addition, the square root of AVE in each latent variable should be higher than the correlations among latent variables so as to establish discriminant validity for the constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Based on these assessment criteria and guidelines for assessing the measurement

model of a PLS path model, the following section will demonstrate step by step how current research data help to confirm the measurements of the path model.

6.7.3.2 EVALUATING THE MEASUREMENT MODEL OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Software, data preparation, and importing the data to software

Smartpls (version 2 and 3) was used to do the PLS modelling for the data set. Smartpls version 2 is freely available and specially designed for PLS modelling.

A copy of the original SPSS file was created to use for PLS analyses. The names of all the indicators (observed variables) were coded into small names, since those can be easily used in the PLS model. Some of the data (open-ended questions, ranking questions, etc.) were deleted to avoid the validation issues in PLS software. The SPSS data file was saved into a different format (.csv) to convert its format into a form which was compatible with Smartpls software.

Sample requirement

PLS-SEM is well known as a technique that requires smaller sample sizes compared to covariance based SEM techniques (Hair et al., 2014; Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). The ‘ten times rule’ is often used as a rough guideline to determine the sample requirement for PLS SEM modelling (Hair et al., 2017). This rule holds that the minimum number for a sample requirement should be the highest of: 1) 10 times the largest number of formative construct to measure a construct, and 2) 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a latent construct (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995). The current research conducts PLS path modelling in two stages since a hierarchical latent variable exist. In the first stage, the maximum number of formative paths pointing to a particular construct is three (Appendix 6A), and therefore, the sample requirement is $(10*3)$ 30. In the second stage, the maximum number of formative indicators and path models is eight (Appendix 6G1) and, therefore, the sample requirement is $(10*8)$ 80. The sample of 585 used in the current research far exceeds this requirement. Moreover, with regard to the multi-group analysis, the subsample sizes are 191, 200, 194 for the consideration, evaluation, and selection stages respectively. These numbers are also much higher than the calculated minimum

sample size shown above. However, at the end of the calculation of parameters of PLS path modelling, the sample adequacy was tested to achieve statistical power of 80%, with a 5% probability of error using the online calculator of (Soper, 2016), which was based on the guidelines given by Cohen (1988).

Reflective vs. formative modelling

Since all the indicators for each of the eight constructs were determined on the basis of the qualitative study and evidence in the literature, the model was initially built (Bollen & Lennox, 1991) on these. Moreover, as described in the previous section, the PLS path model measurement model evaluation also includes a discernment validity assessment, and, therefore, no initial analysis such as exploratory factor analysis was performed (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). The initial model was created in Smartpls.

All eight constructs of the research study's constructs were modelled as 'reflective' with their indicators. Human values was operationalised using the list of values (LOV) (Kahle, 1983; Kahle & Kennedy, 1989). This research takes the stance that the nine values of LOV are reflections of human values. In other words, the human values cause the nine indicators. The authors of LOV also have implied that these nine values reflect underlying human values (Beatty, Kahle, Homer, & Misra, 1985; Kahle et al., 1986). Human values are more centrally held and people's behaviours and intentions reflect those values. Therefore, the most suitable modelling for human values is reflective modelling, since it indicates that the centrally held human values cause the measurement of the nine indicators. In addition, some literature provides evidence of the reflective arrangement of human values and the nine indicators of LOV (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Roy & Goswami, 2007).

Travel motivations are also operationalised reflectively with this construct's indicators. As the questions in the questionnaire were set, the answers to the questions reflected the construct of travel motivations. Further, as in the questionnaire, the indicators are reflections of the prospective traveller's motives rather than a collective effect of all the indicators (formative) that form the motives of the traveller. Moreover, the literature provides evidence where

modelling indicators of travel motivations are treated as reflective (e.g. Kah, Lee, & Chung, 2010; Kim, 2008; Kim, Weaver, & McCleary, 1996; Swanson & Horridge, 2006; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Selective image, which is the main dependent variable of the study, has been operationalised as a second-order variable to five first-order variables (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value). These first-order variables are derived from consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b) and operationalised on the literature and the qualitative study findings. Since this study employed a questionnaire to evaluate each of the value dimensions in selecting or identifying the potential destinations, all the indicators reflect the underlying values; all the five values are expected to cause their indicators, and, therefore, the relationship between constructs and the indicators is 'reflective'. The literature also provides evidence to set the indicators of value dimensions reflectively (Lin, Sher, & Shih, 2005; Sánchez et al., 2006).

Selective image, the second-order variable of the five value dimensions, is expected to be derived from the five variables discussed above. Therefore, the relationship between the two levels of variables (first-order and second-order) was set as formative, which means all five variables cause the final variable 'selective image'. The literature (Diep & Sweeney, 2008; Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006; Lin et al., 2005; Ruiz, Gremler, Washburn, & Carrión, 2010; Sánchez et al., 2006) also provides the formative relationships between the value dimensions (first-order constructs) and the second-order integrated variable (i.e., perceived value, shopping trip value, service value index).

It was quite crucial to determine the type of relationship (reflective or formative) between the construct of travel constraints and its indicators. On the one hand, since all the indicators can collectively act as an index to form the construct, the relationship can be formative. On the other hand, the indicators used for the study might not cover all the possible travel constraints, and, therefore, can only be considered as the reflections of the constraints. Further, the results of the two different modellings (as formative and as reflective) reported only a slight difference in the structural model (the three relationships' differences were 0.017, 0.011, and 0.012). Moreover, all the indicators fulfilled the model fit criteria

(measurement model) under the two different modelling options (reflective and formative) (Hair et al., 2014). The literature also supported this type of modelling of travel constraints (P. J. Chen et al., 2013; Nyaupane et al., 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). Finally, it was decided to model the travel constraints as reflective, since doing so also helped to make the measurement model less complicated.

Evaluation of measurement model

The PLS modelling was done in two stages in order to arrive at the final model for four reasons. First, the main dependent variable of this research study (selective image) was expected to be a second-order variable of the five first-order constructs (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value). Secondly, the ‘two-stage approach’ (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012; Hair et al., 2014; Henseler & Chin, 2010) was used to measure the second-order variable. Thirdly, it helped to calculate the latent variable score for the first-order construct for use in the subsequent analysis. Fourthly, it was used to evaluate the measures of all the constructs (outer model) for their model fit indices. Appendix 6A offers a graphical demonstration of the initial measurement model. It can be seen that the number of iterations (five) is far below the maximum number of iterations (300) (Appendix 6B), and, therefore, the algorithm was converged (Hair et al., 2014).

The desired statistical power of 0.8 with an error probability of 5% was tested with the R^2 values of the endogenous variables in the initial (stage I) PLS path model to ensure the adequacy of the sample size.

Table 6-10. R^2 and the calculated statistical powers of the initial PLS path model

Variable	Number of Predictors	Observed R^2	Probability Level	Sample Size	Calculated Statistical Power
Travel constraints	1	0.396	0.05	585	1.00
Travel motivations	2	0.337	0.05	585	1.00
Functional value	3	0.602	0.05	585	1.00
Social value	3	0.600	0.05	585	1.00
Emotional value	3	0.612	0.05	585	1.00
Epistemic value	3	0.567	0.05	585	1.00
Conditional value	3	0.585	0.05	585	1.00

The statistical power for the given sample size 585 and the level of error

probability 0.05 were calculated using an online computer program provided by Soper (2016). As *Table 6-10* depicts, the calculated statistical power for all the variables is greater than 0.8 and, hence, the sample size is confirmed as adequate.

Hair et al. (2014) suggested four criteria for the evaluation of reflective measurement models. These steps involve internal consistency (composite reliability), indicator reliability, convergent validity (average variance extracted), and discriminant validity.

Internal consistency reliability was tested using composite reliability values for the each of the constructs in the PLS model. As shown in *Table 6-11*, the composite reliability values for all the constructs met the criteria of > 0.7 and, therefore, internal consistency reliability was assured (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 6-11. Composite reliability and AVE of constructs

Construct	Composite Reliability	AVE
Conditional value	0.95	0.73
Travel constraints	0.96	0.74
Emotional value	0.95	0.79
Epistemic value	0.94	0.83
Functional value	0.97	0.63
Human value	0.97	0.77
Travel motivations	0.95	0.61
Social value	0.94	0.70

Based on the values of AVE, convergent validity was assessed. As shown in the *Table 6-11*, the AVE values of all the constructs met the criteria of > 0.5 , and, therefore, the convergent validity of the constructs was confirmed (Hair et al., 2011) (Appendix 6C).

When assessing the indicator reliability, with the exception of two constructs (functional value and travel motivations), all the other constructs' indicator loadings met the criteria of > 0.7 demonstrating the indicator reliability (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011) (Appendix 6D). The loadings of the insignificant indicator of travel motivations ('to be socially recognised as a traveller') (Mot10) recorded the value as 0.670. With regard to the insignificant indicator of functional value (nightlife/casino/parties) (FV16), the item loading was 0.648. These two values are very close to the threshold value of 0.7. Furthermore, the

impact of deletion of these items on AVE (average variance extracted) and on the composite reliability was evaluated before permanently removing those indicators from the measurement model.

According to *Table 6-12*, deletion of items had no substantial effect on the composite reliability nor on AVE. Based on these results and considering the contribution of the indicators to the constructs (content validity), the decision was made to retain these two indicators, and the indicator validity of the measurement model was confirmed (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 6-12. Change of composite reliability and AVE with item deletion

Indicators	Composite Reliability	AVE
<u>Travel Motivations</u>		
Before deleting items	0.95	0.61
Delete 'Mot10'	0.94	0.63
<u>Functional Value</u>		
Before deleting items	0.97	0.63
Delete 'FV16'	0.97	0.65

Discriminant validity was assessed using both methods: Fornell-Larcker's criterion, and indicator cross-loadings (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014; Wong, 2013). First, the indicator loadings were checked against their cross-loadings with other latent variables. The results indicated that all the items' loadings for the corresponding latent construct were greater than their cross-loading for other latent constructs, and, therefore, the discriminant validity of the constructs was established (Hair et al., 2011). This validity is demonstrated by the positive values derived by subtracting the maximum of the cross-loading values for other latent variables from loadings of the corresponding constructs (Appendix 6D). In addition, the square root of AVE of each latent construct was compared with the construct's correlation values amongst the latent constructs (Fornell-Larcker method). The results indicated that the square roots of AVE values of each of the latent constructs were higher than their correlation values with other latent constructs (Appendix 6E), and, therefore, the discriminant validity of the constructs was confirmed (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014; Wong,

2013).

It is to be noted that a recent publication by Henseler et al. (2015) introduced specific criteria to assess the discriminant validity of a PLS SEM measurement model. The criteria are HTMT (heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations). The smart PLS 3 facilitates the assessment of the discriminant validity using the HTMT criteria. According to Appendix 6F, the HTMT values for all cross-relationships between variables are less than 0.9 and, therefore, the discriminant validity is confirmed (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2015).

6.7.3.3 DEVELOPMENT AND ASSESSMENT OF STRUCTURAL MODEL

The structural model was remodelled after testing the measurement model. According to the research conceptual framework, there must be a second-order construct (selective image) which is based on five first-order latent constructs: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value.

Determining the type of relationship for the second-order variable

The next concern was to determine the types of relationships (formative or reflective) between the first-order latent constructs and the second-order construct. Since all of the first-order latent constructs are reflective in this study, two options are available in determining the relationship between two levels of constructs; ‘reflective-formative’ and ‘reflective-reflective’ (Becker et al., 2012).

Even though the literature has extensively assessed how to determine the relationships between first-order and second-order constructs, scholars have yet to find a straightforward method to do so. However, the literature provides some clues that help to determine the nature of the relationships between first-order and second-order constructs in research models. In assessing the reflective-reflective option, the literature suggests this relationship is suitable for identifying some common factors of the lower-order variables (Becker et al., 2012). However, since the purpose of this research investigation was not to evaluate common factors of five value dimensions, this option was rejected.

In assisting the reflective-formative option, the theoretical relationships between

indicators and respective constructs were first examined (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011). In this investigation, the second-order variable (selective image) is conceptualised on the basis of consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a) in which the choice behaviour is expected to be influenced by any or all of the five values. This ‘influencing’ nature of first-order variables on second-order variable reflects a formative nature, since it demonstrates a collective influence of the combination of several specific concepts on a general concept (Becker et al., 2012). Secondly, certain studies based on consumption value theory have considered the relationship between these two levels of variables as formative (Eg. Lin et al., 2005; Ruiz, Gremler, Washburn, & Carrión, 2008; Turel, Serenko, & Bontis, 2010). Therefore, the relationship between first-order and second-order variables is established as reflective-formative.

Determining an approach for parameter estimation of the second-order variable

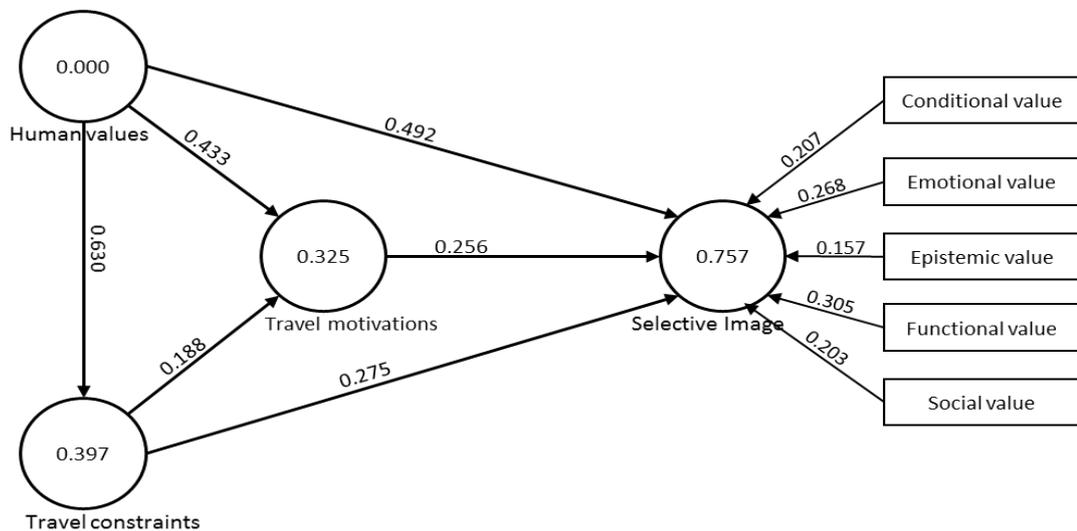
The next step was to determine the approaches for parameter estimation of the second-order variable, selective image. Becker et al. (2012) discussed three different approaches that can be used to estimate the parameters of second-order hierarchical latent variable models; these are: the repeated indicator approach, the two-stage approach, and the hybrid approach. The hybrid approach and the repeated indicator approach have proven to be more effective when the number of indicators for each of the first-order constructs is equal (Becker et al., 2012). The two-stage approach was identified as the most suitable option for parameter estimation of the second-order variable (selective image) because of the unequal numbers (18, 7, 5, 3, and 7) of indicators of respective first-order variables of indicators for the first-order constructs (Becker et al., 2012). “... unequal numbers of indicators bias both the results of repeated indicator approach ... and the hybrid approach” (Becker et al., 2012, p. 377). In addition, this study focuses on the higher order variables mainly, rather than on the lower level variable indicators. Therefore, using the two-stage approach is appropriate for the research objectives (Becker et al., 2012). Further, the scores of these first-order constructs (latent variable scores calculated when assessing the measurement model) were used as the indicators of the second-order construct (two-stage approach). However, the remaining first-order constructs (human values, travel motivations, and travel

constraints) were modelled with their true indicators to minimise the variations between the two steps of the model estimation. The theoretical relationships between the constructs were also considered when forming the structural model.

Measurement model evaluation – stage II

Figure 6-2 shows the relationships between the endogenous (travel motivations, and selective image) and exogenous (human values and travel constraints) variables of the structural model (see Appendix 6G1 for the software generated model). The model consists of three first-order latent variables (human values, travel motivations, and travel constraints) and one second-order latent variable (selective image).

Figure 6-2. Structural model.



The desired statistical power 0.8 with an error probability of 5% was tested with the R^2 values of the endogenous variables of stage II of the PLS path model to ensure the adequacy of the sample size.

Table 6-13. R^2 and the calculated statistical powers of stage II of the PLS path model

Variable	Number of Predictors	Observed R^2	Probability Level	Sample Size	Calculated Statistical Power
Travel constraints	1	0.3967	0.05	585	1.00
Travel motivations	2	0.325	0.05	585	1.00
Selective image	8	0.757	0.05	585	1.00

Statistical power for the given sample size of 585 and the level of error probability 0.05 was calculated using Soper’s online computer program (Soper, 2016). As

Table 6-13 depicts, the calculated statistical power for all the variables is greater than 0.8 and, hence, sample size was confirmed adequate.

Further to the outer model evaluation conducted at the first stage of modelling, the measurement model of the second-order variable was also evaluated by applying some parameters such as testing for collinearity issues, testing the significance of outer weights using bootstrapping procedures, and assessing the construct's convergent validity (Hair et al., 2014). The collinearity issue was assessed using VIF (variance inflation factor) and tolerance values calculated in SPSS software applying the latent variable scores of relevant constructs (indicators of selective image: functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) (Hair et al., 2014; Wong, 2013). The results (Appendix 6G2) meet parameter requirements (VIF < 5; tolerance > 0.20) to prove that the formative model was free from collinearity issues (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013). The significance of the formative indicators was assessed based on outer weights. The results (Appendix 6H) of the bootstrapping procedure (sing changes = no sing changes; samples = 5000; cases 585) indicated the *t* values of all five indicators (conditional value 3.596; emotional value 4.841; epistemic value 2.795; functional value 4.453; social value 4.095) were greater than the threshold value of 1.96 (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013). This evidence of significance also proves the convergent validity, since it demonstrates the strengths of the paths of the first-order constructs to the second-order construct are substantial (Chin, 1998a; Garver & Mentzer, 1999). Moreover, the use of more than three (in this case five) first-order factors also fulfils the requirement for confirming the convergent validity of the second-order construct (selective image) (Chin, 1998a).

The measurements of reflective models were also reassessed, since the original model has been changed (use of a second-order variable instead of five first-order variables) (Hair et al., 2014). These results showed the new models also met the criteria, for example, internal consistency (Appendix 6J), indicator reliability (Appendix 6I), convergent validity (Appendix 6J), and discriminant validity (Appendix 6I & Appendix 6K).

6.7.4 ASSESSMENT OF STRUCTURAL MODEL

The structural model was evaluated through a multistep process (Hair et al.,

2014). The process involved: examination of each set of predictors in the structural model for collinearity; use of bootstrapping to assess the significance of path coefficients; evaluation of the coefficient of determination (R^2); and, assessing an exogenous construct's contribution to an endogenous variable's R^2 value.

Table 6-14. Tolerance and VIF values – structural model

Variables (Exogenous)	Variables (Endogenous)					
	Selective image		Travel Motivations		Travel Constraints	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Travel constraints	0.586	1.706	0.604	1.657	1.000	1.000
Human values	0.510	1.962	0.604	1.657		
Travel motivations	0.663	1.508				

The collinearity of the structural model was assessed by examining each set of predictor constructs in each part of the structural model separately. Table 6-14 shows the tolerance values and VIF obtained for each endogenous construct separately. The values obtained met the parameter requirements (VIF < 5; tolerance > 0.20) to prove that all the subparts of the structural model were free from collinearity issues (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013) (Appendix 6L-1 and Appendix 6L-2).

The structural model path coefficient was assessed using bootstrapping procedure (sing changes = no sing changes; samples = 5000; cases 585).

Table 6-15. Structural model path coefficients

Variable relationships	Path coefficient	T Statistics	f ² Effect Size
Travel constraints → Selective image	0.275	6.354	0.165
Travel constraints → Travel motivations	0.188	3.741	0.031
Human values → Travel constraints	0.630	16.288	0.659*
Human values → Selective image	0.492	10.531	0.470
Human values → Travel motivations	0.433	8.810	0.167
Travel motivations → Selective image	0.256	5.924	0.165

*Travel constraints has only one endogenous variable.

Table 6-15 shows the path coefficients of the structural model with their T statistics. All the path coefficients are significant since (T > 1.96) (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2011; Wong, 2013). The f^2 effect size was also calculated

applying the following formula where $R^2_{included}$ and $R^2_{excluded}$ are the R^2 (The calculation of R^2 values will be discussed in the next step of this section.) values of the endogenous latent construct when the chosen exogenous variable is included in or excluded from the model (Hair et al., 2014).

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}}{1 - R^2_{included}}$$

According to f^2 values, human values has a large effect on travel constraints and selective image ($0.35 < f^2$) (Cohen, 1988). Travel constraints, human values, and travel motivations have a medium effect on selective image, travel motivations, and selective image respectively ($0.15 = < f^2 < 0.35$) (Cohen, 1988). The travel constraints have only a small effect on travel motivations ($0.02 = < f^2 < 0.15$) (Cohen, 1988).

The R^2 (coefficient of determination) values for the endogenous variables were calculated (see Table 6-16). It represents the exogenous latent constructs' effect on the respective endogenous latent construct, and, moreover, it represents the amount of variance in the endogenous variable explained by the all exogenous constructs pointing to it (Hair et al., 2014). Adjusted R^2 was also calculated to avoid the bias of relying only on R^2 . "Adding additional (non-significant) constructs to explain an endogenous latent variable in the structural model always increases its R^2 value" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 176). The following formula was used to calculate adjusted R^2 , where n = sample size and k = the number of exogenous latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). However, as shown in Table 6-16, both values are more or less similar to each other.

$$R^2_{adj} = 1 - (1 - R^2) \cdot \frac{n - 1}{n - k - 1}$$

According to the results (R^2), selective image shows the highest predictive accuracy, where 76% of the variance of the selective image is explained by the three exogenous variables (human values, travel constraints, and travel motivations) together. In addition, according to the f^2 values (Table 6-15), travel constraints and the travel motivations have a medium effect ($0.15 = < f^2 < 0.35$), whereas the human values has a large effect on selective image ($f^2 > 0.35$) (Cohen, 1988). When the endogenous variable travel motivations is considered, 33% of

the variance of the travel motivations is explained by the human values and travel constraints together, and according to the f^2 values (*Table 6-15*), human values has a medium effect ($0.15 \leq f^2 < 0.35$) on travel motivations, whereas travel constraints has a small affect ($0.02 \leq f^2 < 0.15$) (Cohen, 1988). Finally, 40% of the variance of the travel constraints is explained by the human values with a significant effect ($f^2 > 0.35$) (*Table 6-15*).

Table 6-16 Endogenous variables' coefficients and effect sizes

Variables (Exogenous)	Variables (Endogenous)									
	Selective image		Travel Motivations				Travel Constraints			
	R ²	R ² _{adj}	R ²	R ² _{adj}	Q ²	q ²	R ²	R ² _{adj}	Q ²	q ²
Human values	0.757	0.761	0.325	0.326	0.194	0.016	0.397	0.398	0.290	*
Travel constraints						0.000				
Travel motivations										

A blindfolding procedure (omission distance 7) was applied to evaluate the predictive relevance of reflective indicators (Geisser, 1974; Hair et al., 2014; Stone, 1974). Since selective image is a formative construct, it is omitted from these calculations (Hair et al., 2014). According to the Q^2 values, both the reflective endogenous constructs (travel motivations and travel constraints) prove the predictive relevance ($Q^2 > 0$) (Chin, 1998b). The size of the predictive relevance was also calculated for travel motivations following this formula (Hair et al., 2014). Travel constraints was omitted, since it has only one exogenous variable.

$$q^2 = \frac{Q_{included}^2 - Q_{excluded}^2}{1 - Q_{included}^2}$$

According to the q^2 values (*Table 6-16*), human values shows a small ($q^2 \Rightarrow > 0.02$) predictive relevance on travel motivations, while travel constraints shows no ($q^2 < 0.02$) predictive relevance on travel motivations (Hair et al., 2014).

Testing of the effect of mediating variable

The effects of two mediating relationships were tested for their significance: travel motivation between human values and selective image, and travel motivation

between travel constraints and selective image.

Table 6-17 shows the direct path coefficients (excluding the mediating variable from the model) and respective T statistics extracted from the results of bootstrapping procedure (sing changes = no sing changes; samples = 5000; cases 766). Since all the path coefficients' T values met the threshold value ($T > 1.960$), the significance of the indirect effect for all the two relationships was assessed as the second step of the evaluation (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 6-17. Significance analysis of direct path coefficients

Path Relationship (Direct)	Path Coefficient	T Statistics
Human values→ Selective image	0.492	10.7915
Travel constraints→ Selective image	0.275	6.4600

Table 6-18 shows indirect path coefficients and their respective products (The significant levels of these coefficients were tested under structural model evaluation in a previous section of this chapter.). Further, the T values for the derived path coefficient were calculated manually as the subsequent explanation (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 6-18. Indirect path coefficients and t statistics

<u>Travel motivation as a mediator between human values and selective image</u>	
Path coefficient - human values to travel motivations	0.433
Path coefficient - travel motivations to selective image	0.256
Product of above two coefficients (0.433*0.256)	0.111
T Statistics (0.111/0.0204)	5.439
<u>Travel motivation as a mediator between travel constraints and selective image</u>	
Path coefficient - travel constraints to travel motivations	0.188
Path coefficient - travel motivations to selective image	0.256
Product of two coefficients (0.188*0.256)	0.048
T Statistics (0.048/0.0165)	2.896

First, the standard deviation of the product of path coefficients of two respective indirect relationships for all the 5000 samples of the bootstrapping results was calculated. Second the product of two coefficients was divided by the standard deviation (calculated) to derive the T statistics (Hair et al., 2014). As the results show, the indirect relationships of both the mediating instances are found to be significant ($T > 1.96$).

Finally, VAF (variance account for) was calculated. This was done by dividing the product of two indirect path coefficients by the sum of the product and the direct path coefficient (Hair et al., 2014).

$$\text{VAF}_{\text{Travel Motivations between Human Values and Destination Image}} = \frac{0.111}{0.111 + 0.492} = 0.18$$

$$\text{VAF}_{\text{Travel Motivations between Travel Constraints and Selection}} = \frac{0.048}{0.048 + 0.275} = 0.15$$

According to the above calculations, travel motivations demonstrate no mediation for either the variables human values or travel constraints with regard to the dependent variable selective image (VAF<0.2) (Hair et al., 2014). However, the difference between threshold value (0.2) and the VAF value (regarding the human) value is very marginal (0.02) and, therefore, travel motivations seem to play a mediating role between human values and selective image.

6.7.5 TESTING GROUP DIFFERENCES AMONG THREE STAGES OF DECISION-MAKING OF DESTINATION SELECTION (PLS)

Multigroup analysis was conducted mainly to identify the differences between the three stages of the decision-making process with respect to the impact of five values (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) on selective image (selection). Though PLS multi-group analysis was used to discover the differences between path coefficients in the structural model, it is also possible to compare the outer model (loadings/weights) between groups (Hair et al., 2014). The multi-group analysis of this study focuses on the selective image, which is the main dependent (formative) construct of the research model.

The weight differences of each of the five first-order latent constructs (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value) between the three stages (consideration, evaluation, and selection) of destination decision-making process were evaluated for their significance. The PLS multi-group analysis option provided by SmartPLS3 was used to compare the three independent groups with regard to the outer weights of selective image.

The p values calculated by the SmartPLS multi-group analysis for the weight (Appendix from 6M-1 to 6M4) differences for the three subgroups are given in

Table 6-19. Nearly half of the comparisons are found to be significantly different between groups with regard to the five value dimensions' outer loadings for the variable selective image.

Table 6-19. Multigroup analysis weights and p values

	Consideration	Evaluation	Selection
Conditional Value	0.188	0.158	0.252
Consideration and Evaluation	0.574		-
Evaluation and Selection		0.237	
Consideration and Selection	0.307	-	0.307
Emotional Value	0.365	0.129	0.276
Consideration and Evaluation	0.94*		-
Evaluation and Selection	-	0.173	
Consideration and Selection	0.753	-	0.753
Epistemic Value	0.286	-0.091	0.287
Consideration and Evaluation	0.998**		-
Evaluation and Selection	-	0.001**	
Consideration and Selection	0.495	-	0.495
Functional Value	0.168	0.541	0.188
Consideration and Evaluation	0.012**		-
Evaluation and Selection	-	0.990**	
Consideration and Selection	0.433	-	0.433
Social Value	0.145	0.352	0.132
Consideration and Evaluation	0.057*		-
Evaluation and Selection	-	0.947**	
Consideration and Selection	0.536	-	0.536

** significant at 95% level of confidence

* significant at 90% level of confidence

Epistemic and functional values show significant differences between the consideration and evaluation, as well as between the evaluation and selection, stages. Furthermore, social value shows a significant difference between the evaluation and selection stage (p -value is smaller than 0.05 or larger than 0.95) (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Sarstedt, Henseler, & Ringle, 2011; SmartPLS). Moreover, social value and emotional value shows a 0.1 level of significance between consideration and evaluation stages (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015; SmartPLS, 2016).

In addition to outer weight comparison for selective image, the path coefficients between major variables of the structural model were also checked for significant differences between the three groups of subsamples (Appendix from 6M-1 to 6M-

6). According to *Table 6-20*, path coefficients from travel constraints to travel motivations, from travel motivations to selective image, and from human values to travel motivations were found to be significantly different (with 95% of confidence level) at least between two stages of the three-stage decision-making process.

Table 6-20. Path coefficients and respective p values of path differences between three stages

	Consideration	Evaluation	Selection
Human Values -> Selective Image	0.582	0.428	0.515
Consideration and Evaluation	0.914*		-
Evaluation and Selection	-	0.195	
Consideration & Selection	0.753	-	0.753
Human Values -> Travel Constraints	0.559	0.672	0.649
Consideration & Evaluation	0.126		-
Evaluation & Selection	-	0.602	
Consideration & Selection	0.194	-	0.194
Human Values -> Travel Motivations	0.563	0.434	0.360
Consideration & Evaluation	0.857		-
Evaluation & Selection	-	0.731	
Consideration & Selection	0.953**	-	0.953**
Travel Constraints -> Selective Image	0.280	0.227	0.284
Consideration & Evaluation	0.690		-
Evaluation & Selection	-	0.280	
Consideration & Selection	0.475	-	0.475
Travel Constraints -> Travel Motivations	0.017	0.154	0.325
Consideration & Evaluation	0.139		-
Evaluation & Selection	-	0.069*	
Consideration & Selection	0.005**	-	0.005**
Travel Motivations -> Selective Image	0.175	0.361	0.235
Consideration & Evaluation	0.031**		
Evaluation & Selection		0.889	
Consideration & Selection	0.247		0.247

** *significant at 95% level of confidence*

* *significant at 90% level of confidence*

Moreover, the path coefficients from travel constraints to travel motivations and from human values to selective image were also found to be significantly different (with 90% confidence level) between the evaluation and selection stages and between the consideration and selection stage respectively. Overall, five relationships were found to be significantly different out of 18 (6*3) possible

relationships. This finding demonstrates the relationship between the main latent variables (human values, travel motivations, travel constraints, and selective image) of the path model (Ringle et al., 2015; SmartPLS, 2016).

When comparing the differences of the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) and differences of the path coefficients, it is demonstrated that the five values show more differences than do the path coefficients between the stages of the decision-making process. This result reflects that higher level values (human value) are more stable than the lower level (selective image) values.

6.8 TEXT ANALYSIS WITH LEXIMANCER

The online questionnaire contained two open-ended questions: one for travel motivations (reasons to take a vacation trip), and the other for consumption values (reasons for selecting or shortlisting destinations).

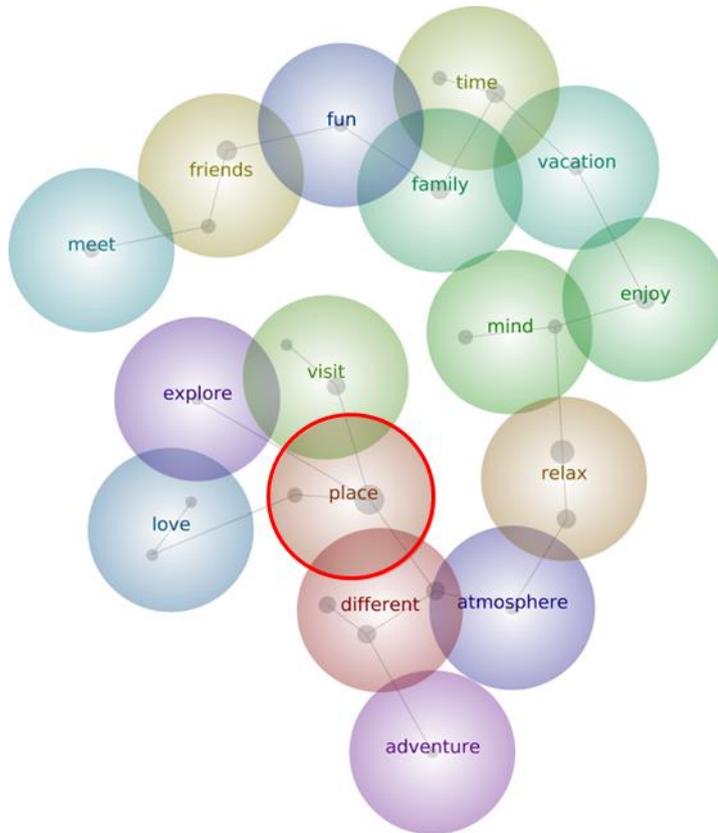
The text data collected for both of the questions was copied into a MS Word document. The data were then purified by removing meaningless data. Then data gathered for the travel motivation question were saved separately and data gathered on the five values were saved in line with the three groups of respondents (in the consideration stage, evaluation stage, and selection stage). The following sections show the results of the Leximancer analysis of four textual data sets.

6.8.1 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

As shown in Figure 6-3, the travel motivations text data produced themes related to the travel motivations.

As this figure indicates, place, which can be interpreted as destination, is the main theme generated from the data. Some other themes, as per the frequency tables generated by Leximancer, in a weakening order are: relax, different, enjoy, friends, time, visit, family vacation, meet, and mind etc. These themes appeared to represent the indicators used for the travel motivations in the questionnaire. In all, 15 themes were identified in addition to the main theme, place.

Figure 6-3. Leximancer map — travel motivations.

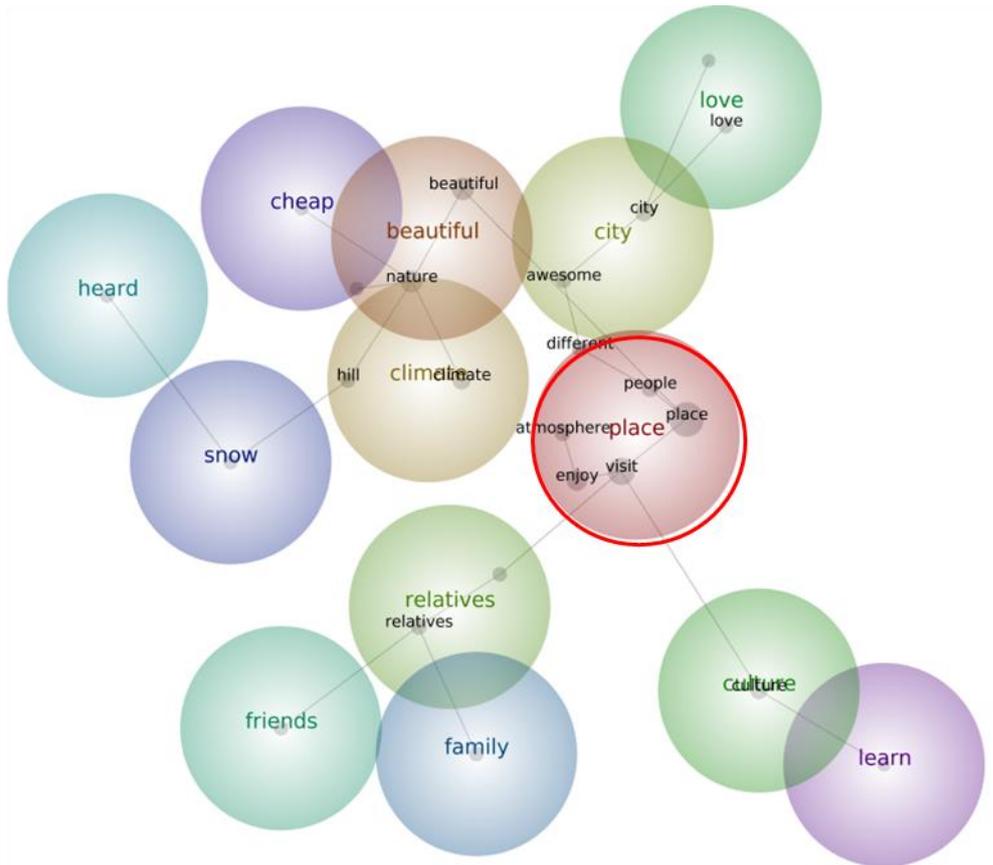


Next sections of this analysis show the Leximancer maps developed based on textual data with respect to the three stages of the decision making process. The textual data reflected the reasons to select a certain destination or consider few destinations for their intended vacations.

6.8.2 CONSIDERATION STAGE

The Leximancer map was created from the textual data collected from the group of respondents who represented the consideration stage of the decision-making process.

Figure 6-4. Leximancer map — consideration stage.



As indicated in *Figure 6-4*, the main theme emerged as place, which was then considered as destination. Twelve themes were identified, apart from the main theme place (destination). The theme destination, according to the frequency outputs, is associated mainly with concepts like people, visit, atmosphere, different, enjoy, etc. Other themes are, in order of importance: beautiful, climate, city, friends, etc. The themes show a combination of the five value dimensions of selective image: functional (culture, snow, beautiful, city, climate), social (family, friends, relatives), emotional (love), epistemic (learn), and conditional (cheap).

6.8.3 EVALUATION STAGE

The Leximancer map for the evaluation stage is shown in *Figure 6-5*. According to this map, place, which is identified as the destination, was also the dominant theme in the evaluation stage.

Figure 6-5. Leximancer map — evaluation stage.

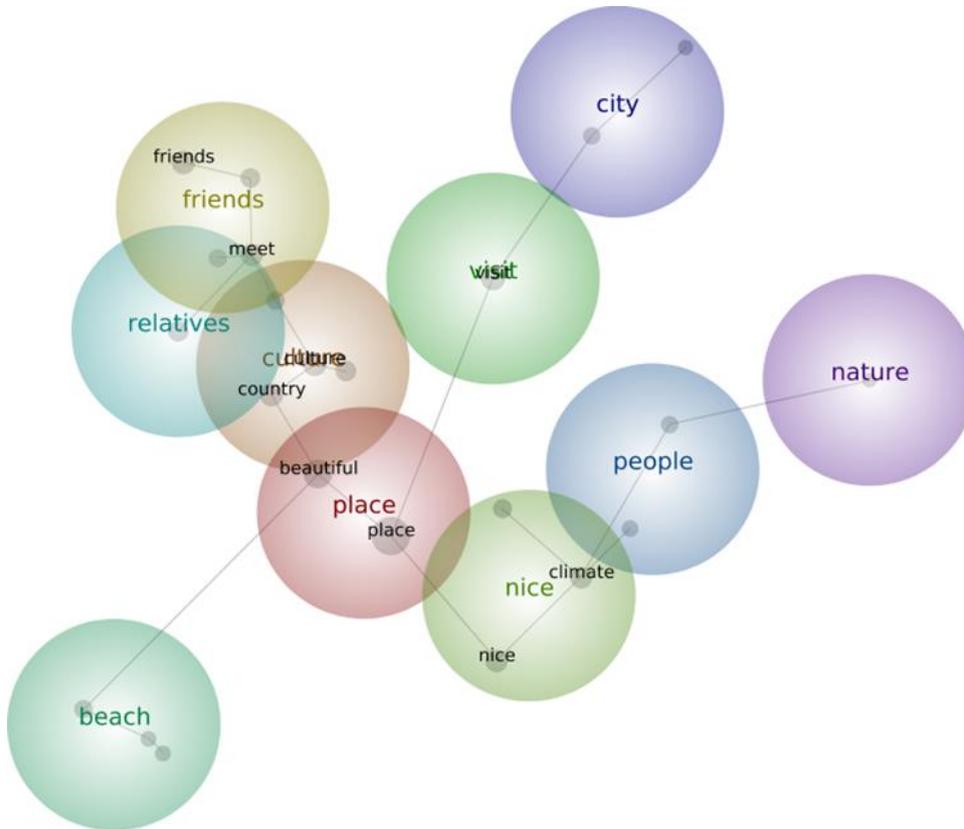


The concepts associated with destination as theme are identified as nice and beautiful. Ten themes were identified, in addition to the main theme, place (destination). The main themes, in order of significance according to their frequencies, are friends, culture, visit, and nature, etc. These themes also demonstrate associations with some of the five value dimensions of selective image: functional (shopping, culture), social (friends), and emotional (fun).

6.8.4 SELECTION STAGE

The textual data collected from the group of respondents who represent the selection stage of the decision-making process created the Leximancer map shown in *Figure 6-6*. According to the map, place once again was the dominant theme, and so place is interpreted as destination. Apart from the main theme, nine other themes are identified as reasons to select the vacation destination.

Figure 6-6. Leximancer map — selection stage.



The concept ‘beautiful’ was the only concept associated with the theme ‘destination’. The other themes, according to their frequencies of occurrence, are friends, nice, visit, and culture, etc. These themes also demonstrate links with the five value dimensions of selective image: functional (city, culture, beach) and social (people, friends, relatives).

6.8.5 COMPARISON OF THE THREE LEXIMANCER MAPS REPRESENTING DIFFERENT STAGES

According to the three Leximancer maps representing the three different stages of the destination decision-making process, destination (place) appeared as the main theme for all three groups, therefore, confirming that the destination or destination image starts to develop all the other themes relating to destination decision-making. In particular, destination image is the main construct and all other themes can be considered as the dimensions and sub dimensions of the destination image. When the concepts associated with destination image are considered, the

consideration stage can be seen to differ considerably from the other two stages (evaluation and selection), because the consideration stage demonstrates many values like functional (visit and atmosphere), social (people), emotional (enjoy), and epistemic (different). The evaluation and selection stages show only concepts like beautiful and nice, which are considered to be functional values. When comparing the secondary themes that appeared in the data, no considerable difference was recorded, since all the secondary themes are more or less similar at each of the three stages of the decision-making process.

6.9 DESTINATION SPECIFIC ANALYSIS: SRI LANKA

6.9.1 THE SAMPLE

As described, one of the three main subsamples of the overall data set is the set of respondents those who have already selected their next vacation destination. This particular category of respondents was further divided into two groups: people who had selected Sri Lanka, and people who selected a destination other than Sri Lanka. In all, 181 respondents had selected Sri Lanka as their vacation destination, and 194 had selected a destination other than Sri Lanka. This analysis was based on 181 respondents who had selected Sri Lanka as their vacation destination.

6.9.2 SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS OF THE SAMPLE

Two main categories of factors are used to introduce the sample: sociodemographic factors and trip characteristics.

6.9.2.1 DEMOGRAPHICS DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE

As can be seen in *Table 6-21*, males dominated the sample; representing 147 respondents, they account for 81.2% of the sample. The majority of the Indian respondents who had selected Sri Lanka for their next vacation fell into the 18-25 and 26-35 age groups. These respondents represented 87.8% of the total sample and accounted for 109 respondents.

Where marital status is concerned, most of the respondents in the sample are single, making up 64% in the sample. Based on the age, gender, and marital status distribution of the sample, it is clear that the sample represents young unmarried

Indian males. As shown in the table, the sample is well educated. However, about 54% of the sample represents those whose income level is less than Rs. 35000 (530 USD).

Table 6-21. Gender, age, and marital status distribution of the sample

Category	Frequency (%)	Category	Frequency (%)
Gender (N=181)		Marital Status (N=181)	
Male	147(81%)	Single (never married)	117(64%)
Female	34(19%)	Married	55(31%)
		Other	9(5%)
Education (N=181)		Age group (N=181)	
Bachelor's degree	65(36%)	18-25	96(53%)
Postgraduate	52(29%)	26-35	63(35%)
High school	31(17%)	36-45	14(7%)
Certificate/Diploma	21(12%)	46-55, 56-65, and >65	8(5%)
Professionally qualified	12(6%)		
Occupation (N=181)		Monthly Income (N=181)	
Student	51(28%)	Less than Rs.35,000	99(54%)
Clerical employee	28(15%)	Rs.35,000 - Rs.45,000	35(19%)
Professional	37(21%)	Rs.45,000 - Rs.60,000	16(9%)
Business	20(11%)	More than Rs.1,10,000	8(5%)
Admin./Executive	40(22%)	Rs.60,000 - Rs.80,000	10(6%)
Other	5(3%)	Rs.80,000 - Rs.1,10,000	13(7%)

The student representation of the sample is 51%. All these figures conclude that the majority of the sample represent Indian middle-class, educated people.

6.9.2.2 LENGTH OF TRIP AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Table 6-22 shows the length of trip Indians who decided to visit Sri Lanka would take.

Table 6-22. Length of trip distribution of the sample

Length of trip	Frequency	Percent
Less than a week	45	25
1 week to 2 weeks	70	39
2 weeks to 3 weeks	46	25
More than 3 weeks	20	11

The table shows that 40% of the sample planned to visit Sri Lanka for between 1 and 2 weeks, whereas 25% of the sample are intending to visit Sri Lanka for less than a week. Moreover, 46 (25%) respondents in the sample have decided to have a 2 to 3 weeks' vacation in Sri Lanka.

6.9.3 SOURCES OF INFORMATION

The sources of information used to make the destination decision were also probed in the questionnaire. here, the question presented a multiple answer option. Thus, respondents could select all the sources of information they had used to make the destination selection decision.

Table 6-23. Sources of information used by Indians wishing to visit Sri Lanka

Source of Information	Frequency	Percent
Internet search	67	37.0
Travel agency	81	44.8
Friends and relations	44	24.3
Internet advertising	73	40.3
Own knowledge	41	22.7
Radio/TV	79	43.6
Newspaper/magazine	56	30.9
Travel blogs and forums	51	28.2
Guide books	48	26.5
Outdoor advertising (promotions, trade fairs etc.)	38	21

According to *Table 6-23*, Internet-based information sources such as Internet search, Internet advertising, and travel blogs dominated the other conventional information sources for travellers. These three kinds of Internet- based information sources had received a total of 191 hits from the respondents (67+73+51). However, it can be seen that travel agencies, as a conventional travel facilitator, are still playing a big role in providing travellers with information. All other sources of information play a moderate role in facilitating the traveller by providing travel related information.

6.9.4 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

A descriptive analysis was done of the Sri Lanka visiting respondents in terms of the Likert-scaled items for the seven main research variables: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value, travel constraints, and travel motivations. The responses to the options “extremely unimportant” and “totally disagree” were considered as missing values in this analysis, since this data set did not use subsequent advanced statistical analysis,

and ignoring this missing value does not adversely affect the sample size.

6.9.4.1 FUNCTIONAL VALUE

According to *Table 6-24*, the mean values of items used for measuring functional value lie between 4.43 and 5.04.

Table 6-24. Item mean values for functional value — Sri Lanka

Item	N	Mean
Many places to visit	138	4.83
Scenery	170	4.43
Nature	168	4.66
Sea	173	4.63
Sports and activities	173	4.58
Wildlife	170	4.89
Weather/Climate	174	4.93
Culture	171	5.04
Heritage	169	5.03
Food	172	5.00
Accommodation	177	4.79
Buildings and Architecture	175	4.79
Cleanliness	160	4.83
Technological advances	174	4.44
Shopping	168	4.80
Night life/Casino/Parties	172	4.62
Safety	170	4.96
Cities	172	5.04

Culture, heritage, and cities were found to be comparatively the most important factors in the respondents' decision to visit Sri Lanka. On the other hand, scenery and technological advances were found to be comparatively less important factors when Indian people select Sri Lanka as a vacation destination.

6.9.4.2 SOCIAL VALUE

Item means for social value lie between 4.34 and 5.02, as indicated in *Table 6-25*. Here, 'destination where I can meet friendly people' and 'preferred by travel companions' are the main social value factors when selecting Sri Lanka. In contrast, 'suitable for travel companions' and 'visit my friend who reside there' are comparatively less important in Indians' selecting of Sri Lanka as a vacation

destination.

Table 6-25. Item mean values for social value – Sri Lanka

Item	N	Mean
Preferred by travel companions	142	4.84
Suitable for travel companions	172	4.34
Visit my friends reside who there	169	4.39
Visit my relatives who reside there	173	4.46
Destination visited by most people	173	4.76
Destination talked about by most people	177	4.82
Destination where I can meet friendly people	179	5.02

Visiting friends and relatives, as a social value when selecting a destination, seems of comparative less importance for Indians visiting Sri Lanka.

6.9.4.3 EMOTIONAL VALUE

According to *Table 6-26*, ‘calm and quiet destination’ ‘a must-see place’ are comparatively the most important items of emotional value, while ‘that destination makes me relax’ is, comparatively, of the least importance when selecting Sri Lanka as vacation destination.

Table 6-26. Item mean values for emotional value – Sri Lanka

Item	N	Mean
A must-see place	179	5.12
Calm and quiet destination	176	5.15
That destination fascinates me.	179	5.04
That destination makes me relax.	180	4.93
Fun and enjoyable destination	175	4.94

Fascinating, relaxing, and fun and enjoyable, as emotional things, seem to be of less importance than ‘calm and quiet’. This result reflects the fact that Indians perceive Sri Lanka as a calm and quiet destination for a vacation.

6.9.4.4 EPISTEMIC VALUE

As seen in *Table 6-27*, ‘I have not been there’ is the highest mean score recorded item, and ‘that destination gives me different experience’ is the lowest mean scored item for the variable epistemic value.

Table 6-27. Item means for epistemic value — Sri Lanka

Item	N	Mean
I have not been there.	147	4.85
That destination gives me a different experience.	173	4.38
I can learn many things.	177	4.45

This results demonstrate that Indians visit Sri Lanka because they have not visited it before. Moreover, Indians do not see much difference between Sri Lanka and India as the item ‘that destination gives me a different experience’ has the lowest mean value compared to other items used to measure epistemic value.

6.9.4.5 CONDITIONAL VALUE

As Table 6-28 shows, ‘convenient travel time’ and ‘it gives me good value for money’ are the main items in conditional value for Indian visitors intending to visit Sri Lanka. The comparatively least important item is ‘I know people who live there’.

Table 6-28. Item mean values for conditional value — Sri Lanka

Item	N	Mean
It fits with my budget.	179	4.57
I know people who live there.	177	4.54
It fits with available time for vacation.	180	4.68
Trip can be planned within the time available.	175	4.93
Convenient travel time	176	5.08
Travel agent/airline gave me good package.	176	5.03
It gives me good value for money.	178	5.06

The proximity factor seems to dominate the conditional value, since ‘convenient travel time’ has the highest mean value. Moreover, Indians think a trip to Sri Lanka is cheaper compared to other destinations and gives good value for money. Knowing people in Sri Lanka has less impacted on conditional value for Indians visiting Sri Lanka as a travel destination.

6.9.4.6 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

‘Fulfil the travel needs of loved ones’ and ‘to see a must-see place to me or my travel companions’ are the main travel motivations for Indian visitors to visit Sri Lanka (Table 6-29). On the other hand, ‘to experience new and different cultures’

is a comparatively less important travel motivator for them.

Table 6-29. Item mean values for travel motivations — Sri Lanka and another destination

Item	Sri Lanka	
	N	Mean
To experience new and different places	149	5.23
To engage in activities	168	4.96
To get away from normal life	167	5.10
To increase social ties	170	5.07
To make a pilgrimage	174	5.02
To fulfil the travel needs of loved ones	169	5.34
To see a must-see place for me or my travel companions	175	5.33
To visit friends	173	5.19
To visit relatives	173	5.13
To be socially recognised as a traveller	174	5.13
To experience new and different cultures	172	4.66

As per the results, the travel motivations of Indians demonstrate associations with their social ties in the main. Furthermore, Indians visiting Sri Lanka decide on Sri Lanka as their vacation destination because their travel companions and loved ones want to visit Sri Lanka. This finding confirms Sri Lanka is a must see place for many Indian visitors. The questionnaire item on cultural differences reported the lowest mean value. Consequently, Indians do not expect to find many cultural differences in Sri Lanka compared to their cultures.

6.9.5 TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

Besides the results obtained through quantitative data analysis, the short text answers given to open-ended questions also explored the main reasons why Indian visitors select Sri Lanka. The textual data collected for two open-ended questions in the quantitative questionnaire were analysed. Data collected from the specific subsample of Indians who had decided to visit Sri Lanka was analysed manually and treated the two open-ended questions separately. The data were searched for reasons for visiting Sri Lanka and travel motivations of Indians visiting Sri Lanka.

6.9.5.1 REASONS FOR SELECTING SRI LANKA

Manually analysing the textual answers allowed some important themes to be identified as reasons why Indians visit Sri Lanka. The main themes identified through the textual analysis are presented below (*Table 6-30*).

Table 6-30. Summary of textual data analysis — reasons to visit Sri Lanka

Theme	Extraction
Heritage/ Pilgrimage	Sigiriya rock fortress; Avukana Buddha statue; Sri Pada; temples; Ramayana (Lord Rama went there to rescue Sita Mata; Sita Mata stayed there; history of Lord Rama is connected with Sri Lanka); interest pilgrimage; history; want to visit pilgrimage; my parent wants to see Sigiriya
Nature	superb nature, greenery, environment, beautiful, wildlife, natural beauty, beauty and nature, weather, natural wonder country
Sea	sea, beach, sea faces, beaches; have nice beaches; I would like to travel in the coastal areas
People/Culture	similar to south India, nice language, different culture, traditional culture, love culture and people, hospitality; Tamil people are there
Love/sex	sex, love, experience good trip with partner
Cricket	cricket ground
Friends and relatives	I have my relatives nearby, to meet relatives
Emotion/ entertainments	pleasure, fun, for enjoyment; it is a good place to relax, entertain, calm and quiet, cool
Must-see place	my wish, want visit this country; I have wish to go Sri Lanka once in my life Food: food, eat, drink
Positive image	good country, I like that country, great place, nice country, awesome place, beautiful place, it is amazing, wonderful
To experience something new	new place, to know more about, more to explore, see new places, 'new culture, new destination, & new place'; 'for new culture, for new experience, for new atmosphere'
Proximity	nearby, less time, near, near to my country, nearer to India, because it is nearby foreign destination to visit
Cost	cheap, cheap and easy, less expensive
Recommendation	friends' recommendation, my friend told me this is good place to enjoy

As shown in the table, a large number of themes (reasons) were identified as reasons why Indians visit Sri Lanka. Through careful analysis, it is evident that these themes represent the five value dimensions of selective image.

Heritage/pilgrimage and nature were reported more frequently than the other themes extracted. However, it can be posited that Indians visit Sri Lanka mainly because of heritage and nature, and because cultural similarities exist between the two countries.

6.9.5.2 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

Travel motivations were also evaluated using a separate open-ended question. As with the previous travel motivations, some themes emerged with regard to the travel motivations of Indian visitors who had already selected Sri Lanka for their

upcoming vacation. *Table 6-31* shows the extracted themes from each of the answers given for the question.

Table 6-31. Summary of textual data analysis — motivations to visit Sri Lanka

Theme	Evidences founded in answers for open-ended questions
Enjoyment and self-fulfilment	fun, to spend time joyfully, for enjoyment, to enjoy, happiness, enjoyable, excitement, fun entertain and enjoy.
Spend vacation/free time	spend vacation with family, to have peace
Family/friends	family, want to enjoy with parents, for peacefulness and as trip to enjoy with friends and family, get a break and spend time with family, to walk with family, to spend time with my family, family vacation, leave for children, and to take my girlfriend somewhere
Escape from normal life	change mood, tension free, because I am bored in current life, get away from hectic days, get rid of work tension, for a change and relief from daily routine
Relax and refresh	Rest, after exam, to spend leisure, for relax, just relax a bit, to relax, to relax and have fun with family to have peace of mind and rejuvenate myself from daily stress
Visiting friend and relatives	To visit friends, to meet relatives
Pilgrimage	Pilgrimage, religious
Experience new/different, knowing	visit some good places, know about cultures, to see different places, different atmosphere, to meet different people, I love exploring new things, I love new places, explore, to see new places, to experience new cultures, I want to roam natural places of the world, I love to know about cultures and foods of the people around the world, know the culture of other countries, knowledge
Attractions and activities	sea, beach, swimming, I love adventure, adventure, sight-seeing, to see places

Travels motivations of Indians wishing to visit Sri Lanka share many of the characteristics already contained in the general list of travel motivations that were used in the travel motivation questionnaire items in this PhD study. To experience new things, to travel with family and friends, and to get away from normal life all appeared to be main themes.

6.9.6 DESTINATIONS COMPETING WITH SRI LANKA

In addition to exploring reasons for selecting Sri Lanka and Indian travellers' travel motivations, the destinations competing with Sri Lanka were also considered. One of the questions in the questionnaire asked the respondent to list three other destinations other than Sri Lanka that he or she had considered as options. The answers demonstrated a range of destinations; however, attention was given to the frequencies of occurrences of some destinations within the data set. Most Indians had mentioned a destination within the India itself (domestic destination). In addition to that option, Malaysia and Singapore were the main options they had considered when selecting Sri Lanka as the vacation destination. Moreover, some mentioned destinations like Nepal and Bhutan. However, a considerable number of respondents mentioned the USA, or a destination in Europe, including the UK and sometimes Australia and New Zealand as destinations.

6.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter analysed the data collected from the online questionnaire. An ANOVA analysis was performed to examine the differences of the indicators of five value dimensions between the three stages of the destination decision-making process. The PLS path model analysis evaluated the relationship between the constructs of this research's conceptual framework. Moreover, the selective image, the main independent variable of the research conceptual framework, was also calculated as a second-order variable to the five first-order value constructs (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional). In addition to that, the factor weight differences of the prescribed five constructs on the selective image between three stages of decision-making were also evaluated to assess the results of ANOVA and the qualitative study findings investigating whether there are differences in five value dimensions at the various stages of decision-making. Textual data analysis was also performed using the data gathered from open-ended questions to see whether those data could generate value-related insights with regard to the decision-making process

CHAPTER 7.

DISCUSSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The discussion chapter of this thesis presents the overall theoretical and empirical insights from the findings presented in the previous chapters. The chapter comprises two main sections: the empirical and the conceptual discussion. The empirical discussion evaluates the results obtained from both the qualitative and the quantitative data analysis in the context of the research literature. The conceptual discussion presents the contribution this doctoral research investigation has made to the theoretical context of the concepts applied in the research in areas such as destination image, travel motivations, and selective image with its five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional). This discussion is based on the research propositions of the research. The results and insights of the qualitative data analysis, quantitative data analysis, textual data analysis of open-ended questionnaire questions, and the related literature will be incorporated the discussion. Moreover, the latter part of the discussion chapter consists with a discussion about the India as a travel market for Sri Lankan tourism.

7.2 EMPIRICAL DISCUSSION

This discussion section encompasses several topics: demographics as a determinant of trip characteristics; behaviour of the five value dimensions of selective image in the process of destination decision-making; and, relationships between human values, travel motivations, travel constraints, and selective image.

7.2.1 DEMOGRAPHICS AS A DETERMINANT OF TRIP CHARACTERISTICS

This section will discuss the implications derived from the following proposition.

Proposition 10: Demographic factors of the traveller determine the characteristics of the trip.

The results showed that demographic factors in this did determine the trip characteristics of the travellers. The decision about who to travel with or the selecting of travel companions seems to be mostly determined by demographics (Lingling Wu et al., 2011). The selection of travel companions depends heavily on marital status, gender, and occupation. This finding further supports the study of Hsu and Kang (2007) who claimed that travel companions are decided on the basis of the traveller's age and income. Smith and Costello (2009) declared that older people and those with higher disposable income like to travel in couples which, in turn, is consistent with the current research findings since it was found that married couples plan to travel with their families.

Marital status determined the length of the intended trip. According to the study by Hsu and Kang (2007), travellers aged below 55 years stayed for longer periods of time, compared to the older visitors, when they visited Hong Kong. Johnston-Anumonwo (1992) claimed that gender, as well as marriage, can determine the length of a trip, demonstrating a similarity with the current research which claims that marital status matters in deciding the length of stay. When the type of accommodation is considered, the current research results confirm that accommodation depends on the occupation of the travellers.

Choosing between foreign and domestic travel depends on the monthly income and age of the traveller. Higher income people travel overseas and comparatively lower income people travel within the country. Moreover, married people are more likely to be repeat visitors to places than are unmarried people.

Given the results, it is evident that their demographic factors determine the trip characteristics of prospective visitors. However, according to the results, not all demographic factors equally impact all forms of trip characteristics. Nevertheless, the overall results indicate that demographics are useful in segmenting the market in a broader sense.

Past research studies (Moufakkir, 2012; Strathman, Dueker, & Davis, 1994; Weaver et al., 2007) have claimed that demographics have certain associations with the trip characteristics. This study links that association of demographics and trip characteristics with the destination decision-making process of the prospective visitors. The significance of this linkage is that trip category (with

friend vs. family, foreign vs. domestic, shopping vs. sightseeing etc.) can determine the types of destinations that will be considered for a given vacation requirement in the developing early consideration set, as occurs the destination decision-making process. No other study has identified outset of this relationship

7.2.2 FIVE VALUE DIMENSIONS AND DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING

This section discusses the use of consumption values, which are operationalised and conceptualised as value dimensions (i.e., functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value) of selective image to explain the process of destination decision-making. In this section, the appropriateness of these five values for studying destination decision-making are discussed.

In particular, this discussion is structured around the following propositions.

Proposition 1: Selective image (destination selection) can be operationalised based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) proposed in consumption value theory.

Proposition 2: The five value dimensions of selective image (destination selection) jointly contribute to the choice sets (early evoked set, late evoked set) along the destination decision-making process and the final destination selection.

Proposition 3: The five value dimensions of selective image (destination selection) contribute differently to the choice sets (early evoked set and late evoked set) and the final destination selection in the destination decision-making process.

7.2.2.1 CAN DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING BE EXAMINED USING FIVE CONSUMPTION VALUES?

Five destination value dimensions were considered: functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values (Phau et al., 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000). Both the qualitative and the quantitative results provided important insights into how these five values behave in the destination decision-making process.

Overall, the qualitative results yielded two main insights. First, the five value dimensions do influence the destination selection process, which, in turn, confirms the five values as constructs of destination image as proposed by Ramkissoon et al. (2009). Second, the decision-making or the selection of a destination is impacted by a mix of the five values, rather than one value dominating a given stage of the decision-making process. Both the tourism literature (Carlsen & Boksberger, 2015; Lee et al., 2011; Phau et al., 2014; Sánchez et al., 2006) as well as consumer behaviour literature (Lin & Huang, 2012; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) support this idea of consumption values working as a mix (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b) in influencing choice behaviour.

Moreover, the Leximancer maps for the three different groups of respondents corresponding to the three different stages of the destination decision-making process (consideration, evaluation, and selection) demonstrated (*Figure 6-4, Figure 6-5, and Figure 6-6*) that the place (destination) was the key theme. Moreover, all other key associated themes (beautiful, climate, people, city, friends, culture, different, etc.) appeared to be representative of the value dimensions of selective image. This finding confirms the proposition that selective image is a construct of five value dimensions.

The PLS path model analysis also supported the notion that the variable selective image represents the destination selection of the prospective visitors. According to the measurement model analysis of stage II of the PLS path model, these five variables make a significant contribution in forming the construct, selective image. This finding confirms the two claims that the five values can effectively explain the destination selection behaviour of prospective travellers and the proposition that destination selection is always effected by a combination of these five values. This confirms the notion that selection is constructed by a combined effect of five value dimensions (Sheth et al., 1991b). However, this has never previously been empirically tested. Sánchez et al. (2006) investigated the influence of perceived value of purchase tourism packages using a scale developed on the five consumption values. Furthermore, that research confirmed that the scale was reliable. Xiao and Kim (2009) found that functional, social, emotional, and epistemic values influence the purchase of foreign brands by

Chinese people. Both these studies' findings are partially congruent with this research study, since both studies have investigated at least the final selection of a product. The unique contribution of this study is that it examined the staged process of decision making.

Application of consumption values to examination of the process of destination decision-making is relatively new. The examples from literature presented in this section show that consumption values affect destination selection. However the current research introduces a systematic way to apply consumption values in destination decision-making studies. The variable *selective image* and its measurements is one of the main contributions of this research study.

7.2.2.2 DISTINGUISHING STAGES OF DECISION MAKING BASED ON FIVE VALUE DIMENSIONS

Next, it is worthwhile to examine the relationships that exist between the stages of the decision-making process with regard to the five value dimensions and their indicators.

According to the results of ANOVA, PLS multi-group analysis, and Leximancer maps, the importance of five value dimensions and their indicators to the respondents is different between the stages of the destination decision-making process. In particular, prospective travellers do not demonstrate stable consumption value dimensions in the decision-making process, as the same value can be of more importance in the consideration stage yet of less importance in the final selection stage. Moreover, interestingly, the PLS multi-group analysis for the path coefficients between the main constructs (human values, travel constraints, travel motivations, selective image) of the path model found only a very few path relationships were significantly different in the various stages of the destination decision-making process. This situation confirms that consumption values are more sensitive (volatile) to the stage of decision-making process than human values and travel motivations. This empirically confirms claim of Vinson et al. (1977).

Previous research has not provided any evidence of a study of the different influences of the five value dimensions at the various stages of the decision-

making process with reference to holiday-taking. However, the consumer behaviour research field provides evidence that scholars have tried to differentiate groups of consumers using the five consumption values. Bettman and Park (1980) compared the effects of knowledge and psychological features of two groups of respondents who represented two different stages (eliminators and selectors) purchasing certain brands and concluded that the psychological factors can differentiate the two stages of the purchasing process. Kim and Gupta (2009) evaluated the effect of values on repeat and first time online buyers with regard to stages of decision-making which they called the judgement stage and the decision stage. These two studies are similar to the current research since they involved the stages of the buyer decision-making process with regard to five consumption values.

Lin and Huang (2012) found that the influence of consumption values on selection differs between high-end and low-end priced green products. Their investigation examined whether there are differences between purchasers of high-end and low-end priced green products with reference to the five value dimensions. Therefore, the current research shares some similarity with that research as both studies seek to understand different groups' different values. However, this doctoral research addresses the issue of how consumption values differ in the different stages of the destination selection process rather than assessing values when choosing between two products.

Another key contribution of this research is demonstration of how the value dimensions of selective image have a different influence in each stage of the decision-making process. This is an extension of the finding that values influence destination selection, since unlike previous research; this study did not investigate the effect of values only on final destination selection. Critically, this study found that values are influencers, but that their influence varies differentially across each stage of the decision-making process.

7.2.2.3 BEHAVIOUR OF THE VALUE DIMENSIONS ALONG THE DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

As described previously, the five value dimensions of selective image were found to be sizably different at different the stages of decision-making process.

Consequently, a question arose regarding which of the five values were dominant in each stage of the decision-making process.

Given that, this section evaluates the importance of each of the five value dimensions in each stage of the decision-making process. All the analytical techniques have shown that the five value dimensions can behave differently in the different stages of the decision-making process. This finding implies that the five values can be a differentiating factor to segment the destination decision-makers in the various stages of the decision-making process. Wiedmann et al. (2009) used value factors to differentiate groups in terms of different luxury consumption behaviours. Finch (2006) statistically differentiated between the organic food buyers and nonorganic food buyers using five value factors. However, the current research does not provide such strong statistics to differentiate the decision-makers in the three groups. In particular, the current research uses the results of ANOVA, PLS multi-group analysis, Leximancer maps, and content analysis of qualitative data to examine which particular value dimension is important in each stage of the destination decision-making process. Therefore, this research provides insights by demonstrating clearly that the five values can operate differently in the three decision-making stages.

Figure 7-1 shows the comparison of the outcomes of the two types (qualitative and quantitative) of data.

Figure 7-1. Graphical illustration of behaviour of values in each stage of decision-making process.



According to Figure 7-1, functional value, social value, and conditional value show similarities in terms of their shape for the both the quantitative and qualitative data. Emotional value in the qualitative study shows a small degree of change between the stages, but in the quantitative study this value is higher in the

consideration stage than in the other two stages. The epistemic value is also quite stable in the qualitative findings, but in the quantitative findings, it is lower in the evaluation stage than in the other two stages.

The overall picture which emerges from the comparison of the two charts is that there can be dominant value dimensions in each of the stages of the decision-making process. However, the findings of this research can state only that the functional values can have a higher impact in the evaluation stage and that the conditional value increases during the process of decision-making. Some authors (Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Kenneth & Alain, 2011; Verplanken & Holland, 2002) have argued that destination decision-making is a process and that various contextual factors, including psychological factors, affect the process. This claim supports their argument that the values influence the process; however, there is no evidence regarding which values influence each of the stages in the destination decision-making process.

According to Um and Crompton (1990) and Woodside and Lysonski (1989), internal factors such as values, attitudes, and motivations come into play in the early stages of the decision-making process. According to the multi-group analysis results, emotional value was found to have the highest impact on the earlier stages and conditional value has the highest impact on the later stages of the process, thus, supporting the claims of the above authors. Moreover, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) claim that people's values have an effect on the early stages of destination decision-making, whereas feelings and destination attributes have an effect on later stages of the process. However, this contradicts Goodall (1991) who found constraints determine the early stages and that attributes of destinations then impact the final destination selection. Decrop (2010) argued that the evaluation stage is chiefly dominated by variety seeking (epistemic) and emotions (emotional). This doctoral thesis used the same variables (emotional, and epistemic) as Decrop (2010) and found a lower impact of these variables in the evaluation stage, positing a completely different finding to the findings of Decrop (2010). The claim that the final selection is based mainly on constraints (Decrop, 2010) is congruent with results of current research as it found that the conditional value has an increasing influence as one moves

through the process of decision-making.

A contribution to the destination marketing research made by this study is that each of the stages of the destination decision-making process is shown to have its own dominant values. The significance is that markets then can be segmented, according to the respective value which is dominant in each stage of decision-making process. A specific example is that the consideration stage for a given market can be divided into 5 segments, according to the five value dimensions. Further, the functional value may dominate one market segment in the consideration stage, whereas another market segment may have social value as more prominent in the consideration stage.

7.2.3 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES

Human values, travel constraints, travel motivations, and selective image were the main four variables of the quantitative research. The PLS SEM analysis has established that there are relationships between these variables. The structural model evaluation results show that all the relationships calculated between these variables show significant path coefficients. Interestingly, human values show the highest positive relationship with travel constraints, travel motivations, and selective image. Travel constraints show a positive relationship with selective image and travel motivations, while travel motivations show a positive relationship with selective image. The ‘global value-domain specific value-evaluative beliefs’ relationship (Vinson et al., 1977) is confirmed here, since significant positive relationships were found between human values and travel motivations as well as between travel motivations and selective image.

This section of the discussion will now move to consideration of the following research propositions:

Proposition 4: Human values has an effect on the travel constraints of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 5: Human values has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 6: Human values has an effect on destination selection of a

prospective traveller.

Proposition 7: Travel constraints has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller.

Proposition 8: Travel constraints has an effect on destination selection of a prospective traveller,

Proposition 9: Travel motivations has an effect on destination selection of a prospective traveller.

7.2.3.1 HUMAN VALUES AND TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS

Interestingly, human values has been the notable variable in the structural model since it has demonstrated the highest three path coefficients with three endogenous variables: travel constraints, travel motivations, and selective image. The impact of human values on travel constraints seems to be significant. However, association between human values and travel constraints has rarely been discussed in the literature. Notably, no study has taken human values as an antecedent of travel constraints; moreover, many studies have taken travel constraints as a fully independent variable when studying travel behaviours (Hung & Petrick, 2012; Nyaupane et al., 2004; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). Human values are, generally, an outcome of people's culture, society, institutions, and personality (Rokeach, 1973). Therefore, the culturally bounded constraints of travellers, especially the intrapersonal constraints, can be influenced by human values to a certain extent (Crawford et al., 1991; Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, & Voneye, 1993b; Walker, Jackson, & Deng, 2007). Thus, the relationship that exists between human values and travel constraints in this research study might be an outcome of the culturally bounded human values of Indian visitors.

7.2.3.2 HUMAN VALUES AND TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

The relationship between human values and travel motivations was also confirmed by the quantitative data findings. This relationship was established on the basis of the consumer value hierarchy proposed by Vinson et al. (1977) and the qualitative study findings. Vinson et al. (1977) argue that travel motivations are based on the value system of individuals (Gnoth, 1997; Li & Cai, 2012). The results confirm the 'global value-domain specific' value relationship heavily

described in the consumer behaviour literature (Fred van Raaij & Verhallen, 1994; Gutman & Vinson, 1979; Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Verplanken & Holland, 2002) but this relationship has not been discussed or demonstrated in the tourism marketing literature. Thus, this study addresses that research gap.

7.2.3.3 HUMAN VALUES AND SELECTIVE IMAGE

The relationship between human values and selective image is also statistically confirmed. This relationship shows the direct impact of human values on destination selection whereas travel motivations mediates this relationship in the conceptual model. The relationship between human values and travel destination selection is evident in the tourism literature. Pitts and Woodside (1986) found that there is a relationship between human values and travel destination selection and they have divided the tourists into clusters according to destination selection, based on the personal values shared by the tourists. Crompton (1979b) claims that the human value system influences the selection of destinations and the various activities that can be undertaken during the vacation. Weeden (2011) also emphasised that people use their values to justify their vacation destination selections. Besides the tourism related literature, consumer behaviour research has often discussed the association between human values and purchase behaviour (Allen, 2001; Allen & Ng, 1999; Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007; Grunert & Juhl, 1995; Kim, Forsythe, Gu, & Jae Moon, 2002). The current research results support these studies.

7.2.3.4 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS AND SELECTIVE IMAGE

Travel motivations show a significant path coefficient with selective image, and, therefore, confirm the claim that motivations direct behaviour (McClelland, 1987; Stacey & DeMartino, 1965) and that motivation is a good predictor of consumer behaviour (Bayton, 1958; Bill, 2006; Freestone & McGoldrick, 2008; Ono et al., 2012; Rana & Brett, 2011; Wang & Sun, 2011). The findings in this thesis support the notion that travel motivation is a good predictor of travel behaviour (Chon, 1989; Crompton, 1979b; Gilbert & Cooper, 1991; Wang & Walker, 2010). Previous research has tested the effect of travel motivation on the destination selection behaviour of tourists. According to Josiam et al. (1999), push and pull travel motivations factors directly affect the selection behaviour of travellers. Jang

(2002b) claims that travel motivations played a major role in British travellers' selecting of outbound holiday destinations, and the same relationship is confirmed by Crompton and Ankomah (1993) and Crompton (1992). On the basis of on these previous research findings, it can be posited that this research has also established the positive relationship between travel motivators and destination selection. Moreover, since the current research has been developed upon a value-based background, the relationship between domain-specific values (travel motivations) and evaluative beliefs (consumption values of destination skeleton/selective image) of consumers' value hierarchy (Vinson et al., 1977) is supported.

7.2.3.5 TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS AND SELECTIVE IMAGE

Travel constraints cannot be overlooked in the travel decision-making process (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010; Lu et al., 2016; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). Even though the literature provides evidence that a negative relationship exists between travel constraints and intention to travel (Hung & Petrick, 2012; Park et al., 2016), the current research, according to its PLS path model results, shows a positive relationship between travel constraints and selective image. This positive relationship between travel constraints and selective image is expected in this study, since the selective image is not a construct developed around the intentions of the travellers. In the instructions given to the respondents with regard to the questionnaire items of the five value dimensions of the selective image, respondents were asked to respond to the questionnaire items on the basis of what actually caused the selection. In particular, respondents rated the given items in terms of how important those items were in making the decision to select a particular destination(s). Therefore, the relationship between travel constraints and selective image can be a positive value. "Specifically, the negative impact of perceived travel constraints on intention to visit was alleviated and fully mediated by destination image" (P. J. Chen et al., 2013, p. 216). The positive relationship reflects that travel constraints influence the destination selection. The findings of the current research demonstrate associations with the findings of past researchers who claimed that while constraints do influence the destination selection process, prospective travellers still engage in the travel

decision-making process (H. J. Chen et al., 2013; Hong et al., 2006).

7.2.3.6 TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS AND TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

The relationship between travel constraints and travel motivations was also significant. This finding suggests that travel constraints are an antecedent to travel motivations. This PhD research supports the claim of Crawford et al. (1991) that the intrapersonal leisure constraints are the most powerful predictor of travel motivations. Losier, Bourque, and Vallerand (1993) found that there is a significant relationship between travel constraints and travel motivations, whereas travel constraints behave as a precursor for travel motivation. In contrast, Huang and Hsu (2009) set travel constraints as comparable to travel motivations rather than setting travel constraints as a precursor of the travel motivations. Overall, the constraints for people to travel can impact travel motivations or, if pre-understood constraints exist, people unintentionally restrain their travel needs.

This section has discussed the structural relationships of the main variables of the research. Each variables' relationships were analysed to identify if they were congruent with, or different to, previous research. Although some of the findings confirm what we already know in the literature, the findings of this PhD research findings are unique because of its distinctive conceptual framework. In particular, the relationships established between the variables: travel constraints, human values, travel motivations, and selective image, which integrate consumer behaviour and tourism research concepts. The findings, confirm the theoretical argument, establish their relationships and can be used as a basis to study the destination decision-making behaviours of prospective travellers.

7.3 THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

This section will discuss the conceptual and methodological contribution of this study. It contains discussions of the value-oriented approach to explaining tourist behaviour, comparing destination image and selective image, and the tourism value hierarchy.

7.3.1 A VALUEORIENTED APPROACH TO EXPLAIN CHOICE BEHAVIOUR

This study has taken the stance that the choice behaviour of people exclusively

depends on their value system. Hence, destination decision-making is considered as a value-driven process. Values are inherently psychological and, therefore, internal to the individuals.

Behavioural studies of destination decision-making have used three broad categories of factors: internal-push factors, motives, and values (Botha et al., 1999; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Reisenwitz, 2013; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), external destination attributes (Botha et al., 1999; Reisenwitz, 2013; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005), and situational factors (Botha et al., 1999; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). The value-driven approach used in the current study has covered all three categories of variables: internal, external, and situational in a simpler way. Thus, this study has studied the value related concepts in the tourism behaviour and consumer behaviour literature and their underlying conceptualisations. All these different conceptual values, for the purpose of evaluating destination choice behaviour, have been categorised into three interrelated levels of values: human values, travel motivators, and image value dimensions (of selective image).

The conceptualisation and operationalisation of this research study is unique to destination decision-making studies. This research examined the destination selection behaviour based on consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b), which argues that selection is done using five variables (values) namely, functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values. However, consumption value theory had not been sufficiently adapted in the destination decision-making tourism literature. The solution, as proposed by other scholars (Phau et al., 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000), was that these five variables were conceptualised and grounded on 'destination image' which is a commonly applied variable in destination selection research (Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chon, 1991; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Pike, 2002; Ryan & Cave, 2005; Ryan & Ninov, 2011; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010; Tasci et al., 2007).

As lengthily described in chapter 2, the conceptual structure of destination image has been explained differently in previous research. Crompton (1979a) viewed destination image as the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impression of a particular

place. Echtner and Ritchie (1991) claim that destination image is perceptions and holistic impressions held by potential visitors regarding the destination attributes. Tasci and Gartner (2007) envisage the destination image as an interactive system of thoughts, opinions, and visualisation about a destination. These different conceptualisations have led different studies to explain dimensions and sub-concepts of destination image differently. Organic, induced, and complex image (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991), cognitive, affective, and active image (Pike & Ryan, 2004) are some examples. However, it was argued that these dimensions are similar to the five value dimensions presented in consumption value theory (Ramkissoon et al., 2009). This research proposed five distinct dimensions of destination image, for the purposes of studying the destination selection, based on consumption value theory (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b).

Thus, destination image is a collection of values. It is a collection of psychological constructs developed in a traveller's mind with respect to the external attributes which are relevant to a given tourism situation. Destination image is used as a selective image which reflects the properties of destination image that determine choice in the destination decision-making process. Therefore, the variable was named 'selective image', which represents only the functioning properties of destination image with regard to selection behaviour (Chon, 1990; Ramkissoon et al., 2009).

It is worthwhile to note that the method employed in this study always dealt with the outcome of the interaction between travellers' values and external stimuli. For example, this study, for both the qualitative and quantitative data collections, was based on why a potential traveller acts in a certain way in the process of destination selection or in the making of choice sets. In this case, the study asked 'what are the internal (psychological) stimuli that induce a person to act in a certain way?'. These internal stimuli are directly linked to values and, therefore, studying values also enables one to study the process of destination decision-making and behaviour (Cheng & Lu, 2012; Phau et al., 2014; Rokeach, 1973).

The importance of this value-based approach is that it is an investigation of destination decision-making that commences with internal drivers rather than studying a specific number of external factors (Decrop, 2006b; Um & Crompton,

1990). The behaviours of people are assumed to be congruent with their internal psychological needs and with their demographic factors (Jayawardhena, 2004; Maio & Olson, 1994). The role that the demographics has to play in examining the behaviours is limited. The CHAID analysis of this study has shown that, based on demographics, consumers can be categorised into broad groups, but if a given broad group is to be further examined, the demographics cannot be used. Therefore, a value-based approach can provide a deeper investigation when compared to demographic-based analysis.

The main advantage of value-based investigations over demographic analysis is that the value-based investigation considers the output of the interaction between internal (values) and external factors (variables), which is more practical and relevant for studying destination decision-making than examining only the variable relationships (for example, merely studying the relationship between destination image and selection). Therefore, this doctoral research investigation chose, right from the very beginning, to investigate destination decision-making from a value-based perspective.

This research approach encourages an internally driven approach (focusing on the influence of psychological forces) to understand consumer behaviour, rather than an external driven approach (focusing only on the non-psychological/external forces). The internal-driven approach is simpler than an external-driven approach which (external-driven) starts the investigation with factors external to the individuals. The consumer behaviour literature has shown that people behave according to their internal forces (e.g. Gutman & Vinson, 1979; Honkanen et al., 2006; Kim, Forsythe, Gu, & Moon, 2002; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Verplanken & Svenson, 1997; Vinson et al., 1977) and the current study investigated the individual's values, specifically consumers' values, as the intrinsic forces affecting destination decision-making. The use of this internal- driven approach has enabled the research to limit the number of variables. Given the assumption that destination decision-making is chiefly based on an individual's values, the variables were developed (identified) with respect to the internal value dimensions. Therefore, external measurements for internal value dimensions were developed with no other external variable being included except

for travel constraints. Since the literature supports the idea that the five value dimensions can explain choice behaviours, the use of a value-based approach facilitated the incorporation of a larger number of external factors into the five value dimensions. This values-based approach has never been previously researched.

The significance of this investigation and its contribution to the research field is that, if a respective value dimension is found to be important for a certain market segment, it can be used to predict the possible attributes or features of the destination they prefer. In addition, rather than only studying external variables, the use of values provides a deeper understanding of consumer decision-making. This approach can contribute to reducing the complexity of research models which are generally comprised of numerous factors:

commodities/constraints/budgets (Lancaster, 1966; Morley, 1992; Rugg, 1973), information/corporate power/advertising/agglomeration/time (Papatheodorou, 2001), psychological/individual variables/household variables (Decrop, 2006a), motivations/destination image (Goodall, 1988), marketing variables/travel related variables/destination awareness (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), demographics (Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Lee et al., 2010; Ross, 1993; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), socio-cultural dimensions (Barros et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2010), vacation experience (Decrop & Snelders, 2005), motives (Decrop & Snelders, 2005), involvement (Decrop & Snelders, 2005) nature (Barros et al., 2008), distance (Barros et al., 2008; T.-K. Hsu et al., 2009), information (Decrop & Snelders, 2005), push/full factor, values/life styles/psychographics (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), the tangible/intangible (T.-K. Hsu et al., 2009), security (Barros et al., 2008), and preference (Ross, 1993).

To conclude, the values based approach taken in this study contributes to destination decision making studies as it has stipulated a solid format to categorize all the destination evaluation factors under one of five value categories.

7.3.2 DESTINATION IMAGE VS. SELECTIVE IMAGE

One of the main features of this research is that destination image is interpreted in a purpose-oriented way based on a value-based approach and has been labelled *selective image*. It was suggested that ‘desired image’, rather than selective mage,

may better represent this variable. However, in the literature, the term desired image represents the perspective of destination management organizations or destination marketers rather than a travellers perspective. For many studies, desired image is how a destination would like to be perceived by their potential visitors (Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Lopes, 2011) or how a destination management company should position the destination for their target market (Chacko, 1996; Prebensen, 2007). The term selective image, which appears very rarely in the literature, represent what actually has affected the destination selection decision (Dann, 1996). However, Dann's study did not discuss values in the destination decision-making process.

Initially, the relationship between destination image and consumption values was established. The themes for five different value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of selective image were derived from the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, confirming that selective image is a function of the five consumption values. In another words, the five different values were found to be components of selective image. This finding supports the claim that consumption values have an impact on destination image formation (Ramkissoon et al., 2009) and more specifically supporting the concept of beneficial images proposed by Tapachai and Waryszak (2000). Beneficial image, which represents the influential properties of destination image in destination selection, was very similar to the concept selective image introduced in this research study. Other research has also demonstrated the link between destination image and consumption values (Phau et al., 2014; Shanka & Phau, 2008; Zins, 2010).

The introduced variable, selective image, was examined in both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study. The qualitative data findings clearly showed that prospective visitors describe these five values (Phau et al., 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2009; Sheth et al., 1991b; Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000) as reasons to select or shortlist destination options for their next vacation. Each of the five value dimensions of selective image identified, in the qualitative study, a number of items (functional 30, social 4, emotional 13, epistemic 5, conditional 8) as reasons to select destinations for a vacation. More interestingly, the PLS path model

analysis validated these results. Thus, the measurement model for selective image was successfully validated. More importantly, because of the confirmation of the discriminant validity of the measurement model, it was confirmed that the five variables loaded their factors separately to form the value dimension and, finally, that they acted collectively to form the selective image. Therefore, the empirical measures have been able to support the conceptually established measurements and the measurements have been confirmed as reliable (Hair et al., 2014). Thus, the findings in this study support the proposition that selective image (destination image) is comprised of five values (Ramkissoon et al., 2009) and in so finding addresses a research gap.

In consumption value theory, these five dimensions are combined to explain the selection behaviours of consumers (Sheth et al., 1991b). The contribution of this research is that a variable (selective image) has now been developed specifically to assess the destination selection behaviours of visitors. More importantly, the destination image has been applied as the major construct to conceptualise and operationalise the new variable of selective image. This new variable can be applied to future destination decision-making studies by operationalising the five value dimensions according to the destination contexts and the research objectives.

Following on from the above, it is argued that destination image is not a static concept. It can be conceptualised and operationalised in many ways depending on the requirements. Previous research, including some well accepted studies of destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993), have considered destination image as a universal concept and independent from the context. Moreover, most applications of destination image in empirical studies have not considered the properties that apply to the study concerned (Baloglu & Mangalolu, 2001; Chi & Qu, 2008; Hallmann et al., 2015; Silva, Kastenholz, & Abrantes, 2013). Some studies have used destination image with a specific meaning (Eg. Hallmann et al., 2015; Hsu & Chen, 2000).

Therefore, since destination image is such a complex phenomenon, it will be argued that it is important to think about a purpose-oriented conceptualisation and operationalisation for this particular concept.

Initial studies of destination image (mother concept) have contributed to developing broad conceptualisations (as described above) and operationalisation of destination image and to establish relationships between other related variables found in tourist behavioural studies. However, it will be argued that the time has come to think about and to use a ‘purpose-oriented’ conceptualisation and operationalisation of destination image. This research investigation has addressed this research gap. The selective image concept applied in this research indicates that destination image is not always a fixed concept which can be used to study any given tourist behaviour in any given situation. The variable destination image can be used depending on the research goals and objectives. Taking this approach will allow the researcher to identify the role of the variable (developed based on destination image) in the study and then to conceptualise and operationalise destination image for the intended study. Importantly, the variable should be named accordingly. This practice eventually will lead to the development of universally accepted modes of destination image which can be used in empirical studies in tourism behaviour.

The purpose-oriented use of destination image is not completely new to the literature. The category-based approach of evaluating images (Hartman & Spiro, 2005; Keaveney & Hunt, 1992), the notion of attractive and non attractive image components (Al-Kwafi, 2015), positively (or negatively) influencing images (on destination choice) of destination image (Goodall, 1991), and the idea of beneficial image (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000; Zins, 2010) are very good examples of adapting the concept of destination image based on the research purpose in a way which is similar to the selective image concept discussed in this research investigation. However, the *selective image* proposed in this research study is different from these examples of purpose-oriented destination image. *Selective image* integrates five dimensions that affect destination selection and can be used as a common variable in any destination selection study. The research contribution is that *selective image*, as a derivative of destination image, can be used in destination decision-making studies.

7.3.3 TOWARDS A TOURISM VALUE HIERARCHY

This research study adopted the consumer values hierarchy (Vinson et al., 1977)

as the main baseline model. This particular model describes three types of values (global values, domain-specific values, and evaluative beliefs) which are hierarchical and interrelated. The current research subsumed tourism-related variables into that model based on the literature and the qualitative research findings.

Consequently, this research investigation evaluated three travel-related hierarchical values (human values, travel motivations, selective image). It should be noted that the human values (global values) remain the same as in the original model (Vinson et al., 1977), since closely-held human values do not change with respect to external environment stimuli (Vinson et al., 1977). Travel motivations corresponded to the domain-specific values which are believed to bridge the gap between human values and evaluative beliefs. The selective image actually corresponded to the evaluative beliefs and consumption values, as described in the empirical findings section in this chapter. The quantitative phase of the research examined the relationships between three levels of tourism related values: human values, travel motivations, selective image.

The PLS-SEM analysis of the quantitative data generated many insights regarding the tourism value hierarchy. The structural model evaluation has confirmed that path coefficients are sufficient and significant between human values and travel motivations (path coefficient = 0.433); and between travel motivations and selective image (path coefficient = 0.256). The results showed that there can be a partial mediating effect of travel motivations on human values and selective image. No other research has discussed a values hierarchy, a notion which was specifically conceptualised and tested in this investigation.

This research has introduced a value hierarchy which effectively explains the values influencing destination decision-making. Human values, travel motivations, and selective image (selection) have been combined as a new value hierarchy for tourism behavioural studies. The contribution of this framework is that it uses the concepts developed in tourism research contexts. Travel motivations and destination image are highly studied concepts in tourism. This study linked these concepts with the value hierarchy proposed by Vinson et al. (1977). Interestingly, Tasci and Gartner (2007) model was similar to the value

hierarchy introduced in this research. Their model takes image capital (similar to human values) as the antecedent of image formation factors (similar to travel motivations) which is an antecedent of destination image (similar to selective image). However, that model was comprised of many other moderating variables and, therefore, more complex compared to the tourism value hierarchy introduced in this study.

This PhD research investigation uses concepts such as travel motivations and the value dimensions of image for destination selection. This research also linked the value-attitude-behaviour relationships (Allen et al., 2002; Chon, 1989; Maio & Olson, 1994; Tan, 2011; Wang & Sun, 2011) discussed extensively in the consumer behaviour literature. The study of Chon (1989) examined the effects of internal stimuli in the formation of travel motivations and motivation encourages tourists' attitudes to adopt a certain behaviour (Al-Kwafi, 2015; Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2009). Um and Crompton (1991) claimed that choice is made as an outcome of selecting between attitudes and constraints. Chon (1990) describes travel motivations as antecedents to destination image which will eventually have an impact on destination selection behaviour of potential travellers. Conversely, other research (Lee, 2009) used the concepts image, attitudes, and motivations without considering attitudes and motivations as antecedents (but as independent constructs) of destination image which could mislead the structural relationships of these concepts. This doctoral research investigation proposed, a hierarchy of values for tourism studies that clearly explains the path of an individual's value, which, in turn, is reflected in their tourism behaviour. Human values are independent of behaviour; they are predecessors to travel behaviour. Human values determine the motives which lead to travel behaviour. Thus, travel motivations direct the individual to determine the consumption values of a particular tour. This three-factor relationship has not been clearly conceptualised in the previous literature.

Moreover, in this study, these values were evaluated at three different levels whereas two of (travel motivations, consumption values of selective image) are explicitly congruent and operational in the context of tourism research. This study used the concepts drawn from tourism literature. In particular, the travel

motivations and five value dimensions of selective image were constructed on tourism-related concepts in the literature. Therefore, the investigation of values was not limited to only one layer of variables. This study examined the three levels of values by taking the distance from the core of an individual's value system as the main criteria to differentiate between the levels. These three levels of values were personal values, travel motivations, and consumption values of destination selection. Therefore, this investigation has not only studied the use of psychological factors as influential factors in destination decision-making but has also positioned these values in a hierarchy which starts from the more centrally held human values to less centrally held consumption values of selective image.

The tourism value hierarchy is another key contribution of this research. In particular, two levels of values, related to tourism behaviours, are identified and statistically tested as predecessors of selective image. Therefore, future researchers can use this value relationship to investigate tourism behaviours, especially in destination decision-making.

7.4 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION

The empirical and conceptual discussions in the previous sections of this chapter have identified specific contributions of this of this PhD investigation. This research study examined the destination decision-making process using a value-based approach. It extended previous destination decision-making research studies, particularly the choice set approaches of destination decision-making models such as Woodside and Lysonski (1989), Um and Crompton (1990), and (Goodall, 1991). Those models gave consideration to the making of choice sets rather than examining the reasons why choice sets are constructed along the decision-making process. The current research has examined the reasons behind choice sets in each stage of the decision-making process taking a value-based approach. Reasons (values) influencing each stage of decision-making can now be identified separately.

This study contributes to and builds upon recent empirical research on destination decision-making and values. The study of Maumbe and Arbogast (2015) examined the influence of motives on destination evaluation. This study is similar

to that research in that both studies examined the effect of motivations on destination evaluation factors. However, Maumbe and Arbogast (2015) identified a four factor list of destination evaluation indicators based on a literature review and factor analysis; namely facilities, hospitality, shopping, and core attractions. The four factors represent the functional value requirements in destination evaluation but missed or did not focus on the social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional evaluations. The current research provides a sound basis for five value dimensions which can be used as a guide in selecting destination evaluation factors to study destination selection behaviours. The study undertaken by Jiang, Scott, and Ding (2015), applied a means-end chain technique to understand underlying values of Chinese travellers, and demonstrated an approach to segment a travel market based on underlying values. It examined values but not the role of values in destination decision-making.

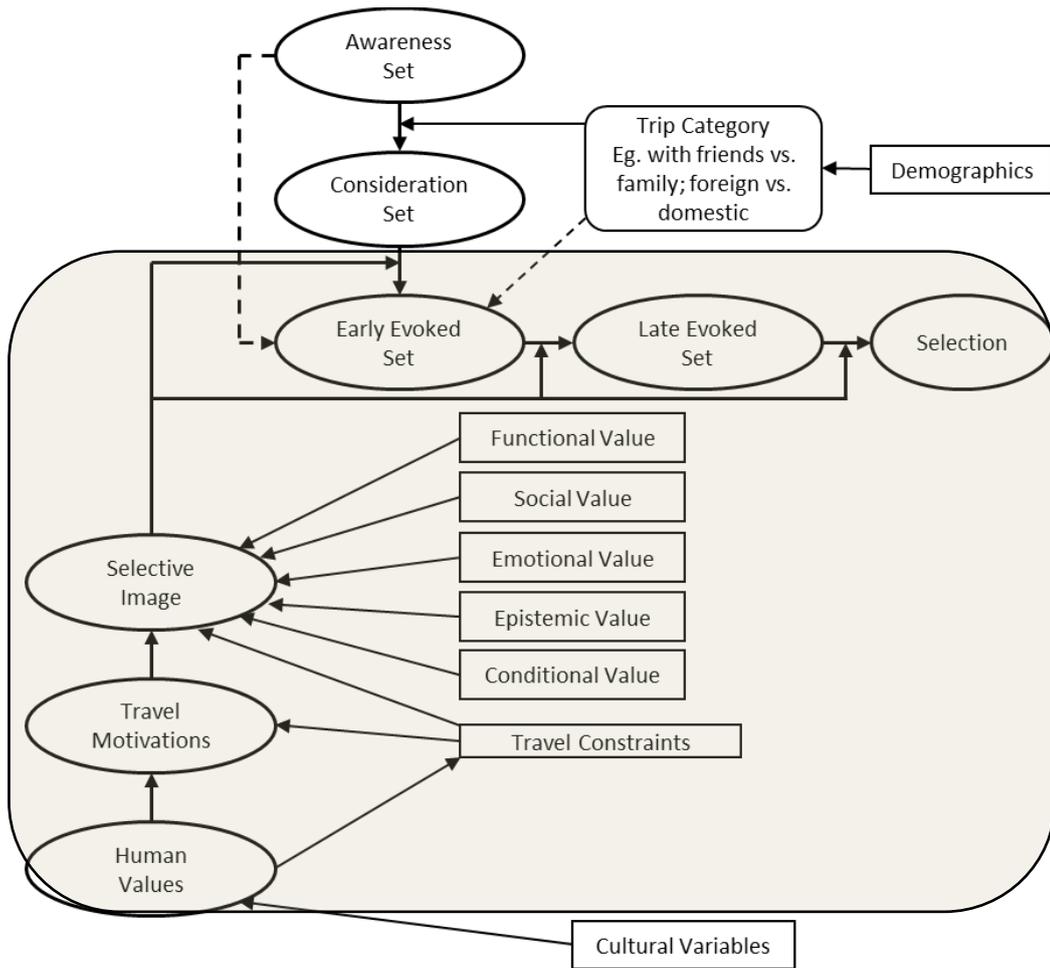
Additionally, Gardiner et al. (2013) studied the influence of value related variables on behavioural intentions to purchase a tourism product. It selected some variables drawn from focus group findings such as novelty, quality, emotional value, attitudes etc. as predecessors of attitudes. Measures of those variables were based on past studies however did not examine the conceptual interrelationships between variables but rather examined them in isolation. The current doctoral research extends that research as it differentiates various levels of values and recognises the interrelationships of key influencers in the destination decision-making and examined destination decision-making as a process whereas Gardiner, King & Grace (2013) examined the intention to select a destination at a fixed point in time.

An integrated conceptual framework is presented as one of the key contributions of this PhD research. This proposed model builds upon and extends the previous choice set approach models of destination decision making.

An Integrated Framework for Destination Decision-Making

Given all the findings and discussions regarding types and levels of values in the process of destination decision-making, the research proposes a conceptual model to study the destination decision-making using a value-based approach (*Figure 7-2*).

Figure 7-2. Emerging framework for value-based destination decision-making.



The shaded area of the conceptual framework was fully covered and tested by the current study. The model has two ends: the top end starts with external factors which broadly identify the initial choice sets, and the bottom end starts with internal factors (values) which deeply evaluate the choice sets at the end points of the destination decision-making process.

In the model (Figure 7-2), the consideration set is derived from the awareness set of destinations. However, depending on the nature of the trip and the size of the awareness set, it is possible to derive the early evoked set straightaway bypassing the consideration set. The dotted arrow lines show that possibility. The issue of the deriving awareness set or early evoked set and their sizes can be different from one decision-maker to other. However, the current study has hardly investigated this issue as it was beyond the focus of this research study.

However, future research can consider this particular issue and study the whole model to evaluate the destination decision-making process using a value-based approach. The construct 'trip category' is expected to determine the consideration set (or early evoked set as described above). The trip category is influenced by the demographics. According to the results of the CHAID analysis, the demographics can decide one's travel companion, foreign or domestic trip, mode of transport, type of accommodation, etc. However, apart from the demographic factors, as per the qualitative data, there can be some other factors which influence the trip category. The current PhD research has not investigated those factors in-depth, since the main focus was to study the behaviour of values in the process of destination decision-making. However, a brief discussion about these concepts is given under the topic of future research in chapter 8 of this thesis. Therefore, the unshaded upper part of this model has partially been tested in the current PhD research and future research could examine the impact of trip category on deriving the consideration set from the awareness set.

This model proposed here (*Figure 7-2*) integrates the destination decision-making process and the hierarchy of consumer values taken from Vinson et al. (1977). The destination decision-making process is considered to be a staged process which funnels considered destinations until the final choice of destination is selected. This funnel-like process is expected to produce various choice sets during the process of destination selection (Crompton, 1992; Decrop, 2010). The process starts with the awareness set which includes all the destinations known to the decision-maker. Then the consideration set is derived based on the trip category criteria. This is similar to category based destination decision-making described in the literature (Hong et al., 2006) and the initial stages of the vacation sequence model of destination selection (van Raaij & Francken, 1984). The trip category criteria in the model for this doctoral research can be long haul vs. short haul, with friends vs. with family, as the qualitative data demonstrated that the consideration set can be premised mainly on the travel party, short trip vs. long trip, length of stay, foreign vs. domestic trip, etc. (see future research in chapter 8). Furthermore, according to the results of the CHAID analysis, the category can also be determined on the basis of the traveller's demographic factors.

Depending on all these factors, the decision-maker decides upon the elements of the consideration set in a broad manner. In particular, at this stage, the decision-maker does not evaluate each and every destination in the awareness set in a deep manner but, rather, he/she selects all the destinations based on the trip category criteria described above. However, it can be argued that the travel motivation can play a significant role here, because prescribed trip category criteria reflect the similarities between the indicators of the travel motivations used in this study. That kind of argument cannot be completely disregarded. For instance, the travel motivation can directly be linked with the arrow pointing from awareness set and consideration set and test the path relationship between travel motivations and consideration set. Since this research has not investigated that particular relationship, the model does not include that path relationship between travel motivations and consideration set. Moreover, if more arrows are used in this model, it will no longer be a simple model, but will again be a complicated model and will not highlight the integration of values in the destination decision-making process. The research intended to present a simple the model and to allow future researchers to modify it in line with their research requirements.

Moreover, the identification of the consideration set from the awareness set is mostly more dependent on trip category criteria than on the destination characteristics. Therefore, at this point in the decision-making process, destinations do not compete each other to get into the consideration set. Therefore, linking travel motivations and the consideration set does not produce much of value.

The making of early evoked set, late evoked set, and the selection was studied in this PhD research in a manner similar to the models of Um and Crompton (1990) and Crompton and Ankomah (1993). The late evoked set consisted of two destinations and the early evoked set consisted of more than two destinations. Therefore, the identification of choice sets was completely dependent on the number of destinations which had been filtered out by the process of destination decision-making (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977) .

According to the outcomes of the PhD study, the early evoked set, late evoked set, and the final destination selection are predominantly determined by the selective

image which comprises five dimensions: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value. This author believes that examination of how these values influence each other to make each of the choice sets at latter stages of the decision-making process would be more effective than examining the influence of values on the making of choice sets at very early stages of the decision-making process as described above. In particular, as investigated in this PhD research, the late evoked set is comprised of two competing destinations. Most of the time, these two destinations can be very similar in nature. For example, Sri Lanka and the Maldives can be in the late evoked set of a prospective Indian visitor, or sometimes Malaysia and Thailand can be in the late evoked set of an Indian visitor. These similarities can be places to visit, cost of trip, travel time, attractions, activities to engage in, etc. At this point, Sri Lanka destination marketers and Maldives destination marketers compete against each other to attract that particular visitor. The five value dimensions can be used to develop marketing strategies to attract that visitor. Marketers should understand which of the five values has more impact upon selection of the final destination. Importantly, marketers should not limit their strategies to one value; rather, they should understand the priority for all the values from the customer's viewpoint because it can be argued that a selection is based on the combination of these five values. As a result, this model can be considered as a practical means to conduct marketing research and develop marketing strategies (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

Finally, the value hierarchy is also introduced in this model. Human values, travel motivations, and consumption value (selective image) relationship are demonstrated in the model. The model proposes that these values have a significant effect in making choice sets and in selecting the final destination in the process of destination decision-making.

7.5 INDIA AS A MARKET FOR SRI LANKA TOURISM

This part of discussion addresses the following research proposition.

Proposition 11: Indian travellers visiting Sri Lanka can be profiled on the basis of five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and

conditional) of selective image.

The Sri Lanka-specific discussion was based on a sample of respondents who had decided to visit Sri Lanka for their vacation. According to the demographic analysis, the majority of the sample represents young unmarried educated Indian males. According to the Sri Lanka Tourism Development Authority (2014), 76% of Indian visitors to Sri Lanka were male and most were between the ages of 20-50 (73% of the travellers are older than 20). Therefore, the sample fairly represents the demographic characteristics of the Indians visiting Sri Lanka.

7.5.1 THE SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Travel information is of utmost importance in destination decision-making and tourist destinations should make potential visitors aware of essential information (Jacobsen & Munar, 2012; Mehta, 2014; Yacout & Hefny, 2015). Therefore, it is important to investigate how the Indians visiting Sri Lanka find their travel information. According to the analysis, Internet-based information sources (Internet search, travel blogs, Internet advertising) dominated among the sources of information. Using Internet-based sources to fulfil travel information needs is a well-known contemporary trend and these findings confirm that this applies to Indians as well. Mehta (2014) posits that Indians rely mostly on Internet-based information sources at the beginning of the destination selection process and, later on, they rely mainly on the information provided by travel agents when they book their trip. According to the analysis of information sources used by the Indians visiting Sri Lanka, travel agents ranked first (as an individual information source), thereby confirming the claim of Mehta (2014).

It should be noted that radio/TV media also played a substantial role in providing information for the travellers who had selected Sri Lanka for their vacation. These media are also a good way of providing information to a target market since people tend to watch TV and listen to the radio in their leisure time. People who are inspired and curious about the world, and who see countries first through these media, generate their impressions regarding certain destinations based on these sources. However, this can be a comparatively costly way of addressing the target audience (Chen & Gursoy, 2000).

Outdoor advertisements and guide books were found to be the sources that Indians relied on least. This can be a two-fold issue. On the one hand, the popularity of those information forms may have been overtaken by other modern information sources like Internet-based information (Munar & Jacobsen, 2014; Xiang & Law, 2013). Also Sri Lanka tourism may not have invested in outdoor promotions strategies to attract Indian visitors. According to eturbonews.com (2016), Sri Lanka has planned 46 outdoor advertising campaigns in 20 countries which are key to the Sri Lanka inbound tourism market. However, the question has arisen whether 46 campaigns is sufficient for 20 countries, especially for large countries such as China and India.

7.5.2 WHY DO INDIANS VISIT SRI LANKA?

To answer the question: Why do Indians visit Sri Lanka? the results of the descriptive statistics analysis with regard to the five value dimensions of selective image are discussed. The mean values comparison between the indicators of each of the value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) are used to uncover the reasons for Indians to travel to Sri Lanka.

For the functional value, first of all, it should be noted that the lowest mean value reported was 4.43 and the highest mean value reported was 5.04. Therefore, all 18 items used in the scale were rated above average (as 4 is the average value of a 7-point Likert scale). However, culture, heritage and cities are rated as the highest level among the functional value items relating to why Indians visit Sri Lanka. The answers given to the questionnaire's open-ended questions also support this claim. The Sigiriya rock fortress, Sri Pada, and Avukana Buddha statue are some of the heritage sites mentioned by Indians as reasons to visit Sri Lanka (*Table 6-30*). Heritage tourism in Sri Lanka is world famous and the country's main heritage sites are recommended destinations (Jolliffe & Aslam, 2009; Wickramasinghe & Takano, 2010; Wimalaratana, 2016).

Moreover, many of the Indians respondents mentioned that they would like to visit places which are related to an Indian epic called *Ramayana*. The Ramayana epic describes the ancient story of Prince Rama who was unfairly exiled by his father. Accompanied by his very beautiful wife Sita and brother Lakshmana, Prince Rama lived in a wild forest in South India. The story begins with an

incident in which Sita was captured by Ravan, who was the King of Sri Lanka, and the story tells how Rama and his monkey army rescued Sita (Basham, 1967). Many places in Sri Lanka are associated with this story including: Ashok Vatika, Cobra Headed Cave, Divurumpola, Dolukanda, Ishtripura/Konda Katu Gala, Kanniya Hot Springs, Kathirkaman, Kelaniya Buddhist Temple, Manavari Temple, Muneshwaram, Panchamuga Anjaneyar Temple, Pulasthi Statue, Ram sethu, Ravana Cave, Rishi Visravasmuni, Ritigala, Rumassala, Seetha Amman Temple, Seetha Kotuwa, Sri Muthumariamman Temple, The Chariot Path and Seetha Tear Pond, Thiru Koneswaram Temple, Thiruketheewaram Temple, Shankari Devi Temple, Ussangodam (Ramayana Tours, 2011).

Culture is another highly rated functional item for Indians. The textual analysis summary also demonstrated that people talk about the culture in Sri Lanka as a reason to travel there. Some Indians raised the fact that Sri Lankan culture is similar to their culture, while others mentioned that Sri Lanka is culturally different from their own culture. This diversity arises because India is a large continent and southern India shares cultural similarities with Sri Lanka. Importantly, some Indians mentioned that Sri Lanka is a country with hospitable people. The data collected through face-to-face interviews in Sri Lanka with Indian visitors also found that they spoke about Sri Lankan people and their culture.

We just decided we go and see Sri Lanka, because we had wanted to do it for a long time and when we were in England, we had lot of Sri Lankan friends, and we found them extremely hospitable, extremely friendly. My father had come to Sri Lanka a long time ago, so he told that [there were], fantastic people in Sri Lanka, so we wanted to come just to experience the culture. [Interview 26]

As indicated in the extract above, Indians believe Sri Lankan people are hospitable, friendly, and that they are fantastic people; these perceptions encourage Indians to visit Sri Lanka. Moreover, the social value mean value calculations show that the questionnaire item ‘destination where I can meet friendly people’ produced the highest mean value. Therefore, the ‘people’ are a decisive factor in Indians’ desire to visit Sri Lanka.

When it comes to the emotional value, ‘calm and quiet destination’ and ‘must-see

place' recorded the highest mean values and these elements are also confirmed by the data collected for the open-ended questions in the questionnaire (*Table 6-30*). Moreover, the first part of the above quotation also reflects that Sri Lanka is a must-see place for Indians. Epistemic-related analysis shows that 'I have not been there' was the highest rated item, a placing which is also confirmed by the comment: "*we are here for the first time in Sri Lanka*" [interview 22]. Moreover, the textual analysis results generated from the open-ended question data also demonstrated epistemic values such as 'new place', '[desire] to explore', 'new culture', 'new experience', 'new atmosphere', etc. (*Table 6-30*).

'Convenient travel time', 'travel agent gave me a good package', and 'good value for money' were the main conditional value items selected by the mean value analysis. Moreover, proximity also emerged from the textual data gathered from the open-ended question. As recorded in *Table 6-30*, people mentioned proximity using terms such as 'nearby', 'less time', 'near to my country', 'because it is a nearby destination to visit'. In addition, people who were interviewed during their visit in Sri Lanka also mentioned the country's proximity as a reason to visit Sri Lanka: "*I feel it is only one hour from Bangalore*" [Interview 26], "*We want to be closer and have less flying time*" [Interview 23].

Overall, the question of why Indian visitors select Sri Lanka as a travel destination has been answered using a value-based approach, since the reasons to travel to Sri Lanka reflected all five of the values in that approach: i.e., functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values. The next section will briefly discuss the motivations of Indians to travel to Sri Lanka.

7.5.3 TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

'To experience new and different places', 'to see a must-see place to me or my travel companions', and 'to get away from normal life' are the highest rated travel motivations. Moreover, all the items given for the construct travel motivation achieved more than a 4.61 mean score. The extracted themes from the textual data gathered through the open-ended questions also reflect motivations such as to 'get away from the normal life', 'visiting friends and relatives', 'experience new cultures', 'relax and refresh', etc. (*Table 6-31*). Given this evidence, it is clear that people possess travel motivations that are less relevant to the destination they

visit than are the consumption values they develop with regard to a particular destination.

Thus far, this section has discussed the empirical findings from the Indian market for a Sri Lanka as a destination. derived from the research. The next section will summarise the theoretical insights of the research study.

7.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This discussion chapter situated the findings in the context of the previous literature and highlighted how the research findings support previous studies and how they diverge from previous studies. This chapter also identified the research gaps that addressed the empirical analysis such as differentiating stages of the destination decision-making process grounded on values, and the establishment of relationships between constructs such as human values, travel motivations, travel constraints, and selective image. A major contribution of this thesis lies in the theoretical and conceptual insights it provides on the workings of the destination decision-making process that can be used by future destination marketers and researchers. This chapter has described how selective image is formed on the basis of five consumption values and presented a tourism value hierarchy that reduces some of the complexity of previous destination decision models. An empirical investigation about Indian travellers as a market for Sri Lanka tourism and implications for Sri Lankan destination marketers was also discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 8.

CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the PhD research by revisiting the research process, summarising the research gaps this thesis has addressed and the contribution that it makes, and recapping on its methodological-theoretical-empirical insights. The chapter concludes with an outline of the limitations of this investigation and suggestions for future research.

8.2 RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS AND FINDINGS AND MAIN CONCLUSIONS

Table 8-1 provides a brief summary on the results of the PhD research with respect to each of its research propositions.

Table 8-1. Research propositions and results

Research proposition	Results
Proposition 1: That the selective image can be operationalised based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) proposed in consumption value theory	Confirmed
Proposition 2: That the five value dimensions of selective image jointly contribute to the choice sets and the final destination selection along the destination decision-making process	Confirmed
Proposition 3: That the five value dimensions of selective image contribute differently to the choice sets and to the final destination selection in the destination decision-making process	Partly confirmed
Proposition 4: That human values has an effect on the travel constraints of a prospective traveller	Confirmed
Proposition 5: That human values has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller	Confirmed
Proposition 6: That human values has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller	Confirmed
Proposition 7: That travel constraints has an effect on travel motivations of a prospective traveller	Confirmed
Proposition 8: Travel constraints has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller	Confirmed
Proposition 9: Travel motivations has an effect on selective image of a prospective traveller	Confirmed
Proposition 10: That demographic factors of traveller determine the characteristics of the trip	Partly confirmed
Proposition 11: Indian travellers visiting Sri Lanka can be profiled based on five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of selective image.	Confirmed

As *Table 8-1* depicts, the research propositions are confirmed. However, this research has mainly been exploratory in terms of its conceptual framework. In particular, the concepts used in the conceptual framework and the modelling of the concepts are relatively new to the tourism research context. Therefore, the propositions also set out to uncover the relationships that exist between these variables. Propositions 4 to 9 were designed to test these causal relationships between variables, rather than to discover the degree of effect caused by the independent variable on the dependent variable. Such studies can be done for a selected group (this can be a market segment) to reveal the degree of causality of the variables.

However, the first three research propositions were investigated throughout the research project. As the selective image was measured using five consumption value dimensions, the behaviour of five values was studied on the basis of the research propositions. Since some of the value dimensions did not demonstrate significant differences in the different stages of the destination decision-making process, research proposition 3 was only partly confirmed. Proposition 10 was also only partly confirmed, since the CHAID analysis was not designed to divide the sample in terms of each and every demographic factor. Proposition 11 proposed that Indian visitors to Sri Lanka can be profiled using five value dimensions and this proposition was confirmed.

8.3 RESEARCH AS IT HAPPENED

This research investigation undertook an exploratory sequential mixed-method design comprised of a qualitative phase and quantitative phase. The qualitative study contributed to the research by improving the initial conceptual framework and in developing the quantitative questionnaire. Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather data which would allow the researcher to examine how destination choice sets are made throughout the destination decision-making process.

The researcher, a Sri Lankan, had made arrangements with Indian travel agencies to approach relevant respondents (people intending to visit Sri Lanka for their vacation in the near future) for interview. However, once he arrived in Bangalore,

all the travel agents who had previously agreed to help him refused to disclose their clients' personal contact details and, hence, the research had no leads to approach people to be interviewed, as had been expected. Therefore, the initial sampling frame was amended so that it could include anyone who was intending to have an out of the state or out of the country (outbound) vacation. A total of 23 interviews were conducted in Bangalore and in Delhi. In addition, seven interviews were conducted with Indian tourists while they were visiting Sri Lanka. The qualitative data findings explored the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional) of destination selection. Moreover, the findings highlighted new concepts (for example, travel motivations) which were not included in the research's initial conceptual framework. Therefore, the qualitative data findings led to a further review of the literature (literature review phase II). This additional review helped to improve the conceptual framework of the research by adding new concepts.

An online survey was developed to collect the quantitative data and this survey was administrated through a market research company based in Mumbai. The decision to use the costlier option of a market research company was due to the difficulties faced in the qualitative data collection phase. The quantitative data were analysed to evaluate the final conceptual framework. The discussion chapter integrated the qualitative findings and the quantitative results.

8.4 DESTINATION DECISION-MAKING AND VALUES

Human behaviour is directed by an individual's values (Kahle, 1983; Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Rokeach, 1973). Hence, decisions such as vacation destination selection are also affected by values. However, values exist at different levels or in different categories ranging from those most closely held by the individual to those less closely held by the individual. The most closely held values are embedded with one's cultural background and are assumed to be more fixed and unresponsive to external stimuli (Vinson et al., 1977). Less closely held values are more unstable and can be affected by external stimuli. Consumption values in this study, expressed as the dimensions of selective image, are less closely held values and have been found to behave differently in the three stages (consideration, evaluation, and selection) of the vacation destination decision-making process.

What was found was that individuals evaluate destination options using the value dimensions, namely functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional values of selective image and the impact of these values on each stage of the decision-making process is different.

It is argued that it is more beneficial to examine human behaviour based on consumption values than on demographics. Demographic analysis is suitable as a surface analysis seeking to establish differences between demographic-based groups such as male vs. female. However, once the difference between males and females is noted, more information is needed for an effective marketing strategy. Marketers can use other demographic factors such as age, education, geographic area, marital status, income, occupation, etc. to analyse the identified segment further. That said, all these demographic factors are still too broad and, therefore, it is suggested that once a group has been identified on the basis of its demographics, a value-based analysis can be employed to study that particular group in depth.

The main precursor of selective image is travel motivation. As this research highlighted, travel motivation is determined by these human values which are considered to be more closely held by the individual than travel motivations are. The travel motivations represent the 'push factors' of travel which are stimulating the travel needs. Since the travel motivations work as a precursor of selective image, which is comprised of five distinct values, it can be seen that people evaluate travel options by comparing the destination-specific values (the five values) with their own travel motives (why they need a vacation).

8.5 INDIAN TRAVEL MARKET FOR SRI LANKA TOURISM

The results of the Sri Lankan-based research revealed some important insights regarding Indians visiting Sri Lanka. Indians value Sri Lanka's culture and heritage. In the main, they mention sites such as Sigiriya, Sri Pada, Avukan. Interestingly, the places associated with the Ramayana epics that are well known and popular among Indians, also are popular among Indian visitors.

The people of Sri Lanka and especially the hospitality of Sri Lankan people are admired by many of the Indians visiting Sri Lanka. Internet, radio, television,

outdoor advertisement campaigns, and word of mouth are the main travel information sources for Indians who visit Sri Lanka. Its proximity and the short time it takes to get there from India are also major reasons why Indians travel to Sri Lanka.

8.6 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This research has found that destination decision-making is a value-driven process. Some destination marketers may segment the market according to values rather than demographics but there is no evidence that this is being undertaken in an analytical or systematic way. With the model being presented in this thesis destination marketers can now consider a systematic value-based approach as an alternative option to the systematic demographic-driven conventional psychographic market segmentation. Importantly, the five value dimensions discussed in this research can be used as a base to segment the market and develop marketing strategies to attract each market segment. For example, marketers can change the appeal of products to suit customer's situational factors (conditional value); ability to visit within limited timeframes (new packages can be developed), suit the budget of the traveller (discount, new tourist packages, promotions etc.)

Figure 8-1 Travel market segmentation matrix

	Functional	Social	Emotional	Epistemic	Conditional
Selection (S)	SF	SS	SE	SEp	SC
Evaluation (E)	EF	ES	EE	EEp	EC
Consideration (C)	CF	CS	CE	CEp	CC

The identification of the behaviour of five values in each stage of destination decision-making process provides an alternative method to segment the existing market into series of sub market segments both horizontally and vertically (*Figure*

8-1).

According to the *Figure 8-1*, the existing market can be divided into 15 sub units each of which are dominated by a particular value category corresponding to a particular stage of destination decision-making process. Formulating a series of marketing strategies for each category in this matrix will allow destinations to target specific visitors and provide an individual marketing approach (Díaz-Pérez, Bethencourt-Cejas, & Álvarez-González, 2005; Rayman-Bacchus & Molina, 2001) by applying strategies such as market promotion and product differentiation/diversification with the aim of increasing visitor satisfaction (Galloway, 2002; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Muller, 1991). For example, sub segment of SF is relevant to the selection stage of the decision-making process and this particular target segment seeks mainly functional attributes of the destination (nature, attractions, activities etc.). Therefore, destination marketers can develop strategies to communicate such functional attributes to these prospective visitors via various marketing communication tools i.e., documentaries, TV and Internet advertisements, brochures, social media etc. Given the above discussion, this doctoral research has contributed a new model which can be used to segment a particular travel market into 15 market segments based on values as well as the corresponding stage of the destination decision-making process.

8.7 METHODOLOGICAL INSIGHTS

The integration of exploratory sequential mixed design and embedded mixed method design has demonstrated the use of multiple mixed methods research designs in one study. From the outset, this thesis sought to achieve the primary research objectives of model-building rather than limiting the research process to specific mixed method research designs proposed in the literature. The postpositivistic paradigm, in which humanism (constructivism) is allowed to mix with quantitative positivist approaches, laid a solid foundation for the research study.

The researcher has indirectly influenced the research outcomes through interpretation and knowledge construction. Epistemologically, the influence of the

researcher on what knowledge has been constructed is to be noted. Throughout the research, the researcher directed the research to discover answers to the broad research question (objective); how do values affect destination selection? The implementation of a second literature review based on the qualitative study outcomes demonstrates the researcher's willingness to change the initial design in order to align the investigation to answer the broad research question. This flexibility also demonstrates that the progression of the study was always dependent on the previous step of the research.

The research outcomes are not the result of one particular research method or technique. The outcomes to answer the research questions (propositions) and to construct knowledge produced by the quantitative methods have been shaped by the qualitative research findings. At times, more than one quantitative technique was used to measure a certain phenomenon. Therefore, the design of this research is pragmatic, which demonstrates the qualities and properties of pragmatism as a research paradigm that justifies mixed methods research.

8.8 THE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The research conceptual framework had four main variables: human values, travel constraints, travel motivations, and selective image. Of these, selective image was a completely new variable and one which had not been extensively researched. Selective image comprised five underlying dimensions (the first-order variables: functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value) developed from consumption value theory. Therefore, the measures developed to study the variable are new to the tourism behavioural research field. The composite reliability and the convergent validity of the five value dimensions has been confirmed by the statistics. Therefore, the research instrument is reliable and valid for this kind of research. Moreover, travel motivations, as the main precursor of selective image, also measured a set of measurements, some of which were originally developed by this study. Given that all the items comprehensively measure the travel motivations as a construct in the PLS path model, the research study was able to contribute to travel motivation research. More importantly, the Leximancer map for the travel motivations has produced many concepts such as

'relax', 'different', 'enjoy', 'friends', 'time', 'visit', 'family vacation', 'meet', and 'mind' which were similar to the questionnaire items that had been used to measure travel motivations. The travel constraints were also measured via the questionnaire items derived upon the qualitative study findings and relevant literature. The measurement model evaluation also ensured the validity and reliability of the measures. Only human values were measured using a pre-developed set of questionnaire items and were also confirmed reliable and valid.

8.9 RESEARCH GAPS AND CONTRIBUTION

This research has been able to fill the identified gaps in the destination decision-making literature. First of all, as the research findings suggest, the consumption value dimensions behave differently in each stage of the destination decision-making process. The implications of this contribution is that it suggests that the same set of variables can behave differently across the various stages of destination decision-making process indicating that destination marketers and researchers should target the various stages of decision-making process rather than focusing only on the final destination selection.

Incorporating psychosocial variables to examine destination decision-making addressed another gap in the literature. Although previous research does acknowledge that decision-making is a psychological process (Kamakura & Novak, 1992), no research study has been able to propose a comprehensive psychological approach to the study of destination decision-making. This PhD thesis addressed this gap through the introduction of a set of psychological variables (functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, and conditional value) based on consumption value theory and destination image. These psychological variables can incorporate any of the destination evaluation variables in destination decision-making. Therefore, the decision-making process can be evaluated only using only five manageable variables thus introducing a simpler approach when compared to the previous approaches and models. A further contribution of this thesis is that the model reduces complexity associated with analysing destination decision making in previous research.

Another contribution of the current study is that it investigated the predecessors of

these five values and established (and statistically tested) a value hierarchy of tourist behaviour. To arrive to this hierarchy, the three levels of values (human values, domain-specific values, and evaluative beliefs) as depicted in the consumer value hierarchy were analysed in terms of value-related concepts (perceived values, travel motivations, attitudes, consumer values) previously discussed in tourism behaviour studies. Therefore, the introduction of a tourism value hierarchy contributes to the tourism behavioural research as it integrates these value related concepts from the tourism literature into three levels of values: human value, travel motivations, and selective image. The tourism literature has discussed many value related concepts and terminologies (e.g., perceived values, travel motivations, attitudes), however the literature has not been able to establish the interrelationships between these concepts and to incorporate psychological factors in a tourist's value system.

The newly introduced variable *selective image* can be used to assess the destination selection behaviour of travellers. This variable has been derived through a theoretical integration of two theories which are well known in the consumer choice behaviour and the tourist behaviour research field: consumption value theory and destination image. Therefore, the selective image represents both the qualities of consumer selection behaviours and the travel behaviours associated with destination selection. This PhD research has tested and proved empirically the practicability of this variable in assessing destination decision-making. Therefore, future research can use this particular variable (with its five value dimensions) to assesses destination decision-making as a 'ready-made' variable since the current research has sufficiently tested and establish its conceptual and operational viability.

Besides addressing these specific research gaps, another contribution is the integration of the four theories (destination decision-making, consumption values, destination image, and consumers' values hierarchy) into one conceptual framework to investigate destination decision-making using a value based approach. The findings demonstrate that the integration of these four theories is feasible. Furthermore, the proposed integrated model (figure 7.2), which combines and incorporates the empirical findings of this research presents a new

way to assess the destination decision-making process of prospective visitors. Another contribution of this research is the novelty of the methodological approach, which integrated the sequential mixed method design and the embedded mixed methods design, this is a new way of doing mixed-method research. A final contribution is that the variables and scales developed for the quantitative research are new and thus can contribute to future research.

8.10 SUMMARY MAIN CONCLUSIONS

The overall conclusions of this research study are summarised below:

- i. Five values, functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional consumption, can incorporate all the destination evaluation factors and these values can collectively explain destination selection. Selection can be analysed by identifying a few specific destinations to make choice sets or selecting just one tourist destination.
- ii. All five values are independent and all the values can influence the selection process in a different way and this selection can be dominated by one of the five value dimensions.
- iii. In regards to destination decision-making, each of the stages of the decision-making process can be dominated by one of the five value dimensions when making choice sets. Therefore, stages of the destination decision-making process can be distinguished based on the five value dimensions (functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional)
- iv. Selective image, as a derivative of destination image, can effectively be measured by the five values dimensions. In other words, selective image is a function of the five value dimensions. Therefore, selective image can explain destination selection.
- v. Values are hierarchical. One needs to understand the place of the any given value related concept (variable) in the value hierarchy. For example, attitudes and motivations are not independent, motivation is an antecedent of attitudes. Therefore, these relationships can be analysed and empirically research.
- vi. Demographics determine the trip characteristics and help to derive the consideration set in a broader sense at the very beginning of the

destination decision-making process

- vii. To understand a particular market, demographic analysis is not sufficient, value analysis also is required

8.11 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this PhD research are described below.

Assuming that the destination decision-making is a three-stage process

One of the limitations of the research is that it relied on the assumption that destination decision-making happens in a three-stage process and that these stages can be demarcated by the number of optional destinations being considered by the prospective traveller at a given time. However, in reality, destination decision-making cannot be assumed to be a staged process. Rather, it could be seen as a continuum which has a starting point and an end point. The length of this continuum can vary from person to person or can vary from incident to incident for a same person.

Limitations in identification of themes and concepts

When the qualitative results were analysed, different codes were categorised under the five values based on the conceptual definitions provided by consumption value theory. Therefore, there was a possibility that travel constraints and conditional, social and emotional value, etc. could overlap. However, the analysis of the qualitative data made every possible effort to avoid this overlap by considering each interview as a separate case.

Broad definition of research population

The research population of this study is broad, because the research population includes all Indians who intend to have an out of the state or out of the country vacation in the near future. These intended trips could be either short haul or long haul, foreign or domestic, short visits or long visits, etc. If the decision-making process of long haul foreign visitors had been assessed, it would have been possible to further segment that group based on the value variables in this study.

Demographic distribution of the quantitative respondents

The quantitative sample is not evenly distributed according to demographics. The

sample consisted mainly of single young educated males. Therefore, the results of the quantitative analysis show the destination decision-making behaviours of single young educated males in India. It will be argued that this demographic is a significant segment of Indian travellers and therefore still of value in understanding the Indian market. Yet this research has the limitation of not having an even demographic distribution. However, this research study adopted a value-based approach as an alternative to demographic-based analysis so that this population bias has less impact on the findings.

Online Data Collection and the Questionnaire

The online data collection was limited to those who have access to the Internet and use it regularly. Some questionnaire items for variables like type of accommodation and length of trip were not set to obtain perfect information. In particular, the type of accommodation question gave only three options: hotel, stay with friends/relatives, other. More types of accommodation (2-3 star hotels, 4-5 star hotels, motels, hostels, stay with friends/relatives, etc.) can be used to identify the various types of accommodation used by travellers. The length of trip was examined by offering options like less than a week, 1 week to 2 weeks, etc. Examining length of stay by number of nights, however, would have been better since the vacationer actually knows the length of the trip in nights.

Some of the questionnaire items, mainly items developed for functional value, are common to any destination in the world. The approach was taken because the target population of the current research could be anyone who wished to travel anywhere in the world. As a result, some questionnaire items may not have been completely applicable for some participants.

8.12 FUTURE RESEARCH

New concepts in destination decision-making

The qualitative data have reflected insights regarding destination decision-making in areas other than the concepts discussed in this doctoral thesis. Even though the density of the qualitative data was not sufficient to study those factors in depth, it is understood that these insights can inform destination decision-making studies.

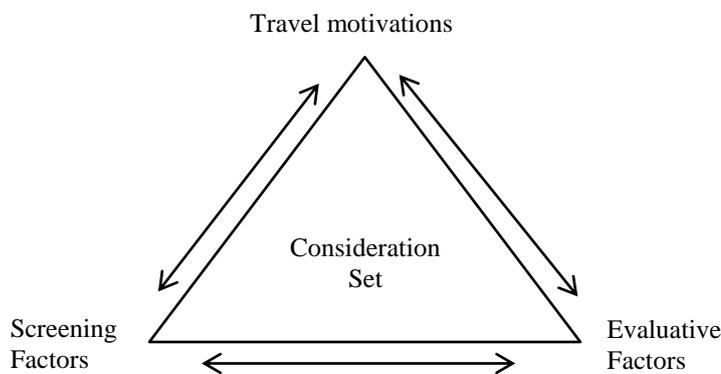
In fact, the qualitative data reflect some interesting interrelationships. In regard to

the influencing factors of destination selection, these factors can be categorised into three main groups: i.e., travel motivations, screening factors, and evaluative factors (

Figure 8-2). As the data suggest, all these factors combine to make the final decision on destination selection.

Once the need (motives) for travel is recognised, destination selection begins with identifying potential destinations. Factors influencing identification of potential destination options can be termed screening factors (e.g., travel party, length of trip, budget, and foreign vs. domestic). Once the potential destinations are shortlisted, then those destinations are further evaluated using evaluative factors (e.g., attractions, activities, novelty, and situational factors). Both types of factors are continuously stimulated by travel motivations and thus, these three types of factors (travel motivations, screening factors, evaluating factors) jointly influence the final destination selection.

Figure 8-2. Three interactive factors trigger the destination decision-making process.



The following quotes illustrates these interrelationships:

Some of the friends are there so we thought we can go to Bali or Phuket or Malaysia (screening). So we just decided we can go to Malaysia because of [a] couple of places we can visit (evaluative); one is we are going [to] Kuala Lumpur and then maybe we can go to Langkawi in Malaysia; that is a nice place we have heard that is a kind of beach area[s] ... so basically, [the] in selecting Malaysia there are two advantages - one is the city, Kuala Lumpur; basically it is kind of a

place mmmm it is a city; then the second place where we are trying to go is Langkawi in Malaysia itself; that is kind of a beach side, so we can see the two different sites. [Respondent 6]

Given these insights about how a prospective visitor possesses the initial set of destinations, this variable interaction can be considered as the trigger point of the destination decision-making process of destination selection. Future research in this context can consider this proposition to build up a comprehensive model for destination decision-making. A possible model is depicted in *Figure 7-2*.

As an approach for market segment analysis

Future studies can consider using a similar approach to study pre-identified segments of the market such as particular geographical region or travel segment (e.g., eco-tourism, island tourism, wellness tourism, etc.). Alternatively, future research can first divide an identified market into subgroups based on demographics (for example, male and female). Then a value-based approach can be used to study that identified segment further to gain a deeper understanding of the segment.

Whether there is an addition layer of variables between consumption values and the value indicators

Since the ANOVA test, compared to PLS multi-group analysis, showed more items significantly differ between the three stages of decision-making, it is suspected that there can be an intermediate level of variables between those explored in the questionnaire indicators and the consumption values variables. Therefore, future research can consider developing the selective image as a third-order variable as indicators of the consumption values.

Longitudinal study to examine the transformation of values along the destination decision-making process

A qualitative method can be adopted to study how consumption values change along the destination decision-making process. A longitudinal study would also be beneficial since it allows the researcher to record the changes of values over time as the prospective visitor moves along the destination decision-making process

continuum.

Research on Ramayana and heritage

The Ramayana epic and heritage tourism seem important to Indians visiting Sri Lanka. Therefore, Sri Lankan tourism needs more studies on Ramayana and to promote the Ramayana-related sites to Indians.

Cultural differences and human values

This research considered human values as the trigger point of human behaviour. However, it is argued that human values are informed by cultural variables. As this doctoral thesis has not studied the different values held by those from different cultures, future research into values and destination decision-making can consider cultural factors in its research conceptual framework.

8.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter identified the research gaps and the contribution of this doctoral research. It summarised the main conclusions, presented the limitations of the research and possible future research that can build upon this platform of research. The PhD investigation has been able to develop theoretical, empirical, and methodological insights with regard to destination decision-making studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1A.

Qualitative Questionnaire

Influence of Destination Value Dimensions of Destination Selection: A Study of Prospective Indian Visitors to Sri Lanka

Questionnaire_ Semi structured Interview (25-40 Minutes)

Target respondents: Indian visitors who are planning a foreign vacation for leisure purpose within next one-year period when Sri Lanka is one of the options for them in their potential set of destinations.

1. Could you please tell me about the plans for your next foreign vacation?

This question collects the surface information about the vacation. Interviewer will keep the attention to have information like; where they go, with whom, whether the vacation destination has been selected or not, the time gap etc.

Time gap (time between the interview date and the vacation date): if not decided a tentative date should be asked. This enables to identify the point of destination decision making process in which the respondent is at now. When this is shorter, the respondent might have selected the final destination, and when this is longer, the respondent might have several options to be selected)

Section A (For respondents those who have already selected the vacation destination)

2. What destination you have selected for your next vacation?

If the respondent has selected Sri Lanka as the final destination,

3. Were there any other destinations competing when you selected Sri Lanka as the final destination?

4. What were the reasons behind not selecting these destinations in your selection process?

5. Why did you select Sri Lanka as your vacation destination?

6. What constraints/ barriers did you encounter when selecting Sri

Lanka as the vacation destination? Why did you still select Sri Lanka?

If the answer for the question Q2 is a destination (X) other than Sri Lanka,

- 7** Were there any other destinations in your mind when you selected X as the final destination? If yes,
- 8** What are the reasons to drop those destinations in selecting process?
- 9** Why do you like X destination as a vacation destination? The answer for this question will provide all the key expected values of the respondent.
- 10** What constraints/ barriers did you come across when selecting X as the vacation destination? This information will be helpful to identify the constraints and inhibitors which hindrance the X to be in final selection
- 11** What differences you see between Sri Lanka and X destination as vacation destinations? Values/ Constraints or should you say” How does this destination compare to Sri Lanka

If the answer for the question No. 02 is “NO”, (the time gap to be considered here)

- 12** What destinations are you considering about these days to make your next holiday vacation?
- 13** Which destination has highest possibility to be chosen as the vacation destination?
- 14** How did you drop certain destinations in selecting the final destination?

If the answer for Q13 is Sri Lanka,

- 15** Why do you like Sri Lanka as vacation destination?
- 16** How do you compare Sri Lanka with other destinations you are considering to travel?
- 17** What constraints/ barriers would you encounter when selecting Sri Lanka as the vacation destination?

If the answer for Q 13 is not Sri Lanka,

- 18** Why do you like X destination as a vacation destination?
- 19** What constraints/ barriers did you encounter when selecting X as the

vacation destination?

20 What differences you see between Sri Lanka and X destination as a vacation destination?

Section C

This section is common for all the respondents

- 21 Generally, what foreign destinations that you feel as worthwhile to visit?** (evoked set + Surrogate set)
- 22 How do you select those destinations from all the destinations you aware about? Please explain the positive points of selected destinations;** this question will produce data about the values expected by the respondents.
- 23 You mentioned some destinations that are worthwhile to visit, Out of those set of destinations, which destinations you considered for your next vacation?** How did you select these few destinations from all the destinations you feel worthwhile to visit? Evoked set
- 24 Do you have any destinations in your mind that you will never go? If so, why?** Exclusion set

Section D

25 Have you visited Sri Lanka before? If yes, how many times?

26

27 Demographics (Age, Gender, Education, Job/Profession, Income, Marital Status)

Appendix 1B.

Extraction of Excel Worksheet - Qualitative Data Analysis

Statement	Attribute	Stage of the decision-making Process		
		Consideration	Evaluation	Choice
not only because of nature or anything else	nature	Functional		
The places where one of my favourite persons lived	favourite persons (ideals)		Emotional	
I like the place very much geographically also	landscapes		Functional	
if I go through the history of Hitler, I just want to know how he was spending the in a place like that	favourite persons (ideals)		Epistemic	
"she may not agree, if so I will go alone or with my friends.	suitable for all		Constraints (IP)	
			Social	
"Will go with them later to a destination they like to visit"	suitable for all	Constraints (IP)		
			Social	
nature	nature		Functional	
vegetation	vegetation		Functional	
simple living	lifestyle	Emotional		
economical	Value for money	Conditional		
	suit for budget			
	interesting places	Functional	Functional	
	technology		Epistemic	
I hope , German people are very rigid, They usually don't accept other persons	nature of the people	Functional		
But in Canada, people are very friendly, I met two persons in Canada, they are friendly	nature of the people			
Mauritius, as you know, it is a tourism place..."	well popular/recognized		Social	

Appendix 2.

Quantitative Questionnaire

Q1 Hello! Thank you for your interest in being part of this survey. This survey is a part of a doctoral study on how people make decisions about where to go for a vacation. Please note that if eligible, the survey will take about 10 to 12 minutes of your valuable time. It is advisable to finish the survey in one seating.

Q2 Are you an Indian national/citizen?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey

Q3 Do you currently reside in India?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey

Q4 Are you 18 years or older?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey

Q5 How likely are you to take an out of the state or overseas vacation in the next 9 months?

- Very Likely (1)
- Likely (2)
- Not sure (3)
- Unlikely (4)
- Very Unlikely (5)

If Undecided Is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey: If Unlikely Is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey: If Very Unlikely Is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey

Q5-0 What will be the main purpose of your trip?

- Leisure vacation or holiday (1)
- Visiting friends and relatives (2)
- Visiting pilgrimage place for vacation (3)
- Business or other non-leisure trips (4)

If Business or other non-leisure is Selected, Then Skip to End of Survey

Q6 Why would you take a vacation in the near future? Please provide at least three reasons which come to your mind.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Q7 Why do you want to take a vacation in the near future? Please indicate your

agreement with the following statements

	Not Applicable (1)	Strongly Disagree (2)	Disagree (3)	Somewhat Disagree (4)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (5)	Somewhat Agree (6)	Agree (7)	Strongly Agree (8)
To experience new and different places (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To experience new and different cultures (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To engage in activities (adventure/sports/shopping etc.) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To get away from normal life and atmosphere (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To increase family/kinship or friendships (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To make a pilgrimage (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To fulfill the travel needs of loved ones (children/spouse etc.) (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
To see a 'must see place' to me or my travel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				

companions (7)								
Visiting friends (8)	<input type="radio"/>							
Visiting relatives (9)	<input type="radio"/>							
To be socially recognized as a traveler (10)	<input type="radio"/>							

Q8 Which of the following type describes your destination for your vacation this time ?

- Foreign (1)
- Domestic (2)
- Not sure (3)

Q9 Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making with respect to selecting your vacation destination

- I have already selected vacation destination and it is Sri Lanka (1)
- I have already selected vacation destination and it is not Sri Lanka (2)
- I have not yet selected any vacation destination but I have identified 2 possible destinations (3)
- I have not yet selected any vacation destination but I have identified more than 2 possible destinations (4)

Answer If Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making with respect to selecting your vacation destination I have already selected vacation destination and it is Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q10 Were there any other destinations in your list in comparison with Sri Lanka for your vacation this time? Please name them, in order of importance to you

- Destination option I (1)
- Destination option II (2)
- Destination option III (3)

Answer If Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making with respect to selecting your vacation destination I have already selected vacation destination and it is Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q11 Have you visited Sri Lanka before?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Answer If Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making with respect to selecting your vacation destination I have already selected vacation destination and it is Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q12 Please provide at least three main reasons which explains why you selected

Sri Lanka as your vacation destination?

If Please provide at least three Is Displayed, Then Skip To End of Block

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a vacationist ca... Vacation Destination is selected that is not Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q13 Please name your selected vacation destination

My selected vacation destination is (1)

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a vacationist ca... Vacation Destination is selected that is not Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q14 Where there any other destinations in comparison with (**THE DESTINATION NAME GIVEN TO Q.13 APPEARS HERE**) for your vacation this time? Please name them, in order of importance to you

Destination option I (1)

Destination option II (2)

Destination option III (3)

Answer If Please name your selected destination My next vacation destination will be Is Not Empty

Q15 Have you visited (**THE DESTINATION NAME GIVEN TO Q.13 APPEARS HERE**) before?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a vacationist ca... Vacation Destination is selected that is not Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q16 Please provide at least three main reasons to explain why you selected (**THE DESTINATION NAME GIVEN TO Q.13 APPEARS HERE**) as your vacation destination

Answer If A four stages of decision-making about a vacation are listed below. Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making I have not selected vacation destination yet but I have identified 2 possible options Is Selected

Q17 Name two possible vacation destinations starting with the destination which is most likely to be chosen as your trip this time

Most Likely (1)

Less Likely (2)

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a vacationist ca... Vacation destination is not selected yet but have 02 options in hand to be selected one Is Selected

Q18 Have you visited (**THE NAMES OF THE TWO DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.17 APPEAR HERE**) before

Yes (1)

No (2)

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a vacationist ca... Vacation destination is not selected yet but have 02 options in hand to be selected one Is Selected

Q19 Please provide at least three main reasons which explains why you selected (**THE NAMES OF THE TWO DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.17 APPEAR**

HERE) as your vacation destination

Answer If A four stages of decision-making about a vacation are listed below. Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making: I have not selected vacation destination yet but I have identified more than 2 possible options Is Selected

Q20 Name three possible vacation destinations starting with the destination which is most likely to be chosen as your trip this time

- Most likely (1)
- Less likely (2)
- Even less likely (3)

Answer If A four stages of decision-making about a vacation are listed below. Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making: I have not selected vacation destination yet but I have identified more than 2 possible options Is Selected

Q21 (**THE NAMES OF THE THREE DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.20 APPEAR HERE**) before?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Answer If A four stages of decision-making about a vacation are listed below. Please choose the option that best fits your current stage of decision-making I have not selected vacation destination yet but I have identified more than 2 possible options Is Selected

Q22 Please provide at least three main reasons which explains why you selected (**THE NAMES OF THE TWO DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.17 APPEAR HERE**) as your vacation destination

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a prospective vacationist can bear before the vacation. Please Indicate which one of the followings mostly describe your current status of vacation selection. I have already selected vacation destination and that is Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q23 If you had to compare Sri Lanka with another destination that you really wanted to visit (for example (**THE NAMES OF THE DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.10 APPEAR HERE**)), please indicate how important each of the items listed below were to you while choosing Sri Lanka

	Not Applicable (1)	Not at all Important (2)	Very Unimportant (3)	Somewhat Unimportant (4)	Neither Important nor Unimportant (5)	Somewhat Important (6)	Very Important (7)	Extremely Important (8)
Many places to visit (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Scenery (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nature (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sea (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sports and activities (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wildlife (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weather/climate (7)	<input type="radio"/>							
Culture (8)	<input type="radio"/>							
Heritage (9)	<input type="radio"/>							
Food (10)	<input type="radio"/>							
Accommodation (11)	<input type="radio"/>							
Buildings and architecture (12)	<input type="radio"/>							
Cleanliness (13)	<input type="radio"/>							
Technological advances (14)	<input type="radio"/>							
Shopping (15)	<input type="radio"/>							
Night life/casino and parties (16)	<input type="radio"/>							
Safety (17)	<input type="radio"/>							
Cities (18)	<input type="radio"/>							

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a prospective vacationist can bear before the vacation. Please Indicate which one of the followings mostly describe your current status of vacation selection. I have already selected vacation destination and that is Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q24 If you had to compare Sri Lanka with another destination that you really wanted to visit (for example **(THE NAMES OF THE DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.10 APPEAR HERE)**), please indicate how important each of the statements listed below were to you while choosing Sri Lanka

	Not Applicable (1)	Not at all Important (2)	Very Unimportant (3)	Somewhat Unimportant (4)	Neither Important nor Unimportant (5)	Somewhat Important (6)	Very Important (7)	Extremely Important (8)
Preferred by my travel companions (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Suitable for my travel companions (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To visit my friends reside there (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To visit my relatives reside there (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a destination visited/visiting by most of the people I know (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a destination talked about by most of the people (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a destination where I can meet friendly people (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is 'must see' place for me to visit (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a calm and quiet destination (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

It is a destination which fascinates me (10)	<input type="radio"/>							
It is a destination which makes me relax (11)	<input type="radio"/>							
It is a fun and enjoyable destination (12)	<input type="radio"/>							

Answer If Followings are some possible status that a prospective vacationist can bear before the vacation. Please Indicate which one of the followings mostly describe your current status of vacation selection. I have already selected vacation destination and that is Sri Lanka Is Selected

Q25 If you had to compare Sri Lanka with another destination that you really wanted to visit (for example (**THE NAMES OF THE DESTINATIONS GIVEN TO Q.10 APPEAR HERE**)), please indicate how important each of the statements listed below were to you in choosing Sri Lanka.

	Not Applicable (1)	Not at all Important (2)	Very Unimportant (3)	Somewhat Unimportant (4)	Neither Important nor Unimportant (5)	Somewhat Important (6)	Very Important (7)	Extremely Important (8)
I have not been there before (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
That destination gives me a different experience (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can learn many things (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It fits my 'budget for vacation' well (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I know people who currently live there (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

It fits well with my available time for the vacation (6)	<input type="radio"/>							
The trip can be planned within the time available (7)	<input type="radio"/>							
It can be reached with a convenient travel time (8)	<input type="radio"/>							
Travel agent/airline gave me a good package deal (9)	<input type="radio"/>							
It gives me good value for money (10)	<input type="radio"/>							

FROM QUESTION NO. 23,24,25 WERE GIVEN TO THE OTHER THREE GROUPS OF RESPONDENTS:

RESPONDENTS THOSE WHO HAVE SELECTED A DESTINATION OTHER THAN SRI LANA

RESPONDENTS THOSE WHO HAVE NOT SELECTED A VACATION DESTINATION BUT HAVE TWO OPTIONS IN HAND

RESPONDENTS THOSE WHO HAVE NOT SELECTED A VACATION BUT HAVE MORE THAN TWO OPTIONS IN HAND

HOWEVER, THE INSTRUCTIONS GIVEN TO EACH OF THE GROUPS WERE BASED ON THEIR ACTUAL DESTINATION OPTIONS MENTIONED IN EARLIER QUESTIONS. FOR EXAMPLE; “If you had to compare (**THE NAME OF THE SELECTED DESTINATION APPEARS HERE**) with another destination that you really wanted to visit (for example (**THE NAMES OF THE DESTINATIONS GIVEN AS THE COMPETING OPTIONS**), please indicate how important each of the statements listed below were to you in choosing Sri Lanka (**THE NAME OF THE SELECTED DESTINATION APPEARS HERE**)”

Q32 Please indicate to what extent did the following things influenced you to select your vacation destination(s)

	Not Applicable	Not at all	Very Not	Somewhat Not	Neither Influenced	Somewhat	Very influential	Extremely
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	ble (1)	influential (2)	influential (3)	influential (4)	ng nor Not influential (5)	influential (6)	ial (7)	influential (8)
Financial constraints (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Visa/Passport requirements (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Health and physical conditions of travel companions (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Permissions from parents/family etc. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Lack of knowledge and information about the destination (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Language problems (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Work/job commitments (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				
Time constraints (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>				

Q33 Your vacation trip will be of how many days?

- Less than a week (1)
 - 1 Week to 2 weeks (2)
 - 2 Weeks to 3 weeks (3)
 - More than 3 weeks (please specify the number of weeks) (4)
-

Q34 When are you planning to go for a vacation?

- After 1 Week (1)
 - After 2 Weeks (2)
 - After 1 Month (3)
 - After 2 Months (4)
 - After 4 Months (5)
 - After 6 Months (6)
 - After 08 months (please specify the number of months) (7)
-

Q35 Who will be your travel companions?

- Going alone (1)
- Going with friends (2)
- Going with Spouse or girl/boyfriend only (3)
- Going with family members (4)
- Going with family members and friends (5)
- Other (please specify) (6) _____

Q36 Which all sources did you refer to plan your next vacation?

- Radio/TV (1)
- Travel agency (2)
- Newspaper/magazine (3)
- From friends and relations (4)
- Guide books (5)
- Internet search (6)
- Travel blogs and forums (7)
- Internet advertising (8)
- Outdoor advertising (promotions, trade fairs etc.) (9)
- Your own knowledge (10)
- Other (please specify) (11) _____

Q37 What type of accommodation do you prefer?

- Hotels (1)
- Stay with friends and relatives (2)
- Other (please specify) (3) _____

Q38 What type of transportation will you use to reach to the vacation destination?

- Air (1)
- Train (2)
- Bus (3)
- My own vehicle (car/van etc.) (4)
- Other (please specify) (5) _____

Q39 You are from which part of India? Please select the state

- Andaman and Nicobar Islands (1)
- Andhra Pradesh (2)
- Arunachal Pradesh (3)
- Assam (4)
- Bihar (5)
- Chandigarh (6)
- Chhattisgarh (7)
- Dadar and Nagar Haveli (8)
- Daman and Diu (9)
- Delhi (10)
- Goa (11)
- Gujarat (12)
- Haryana (13)
- Himachal Pradesh (14)

- Jammu and Kashmir (15)
- Jharkhand (16)
- Karnataka (17)
- Kerala (18)
- Lakshadweep (19)
- Madhya Pradesh (20)
- Maharashtra (21)
- Manipur (22)
- Meghalaya (23)
- Mizoram (24)
- Nagaland (25)
- Orissa (26)
- Pondicherry (27)
- Punjab (28)
- Rajasthan (29)
- Sikkim (30)
- Tamil Nadu (31)
- Tripura (32)
- Uttar Pradesh (33)
- Uttarakhand (34)
- West Bengal (35)

Q40 What is your gender?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q41 What is your age?

- 18-25 (1)
- 26-35 (2)
- 36-45 (3)
- 46-55 (4)
- 56-65 (5)
- Over 65 (6)

Q42 What is your occupation?

Q43 What is your current marital status?

- Single (never married) (1)
- Married (2)
- Widowed (3)
- Divorced (4)
- Separated (5)
- Other (6)

Q44 What is your highest achieved education level?

- Some schools (1)
- High school (2)
- Certificate/ Diploma (3)
- Bachelor's degree (4)

- Master's degree (5)
- PhD (6)
- Professionally qualified (7)

Q45 What is your approximate monthly income in Indian Rupees?

- Less than Rs. 35,000 (1)
- Rs. 35,000 - Rs. 45,000 (2)
- Rs. 45,000 - Rs. 60,000 (3)
- Rs. 60,000 - Rs. 80,000 (4)
- Rs. 80,000 - Rs.1,10,000 (5)
- More than Rs.1,10,000 (6)

Q46 Following is a list of things that some people look for or want out of life. Please study the list carefully and then rate each of the thing on how important it is in your daily life

	Not at all Important (1)	Very Unimportant (2)	Somewhat Unimportant (3)	Neither Important nor Unimportant (4)	Somewhat Important (5)	Very Important (6)	Extremely Important (7)
Sense of Belonging (to be accepted and needed by friends, family, and community) (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excitement (to experience stimulation and thrills) (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Warm Relationships with Others (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Self-Fulfillment (to find peace of mind and to make the best use of your talents) (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being Well Respected (to be admired by others and to receive recognition) (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fun and Enjoyment of Life (to lead a pleasurable, happy life) (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Security (to be safe and	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

protected from misfortune and attack) (7)							
Self-Respect (to be proud of yourself and confident in who you are) (8)	<input type="radio"/>						
A sense of Accomplishment (to succeed at what you want to do) (9)	<input type="radio"/>						

Q48 Thank you for your participation in this survey. If you are interested in sharing your travel experiences with us in a face to face interview using Skype, please leave your contact details (name / email / Skype name) in the box below otherwise proceed further to complete the survey.

Appendix 03A.

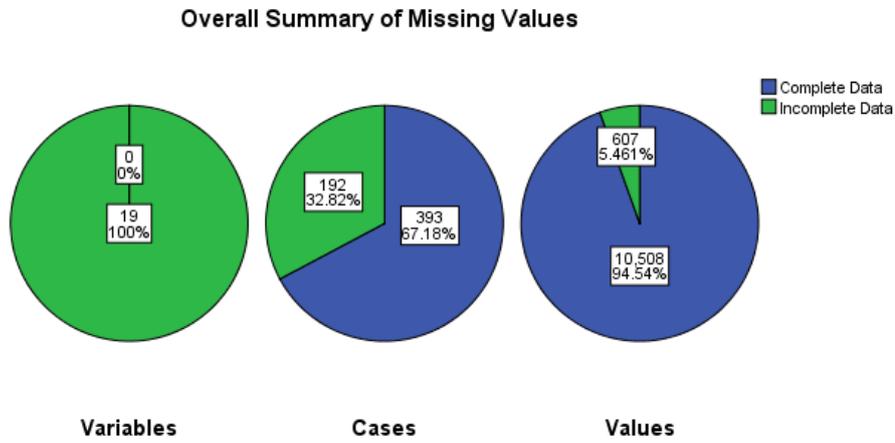
Univariate Statistics Missing Values

Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing	
				Count	Percent
It is Must See Place for Me to Visit	583	5.22	1.648	2	0.3
It is a Fun and Enjoyable Destination	578	5.52	1.572	7	1.2
That Destination Gives Me a Different Experience	576	5.19	1.736	9	1.5
To Experience New and Different Cultures	575	5.23	1.806	10	1.7
It is a Destination Which Makes me Relax	575	5.41	1.552	10	1.7
Weather Climate	574	5.34	1.609	11	1.9
It Fits My Budget for Vacation Well	574	5.22	1.592	11	1.9
It fits Well with My Available Time for the Vacation	574	5.15	1.669	11	1.9
Scenery	573	5.12	1.809	12	2.1
Nature	573	5.37	1.664	12	2.1
Food	573	5.33	1.584	12	2.1
It is a Destination Which Fascinates Me	573	5.31	1.533	12	2.1
Accommodation	572	5.37	1.543	13	2.2
It is a Destination Talked About by Most of the People	572	4.95	1.589	13	2.2
It is a Calm And Quiet Destination	572	5.31	1.452	13	2.2
It Can be Reached with a Convenient Travel Time	572	5.28	1.575	13	2.2
Cities	571	5.4	1.489	14	2.4
I Can Learn Many Things	571	5.17	1.685	14	2.4
The Trip Can be Planned Within the Time Available	571	5.25	1.539	14	2.4
Technological Advances	570	5.19	1.704	15	2.6
Safety	570	5.69	1.561	15	2.6
Heritage	569	5.19	1.548	16	2.7
Shopping	569	5.11	1.655	16	2.7
Wildlife	567	5.04	1.548	18	3.1
Culture	566	5.27	1.534	19	3.2
Buildings and Architecture	566	5.2	1.55	19	3.2
Suitable for My Travel Companions	565	4.99	1.712	20	3.4
It is a Destination Where I Can Meet Friendly People	565	4.98	1.612	20	3.4
Sports and Activities	564	4.83	1.546	21	3.6
It Gives Me Good Value for Money	562	5.41	1.561	23	3.9
To Get Away From Normal Life And Atmosphere	561	5.34	1.705	24	4.1
Cleanliness	561	5.47	1.563	24	4.1
It is A Destination Visited Visiting by Most of The People I Know	561	4.92	1.535	24	4.1

To Increase Family Kinship or Friend Ties	559	5.12	1.654	26	4.4
To See a Must See Place to Me or My Travel Companions	558	5.35	1.547	27	4.6
Visiting Friends	558	5.01	1.673	27	4.6
Permissions from Parents Family	558	5.01	1.703	27	4.6
Time Constraints	557	5.19	1.573	28	4.8
Visiting Relatives	556	4.98	1.691	29	5
Sea	556	5.23	1.579	29	5
Travel Agent Airline Gave Me a Good Package Deal	556	5.03	1.686	29	5
Health and Physical Conditions of Travel Companions	555	5.08	1.745	30	5.1
Language Problems	555	4.85	1.694	30	5.1
Night Life Casino and Parties	554	4.78	1.751	31	5.3
To Visit My Relatives Reside There	554	4.77	1.623	31	5.3
To Make a Pilgrimage	552	4.82	1.698	33	5.6
I Know People who Currently Live There	551	4.74	1.644	34	5.8
Work Job Commitments	551	4.99	1.703	34	5.8
To Engage in Activities Adventure Sports Shopping	550	5.12	1.715	35	6
To Fulfil the Travel Needs of Loved Ones children spouse	550	5.17	1.676	35	6
Lack of Knowledge and Information About the Destination	548	5	1.633	37	6.3
Financial Constraints	546	5.07	1.727	39	6.7
To be Socially Recognized as a Traveller	545	4.8	1.774	40	6.8
To Visit My Friends Reside There	543	4.82	1.617	42	7.2
Visa Passport Requirements	540	4.86	1.82	45	7.7
To Experience New and Different Places	534	5.64	1.619	51	8.7
Many places to visit	529	5.12	1.532	56	9.6
I Have not Been There Before	529	5.04	1.646	56	9.6
Preferred by My Travel Companions	528	5.14	1.507	57	9.7

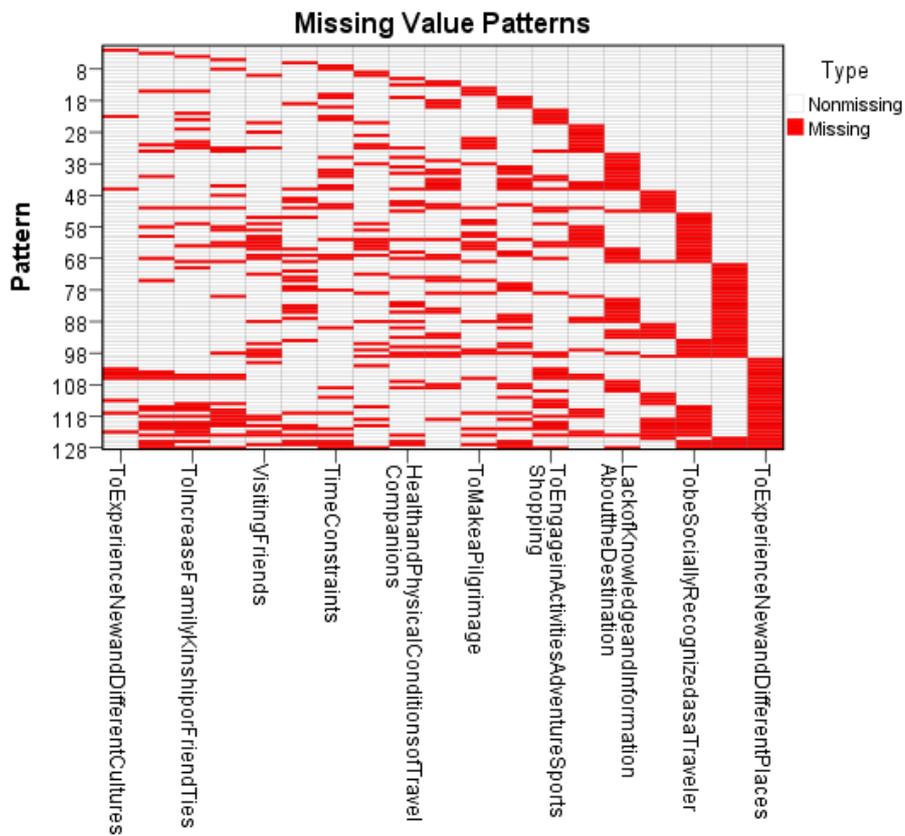
Appendix 3B-1.

Overall Summary of Missing Values (Motivations and Constraints)



Appendix 3B-2.

Pattern of Missing Values (Motivations and Constraints)



Appendix 3B-3.

Missing Values Analysis (Motivations and Constraints)

Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing	
				Count	Percent
To Experience New and Different Places	534	5.64	1.619	51	8.7
To Engage in Activities Adventure Sports Shopping	550	5.12	1.715	35	6
To Get Away From Normal Life And Atmosphere	561	5.34	1.705	24	4.1
To Increase Family Kinship or Friend Ties	559	5.12	1.654	26	4.4
To Make a Pilgrimage	552	4.82	1.698	33	5.6
To Fulfil the Travel Needs of Loved Ones children spouse	550	5.17	1.676	35	6
To See a Must See Place to Me or My Travel Companions	558	5.35	1.547	27	4.6
Visiting Friends	558	5.01	1.673	27	4.6
Visiting Relatives	556	4.98	1.691	29	5
To be Socially Recognized as a Traveller	545	4.8	1.774	40	6.8
To Experience New and Different Cultures	575	5.23	1.806	10	1.7
Financial Constraints	546	5.07	1.727	39	6.7
Visa Passport Requirements	540	4.86	1.82	45	7.7
Health and Physical Conditions of Travel Companions	555	5.08	1.745	30	5.1
Permissions from Parents Family	558	5.01	1.703	27	4.6
Lack of Knowledge and Information About the Destination	548	5	1.633	37	6.3
Language Problems	555	4.85	1.694	30	5.1
Work Job Commitments	551	4.99	1.703	34	5.8
Time Constraints	557	5.19	1.573	28	4.8

Appendix 3C.

Descriptives – Comparison between Mean and 5% Trimmed Mean

Descriptive		Statistic	Difference
To experience new and different places	Mean	5.42	- 0.16
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.58	
To engage in activities	Mean	5.02	- 0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.13	
Get away from normal life	Mean	5.25	- 0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.39	
To increase social ties	Mean	5.05	- 0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.17	
To make a pilgrimage	Mean	4.79	- 0.09
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.88	
Fulfil the travel needs of loved ones	Mean	5.13	- 0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.24	
To see a must see place to me or my travel companions	Mean	5.28	- 0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.41	
Visiting friends	Mean	4.99	- 0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.10	
Visiting relatives	Mean	4.95	- 0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.05	
To be socially recognized as a traveller	Mean	4.74	- 0.08
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.82	
To experience new and different cultures	Mean	5.21	- 0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.34	
Many places to visit	Mean	4.72	- 0.08
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.80	
Scenery	Mean	5.03	- 0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.15	
Nature	Mean	5.28	- 0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.43	
Sea	Mean	5.02	- 0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.14	
Sports and activities	Mean	4.69	- 0.08
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.77	
Wildlife	Mean	4.91	- 0.10
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.01	
Weather/Climate	Mean	5.25	- 0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.39	
Culture	Mean	5.13	- 0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.26	

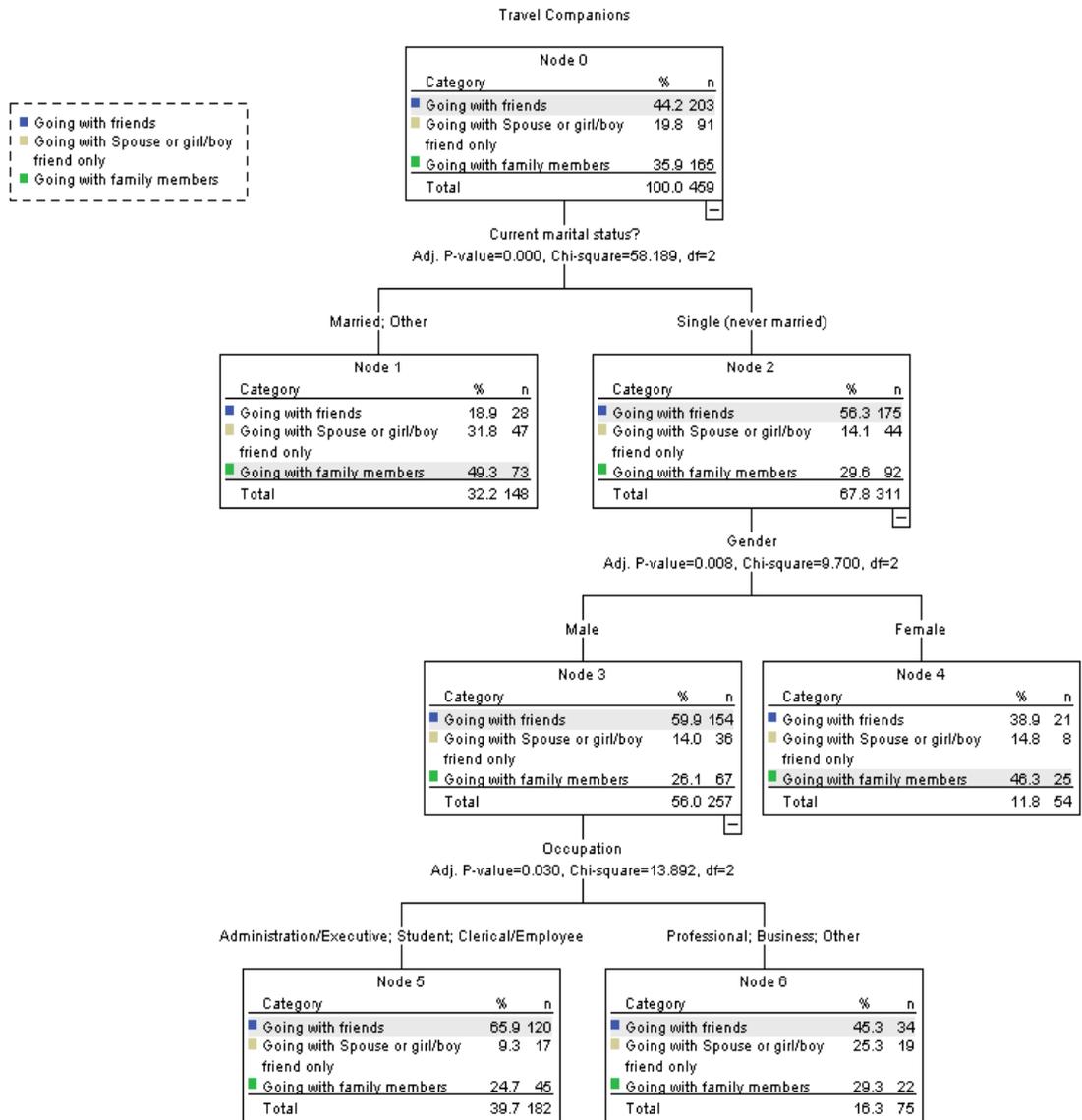
Heritage	Mean	5.08	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.19		
Food	Mean	5.24	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.38		
Accommodation	Mean	5.27	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.42		
Buildings and Architecture	Mean	5.07	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.19		
Cleanliness	Mean	5.28	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.42		
Technological Advances	Mean	5.08	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.20		
Shopping	Mean	4.99	-	0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.10		
Night life/Casino/Parties	Mean	4.58	-	0.06
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.65		
Safety	Mean	5.57	-	0.17
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.74		
Cities	Mean	5.30	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.44		
Preferred by travel companions	Mean	4.74	-	0.08
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.82		
Suitable for travel companions	Mean	4.85	-	0.09
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.95		
Visit my friends reside there	Mean	4.54	-	0.06
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.60		
Visit my relatives reside there	Mean	4.57	-	0.06
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.63		
Destination visiting by most of the people	Mean	4.76	-	0.08
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.84		
Destination talked about by most of the people	Mean	4.86	-	0.10
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.96		
Destination I can meet friendly people	Mean	4.84	-	0.09
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.93		
A must see place	Mean	5.21	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.34		
Calm and quite destination	Mean	5.21	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.34		
That destination fascinates me	Mean	5.22	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.35		
That destination makes me relax	Mean	5.33	-	0.15
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.48		
Fun & enjoyable destination	Mean	5.47	-	0.16
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.63		

I have not been there	Mean	4.66	-	0.07
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.73		
That destination gives me different experience	Mean	5.13	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.25		
I can learn many things	Mean	5.07	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.19		
It fits with my budget	Mean	5.14	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.27		
I know people who live there	Mean	4.52	-	0.06
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.58		
It fits with available time for vacation	Mean	5.07	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.19		
Trip can be planned within the time available	Mean	5.15	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.28		
Convenient travel time	Mean	5.18	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.31		
Travel agent/airline gave me good package	Mean	4.83	-	0.09
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.92		
It gives me good value for money	Mean	5.23	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.37		
Financial constraints	Mean	4.91	-	0.10
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.01		
Visa passport requirements	Mean	4.85	-	0.09
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.94		
Health/physical conditions of travel companions	Mean	4.98	-	0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.09		
Permissions from parents/family	Mean	4.95	-	0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.05		
Lack of knowledge and information about the destination	Mean	4.91	-	0.10
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.01		
Language problems	Mean	4.81	-	0.09
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.90		
Work job commitments	Mean	4.91	-	0.10
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.02		
Time constraints	Mean	5.11	-	0.11
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.22		
Sense of belonging	Mean	4.87	-	0.10
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.97		
Excitement	Mean	5.05	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.17		
Warm relationships with others	Mean	5.06	-	0.12
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.17		
Self-fulfilment	Mean	5.29	-	0.13
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.42		

Being well respected	Mean	5.25	-	0.14
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.39		
Fun and enjoyment life	Mean	5.42	-	0.15
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.57		
Security	Mean	5.44	-	0.16
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.60		
Self-respect	Mean	5.47	-	0.15
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.62		
A sense of accomplishment	Mean	5.43	-	0.15
	5% Trimmed Mean	5.58		

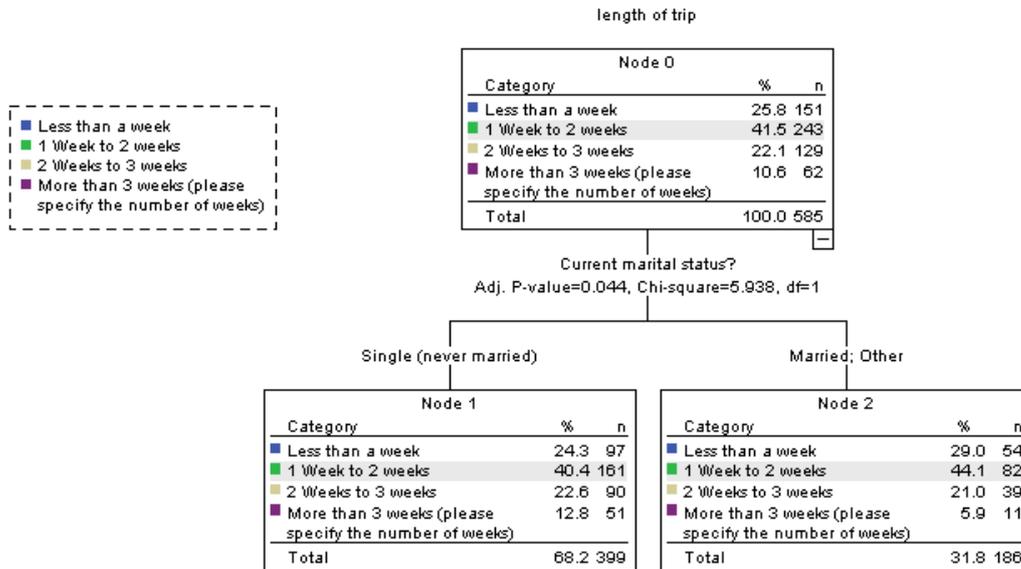
Appendix 4A.

CHAID Results – Demographics vs. Travel Companions



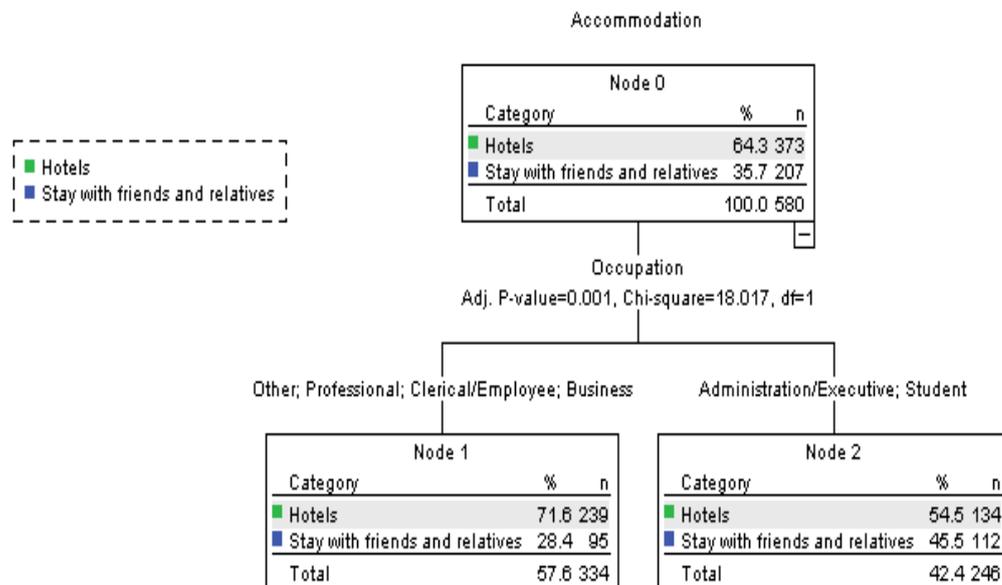
Appendix 4B.

CHAID Results – Demographics vs. Length of Trip



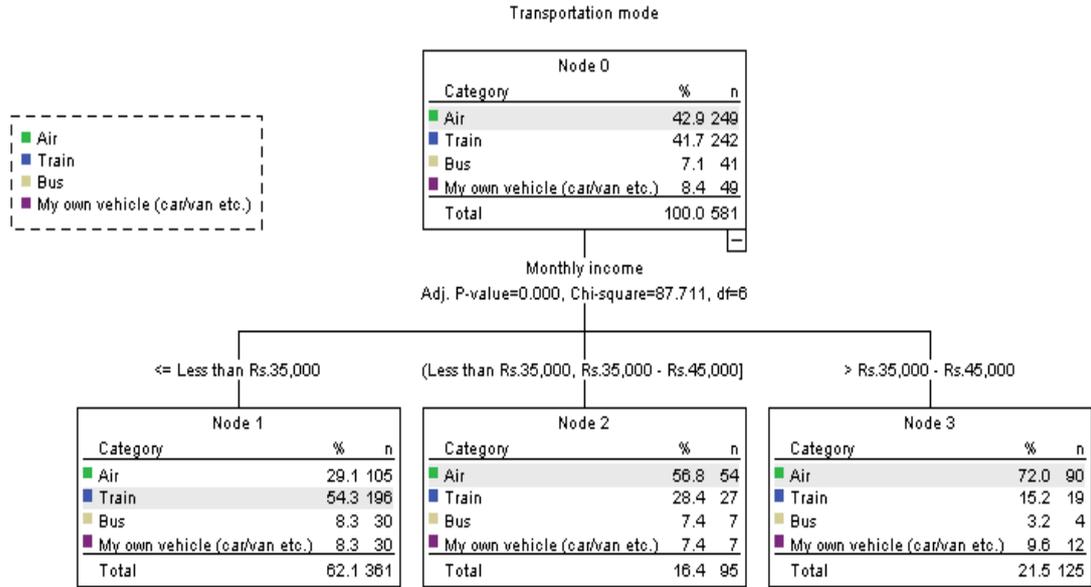
Appendix 4C.

CHID Results – Demographics vs. Mode of Accommodation



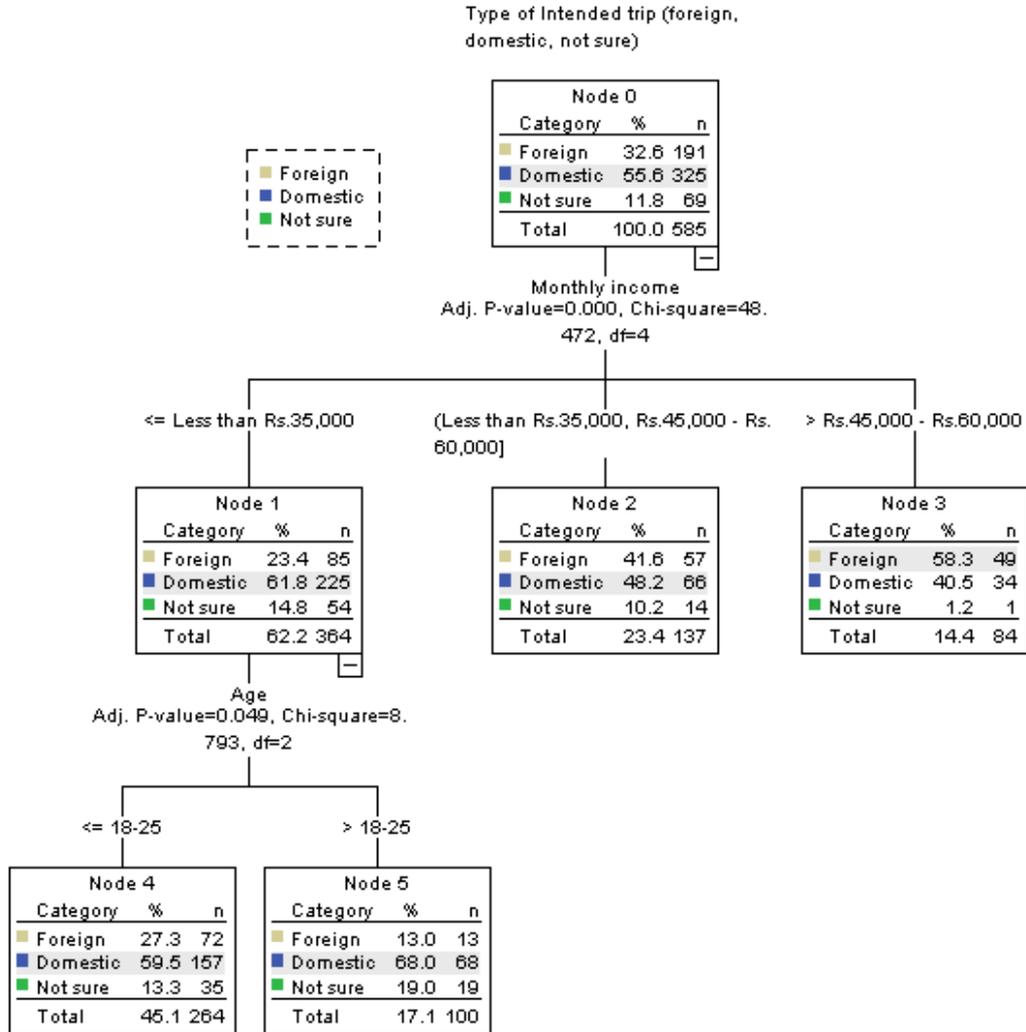
Appendix 4D.

CHID Results – Demographics vs. Mode of Transport



Appendix 4E.

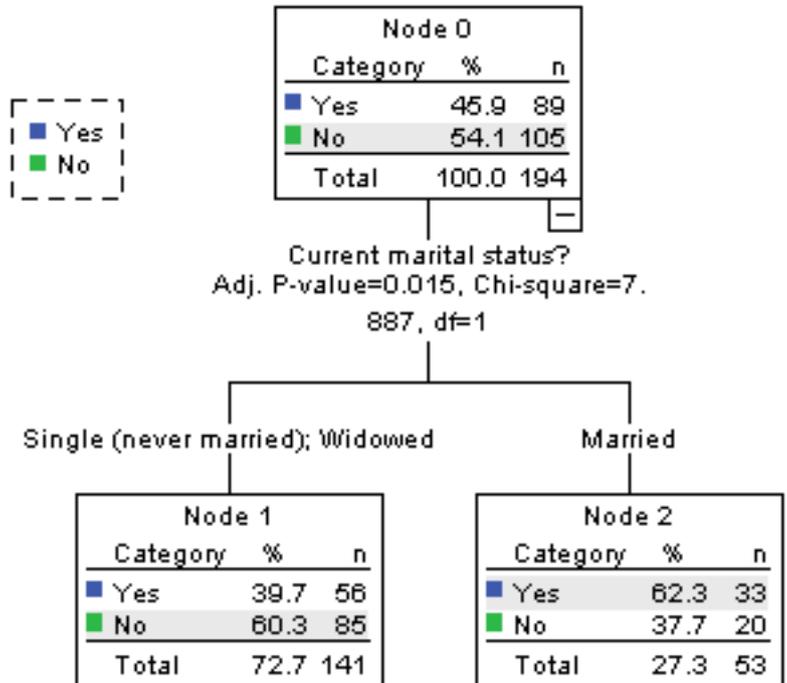
CHID Results – Demographics vs. Trip Type



Appendix 4F.

CHID Results – First Time vs. Repeat Visit

Have you visited your already selected destination before?



Appendix 5A.

Descriptive Statistics- Functional Value Dimensions of Selective Image

Descriptive Statistics (Functional Value)							
Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Many places to visit	585	4.72	1.895	-0.899	0.101	-0.362	0.202
Scenery	585	5.03	1.883	-1.059	0.101	-0.047	0.202
Nature	585	5.28	1.76	-1.162	0.101	0.254	0.202
Sea	585	5.02	1.793	-0.966	0.101	-0.091	0.202
Sports and activities	585	4.69	1.676	-0.759	0.101	-0.144	0.202
Wildlife	585	4.91	1.676	-0.928	0.101	0.152	0.202
Weather/Climate	585	5.25	1.7	-1.219	0.101	0.645	0.202
Culture	585	5.13	1.688	-1.099	0.101	0.394	0.202
Heritage	585	5.08	1.673	-1.105	0.101	0.438	0.202
Food	585	5.24	1.684	-1.116	0.101	0.442	0.202
Accommodation	585	5.27	1.656	-1.215	0.101	0.771	0.202
Buildings and Architecture	585	5.07	1.698	-1.022	0.101	0.255	0.202
Cleanliness	585	5.28	1.768	-1.212	0.101	0.503	0.202
Technological Advances	585	5.08	1.808	-1.055	0.101	0.082	0.202
Shopping	585	4.99	1.764	-0.921	0.101	-0.083	0.202
Night life/Casino/Parties	585	4.58	1.903	-0.586	0.101	-0.772	0.202
Safety	585	5.57	1.71	-1.39	0.101	1.049	0.202
Cities	585	5.3	1.618	-1.295	0.101	1.074	0.202
Valid N (listwise)	585						

Descriptive Statistics (Social Value)							
Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Preferred by travel companions	585	4.74	1.886	-0.84	0.101	-0.402	0.202
Suitable for travel companions	585	4.85	1.832	-0.953	0.101	-0.167	0.202

Visit my friends reside there	585	4.54	1.844	-0.695	0.101	-0.641	0.202
Visit my relatives reside there	585	4.57	1.791	-0.653	0.101	-0.58	0.202
Destination visiting by most of the people	585	4.76	1.693	-0.844	0.101	-0.058	0.202
Destination talked about by most of the people	585	4.86	1.676	-0.944	0.101	0.093	0.202
Destination I can meet friendly people	585	4.84	1.741	-0.864	0.101	-0.183	0.202
Valid N (listwise)	585						

Descriptive Statistics (Emotional Value)							
Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
A must see place	585	5.21	1.664	-1.124	0.101	0.577	0.202
Calm and quite destination	585	5.21	1.57	-1.153	0.101	0.75	0.202
That destination fascinates me	585	5.22	1.635	-1.142	0.101	0.6	0.202
That destination makes me relax	585	5.33	1.642	-1.203	0.101	0.775	0.202
Fun & enjoyable destination	585	5.47	1.638	-1.307	0.101	1.068	0.202
Valid N (listwise)	585						

Descriptive Statistics (Epistemic Value)							
Questionnaire Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
I have not been there	585	4.66	1.966	-0.77	0.101	-0.641	0.202
That destination gives me different experience	585	5.13	1.799	-1.146	0.101	0.29	0.202
I can learn many things	585	5.07	1.783	-0.981	0.101	-0.043	0.202
Valid N (listwise)	585						

Descriptive Statistics (Conditional Value)							
Questionnaire Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
It fits with my budget	585	5.14	1.678	-1.019	0.101	0.241	0.202

I know people who live there	585	4.52	1.82	-0.622	0.101	-0.571	0.202
It fits with available time for vacation	585	5.07	1.747	-1.007	0.101	0.111	0.202
Trip can be planned within the time available	585	5.15	1.653	-1.115	0.101	0.603	0.202
Convenient travel time	585	5.18	1.681	-1.087	0.101	0.481	0.202
Travel agent/airline gave me good package	585	4.83	1.862	-0.837	0.101	-0.353	0.202
It gives me good value for money	585	5.23	1.754	-1.159	0.101	0.491	0.202
Valid N (listwise)	585						

Appendix 5B.

ANOVA and Subsequent Analysis (Functional Value)

ANOVA (Functional Value)						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Many places to visit	Between Groups	39.937	2	19.969	5.649	0.004
	Within Groups	2057.201	582	3.535		
	Total	2097.138	584			
Scenery	Between Groups	42.265	2	21.132	6.064	0.002
	Within Groups	2028.118	582	3.485		
	Total	2070.383	584			
Nature	Between Groups	81.9	2	40.95	13.8	0
	Within Groups	1726.996	582	2.967		
	Total	1808.896	584			
Sea	Between Groups	94.896	2	47.448	15.498	0
	Within Groups	1781.815	582	3.062		
	Total	1876.711	584			
Sports and activities	Between Groups	17.748	2	8.874	3.181	0.042
	Within Groups	1623.63	582	2.79		
	Total	1641.378	584			
Wildlife	Between Groups	29.842	2	14.921	5.391	0.005
	Within Groups	1610.712	582	2.768		
	Total	1640.554	584			
Weather/Climate	Between Groups	34.814	2	17.407	6.132	0.002
	Within Groups	1652.235	582	2.839		
	Total	1687.05	584			
Culture	Between Groups	32.572	2	16.286	5.809	0.003
	Within Groups	1631.554	582	2.803		
	Total	1664.126	584			
Heritage	Between Groups	30.053	2	15.027	5.45	0.005
	Within Groups	1604.637	582	2.757		
	Total	1634.691	584			
Food	Between Groups	45.321	2	22.661	8.188	0
	Within Groups	1610.723	582	2.768		
	Total	1656.044	584			

Accommodation	Between Groups	40.192	2	20.096	7.488	0.001
	Within Groups	1562.047	582	2.684		
	Total	1602.239	584			
Buildings and Architecture	Between Groups	9.319	2	4.66	1.62	0.199
	Within Groups	1673.945	582	2.876		
	Total	1683.265	584			
Cleanliness	Between Groups	63.889	2	31.944	10.548	0
	Within Groups	1762.573	582	3.028		
	Total	1826.462	584			
Technological Advances	Between Groups	50.069	2	25.035	7.84	0
	Within Groups	1858.314	582	3.193		
	Total	1908.383	584			
Shopping	Between Groups	17.539	2	8.769	2.835	0.06
	Within Groups	1800.434	582	3.094		
	Total	1817.973	584			
Night life/Casino/Parties	Between Groups	10.569	2	5.284	1.462	0.233
	Within Groups	2103.825	582	3.615		
	Total	2114.393	584			
Safety	Between Groups	63.85	2	31.925	11.304	0
	Within Groups	1643.733	582	2.824		
	Total	1707.583	584			
Cities	Between Groups	26.884	2	13.442	5.211	0.006
	Within Groups	1501.362	582	2.58		
	Total	1528.246	584			

Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Functional Value)				
Questionnaire Items	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Many places to visit	13.717	2	582	0
Scenery	15.146	2	582	0
Nature	18.619	2	582	0
Sea	16.527	2	582	0
Sports and activities	9.466	2	582	0
Wildlife	9.04	2	582	0
Weather/Climate	5.996	2	582	0.003
Culture	11.306	2	582	0
Heritage	7.752	2	582	0

Food	10.353	2	582	0
Accommodation	6.422	2	582	0.002
Buildings and Architecture	4.936	2	582	0.007
Cleanliness	11.743	2	582	0
Technological Advances	11.408	2	582	0
Shopping	6.412	2	582	0.002
Night life/Casino/Parties	6.979	2	582	0.001
Safety	12.445	2	582	0
Cities	6.072	2	582	0.002

Multiple Comparisons (Functional Value)							
Gabriel							
Dependent Variable	(I) Three Stages	(J) Three Stages	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Many places to visit	Selection	Evaluation	-.609*	0.189	0.004	-1.06	-0.16
		Consideration	-.472*	0.192	0.042	-0.93	-0.01
	Evaluation	Selection	.609*	0.189	0.004	0.16	1.06
		Consideration	0.138	0.19	0.851	-0.32	0.59
	Consideration	Selection	.472*	0.192	0.042	0.01	0.93
		Evaluation	-0.138	0.19	0.851	-0.59	0.32
Scenery	Selection	Evaluation	-.520*	0.188	0.017	-0.97	-0.07
		Consideration	-.612*	0.19	0.004	-1.07	-0.16
	Evaluation	Selection	.520*	0.188	0.017	0.07	0.97
		Consideration	-0.092	0.189	0.948	-0.54	0.36
	Consideration	Selection	.612*	0.19	0.004	0.16	1.07
		Evaluation	0.092	0.189	0.948	-0.36	0.54
Nature	Selection	Evaluation	-.792*	0.174	0	-1.21	-0.38
		Consideration	-.797*	0.176	0	-1.22	-0.38
	Evaluation	Selection	.792*	0.174	0	0.38	1.21
		Consideration	-0.005	0.174	1	-0.42	0.41
	Consideration	Selection	.797*	0.176	0	0.38	1.22
		Evaluation	0.005	0.174	1	-0.41	0.42
Sea	Selection	Evaluation	-.901*	0.176	0	-1.32	-0.48

		Consideration	-.798*	0.17 8	0	-1.22	-0.37
	Evaluation	Selection	.901*	0.17 6	0	0.48	1.32
		Consideration	0.104	0.17 7	0.91 4	-0.32	0.53
	Consideration	Selection	.798*	0.17 8	0	0.37	1.22
		Evaluation	-0.104	0.17 7	0.91 4	-0.53	0.32
Sports and activities	Selection	Evaluation	-0.392	0.16 8	0.06	-0.79	0.01
		Consideration	-0.342	0.17	0.12 9	-0.75	0.07
	Evaluation	Selection	0.392	0.16 8	0.06	-0.01	0.79
		Consideration	0.05	0.16 9	0.98 8	-0.35	0.45
	Consideration	Selection	0.342	0.17	0.12 9	-0.07	0.75
		Evaluation	-0.05	0.16 9	0.98 8	-0.45	0.35
Wildlife	Selection	Evaluation	-.522*	0.16 8	0.00 6	-0.92	-0.12
		Consideration	-.418*	0.17	0.04 2	-0.82	-0.01
	Evaluation	Selection	.522*	0.16 8	0.00 6	0.12	0.92
		Consideration	0.104	0.16 8	0.9	-0.3	0.51
	Consideration	Selection	.418*	0.17	0.04 2	0.01	0.82
		Evaluation	-0.104	0.16 8	0.9	-0.51	0.3
Weather/Climate	Selection	Evaluation	-0.306	0.17	0.2	-0.71	0.1
		Consideration	-.601*	0.17 2	0.00 1	-1.01	-0.19
	Evaluation	Selection	0.306	0.17	0.2	-0.1	0.71
		Consideration	-0.295	0.17	0.23 1	-0.7	0.11
	Consideration	Selection	.601*	0.17 2	0.00 1	0.19	1.01
		Evaluation	0.295	0.17	0.23 1	-0.11	0.7
Culture	Selection	Evaluation	-0.34	0.16 9	0.12 7	-0.74	0.06
		Consideration	-.578*	0.17 1	0.00 2	-0.99	-0.17
	Evaluation	Selection	0.34	0.16 9	0.12 7	-0.06	0.74
		Consideration	-0.238	0.16 9	0.40 7	-0.64	0.17
	Consideration	Selection	.578*	0.17 1	0.00 2	0.17	0.99
		Evaluation	0.238	0.16 9	0.40 7	-0.17	0.64
Heritage	Selection	Evaluation	-.402*	0.16 7	0.04 9	-0.8	0
		Consideration	-.536*	0.16 9	0.00 5	-0.94	-0.13

	Evaluation	Selection	.402*	0.16 7	0.04 9	0	0.8
		Consideration	-0.133	0.16 8	0.81 2	-0.54	0.27
	Consideration	Selection	.536*	0.16 9	0.00 5	0.13	0.94
		Evaluation	0.133	0.16 8	0.81 2	-0.27	0.54
Food	Selection	Evaluation	-.494*	0.16 8	0.01	-0.9	-0.09
		Consideration	-.657*	0.17	0	-1.06	-0.25
	Evaluation	Selection	.494*	0.16 8	0.01	0.09	0.9
		Consideration	-0.163	0.16 8	0.70 2	-0.57	0.24
	Consideration	Selection	.657*	0.17	0	0.25	1.06
		Evaluation	0.163	0.16 8	0.70 2	-0.24	0.57
Accommodation	Selection	Evaluation	-.493*	0.16 5	0.00 9	-0.89	-0.1
		Consideration	-.606*	0.16 7	0.00 1	-1.01	-0.21
	Evaluation	Selection	.493*	0.16 5	0.00 9	0.1	0.89
		Consideration	-0.113	0.16 6	0.87 1	-0.51	0.28
	Consideration	Selection	.606*	0.16 7	0.00 1	0.21	1.01
		Evaluation	0.113	0.16 6	0.87 1	-0.28	0.51
Buildings and Architecture	Selection	Evaluation	-0.308	0.17 1	0.20 2	-0.72	0.1
		Consideration	-0.156	0.17 3	0.74 7	-0.57	0.26
	Evaluation	Selection	0.308	0.17 1	0.20 2	-0.1	0.72
		Consideration	0.152	0.17 2	0.75 7	-0.26	0.56
	Consideration	Selection	0.156	0.17 3	0.74 7	-0.26	0.57
		Evaluation	-0.152	0.17 2	0.75 7	-0.56	0.26
Cleanlines	Selection	Evaluation	-.625*	0.17 5	0.00 1	-1.05	-0.21
		Consideration	-.762*	0.17 7	0	-1.19	-0.34
	Evaluation	Selection	.625*	0.17 5	0.00 1	0.21	1.05
		Consideration	-0.136	0.17 6	0.82 4	-0.56	0.29
	Consideration	Selection	.762*	0.17 7	0	0.34	1.19
		Evaluation	0.136	0.17 6	0.82 4	-0.29	0.56
Technological Advances	Selection	Evaluation	-.650*	0.18	0.00 1	-1.08	-0.22
		Consideration	-.586*	0.18 2	0.00 4	-1.02	-0.15

	Evaluation	Selection	.650*	0.18	0.00 ₁	0.22	1.08
		Consideration	0.064	0.18 ₁	0.97 ₉	-0.37	0.5
	Consideration	Selection	.586*	0.18 ₂	0.00 ₄	0.15	1.02
		Evaluation	-0.064	0.18 ₁	0.97 ₉	-0.5	0.37
Shopping	Selection	Evaluation	-0.402	0.17 ₇	0.06 ₉	-0.83	0.02
		Consideration	-0.315	0.17 ₉	0.21 ₉	-0.74	0.11
	Evaluation	Selection	0.402	0.17 ₇	0.06 ₉	-0.02	0.83
		Consideration	0.087	0.17 ₈	0.94 ₇	-0.34	0.51
	Consideration	Selection	0.315	0.17 ₉	0.21 ₉	-0.11	0.74
		Evaluation	-0.087	0.17 ₈	0.94 ₇	-0.51	0.34
Night life/Casino/ Parties	Selection	Evaluation	-0.327	0.19 ₂	0.24 ₁	-0.79	0.13
		Consideration	-0.158	0.19 ₄	0.79 ₉	-0.62	0.31
	Evaluation	Selection	0.327	0.19 ₂	0.24 ₁	-0.13	0.79
		Consideration	0.169	0.19 ₂	0.76 ₁	-0.29	0.63
	Consideration	Selection	0.158	0.19 ₄	0.79 ₉	-0.31	0.62
		Evaluation	-0.169	0.19 ₂	0.76 ₁	-0.63	0.29
Safety	Selection	Evaluation	-.536*	0.16 ₉	0.00 ₅	-0.94	-0.13
		Consideration	-.798*	0.17 ₁	0	-1.21	-0.39
	Evaluation	Selection	.536*	0.16 ₉	0.00 ₅	0.13	0.94
		Consideration	-0.261	0.17	0.32 ₉	-0.67	0.15
	Consideration	Selection	.798*	0.17 ₁	0	0.39	1.21
		Evaluation	0.261	0.17	0.32 ₉	-0.15	0.67
Cities	Selection	Evaluation	-.480*	0.16 ₂	0.00 ₉	-0.87	-0.09
		Consideration	-.424*	0.16 ₄	0.02 ₉	-0.82	-0.03
	Evaluation	Selection	.480*	0.16 ₂	0.00 ₉	0.09	0.87
		Consideration	0.056	0.16 ₂	0.98	-0.33	0.45
	Consideration	Selection	.424*	0.16 ₄	0.02 ₉	0.03	0.82
		Evaluation	-0.056	0.16 ₂	0.98	-0.45	0.33
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

Appendix 5C.

ANOVA and Subsequent Analysis (Social Value)

ANOVA (Social Value)						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Preferred by travel companions	Between Groups	33.002	2	16.501	4.696	0.009
	Within Groups	2044.929	582	3.514		
	Total	2077.932	584			
Suitable for travel companions	Between Groups	30.436	2	15.218	4.59	0.011
	Within Groups	1929.626	582	3.316		
	Total	1960.062	584			
Visit my friends reside there	Between Groups	14.127	2	7.063	2.086	0.125
	Within Groups	1971.012	582	3.387		
	Total	1985.138	584			
Visit my relatives reside there	Between Groups	12.948	2	6.474	2.025	0.133
	Within Groups	1860.498	582	3.197		
	Total	1873.446	584			
Destination visiting by most of the people	Between Groups	10.15	2	5.075	1.776	0.17
	Within Groups	1663.381	582	2.858		
	Total	1673.532	584			
Destination talked about by most of the people	Between Groups	8.458	2	4.229	1.508	0.222
	Within Groups	1631.873	582	2.804		
	Total	1640.332	584			
Destination I can meet friendly people	Between Groups	14.133	2	7.067	2.342	0.097
	Within Groups	1756.082	582	3.017		
	Total	1770.215	584			

Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Social Value)				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Preferred by travel companions	14.854	2	582	0
Suitable for travel companions	14.201	2	582	0

Visit my friends reside there	7.527	2	582	0.001
Visit my relatives reside there	6.7	2	582	0.001
Destination visiting by most of the people	5.377	2	582	0.005
Destination talked about by most of the people	4.219	2	582	0.015
Destination I can meet friendly people	6.695	2	582	0.001

Multiple Comparisons (Social Values)							
Gabriel							
Dependent Variable	(I) Three Stages	(J) Three Stages	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Preferred by travel companions	Selection	Evaluation	-.543*	0.189	0.01	-1	-0.09
		Consideration	-0.451	0.191	0.05	-0.91	0.01
	Evaluation	Selection	.543*	0.189	0.01	0.09	1
		Consideration	0.092	0.19	0.95	-0.36	0.55
	Consideration	Selection	0.451	0.191	0.05	-0.01	0.91
		Evaluation	-0.092	0.19	0.95	-0.55	0.36
Suitable for travel companions	Selection	Evaluation	-.519*	0.183	0.01	-0.96	-0.08
		Consideration	-0.438	0.186	0.06	-0.88	0.01
	Evaluation	Selection	.519*	0.183	0.01	0.08	0.96
		Consideration	0.081	0.184	0.96	-0.36	0.52
	Consideration	Selection	0.438	0.186	0.06	-0.01	0.88
		Evaluation	-0.081	0.184	0.96	-0.52	0.36
Visit my friends reside there	Selection	Evaluation	-0.374	0.185	0.13	-0.82	0.07
		Consideration	-0.137	0.188	0.85	-0.59	0.31
	Evaluation	Selection	0.374	0.185	0.13	-0.07	0.82
		Consideration	0.237	0.186	0.49	-0.21	0.68
	Consideration	Selection	0.137	0.188	0.85	-0.31	0.59
		Evaluation	-0.237	0.186	0.49	-0.68	0.21
Visit my relatives reside there	Selection	Evaluation	-0.347	0.18	0.15	-0.78	0.08
		Consideration	-0.085	0.182	0.95	-0.52	0.35
	Evaluation	Selection	0.347	0.18	0.15	-0.08	0.78
		Consideration	0.262	0.181	0.38	-0.17	0.7
	Consideration	Selection	0.085	0.182	0.95	-0.35	0.52
		Evaluation	-0.262	0.181	0.38	-0.7	0.17

Destination visiting by most of the people	Selection	Evaluation	-0.28	0.17	0.27	-0.69	0.13
		Consideration	-0.005	0.172	1	-0.42	0.41
	Evaluation	Selection	0.28	0.17	0.27	-0.13	0.69
		Consideration	0.275	0.171	0.29	-0.13	0.68
	Consideration	Selection	0.005	0.172	1	-0.41	0.42
		Evaluation	-0.275	0.171	0.29	-0.68	0.13
Destination talked about by most of the people	Selection	Evaluation	-0.272	0.169	0.29	-0.68	0.13
		Consideration	-0.043	0.171	0.99	-0.45	0.37
	Evaluation	Selection	0.272	0.169	0.29	-0.13	0.68
		Consideration	0.229	0.169	0.44	-0.18	0.63
	Consideration	Selection	0.043	0.171	0.99	-0.37	0.45
		Evaluation	-0.229	0.169	0.44	-0.63	0.18
Destination I can meet friendly people	Selection	Evaluation	-0.349	0.175	0.13	-0.77	0.07
		Consideration	-0.048	0.177	0.99	-0.47	0.38
	Evaluation	Selection	0.349	0.175	0.13	-0.07	0.77
		Consideration	0.301	0.176	0.24	-0.12	0.72
	Consideration	Selection	0.048	0.177	0.99	-0.38	0.47
		Evaluation	-0.301	0.176	0.24	-0.72	0.12
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

Appendix 5D.

ANOVA and Subsequent Analysis (Emotional Value)

ANOVA (Emotional Value)						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A must see place	Between Groups	8.872	2	4.436	1.61	0.2
	Within Groups	1607.69	582	2.762		
	Total	1616.56	584			
Calm and quite destination	Between Groups	11.269	2	5.634	2.3	0.1
	Within Groups	1429.02	582	2.455		
	Total	1440.29	584			
That destination fascinates me	Between Groups	27.719	2	13.86	5.26	0.01
	Within Groups	1533.71	582	2.635		
	Total	1561.43	584			
That destination makes me relax	Between Groups	32.581	2	16.291	6.15	0
	Within Groups	1541.08	582	2.648		
	Total	1573.67	584			
Fun & enjoyable destination	Between Groups	44.96	2	22.48	8.59	0
	Within Groups	1522.71	582	2.616		
	Total	1567.67	584			

Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Emotional Value)				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
A must see place	4.205	2	582	0.015
Calm and quite destination	2.843	2	582	0.059
That destination fascinates me	3.053	2	582	0.048
That destination makes me relax	1.121	2	582	0.327
Fun & enjoyable destination	8.167	2	582	0

Multiple Comparisons (Emotional Value)						
Gabriel						
Dependent Variable	(I) Three Stages	(J) Three Stages		Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval

			Mean Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A must see place	Selection	Evaluation	-0.234	0.167	0.413	-0.63	0.17
		Consideration	-0.283	0.169	0.259	-0.69	0.12
	Evaluation	Selection	0.234	0.167	0.413	-0.17	0.63
		Consideration	-0.049	0.168	0.988	-0.45	0.35
	Consideration	Selection	0.283	0.169	0.259	-0.12	0.69
		Evaluation	0.049	0.168	0.988	-0.35	0.45
Calm and quite destination	Selection	Evaluation	-0.073	0.158	0.956	-0.45	0.31
		Consideration	-0.326	0.16	0.12	-0.71	0.06
	Evaluation	Selection	0.073	0.158	0.956	-0.31	0.45
		Consideration	-0.253	0.159	0.296	-0.63	0.13
	Consideration	Selection	0.326	0.16	0.12	-0.06	0.71
		Evaluation	0.253	0.159	0.296	-0.13	0.63
That destination fascinates me	Selection	Evaluation	-.413*	0.164	0.035	-0.8	-0.02
		Consideration	-.501*	0.165	0.008	-0.9	-0.11
	Evaluation	Selection	.413*	0.164	0.035	0.02	0.8
		Consideration	-0.089	0.164	0.931	-0.48	0.3
	Consideration	Selection	.501*	0.165	0.008	0.11	0.9
		Evaluation	0.089	0.164	0.931	-0.3	0.48
That destination makes me relax	Selection	Evaluation	-0.294	0.164	0.205	-0.69	0.1
		Consideration	-.582*	0.166	0.001	-0.98	-0.18
	Evaluation	Selection	0.294	0.164	0.205	-0.1	0.69
		Consideration	-0.288	0.165	0.223	-0.68	0.11
	Consideration	Selection	.582*	0.166	0.001	0.18	0.98
		Evaluation	0.288	0.165	0.223	-0.11	0.68
Fun & enjoyable destination	Selection	Evaluation	-.548*	0.163	0.002	-0.94	-0.16
		Consideration	-.624*	0.165	0.001	-1.02	-0.23
	Evaluation	Selection	.548*	0.163	0.002	0.16	0.94
		Consideration	-0.077	0.164	0.953	-0.47	0.32
	Consideration	Selection	.624*	0.165	0.001	0.23	1.02
		Evaluation	0.077	0.164	0.953	-0.32	0.47
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

Appendix 5E.

ANOVA and Subsequent Analysis (Epistemic Value)

ANOVA (Epistemic Value)						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
I have not been there	Between Groups	18.901	2	9.451	2.457	0.087
	Within Groups	2239.037	582	3.847		
	Total	2257.938	584			
That destination gives me different experience	Between Groups	48.911	2	24.455	7.733	0
	Within Groups	1840.474	582	3.162		
	Total	1889.385	584			
I can learn many things	Between Groups	56.968	2	28.484	9.213	0
	Within Groups	1799.432	582	3.092		
	Total	1856.4	584			

Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Epistemic Value)				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
I have not been there	11.249	2	582	0
That destination gives me different experience	9.296	2	582	0
I can learn many things	13.071	2	582	0

Multiple Comparisons (Epistemic Value)							
Gabriel							
Dependent Variable	(I) Three Stages	(J) Three Stages	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
I have not been there	Selection	Evaluation	-0.398	0.198	0.128	-0.87	0.08
		Consideration	-0.362	0.2	0.197	-0.84	0.12
	Evaluation	Selection	0.398	0.198	0.128	-0.08	0.87
		Consideration	0.036	0.198	0.997	-0.44	0.51
	Consideration	Selection	0.362	0.2	0.197	-0.12	0.84

		Evaluation	-0.036	0.198	0.997	-0.51	0.44
That destination gives me different experience	Selection	Evaluation	-.528*	0.179	0.01	-0.96	-0.1
		Consideration	-.676*	0.181	0.001	-1.11	-0.24
	Evaluation	Selection	.528*	0.179	0.01	0.1	0.96
		Consideration	-0.148	0.18	0.795	-0.58	0.28
	Consideration	Selection	.676*	0.181	0.001	0.24	1.11
		Evaluation	0.148	0.18	0.795	-0.28	0.58
I can learn many things	Selection	Evaluation	-.656*	0.177	0.001	-1.08	-0.23
		Consideration	-.669*	0.179	0.001	-1.1	-0.24
	Evaluation	Selection	.656*	0.177	0.001	0.23	1.08
		Consideration	-0.013	0.178	1	-0.44	0.41
	Consideration	Selection	.669*	0.179	0.001	0.24	1.1
		Evaluation	0.013	0.178	1	-0.41	0.44

Appendix 5F.

ANOVA and Subsequent Analysis (Conditional Value)

ANOVA (Conditional Value)						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
It fits with my budget	Between Groups	29.29	2	14.645	5.277	0.005
	Within Groups	1615.216	582	2.775		
	Total	1644.506	584			
I know people who live there	Between Groups	29.294	2	14.647	4.475	0.012
	Within Groups	1904.73	582	3.273		
	Total	1934.024	584			
It fits with available time for vacation	Between Groups	12.857	2	6.428	2.115	0.122
	Within Groups	1769.27	582	3.04		
	Total	1782.126	584			
Trip can be planned within the time available	Between Groups	16.214	2	8.107	2.987	0.051
	Within Groups	1579.848	582	2.715		
	Total	1596.062	584			
Convenient travel time	Between Groups	20.454	2	10.227	3.654	0.026
	Within Groups	1628.975	582	2.799		
	Total	1649.429	584			
Travel agent/airline gave me good package	Between Groups	18.906	2	9.453	2.743	0.065
	Within Groups	2005.31	582	3.446		
	Total	2024.215	584			
It gives me good value for money	Between Groups	17.396	2	8.698	2.845	0.059
	Within Groups	1779.52	582	3.058		
	Total	1796.916	584			

Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Conditional Value)				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
It fits with my budget	5.829	2	582	0.003
I know people who live there	5.737	2	582	0.003

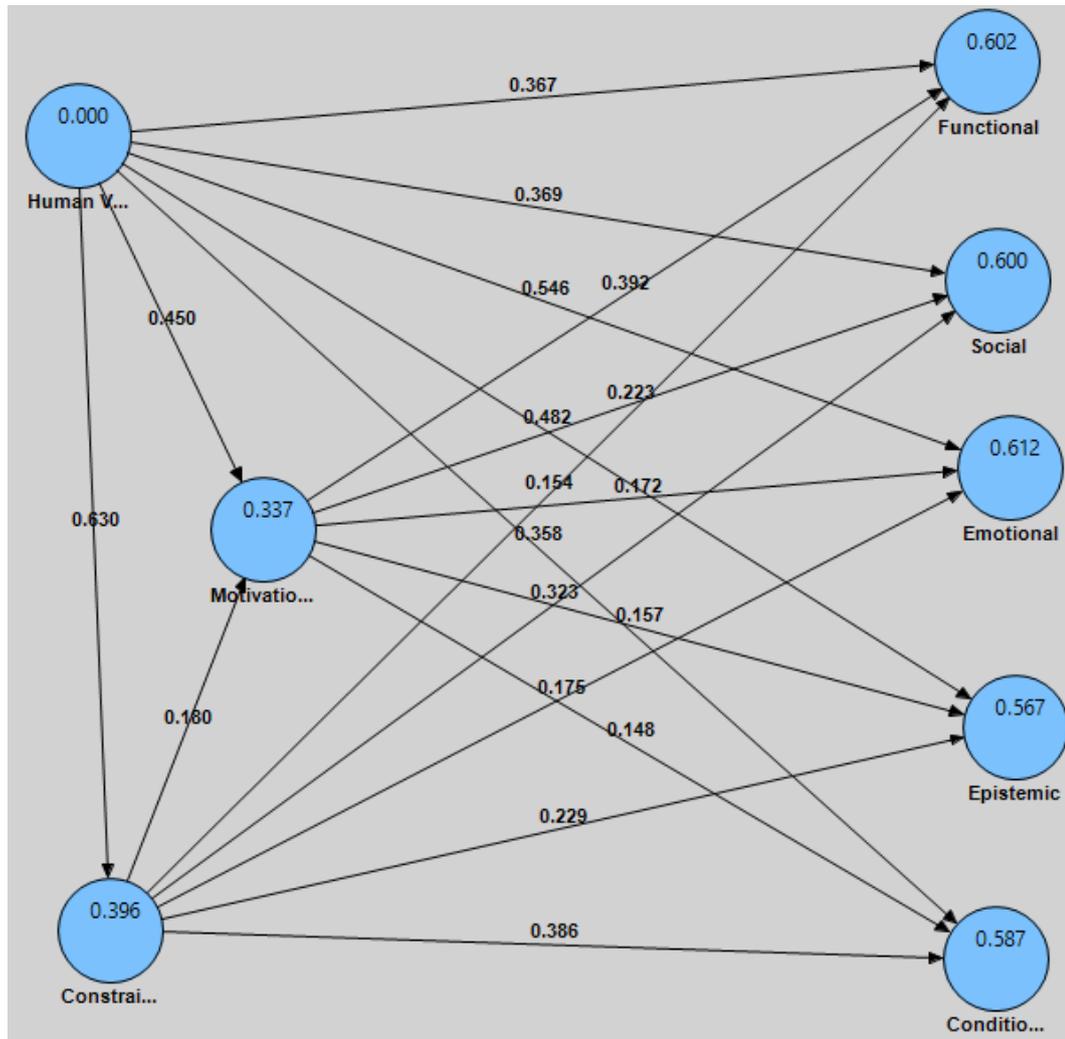
It fits with available time for vacation	5.376	2	582	0.005
Trip can be planned within the time available	4.984	2	582	0.007
Convenient travel time	5.975	2	582	0.003
Travel agent/airline gave me good package	8.121	2	582	0
It gives me good value for money	2.418	2	582	0.09

Multiple Comparisons (Conditional Value)							
Gabriel							
Dependent Variable	(I) Three Stages	(J) Three Stages	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
It fits with my budget	Selection	Evaluation	-.440*	0.168	0.027	-0.84	-0.04
		Consideration	-.505*	0.17	0.009	-0.91	-0.1
	Evaluation	Selection	.440*	0.168	0.027	0.04	0.84
		Consideration	-0.065	0.169	0.973	-0.47	0.34
	Consideration	Selection	.505*	0.17	0.009	0.1	0.91
		Evaluation	0.065	0.169	0.973	-0.34	0.47
I know people who live there	Selection	Evaluation	-0.387	0.182	0.099	-0.82	0.05
		Consideration	0.14	0.184	0.832	-0.3	0.58
	Evaluation	Selection	0.387	0.182	0.099	-0.05	0.82
		Consideration	.527*	0.183	0.012	0.09	0.97
	Consideration	Selection	-0.14	0.184	0.832	-0.58	0.3
		Evaluation	-.527*	0.183	0.012	-0.97	-0.09
It fits with available time for vacation	Selection	Evaluation	-0.294	0.176	0.258	-0.71	0.13
		Consideration	-0.333	0.178	0.173	-0.76	0.09
	Evaluation	Selection	0.294	0.176	0.258	-0.13	0.71
		Consideration	-0.039	0.176	0.995	-0.46	0.38
	Consideration	Selection	0.333	0.178	0.173	-0.09	0.76
		Evaluation	0.039	0.176	0.995	-0.38	0.46
Trip can be planned within the time available	Selection	Evaluation	-0.353	0.166	0.099	-0.75	0.04
		Consideration	-0.355	0.168	0.102	-0.76	0.05
	Evaluation	Selection	0.353	0.166	0.099	-0.04	0.75
		Consideration	-0.002	0.167	1	-0.4	0.4
	Consideration	Selection	0.355	0.168	0.102	-0.05	0.76
		Evaluation	0.002	0.167	1	-0.4	0.4
	Selection	Evaluation	-0.402	0.169	0.051	-0.81	0

Convenient travel time		Consideration	-0.391	0.171	0.065	-0.8	0.02
	Evaluation	Selection	0.402	0.169	0.051	0	0.81
		Consideration	0.011	0.169	1	-0.39	0.42
	Consideration	Selection	0.391	0.171	0.065	-0.02	0.8
		Evaluation	-0.011	0.169	1	-0.42	0.39
Travel agent/airline gave me good package	Selection	Evaluation	-0.374	0.187	0.132	-0.82	0.07
		Consideration	0.01	0.189	1	-0.44	0.46
	Evaluation	Selection	0.374	0.187	0.132	-0.07	0.82
		Consideration	0.384	0.188	0.119	-0.07	0.83
	Consideration	Selection	-0.01	0.189	1	-0.46	0.44
		Evaluation	-0.384	0.188	0.119	-0.83	0.07
It gives me good value for money	Selection	Evaluation	-0.355	0.176	0.127	-0.78	0.07
		Consideration	-0.377	0.178	0.101	-0.8	0.05
	Evaluation	Selection	0.355	0.176	0.127	-0.07	0.78
		Consideration	-0.021	0.177	0.999	-0.45	0.4
	Consideration	Selection	0.377	0.178	0.101	-0.05	0.8
		Evaluation	0.021	0.177	0.999	-0.4	0.45
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

Appendix 6A.

Measurement Model Arrangement - Stage I



Appendix 6B.

Number of Iterations of the Model

	CV1	CV2	CV3	CV4	CV5	CV6	CV7	EV1
Iteration 0	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Iteration 1	0.1786	0.1415	0.1766	0.1769	0.1743	0.1500	0.1686	0.2130
Iteration 2	0.1795	0.1408	0.1770	0.1771	0.1744	0.1492	0.1684	0.2125
Iteration 3	0.1795	0.1408	0.1770	0.1771	0.1745	0.1492	0.1684	0.2125
Iteration 4	0.1795	0.1408	0.1770	0.1771	0.1745	0.1492	0.1684	0.2125

Appendix 6C.

Composite Reliability and AVE of the Measurement Model

	AVE	Composite Reliability	R Square	Cronbachs Alpha	Communality	Redundancy
Conditional	0.7309	0.9499	0.5866	0.9380	0.7309	0.2749
Constraints	0.7412	0.9582	0.3964	0.9501	0.7412	0.2922
Emotional	0.7960	0.9512	0.6124	0.9358	0.7960	0.1418
Epistemic	0.8344	0.9379	0.5669	0.9004	0.8344	0.1869
Functional	0.6318	0.9685	0.6016	0.9654	0.6318	0.0951
Human Value	0.7694	0.9677	0.0000	0.9624	0.7694	0.0000
Motivations	0.6131	0.9455	0.3369	0.9368	0.6131	0.0818
Social	0.6976	0.9416	0.5998	0.9278	0.6976	0.2216

Appendix 6D.

Indicator Loadings and Comparison with Cross loadings - Stage I

Variable	Conditional	Constraints	Emotional	Epistemic	Functional	Human Value	Motivations	Social	Diff.
CV1	0.855	0.605	0.659	0.791	0.617	0.642	0.501	0.670	0.06
CV2	0.767	0.493	0.473	0.571	0.478	0.484	0.391	0.668	0.10
CV3	0.907	0.591	0.659	0.690	0.598	0.642	0.486	0.661	0.22
CV4	0.903	0.613	0.655	0.679	0.584	0.625	0.472	0.656	0.22
CV5	0.895	0.600	0.667	0.626	0.585	0.612	0.485	0.643	0.23
CV6	0.803	0.563	0.497	0.526	0.467	0.488	0.371	0.611	0.19
CV7	0.843	0.598	0.627	0.634	0.550	0.581	0.442	0.651	0.19
EV1	0.630	0.513	0.872	0.585	0.575	0.636	0.465	0.707	0.17
EV2	0.638	0.501	0.890	0.621	0.580	0.650	0.501	0.670	0.22
EV3	0.644	0.539	0.913	0.648	0.613	0.677	0.480	0.663	0.24
EV4	0.641	0.555	0.913	0.652	0.627	0.693	0.518	0.665	0.22
EV5	0.629	0.557	0.872	0.671	0.676	0.699	0.534	0.674	0.17
EpV 1	0.612	0.491	0.555	0.869	0.563	0.582	0.444	0.615	0.25
EpV 2	0.728	0.578	0.700	0.947	0.668	0.694	0.522	0.664	0.22
EpV 3	0.732	0.583	0.690	0.923	0.648	0.675	0.495	0.671	0.19

FV1	0.469	0.421	0.489	0.569	0.766	0.502	0.545	0.562	0.20
FV1 0	0.534	0.445	0.588	0.532	0.837	0.573	0.533	0.561	0.25
FV1 1	0.557	0.471	0.600	0.547	0.846	0.581	0.554	0.555	0.25
FV1 2	0.495	0.400	0.510	0.511	0.762	0.475	0.476	0.524	0.24
FV1 3	0.558	0.526	0.610	0.594	0.831	0.607	0.563	0.592	0.22
FV1 4	0.569	0.503	0.570	0.594	0.808	0.575	0.543	0.609	0.20
FV1 5	0.545	0.496	0.555	0.580	0.813	0.570	0.529	0.619	0.19
FV1 6	0.432	0.385	0.427	0.449	0.648	0.426	0.422	0.524	0.12
FV1 7	0.593	0.521	0.602	0.550	0.834	0.615	0.540	0.589	0.22
FV1 8	0.575	0.520	0.566	0.571	0.796	0.569	0.512	0.604	0.19
FV2	0.511	0.443	0.555	0.615	0.829	0.580	0.584	0.554	0.21
FV3	0.519	0.476	0.584	0.614	0.855	0.592	0.597	0.556	0.24
FV4	0.497	0.462	0.511	0.540	0.771	0.517	0.523	0.517	0.23
FV5	0.463	0.400	0.474	0.496	0.735	0.485	0.546	0.531	0.19
FV6	0.472	0.424	0.480	0.517	0.751	0.490	0.518	0.488	0.23
FV7	0.507	0.423	0.601	0.519	0.804	0.554	0.536	0.529	0.20
FV8	0.516	0.395	0.563	0.506	0.795	0.520	0.522	0.500	0.23
FV9	0.486	0.366	0.550	0.511	0.801	0.526	0.528	0.495	0.25
HV1	0.575	0.590	0.622	0.671	0.604	0.811	0.515	0.656	0.14
HV2	0.620	0.603	0.690	0.725	0.653	0.870	0.530	0.689	0.14

HV3	0.563	0.560	0.624	0.600	0.575	0.859	0.499	0.635	0.22
HV4	0.636	0.574	0.713	0.711	0.641	0.922	0.506	0.613	0.21
HV5	0.610	0.535	0.667	0.601	0.593	0.906	0.494	0.616	0.24
HV6	0.620	0.540	0.678	0.606	0.598	0.904	0.491	0.602	0.23
HV7	0.592	0.511	0.636	0.529	0.559	0.857	0.449	0.556	0.22
HV8	0.590	0.520	0.636	0.566	0.573	0.877	0.472	0.549	0.24
HV9	0.594	0.525	0.670	0.603	0.597	0.884	0.480	0.577	0.21
SV1	0.639	0.605	0.646	0.704	0.646	0.654	0.547	0.814	0.11
SV2	0.646	0.613	0.679	0.727	0.666	0.668	0.539	0.835	0.11
SV3	0.613	0.523	0.575	0.571	0.572	0.552	0.485	0.867	0.25
SV4	0.569	0.493	0.543	0.499	0.511	0.482	0.456	0.829	0.26
SV5	0.661	0.547	0.633	0.559	0.554	0.580	0.459	0.869	0.21
SV6	0.666	0.545	0.669	0.550	0.548	0.576	0.464	0.844	0.18
SV7	0.639	0.495	0.664	0.501	0.523	0.530	0.420	0.785	0.12
TC1	0.601	0.839	0.533	0.561	0.503	0.555	0.406	0.605	0.23
TC2	0.566	0.849	0.543	0.571	0.516	0.561	0.436	0.592	0.26
TC3	0.611	0.892	0.560	0.605	0.535	0.592	0.444	0.607	0.28
TC4	0.617	0.893	0.523	0.566	0.518	0.562	0.446	0.614	0.28
TC5	0.590	0.894	0.525	0.511	0.491	0.544	0.395	0.570	0.30
TC6	0.545	0.843	0.447	0.456	0.435	0.486	0.355	0.531	0.30
TC7	0.573	0.852	0.486	0.437	0.432	0.497	0.349	0.499	0.28
TC8	0.578	0.823	0.490	0.428	0.456	0.525	0.341	0.498	0.25
TM10	0.363	0.290	0.323	0.292	0.391	0.316	0.670	0.383	0.28

TM1	0.424	0.392	0.483	0.491	0.599	0.499	0.819	0.480	0.22
TM2	0.443	0.397	0.496	0.495	0.599	0.515	0.818	0.507	0.22
TM3	0.464	0.410	0.527	0.498	0.576	0.494	0.807	0.471	0.23
TM4	0.454	0.370	0.446	0.423	0.556	0.447	0.817	0.461	0.26
TM5	0.359	0.328	0.357	0.344	0.454	0.357	0.758	0.398	0.30
TM6	0.447	0.403	0.457	0.428	0.525	0.468	0.823	0.464	0.30
TM7	0.417	0.404	0.469	0.432	0.546	0.489	0.833	0.465	0.29
TM8	0.389	0.297	0.345	0.301	0.451	0.339	0.750	0.448	0.30
TM9	0.347	0.275	0.310	0.272	0.387	0.315	0.703	0.398	0.30
TM1	0.422	0.378	0.523	0.522	0.603	0.518	0.796	0.500	0.19

*This is calculated by subtracting the maximum cross-loading value from main loading of the item

Appendix 6E.

Fornell-Larcker Criterion Analysis for Checking Discriminant Validity

Variable	Condi tional	Constr aints	Emoti onal	Episte mic	Func tional	Human Value	Motivat ions	Soci al
Condi tional	0.8544							
Constrai nts	0.6805	0.8602						
Emotion al	0.7136	0.5983	0.8888					
Epistemi c	0.7590	0.6050	0.7134	0.911 0				
Function al	0.6515	0.5668	0.6899	0.687 9	0.7937			
Human Value	0.6849	0.6296	0.7531	0.714 6	0.6849	0.8775		
Motivat ions	0.5289	0.4634	0.5607	0.534 6	0.6703	0.5633	0.7810	

				0.712				0.83
Social	0.7603	0.6586	0.7572	2	0.6934	0.6980	0.5807	67

Shaded cells shows the square root of AVE values for each of the latent constructs

Appendix 6F.

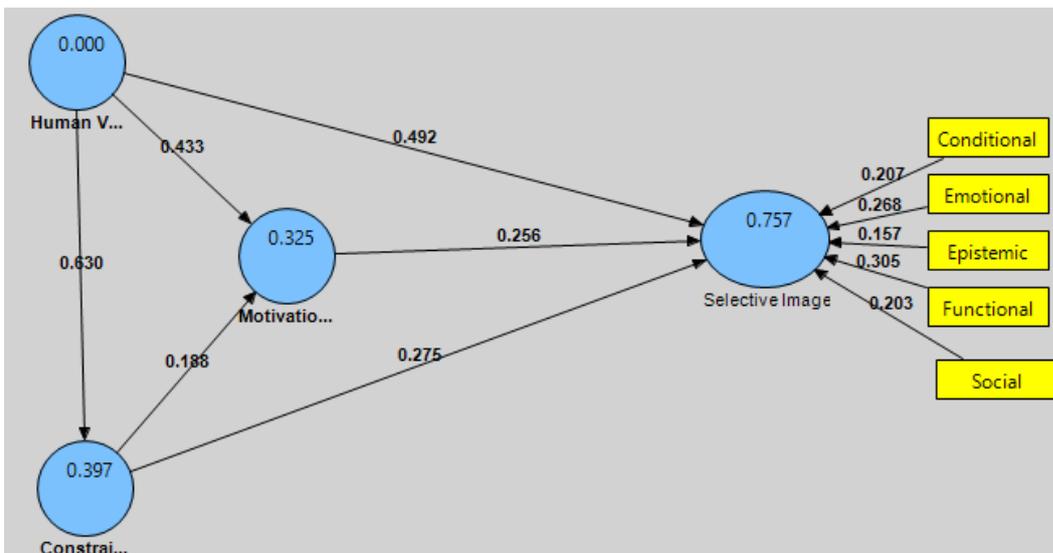
HTMT Criteria Calculation for Discriminant Validity

Discriminant Validity

	Conditional	Constraints	Emotional	Epistemic	Functional	Human Values	Motivations	Social
Conditional								
Constraints	0.719							
Emotional	0.757	0.632						
Epistemic	0.819	0.647	0.772					
Functional	0.681	0.588	0.723	0.735				
Human Values	0.717	0.655	0.792	0.762	0.707			
Motivations	0.559	0.483	0.587	0.567	0.694	0.581		
Social	0.816	0.693	0.810	0.769	0.727	0.730	0.616	

Appendix 6G1.

Structural Model (Software Generated)

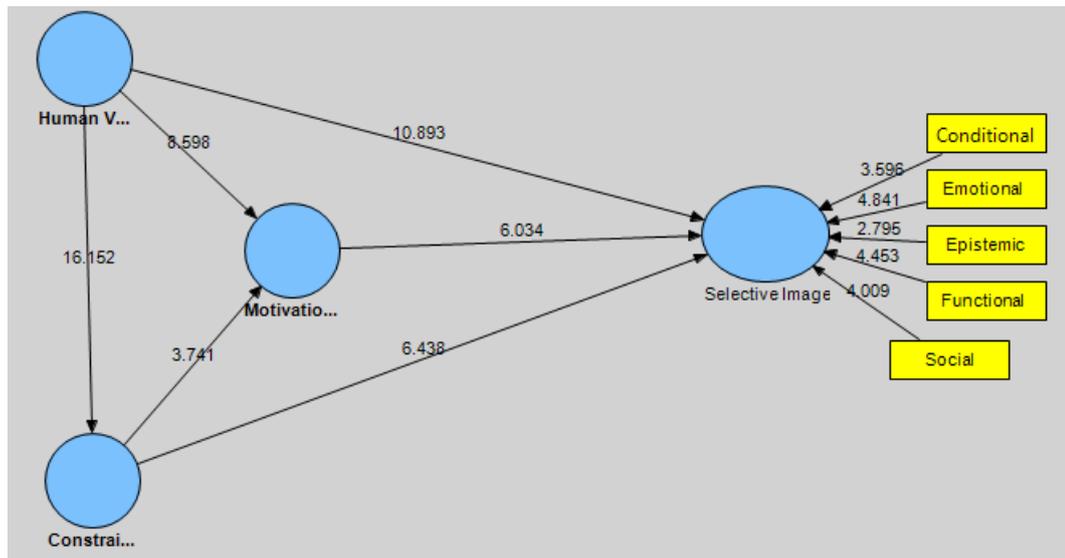


Appendix 6G2.
VIF and Tolerance Values

Coefficients^a								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.129	.058		88.165	.000		
	Conditional	.169	.104	.101	1.629	.104	.315	3.179
	Emotional	.146	.100	.087	1.450	.148	.336	2.980
	Epistemic	-.022	.101	-.013	-.217	.828	.332	3.014
	Functional	.579	.090	.346	6.423	.000	.416	2.405
	Social	.152	.106	.091	1.440	.150	.303	3.297

a. Dependent Variable: Fulfil the travel needs of loved ones

Appendix 6H.
Outer Weight Significance of Formative Model



Appendix 6I.
Reflective Indicators Cross Loadings - Stage II

Indicator	Constraints	Human Values	Motivations	Dif.*
HV1	0.5901	0.8116	0.5011	0.2215
HV2	0.6026	0.87	0.5129	0.2674
HV3	0.56	0.8593	0.487	0.2993
HV4	0.5735	0.9218	0.4929	0.3483

HV5	0.5345	0.9056	0.486	0.3711
HV6	0.5402	0.9035	0.4811	0.3633
HV7	0.5105	0.8567	0.4441	0.3462
HV8	0.5198	0.8774	0.4662	0.3576
HV9	0.5253	0.8836	0.4708	0.3583
TC1	0.838	0.5549	0.4001	0.2831
TC2	0.8491	0.5607	0.4307	0.2884
TC3	0.8923	0.5921	0.4371	0.3002
TC4	0.8925	0.5619	0.445	0.3306
TC5	0.8942	0.5445	0.3971	0.3497
TC6	0.8427	0.4864	0.3545	0.3563
TC7	0.8523	0.4973	0.3462	0.355
TC8	0.8234	0.5248	0.3426	0.2986
TM10	0.2899	0.3155	0.6888	0.3733
TM11	0.3923	0.4993	0.789	0.2897
TM2	0.3972	0.5145	0.8102	0.2957
TM3	0.4097	0.4945	0.7989	0.3044
TM4	0.3696	0.4472	0.822	0.3748
TM5	0.3275	0.3572	0.77	0.4128
TM6	0.4029	0.4682	0.8341	0.3659
TM7	0.4037	0.4893	0.8393	0.35
TM8	0.2973	0.3385	0.7706	0.4321
TM9	0.275	0.3145	0.7259	0.4114

*This is calculated by subtracting the maximum cross-loading value from main loading of the item

Appendix 6J.

Composite Reliability and AVE - Stage II

	Composite Reliability	AVE
Human Values	0.9577	0.7694
Travel Constraints	0.9582	0.7413
Travel Motivations	0.9416	0.6181

Appendix 6K.

**Fornell-Larcker Criterion Analysis for Checking Discriminant Validity -
Stage II**

Variable	Human Values	Travel Constraints	Travel Motivations
Human Values	0.8772		
Travel Constraints	0.6297	0.8610	
Travel Motivations	0.4605	0.6539	0.7862

Shaded cells shows the square root of AVE values for each of the latent constructs

Appendix 6L-1.

VIF and Tolerance Values for the Selective Image Structural Model

Coefficients^a								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.214	.048		108.741	.000		
	Human	.744	.067	.474	11.073	.000	.510	1.962
	Motivations	.281	.059	.179	4.771	.000	.663	1.508
	Constraint	.187	.063	.119	2.991	.003	.586	1.706

a. Dependent Variable: Calm and quite destination

Appendix 6L-2.

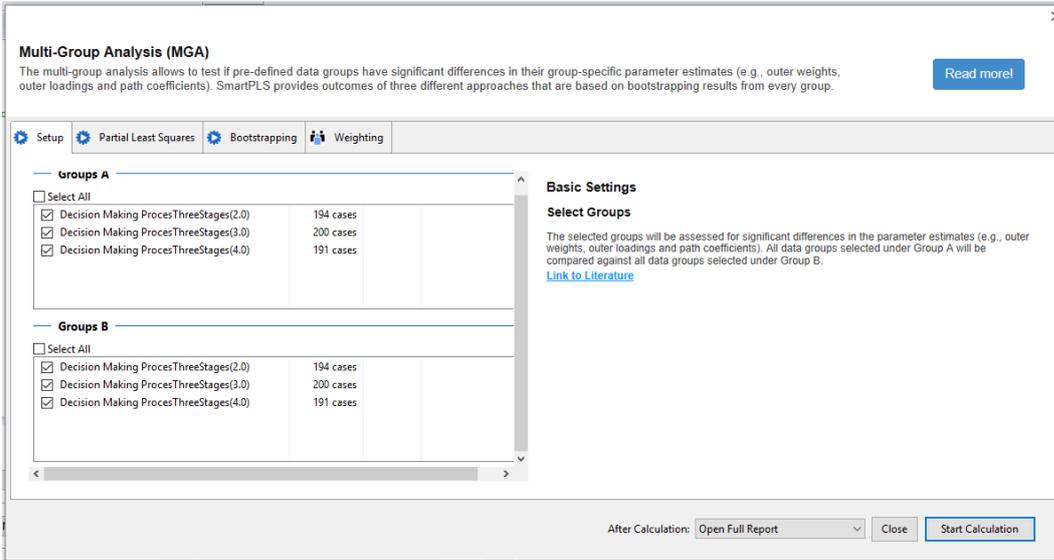
VIF and Tolerance Values for the Travel Motivations Structural Model

Coefficients^a								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.214	.049		106.763	.000		
	Human	.870	.063	.554	13.841	.000	.604	1.657
	Constraint	.238	.063	.152	3.784	.000	.604	1.657

a. Dependent Variable: Calm and quite destination

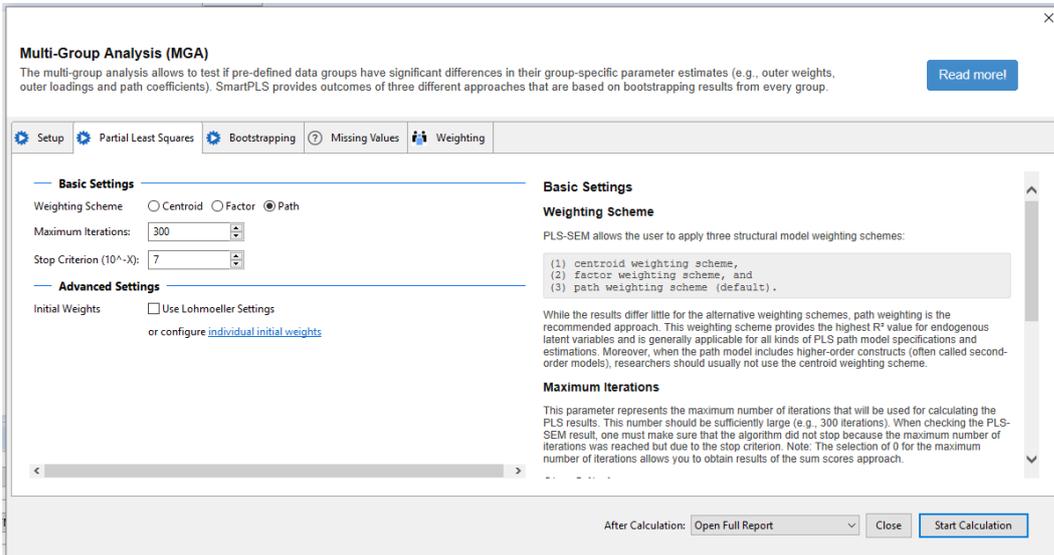
Appendix 6M-1.

PLS Multigroup Dialogue Box-Setup



Appendix 6M-2.

PLS Multigroup Dialogue Box-Setup – Partial Least Squares



Appendix 6M-3.

PLS Multigroup Dialogue Box-Setup – Bootstrapping

Multi-Group Analysis (MGA)
 The multi-group analysis allows to test if pre-defined data groups have significant differences in their group-specific parameter estimates (e.g., outer weights, outer loadings and path coefficients). SmartPLS provides outcomes of three different approaches that are based on bootstrapping results from every group. Read more!

Setup Partial Least Squares Bootstrapping Missing Values Weighting

Basic Settings

Subsamples:

Do Parallel Processing

Sign Changes: No Sign Changes
 Construct Level Changes
 Individual Changes

Amount of Results: Basic Bootstrapping
 Complete Bootstrapping

Advanced Settings

Confidence Interval Method: Percentile Bootstrap
 Studentized Bootstrap
 Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) Bootstrap
 Davison Hinkley's Double Bootstrap
 Shi's Double Bootstrap

Test Type: One Tailed Two Tailed

Basic Settings

Subsamples
 In bootstrapping, subsamples are created with observations randomly drawn (with replacement) from the original set of data. To ensure stability of results, the number of subsamples should be large. For an initial assessment, one may use a smaller number of bootstrap subsamples (e.g., 500). For the final results preparation, however, one should use a large number of bootstrap subsamples (e.g., 5,000).
 Note: Larger numbers of bootstrap subsamples increase the computation time.

Do Parallel Processing
 This option runs the bootstrapping routine on multiple processors (if your computer device offers more than one core). Using parallel computing will reduce computation time.

Sign Changes
 Sets the method for dealing with sign changes during the bootstrap iterations. The following options are available:
 (1) No Sign Changes (default)
 Sign changes in the resamples will be ignored and the results are taken as they are.
 This is the most conservative estimation option and the recommended choice when running the bootstrapping routine.

After Calculation: Open Full Report Close Start Calculation

Appendix 6M-4.

PLS Multigroup Results – PLS-MGA Outer Weights *p* Values

Outer Weights

	Bootstrapping Results	Confidence Intervals (Bias Corrected)	PLS-MGA	Parametric Test	Welch-Satterthwait Test	
	Outer Weights...	Outer Weights...	Outer Weights...	p-Value(Stages...	p-Value(Stages...	p-Value(Stages...
Conditional -> ...	0.094	0.064	0.030	0.237	0.309	0.582
Constraints <- ...	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.987	0.621	0.022
Emotional -> S...	0.147	0.089	0.236	0.171	0.751	0.945
Epistemic -> S...	0.378	0.001	0.376	0.001	0.496	0.998
Functional -> S...	0.353	0.020	0.373	0.990	0.436	0.013
Human <- Hu...	0.000		0.000	0.188	0.525	0.860
Motivation <- ...	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.938	0.711	0.097
Social -> Select...	0.220	0.014	0.207	0.943	0.539	0.057

Appendix 6M-5.

PLS Multigroup Results – PLS-MGA Path Coefficients *p* Values

Path Coefficients

	Bootstrapping Results	Confidence Intervals (Bias Corrected)	PLS-MGA	Parametric Test	Welch-Satterthwait Test	
	Path Coefficie...	Path Coefficie...	Path Coefficie...	p-Value(Stages...	p-Value(Stages...	p-Value(Stages...
Constraints -> ...	0.171	0.308	0.137	0.069	0.005	0.139
Constraints -> ...	0.057	0.004	0.053	0.280	0.475	0.690
Human -> Con...	0.023	0.090	0.113	0.602	0.194	0.126
Human -> Mot...	0.074	0.203	0.129	0.731	0.953	0.857
Human -> Sele...	0.088	0.067	0.154	0.195	0.753	0.914
Motivations ->...	0.126	0.060	0.187	0.889	0.247	0.031

Appendix 6M-6.

PLS Multigroup Dialogue Box - Path Coefficients

Partial Least Squares Algorithm

The PLS path modeling method was developed by Wold (1982). In essence, the PLS algorithm is a sequence of regressions in terms of weight vectors. The weight vectors obtained at convergence satisfy fixed point equations (see Dijkstra, 2010, for a general analysis of these equations).

[Read more](#)

Setup Missing Values Weighting Data Groups

Run algorithm for the following selected data groups:

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Select All		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> StagesThreeStages(1.0)	194 cases	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> StagesThreeStages(2.0)	200 cases	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> StagesThreeStages(3.0)	191 cases	

Skip overall dataset

Data Groups

This dialog shows the specified data groups (see available options in the SmartPLS data view after double-clicking on the used data set in the SmartPLS Project Explorer) and the sample size of each available data group. You can select each data group for additional group-specific computations. Besides the group-specific results, SmartPLS always computes the outcomes for the full data set - unless you check the box "Skip overall data set".

After Calculation: [Open Full Report](#) [Close](#) [Start Calculation](#)