EXAMINING THE ANTECEDENTS OF

BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS IN A TOURISM CONTEXT

A Dissertation

by

YU-CHIN HUANG

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2009

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

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ABSTRACT

Examining the Antecedents of Behavioral Intentions in a Tourism Context. (May 2009)

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Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. James F. Petrick

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of the structure and antecedents of travelers' behavioral intentions. Understanding travelers' behavioral intentions is an important goal of both destination marketing organizations and host destinations. However, little research has contributed to the theoretical development in this area, and the lack of a solid theoretical framework has negatively influenced the validity of existing research. Thus, this study attempted to explain travelers' behavioral intentions, using a model which was developed based on existing human behavior theories: the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior. Another major objective of the current study was to test the validity of the proposed model.

Based on the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior, a conceptual framework was established to explain travelers' behavior intention in a tourism context. Attitude was conceptualized as destination image which is a two-dimensional construct including cognitive and affective components. Subjective norms were conceptualized as the combination of normative beliefs and motivation to comply. Perceived behavioral control was conceptualized as constraints which is a three-dimensional construct including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural

components.

An online panel survey was launched in September 2008 to collect data.
Respondents were specially asked their perceived image about Texas, what were the
barriers preventing them from traveling to Texas, and how their reference groups affected
their travel decision to Texas. Totally, 1,448 completed surveys were received and
utilized for analysis which included both visitors and non-visitors.

The data analysis procedures included six major steps, from descriptive analysis and
preliminary data analysis, to model and hypothesis testing. To do so, the Statistical
Package for the Social Sciences 16.0 (SPSS) and Amos 16.0 were utilized.

The structural relationships between all variables were tested with using structural
equation modeling (SEM). Results of the study showed that destination image and
subjective norm positively impacted behavioral intentions while constraints negatively
affected behavioral intentions. Hence, this research provides important direction for the
development of a more comprehensive theoretical framework to explain travelers'
behavioral intentions, and presented a step toward offering practical as well as theoretical
implications for future research.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to

My mother, Fanni Juan

Mom, I will always love you and you are always in my mind

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are numerous people who have provided valuable guidance and support to this study. I would like to thank each of them.

I would like to thank my committee chair, Dr. Petrick who is the best advisor for any students who could possibly have. Dr. Petrick always encourages me and supports me over the years and he is acting like a teacher, a mentor, and a friend. I also would like to extend my appreciation to my committee members, Dr. Jamal, Dr. Kyle, Dr. Pride, Dr. Li, and Dr. Leigh, for their guidance and support throughout the course of this research.

Thanks also go to my friends and colleagues and the department faculty and staff for making my time at Texas A&M University a great experience. Finally, thanks to my mother and father for their encouragement and support and to my husband for his patience and love.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

Conceptual Background

The attitude-behavior relationship, which seeks to better understand what influences human actions has been a popular research topic in various fields (Magee, 2007). This research tests the relationships between attitudes toward behaviors and willingness to behave. Two major models that form the backbone of studies concerning attitude-behavior relationship in academia are Ajzen and Fishbein's theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and its expanded version, the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1988, 1991).

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) is derived from an expectancy-value model which is designed to predict and understand what causes people to behave in particular ways. The TRA is based on the assumption that human beings are rational and make systematic use of information available to them before they decide to engage, or not to engage, in a given behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), the TRA applies well to human behaviors where the behavior in question is under full volitional control of an individual.

According to the theory of planned behavior (TPB), human action is guided by three kinds of considerations: beliefs about the likely consequences of the behavior (behavioral beliefs), beliefs about the normative expectations of others (normative beliefs), and beliefs about the presence of factors that may further or hinder

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The citations in this dissertation follow the style and format of the *Journal of Travel Research*.

performance of the behavior (control beliefs) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2007). In their

respective aggregates, behavioral beliefs produce a favorable or unfavorable attitude

toward the behavior; normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure or

subjective norm; and control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioral control, the

perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2007).

Like attitudes, subjective norms and perceptions of behavioral control are assumed

to emerge spontaneously and automatically as people form normative and control

beliefs, respectively (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2007).

In combination, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perception

of behavioral control lead to the formation of a behavioral intention. As a general

rule, the more favorable the attitude and subjective norm, and the greater the

perceived control, the stronger the person's intention to perform the behavior in

question (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Finally, given a sufficient degree of actual

control over the behavior, people are expected to carry out their intentions when the

opportunity arises.

Intention is assumed to be the immediate antecedent of behavior, and to guide

behavior in a controlled and deliberate fashion. However, many behaviors pose

difficulties of execution that may limit volitional control. Thus, it is useful to

consider perceived behavioral control in addition to intention. To the extent that

people are realistic in their judgments of a behavior's difficulty, a measure of

perceived behavioral control can serve as a proxy of actual control and contribute to

the prediction of the behavior in question (Ajzen, 1985).

Both the TRA and the TPB allude to the same conclusion that attitude is the main predictor of behavior. Because the TPB is an extension of the TRA and has been argued to be superior to the TRA when the behavior examined is not under total volitional control, it is reasonable that the TPB could be used for the current study. However, it is also important to know why travelers choose not to travel to a particular destination. Situations may arise that may hamper the volitional control of an individual in given situations. In a tourism context, a traveler may want to visit a destination, yet is not able to due to various obstacles related to traveling. Therefore, including these obstacles in a study of choosing a destination to visit should assist in understanding the attitude/behavior link. In that regard, the theory of planned behavior (TPB) will be used to explain travelers' behavioral intentions under volitional as well as non-volitional conditions. Although the TPB has been used extensively in social psychological research to explain a variety of human behaviors, this conceptual model has received only limited attention in the tourism sector. The theoretical frameworks in its relation to destination image, interpersonal influence, and constraints will be discussed in Chapter II, while the proposed individual elements will be briefly addressed in the next section.

Justification of the theory of planned behavior was explained in the following. Tourism has been seen as a driving force for regional development, as it has been found that successful tourism can increase a destination's tourist receipts, income, employment and government revenues (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Unlike tangible products, tourists are not able to "test drive" a destination before making a choice

(Eby, Molnar, & Cai, 1999; Gartner, 1989). Therefore, the decision involves greater risk and extensive information search, and depends on tourists' mental construct of what a potential destination has to offer relative to their needs (Cai, 2002). As a result, destination image is a critical stimulus in motivating tourists, and is likely to be a critical element in the destination choice process, irrespective of whether or not the image is truly representative of what a place has to offer (Um & Crompton, 1990).

The concept of image has been of great interest not only to researchers and academicians, but also to industry practitioners and destination marketers (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). Baloglu and McCleary (1999b) claimed that travel and tourism research in the past two decades has demonstrated that destination image plays an integral role in the destination selection process and has contributed to the understanding of tourist behavior.

A destination can be viewed as a uniquely complex product of the tourism industry comprising various factors: an area's weather, infrastructure, services, facilities, activities, and natural and cultural attributes. Despite this complexity, it is nevertheless a product, and it has thus been argued that a destination also possesses an image (Hunt, 1975; Kim, 1998). For instance, according to Hunt (1975) all places have images: good, bad and indifferent, that must be identified and either changed or exploited.

Images are important due to their transposed representation of an area into the potential tourist's mind that offers them a pre-taste of the destination. Over the past

35 years, the recognized importance of image has led to it emergence as one of the most pervasive topics in tourism literature (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Cai, 2002; Crompton, 1979a; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1989, 1993a; Hunt, 1975; Teichmann-Kosuta, 1989). Although such studies have become a staple of the tourism research agenda, invariably a strong theoretical and conceptual framework has been argued to be lacking (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Therefore, one of the objectives of this study is to provide a conceptual framework explaining how destination image affects travelers' behavioral intentions.

A destination image may be referred to as the visual or mental impression of a place or a product experienced by the general public (Milman & Pizam, 1995). When initial credibility differs from the public's perception of a product, the perception of the image will likely determine that product's success or failure. Therefore, it is critical for any business, tourism or not, to sustain a positive impression to the public it tries to serve (Davidoff & Davidoff, 1994). Um and Crompton (1990) state that the image of a place as a pleasure travel destination is derived, to a greater or lesser extent, from attitudes towards the destination's perceived tourism attributes.

There is broad agreement among researchers regarding the influence of destination image on the behavior of individuals (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Mansfeld, 1992). The image of a destination consists of the subjective interpretation of reality made by visitors. Within this configuration intervene both cognitive and

affective factors (Moutinho, 1987). Similarly, buying behavior has also been suggested to have cognitive and evaluative components (Verhallen & Raaij Van, 1986). In social psychology, most of the early evidence for a link between attitude and behavior came from cross-sectional studies showing that people who behaved favorably with respect to some object or group also held favorable attitudes toward that object or group. Therefore, in order to examine human behavior, it has been argued that we need to study the attitude-behavior relationship and that attitude is a complex multidimensional construct containing cognitive, affective, and conative (or behavioral) components (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960).

Besides destination image, interpersonal influence and word-of-mouth (WOM) have been found to be the most important information sources when a consumer is making a purchase decision (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2007). These influences are especially important in the hospitality and tourism industry, whose intangible products are difficult to evaluate before their consumption. Hsu, Kang, and Lam (2006) asserted that others' influence is an important determinant of an individual's decision-making process. Consumers tend to accept information offered by their peer groups and conform to the group norm on the quality, style, and other product attributes, which are hard to evaluate objectively (Bayus, 1985). Thus, consumers appear to act in a manner that is consistent with the social group with which they identify (Leigh & Gabel, 1992).

Stafford and Cocanougher (1977) claimed that consumer behavior cannot be completely comprehended unless significant consideration is given to the effects of

interpersonal influence on the development of attitudes, norms, values, aspirations, and purchase behavior. Thus it is important to understand how a traveler's significant others influence their behavior in order to better understand consumer's decision making processes.

Besides destination image and interpersonal influence, constraints also play as an important element in traveler's behavior. Constraints have been defined as "factors that are assumed by researchers and perceived by individuals to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure" (Jackson, 1993, p. 273) and this concept has been widely examined in the leisure literature (Jackson & Scott, 1999).

Crawford and Godbey (1987) categorized constraints into intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. Intrapersonal constraints are internal to an individual and are related to psychological states and attributes, such as lack of skills, perceived health problems, and perceptions about the availability of opportunities to participate (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Interpersonal constraints are related to an individual's inability to find partners to participate with, whereas structural constraints are external to an individual and consist of factors associated with lack of resources, facilities, and financial problems (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). However, instead of reacting passively to constraints on their participation, people may negotiate through constraints and thus succeed in initiating or continuing their participation (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993).

Constraint negotiation strategies can be classified into three categories: finances, changing interpersonal relations, and time management (Loucks-Atkinson

& Mannell, 2007). Scott (2005) asserted that research on leisure constraints can help practitioners understand why certain population groups do not make greater use of leisure agencies offerings and provide direction on how to minimize the conditions that inhibit visitors' involvement.

However, as noted by Jackson and Scott (1999), there is little indication that practitioners are applying findings from constraints research to improve service delivery. Both practitioners and researchers could benefit from constraints studies if they were able to know what factors inhibit travelers' behavior. Um and Crompton (1992) inferred that the inclusion of perceived constraints such as time, money and travelability, that were specific to a tourist's decision-making context, could reduce the unexplained variance in models and increase the management value of research.

Purpose of the Study

This dissertation seeks to gain an understanding of the determinants of behavioral intentions. Specifically, the study will utilize the TPB as the theoretical framework to examine travelers' behavioral intentions while incorporating destination image, interpersonal influence, constraints, and constraint negotiation to examine how each of these four constructs affect travelers' behavioral intentions in a tourism context. Little research has contributed to the theoretical developments in the area of travelers' behavioral intentions, and the lack of a strong theoretical framework may negatively influence the validity of research in this area. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of how destination image, interpersonal influence, constraints, and constraint negotiation affect travelers'

behavioral intentions in a tourism context through the application of the theory of

planned behavior. The specific objectives for this study include:

- Examining if the concepts of destination image, and constraints can replace

  attitude   and perceived behavioral control in the theory of planned behavior,

- Examining the causal relationships between destination image, subjective

  norms, constraints, constraint negotiation and behavioral intentions,

- Finding out the extent to which each predictor variable influences travelers'

  behavioral intentions, and

- Comparing the predictability of travelers' behavioral intentions between the

  proposed model and the theory of planned behavior.

  It is anticipated that the theoretical discussion of this dissertation may provide

some preliminary insight on factors which influence travelers' behavioral intention

in a tourism context. The model which will be proposed is visually presented in

Figure 1. The specific hypotheses related to the model are stated in Chapter IV.

FIGURE 1

THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE STRUCTURE AND
ANTECEDENTS OF TRAVELERS' BEHAVIORAL INTENTION
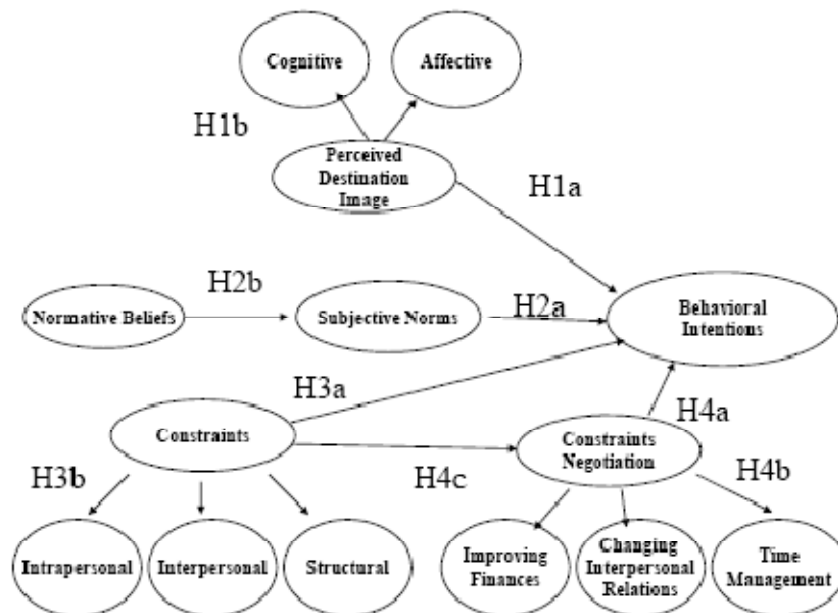
Limitations

Like any other study, this study is not free from limitations. The proposed

model in the current study was tested with the data from an online panel survey.

Therefore, participants could only be people who had signed up with the online

panel company and had computer skills and internet access. Thus, the research

results cannot be generalized to the entire U.S. population. Another disadvantage of

using an online panel is that the online panel company selected the sample and

contacted the panel members. Even though the panel company reported the data

collection process, the credibility of information was primarily based on the trust

relationship between researchers and the company.

Delimitations

The study also had the following delimitations:

- The current study only included U.S. citizens who had signed up for the online panel being used.

- The study did not examine the influence of demographic (e.g., age, gender, income, and employment) and situational (e.g., seasonality, travel distance, and travel duration) variables on the study results.

- Texas residents were not included in the study.

Operational Definitions

Destination: A unique and complex product of the tourism industry comprised of various factors such as climate, infrastructure, services, and natural and cultural attributes (Kim, 1998, p. 340).

Destination Image: The visitor's subjective perception of a destination's reality (Chen & Tsai, 2007, p. 1116).

Behavioral Intentions: The visitor's judgment about the likeliness to visit the destination (Chen & Tsai, 2007, p. 1116).

Cognitive Image: An individual's knowledge and beliefs about a destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

Affective Image: An individual's feelings toward a destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

Attitude: "Predispositions to respond in a particular way toward a specific class of objects" (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960, p. 1).

Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC): An individual's control beliefs weighted by the perceived facilitation of the control factor in either inhibiting or facilitating the behavior (Taylor & Todd, 1995).

Subjective Norms: A person's perception related to how people who are important to him/her think he/she should or should not perform a behavior in question (Chang, 1998).

Constraints: "Factors that are assumed by researchers and perceived by individuals to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure" (Jackson, 1993, p. 273).

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA): An expectancy-value model to predict and understand an individual's behavior. The theory assumes that human beings are rational and motivation-based and a person's behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and that intention is a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norm (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB): An extension of the TRA which also takes into account non-volitional control over the behavior (Ajzen, 1985).

Organization of the Dissertation

Overall, this dissertation is guided and organized by three research questions: What is a traveler's behavioral intention, what are the determinants of behavioral intentions, and how each of the determinants affects travelers' behavioral intentions. Chapter I has presented an introduction to this study. Also, briefly described is the conceptualization of the theory of planned behavior and what components comprise

the theory of planned behavior. This will be used as the guiding theoretical framework of this study. In addition, the purpose, objectives, and definitions of key terms have been presented.

Chapter II is a review of related literature. The traditional view and recent developments related to the construct of the theory of planned behavior will be explored. Antecedents (destination image, subjective norm, constraints, and constraint negotiation) to behavioral intentions, suggested by marketing and leisure/tourism literature will also be synthesized.

Chapter III will discuss the theoretical underpinnings of the structure and determinants of behavioral intentions, and the application of the theory of planned behavior. Further, the linkages between these variables will be discussed.

Chapter IV will discuss the methodology employed for the current study and will present the methods utilized to investigate the problem. Chapter V will report the descriptive results of the research, while Chapter VI will focus on model and hypothesis testing. Finally, Chapter VII concludes the study by summarizing the findings, discussing the implications, and suggesting areas for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review focuses on three guiding questions: 1) What are

behavioral intentions, 2) What determines behavioral intentions and 3) How each of

the determinants of behavioral intentions (destination image, subjective norm,

constraints, and constraint negotiation) can be adjusted within a tourism context to

fit into the proposed model based on the theory of planned behavior.

Accordingly, the first part commences by discussing the traditional

understanding of the theory of planned behavior. Included are reviews of

developments related to both conceptualization and measurement issues. The second

part focuses on the antecedents of behavioral intentions suggested by the

marketing/consumer behavior literature and the tourism and leisure literatures.

Previously used measures of these antecedents are also reviewed. The purpose of

this literature review is three-fold: 1) to review various perspectives that have been

proposed in the conceptualization of the theory of planned behavior; 2) to

understand determinants of behavioral intentions which have been defined in the

theory of planned behavior; and 3) to adjust the theory of planned behavior in an

attempt to better explain travelers' behavioral intentions in a tourism context.

Conceptualization of the Theory of Planned Behavior

The TPB will be adopted in the current study to predict and explain the

psychological processes of travelers' behavioral intentions. The TPB postulates a set

of relationships among attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavior control, and

behavioral intentions. In the context of tourism, attitudes are predispositions or feelings toward a holiday destination or service, based on multiple perceived product attributes (Moutinho, 1987) and this predisposition can be favorable or unfavorable. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), an attitude is the function of behavioral beliefs and evaluation of outcomes. Behavioral beliefs are one's belief in performing a specific behavior that will lead to a specific consequence, and evaluation of outcome is one's assessment of that specific consequence. Attitude can be estimated by multiplying an individual's behavioral belief of each salient attribute associated with that behavior by his/her evaluation of the corresponding outcome of each salient attribute, and then summing the products for the total set of beliefs (Ajzen, 1991).

People turn to particular groups for their standards of judgments. Any person or group serving as a reference group could exert influence on an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and choices (Moutinho, 1987) because an individual may conform to his/her referent groups. This conformation is called subjective norm, and includes concepts or generalizations which guide behaviors. Subjective norms are determined both by an individual's normative beliefs about what others who are most important to him/her think he/she should do and the extent of motivation to which the individual wants to comply with what his/her referents think (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Subjective norms are social in nature in that the consideration of whether one should perform an act is based on the opinions of the people important to them and on the perceived social pressure to behave in a particular way (Lam & Hsu, 2006).

Perceived behavioral control is how easy or difficult an individual thinks it is to perform a behavior. The proposed relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intentions/actual behavior is based on two assumptions. First, it is assumed that an increase in perceived behavioral control will result in an increase in behavioral intentions and the likelihood of performing a behavior. Second, that perceived behavioral control directly affects the extent that perceived control reflects actual behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

Behavioral intentions can be defined as an individual's anticipated or planned future behavior (Swan, 1981). It represents an individual's expectancies about a particular behavior in a given setting and can be operationalized as the likelihood to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), if the intention is measured correctly, it should provide the best predictor of behavior. In the current study, behavioral intentions were defined as a potential traveler's anticipation of a future trip to the destination (Chen & Tsai, 2007).

Belief Constructs and Predictor Variables

Due to its goal of explaining human behavior, not just predicting it, the theory of planned behavior utilizes the antecedents of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, to assist in the understanding of intentions and actions. Miller (1956) asserted that people can hold many beliefs about any given behavior, but they can attend to only a relatively small number of them at any given moment. It is these salient beliefs that are considered to be the leading determinants of a person's intentions and actions. There are three kinds of salient beliefs that reside in

the theory of planned behavior and each of them is individually distinguished as behavioral beliefs which are assumed to affect attitude toward the behavior, normative beliefs which constitute the underlying determinants of subjective norms, and control beliefs which provide the basis for perception of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991).

Behavioral Beliefs and Attitude toward Behaviors

One of the major components in the theory of planned behavior is attitude. Attitude can be defined as "predispositions to respond in a particular way toward a specific class of objects" (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960, p. 1). Being predispositions they are not directly observable or measurable, instead, they are inferred from the way we react to particular stimuli (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). When attitudes are studied, what are observed are the evoking stimuli on the one hand and the various types of responses on the other. The types of responses that are commonly used as "indices" of attitudes fall in the categories of: cognitive, affective, and conative. This is similar to how destination image is often operationalized (Pike & Ryan, 2004; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960).

Ajzen (1991) asserted that most contemporary social psychologists take a cognitive or information-processing approach to attitude formation.This approach is exemplified by Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) expectancy-value model of attitudes. Based on this model, attitudes develop from the beliefs people hold about the object of an attitude. People form beliefs about an object by relating it to certain attributes, such as with other objects, characteristics, or events. In the case of attitudes toward a

behavior, each belief links the behavior to certain outcomes, or to some other attributes such as the cost incurred to execute the act. Because the attributes linked to the act are already valued (positively or negatively), people automatically and simultaneously acquire an attitude toward the act (Ajzen, 1991). People thus learn to favor behaviors that they believe have desirable consequences and form unfavorable attitudes toward behaviors associated with undesirable consequences (Ajzen, 1991). More specifically, the outcome's subjective value contributes to the attitude in direct proportion to the strength of the beliefs (Ajzen, 1991).

An attitude's informational foundation can be explored by eliciting salient beliefs about the attitude object and assessing the subjective probabilities and values associated with various beliefs. A great number of studies have examined the general expectancy-value model of attitudes as well as its application to behavior. A global measure of attitude is usually obtained by means of an evaluative semantic differential scale, and this measure is then correlated with an estimate of the same attitude based on salient beliefs (Ajzen, 1991). The results have generally supported the hypothesized relationship between salient beliefs and attitudes (Ajzen, 1991), although the magnitude of this relationship has sometimes been weak (Ajzen, 1991). One factor which could be responsible for relatively low correlations between salient beliefs and attitudes is the possibility that the expectancy-value model is an inadequate description of the way attitudes are formed and structured.

A methodological issue of considerable importance that has not received enough attention has to do with the scaling of belief and evaluation items (Ajzen,

1991). In most applications of the theory of planned behavior, belief strength has been assessed by means of a 7-point graphic scale such as likely-unlikely and evaluation by means of a single dimension 7-point evaluative scale such as good-bad (Ajzen, 1991).

Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) argued that for certain types of research it may be sufficient to use a single response as the index of an individual's attitude. Thus when attitudes are studied, what are observed are the evoking stimuli on the one hand and the various types of responses on the other. The types of responses that are commonly used as indices of attitudes fall into three major categories: cognitive, affective, and behavioral and it has been suggested that it is better to measure attitudes with the use of multiple-dimensions (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960).

Normative Beliefs and Subjective Norms

Normative beliefs are concerned with the likelihood that important referent individuals or groups approve or disapprove of performing a given behavior. It has been argued that the strength of each normative belief multiplied by the person's motivation to comply with both the referent in question and the subjective norm is directly proportional to the sum of the resulting products across the salient referents (Ajzen, 1991).

Subjective norms are defined as a person's perceptions of how people who are important to the person think he/she should or should not perform a behavior in question (Chang, 1998). Based on the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior, subjective norms are a function of a set of beliefs termed as

normative beliefs. Normative beliefs have two components: (1) perception of specific referents' opinions on whether an individual should or should not perform a behavior, or normative beliefs (NB), and (2) motivation to comply with the wishes of the specific referents, or motivation to comply (MC). These two components have previously been multiplicatively combined (Ajzen, 1991). Normative beliefs are concerned with the likelihood that important referent individuals, such as a spouse, parents, or colleagues, would approve or disapprove of the behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) explain that to obtain an estimate of a subjective norm, each normative belief (nb_i) of an individual is first multiplied by his/her motivation to comply with the referent (mc_i). Then, the cross products are summed for all salient referents. A subjective norm can thus be illustrated as:

Subjective Norm (SN) = $\sum_{i}^{n} nbi\ mci$

In the context of travelers' behavioral intention, if a traveler believes that most referents such as his/her parents, friends, neighbors, and colleagues think he/she should travel, the perceived social pressure to execute the travel behavior will increase with his/her motivation to comply (Hsu et al., 2006). Conversely, if he/she believes that most referents are opposed to his/her travel intention, his/her perception of social pressure not to execute the travel behavior will increase with his/her motivation to comply (Hsu et al., 2006). Lam and Hsu (2004) tested the fit of the theory of planned behavior with potential travelers from Mainland China to Hong Kong, using three-items with 7-point Likert-type scales to examine respondents' Normative Beliefs. Three questions were asked to evaluate subjective

norms: "most people I know would choose Hong Kong as a travel destination" with 7=strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree; "People who are important to me would think I should/should not visit Hong Kong", with 7=should and 1=should not; and "People who are important to me would approve/disapprove of my visit to Hong Kong", with 7=approve and 1=disapprove.

Lam and Hsu (2006) used a similar scale to measure subjective norms, when they attempted to test the applicability of the theory of planned behavior using its core constructs (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control), with the addition of past behavior on potential Taiwanese travelers' behavioral intention of choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination. A global measure of subjective norms was obtained by asking respondents to rate the extent to which "important others" would approve or disapprove of their performing a given behavior.

Control Beliefs and Perceived Behavioral Control

Among the beliefs that ultimately determine intention and action is a set that deals with the presence or absence of requisite resources and opportunities based on the theory of planned behavior. These control beliefs may be based in part on past experiences with the behavior, but they will frequently be influenced by second-hand information about the behavior, by the experiences of acquaintances and friends, and by other factors that increase or reduce the perceived difficulty of performing the behavior in question (Ajzen, 1991). The more resources and opportunities individuals believe they possess, and the fewer obstacles or impediments they anticipate, the greater should be their perceived control over the

behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

To measure PBC, each control belief is usually multiplied by the perceived power of the particular control factor to facilitate or inhibit performance of the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The end products are then summed across the salient control beliefs to produce the perception of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, just as beliefs concerning consequences of a behavior are viewed as determining attitudes toward the behavior, and normative beliefs are viewed as determining subjective norms, beliefs about resources and opportunities are viewed as underlying perceived behavioral control, people have to believe they possess the necessary resources or opportunities to perform the desired behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Attitude toward Behavioral Intentions

Attitude toward a behavior refers to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the behavior in question. Based on the theory of planned behavior, attitude is postulated to be the first and most important antecedent of behavioral intentions. Attitude is an individual's positive or negative belief about executing a specific act. Once an attitude is formed about an action or event, the attitude leads to the formation of behavioral intentions with respect to that action (Ajzen, 1991). An individual will intend to perform a certain behavior when he or she evaluates it positively. Hence, both the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior assume that attitudes have a direct influence on behavioral intentions.

Subjective Norms toward Behavioral Intentions

A subjective norm refers to perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform a behavior. According to the theory of planned behavior, subjective norms are assumed to be a function of beliefs that specific individuals approve or disapprove of performing the behavior. It is assumed that an individual will intend to perform a certain behavior when he/she perceives that important individuals think he/she should (Ajzen, 1991).

Most of the time, other's influence is an important determinant of an individual's decision-making process (Hsu et al., 2006). Thus, the normative pressure from colleagues, friends, or family is expected to have some impacts on travelers' behavioral intentions. The direct link between subjective norms and behavioral intentions can be described as compliance because an individual accepts influence in order to receive favorable feedback from another person or group (Lee, 2005). For example, if friends think very highly of a traveler's intention to travel to a destination, this may encourage the traveler to actually travel there. Similarly, family members can also have an impact on a traveler's intention to travel to a destination for if a traveler wants to travel to a place and has family obligations, the family must be supportive of his/her traveling behavior or else it will be difficult to execute the travel behavior.

Perceived Behavioral Control toward Behavioral Intentions

Perceived behavioral control is defined as the extent to which a person believes that he/she has control over personal or external factors that may facilitate or

constrain behavior (Ajzen, 1991). If the behavior is not under complete volitional

control, the individual has to have the necessary resources and opportunities to

perform the behavior. The more resources and opportunities an individual thinks

he/she possesses, the greater their perceived behavior control should be over the

behavior. Ajzen (1991) asserted that people are not likely to form a strong intention

to perform a behavior if they believe that they do not have enough resources or

opportunities to do so even if they hold positive attitudes toward the behavior and

believe that important others would approve of the behavior. Hence, it is assumed

that perceived behavioral control is positively and directly related to behavioral

intention. This proposition has been successfully evidenced in many empirical

studies investigating various human behaviors with the TPB (Bamberg, Ajzen, &

Schmidt, 2003; Conner, Martin, Silverdale, & Grogan, 1996; Hagger, Chatzisarantis,

& Biddle, 2002; Hrubes, Ajzen, & Daigle, 2001; Jimmieson, Peach, & White, 2008;

Lam & Hsu, 2006; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Sparks, 2007).

Measuring Behavior

Behavior is a complex construct which can be defined by action, target, context

and time (Fishbein, 1997). Variations in any one of these four elements changes the

definition of the behavior being considered. The intention, however, must

correspond to the behavior in question in terms of all four elements. Fishbein (1997,

p. 80) gave an example to explain the necessity to have these four elements in place

in order to correctly measure behavioral intentions " if, for example, one is

interested in consumer behavior, one does not simply observe buying (the action).

Instead, all one can directly observe is someone buying (the action) a given product (the target), in a given location (the context) at a given point in time." Although intentions to perform a given behavior are quite accurate predictors of whether or not the behavior will be performed, the lack of necessary skills and abilities or the presence of environmental constraints may prevent someone from carrying out his/her intentions. Changing any one of the four elements can increase or decrease the relevance of a given referent and can lead to very different outcomes (Fishbein, 1997).

In the theory of planned behavior, intentions are viewed as behavioral plans that, in conjunction with appropriate opportunities and resources, enable attainment of a behavioral goal (Ajzen, 1996). However, intentions do not always lead to successful enactment of a behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Bagozzi (1992) argued that the variables outlined in models such as the theory of planned behavior were necessary, but not sufficient determinants of behavior. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) also criticized the theory of planned behavior for not clarifying the exact nature of the relationships between intention and behavior since intention is considered as a motivational process and behavior is considered as a volitional process.

However, it has become common to distinguish making a decision (forming an intention) from implementing it (Ajzen, 1996). While several researchers (Bagozzi, 1992; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) have debated the appropriateness of intentions for predicting behaviors, most still agree that intention can be the most effective and

immediate predictor of behavior, when action, target, context and time are specified (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Fishbein, 1997; Shimp & Kavas, 1984).

Recreation and Tourism Research on the Theory of Planned Behavior

Sparks (2007) used a large cross-sectional survey in Australia to investigate potential wine tourists' intentions to take a wine-based vacation. Based on the theory of planned behavior, three wine tourism attitudinal dimensions were identified and confirmed to predict tourists' intentions. The results revealed that perceived behavioral control and past attitude predicted intentions to take a vacation to a wine region. Wine/ food involvement, normative influences and three wine expectancy-value (attitudinal) dimensions also contributed to intentions to take a vacation to a wine region.

Hrubes, Ajzen, and Daigle (2001) used a mail survey of outdoor recreationists and adopted the theory of planned behavior to predict and explain hunting behavior. The results revealed that intentions were closely related to reported hunting behavior. Further, similar to Sparks' (2007), attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control all made significant contributions to the prediction of hunting intention. In accordance with the TPB, attitudes toward hunting, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioral control were significant determinants of intentions, and intentions correlated strongly with self-reported behavior (Hrubes et al., 2001).

Lam and Hsu (2006) attempted to test the applicability of the theory of planned behavior model using its core constructs (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control), with the addition of past behavior, on the behavioral intentions

of choosing a travel destination. The study sampled 299 potential Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong. The data fit the theory of planned behavior model moderately well. Attitude, perceived behavioral control, and past behavior were found to be related to intentions.

The above results were similar to Lam and Hsu (2004), who applied the theory of planned behavior to examine the travel intention among potential travelers from mainland China to Hong Kong. Results of both of these studies demonstrated the utility of the theory of planned behavior as a conceptual framework for predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination among Taiwanese potential visitors to Hong Kong and mainland Chinese travelers to Hong Kong. Lam and Hsu (2004, 2006) further claimed that the TPB has been used to examine a wide variety of behaviors and the efficacy of the model has been validated in predicting a wide range of intentions and behaviors in the disciplines of marketing and social psychology, but their theoretical models did not receive complete support in the context of travel intention. Therefore, they suggested future research should be conducted to further examine this theoretical assumption in the field of tourism.

Lee, Qu, and Kim (2007) examined how online traveler's decision-making may vary according to the traveler's level of innovativeness by utilizing the theory of reasoned action as a theoretical background. Their results indicated that highly innovative travelers are mainly influenced by their positive attitudes; while less innovative travelers relied on both attitude and the referral's opinions to reduce uncertainty inherent in online transactions.

Lee (2005) attempted to explain association members' meeting participation behaviors using a mode based on the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior. The results revealed that the theory of planned behavior successfully provided a theoretical base for understanding association members' meeting participation behaviors. Lee added two additional variables (destination image and past experience) to the original latent constructs conceptualized in pure TRA/TPB models to better understand association members' meeting participation behaviors. The results revealed that destination image and past behavior were significantly related to behavioral intention. Results further showed that destination image is positively associated with behavioral intention, and, including destination image in the TPB slightly improved its explanatory power for predicting behavioral intention.

Justification of the Theory of Planned Behavior

Destination Image as Attitude toward Destination

Wicker (1969) asserted that the most popular conceptions of attitude incorporated the ancient trilogy of thinking, feeling, and doing. In contemporary language, attitude has been defined as a complex, multidimensional construct comprised of cognitive, affective, and conative components (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). From this perspective it has been argued that a single evaluative score which only assesses the affective component cannot adequately represent the complexity of the attitude construct and that attitude should thus be measured via multi-dimensional constructs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

Most attitude measurement techniques have only used one single score to represent respondents' overall positive or negative reaction to the attitude object (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). Bentler and Speckart (1979) and Shimp and Kavas (1984) asserted that attitude only be measured from an affective-based attitude in the theory of reasoned action and in the theory of planned behavior is not sufficient. They further suggested that attitude should be separated into cognitive and affective components. Pike (2008) also proposed that measurement of tourist attitudes should comprise cognitive, affective, and conative components. He explained that cognition is the sum of what is known or believed about a destination and the knowledge of the destination could or could not be derived from a previous visit, and denotes awareness. Conversely, affect represents an individual's feelings about an object, which may be favorable, unfavorable, or neutral (Fishbein, 1967), while the conative component of attitude is similar to behavior since it is the intent or action. Intent refers to the likelihood of purchase or the likelihood of visiting a destination within a given time frame (Pike, 2008). Similarly, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) suggested that preferences in the tourism destination decision process are based on a combination of cognitive and affective associations.

A majority of theory of planned behavior studies have measured attitude using only an affective component. Following the previous suggestions (Pike, 2008; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), the current study will utilize the destination image concept from the field of tourism to hopefully better measure attitude by including the cognitive component. The conative component of attitude will also be measured

as behavioral intention. Since Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) recommended that attitude should be measured with multi-dimensional constructs and Pike (2008) asserted attitude should comprise cognitive, affective, and conative components, it is believed destination image might comprise a better measure of attitude for predicting behavioral intentions.

Subjective norms with interpersonal influences should be added into the theory of planned behavior. Armitage and Conner (2001) did a meta-analysis of the theory of planned behavior utilizing 185 independent studies published through 1992. Their results revealed that the subjective norm construct is generally found to be a weak predictor of intentions. Armitage and Conner (2001) and Shimp and Kavas (1984) pointed to measurement as its principle weakness, as the majority of TPB studies have used single-item measures. Armitage and Conner (2001) also claimed that a number of authors have argued that the way in which norms are conceptualized within the TRA/TPB frameworks fails to tap important facets of social influence. Additionally, Trafimow and Finlay (1996) have suggested that the weakness in the subjective norm component is derived from a minority of individuals whose actions are driven primarily by perceived social pressure. Shimp and Kavas (1984) suggested referent groups should be separated into multiple constructs. They categorized referent groups into spouse, family other than spouse, and friends/neighbors yet only found spouse to be a strong determinant of subjective norms.

Ajzen (1991) argued that subjective norms are operationalized as a global

perception of social pressure either to comply with the wishes of others or not, but that social pressure is rarely direct or explicit. This has led a number of researchers to suggest alternative conceptualizations (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Conner & Armitage, 1998). Therefore, the current study will attempt to develop a multi-item scale to measure subjective norms, based on the interpersonal influence literature from the tourism field.

Substitute Perceived Behavioral Control with Constraints

It has already been noted that the difference between the TRA and TPB lies in the control component of the TPB. Ajzen (1991) argued that the PBC and self-efficacy constructs are interchangeable. The dual focus of Ajzen's notion of perceived behavioral control is evident in the measures used to assess this variable (Terry & O'Leary, 1995). Typically, items assess subjects' perception of how much control they have over whether they perform the behavior (measure of perceived control), as well as their assessments of how easy or difficult it will be for them to do so (efficacy expectancies) (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). However, several authors (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Terry & O'Leary, 1995) have suggested that self-efficacy and PBC are not completely synonymous.

Bandura (1992) has argued that control and self-efficacy are different concepts, with self-efficacy being more concerned with cognitive perceptions of control based on internal control components, whereas PBC reflects more general and external components. Different from self-efficacy, perceived behavioral control reflects the extent to which subjects perceive that external factors will intervene with

performance of the behavior. It can be argued that this type of judgment is the essence of the notion of perceived behavioral control. In contrast to external constraints on behavior, most internal control factors (as reflected in efficacy expectancies) are potentially under personal control (Terry & O'Leary, 1995). Furthermore, people typically have some insights into their personal limitations. Internal constraints are likely to affect a person's willingness to be involved in a particular course of action, rather than intervening in the intention-behavior relationship, which is a crucial link in the model that is proposed to be influenced by levels of behavioral control (Ajzen, 1988).

Sparks (2007) suggested that the extant literature on leisure constraints offers a promising foundation for the investigation of the important area of control and constraints could be a better predictor than perceived behavioral control for travelers' behavioral intention in a tourism context. Leisure constraint research (Crawford & Godbey, 1987) has suggested that constraints can be categorized as structural barriers (such as family life-cycle, season, work schedule, or financial resources), intrapersonal barriers (such as stress, religiosity, reference group attitudes or subjective evaluation of the appropriateness of an activity), and interpersonal barriers (such as resulting from the interaction with significant others such as a spouse). Sparks (2007) further argued that the TPB tended to focus on the structural (external) category of constraints, however, it is quite plausible that both intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints could intervene to influence behavioral intentions. Therefore, the current study will use leisure constraints rather than

perceived behavioral control to predict travelers' behavioral intentions.

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) claimed the use of negotiation strategies would be triggered when people encountered constraints. The negotiation strategies further reduce or mitigate the negative effects of constraints on participation. Crawford et al. (1991) also argued that "leisure participation is heavily dependent on negotiation through an alignment of multiple factors, arranged sequentially, that must be overcome to maintain an individual's impetus through these systemic levels" (p. 314).

As previously mentioned, attitude (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005), subjective norm (Armitage & Conner, 2001), and perceived behavioral control (Sparks, 2007) each have been argued to have measurement flaws. Hence, the current study proposes a new way to measure the constructs inherent in the theory of planned behavior to predict travelers' behavioral intentions in a tourism context. As suggested by Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) and Pike and Ryan (2004a) attitude will be measured by using destination image constructs with two-dimensions (cognitive and affective), instead of using just the affective component as suggested in the TPB. As suggested by Armitage and Conner (2001) subjective norm will be measured with multiple items instead of a select few. These items will be derived from the interpersonal influence literature in the field of tourism. Further, as suggested by Terry and O'Leary (1995) perceived behavioral control will be substituted with constraints derived from the leisure constraint literature. It is believed that constraints will be a better predictor of travelers' behavioral intentions due to its

more comprehensive inclusion of barriers (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) which may interfere with the intention-behavior relationship. It is further postulated that constraint negotiation will affect behavioral intentions directly and or act as a mediator between constraint and behavioral intentions. Each of the variables in the new proposed model will be explained individually in the following section.

Destination Image

Academic interest in several fields and disciplines regarding the concept of image have been pervasive since the early works of Boulding (1956) and Martineau (1958) who proposed that human behavior is dependent upon image rather than objective reality. The topic has hence become one of the most popular in the tourism literature (Pike, 2002). These early works and the subsequent adoption of the concept of image have led to "image theory" which suggests that the world is a psychological or distorted representation of objective reality residing and existing in the mind of the individual (Myers, 1968).

Definition of Destination Image

Destination image can be explained as an overall impression with some emotional content (Dichter, 1985; Oxenfeldt, 1974); or as an expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations, and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific object or place (Lawson & Baud-Bovy, 1977). Dobni and Zinkhan (1990) concluded that image is a perceptual phenomenon that is formed through consumers' reasoned and emotional interpretation and has both cognitive (beliefs) and affective (feelings) components. As aforementioned,

destination image can be defined in multiple ways, and Appendix A provides some of the most accepted definitions of destination image.

Destination Image Components

Destination images are formed by at least three distinctly different, but hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and conative (Gartner, 1993a). The interrelationships between these components determine product predisposition. The next section provides a brief overview of each of the three image components. Each component will be discussed in terms of its conceptual development and measurement.

Definition of Cognitive Image

Cognitive image is defined by Scott (1965) as an evaluation of the known attributes of a product or the understanding of a product in an intellectual way. Boulding (1956) stated that cognitive image is derived from facts. Similarly, cognitive image may also be viewed as the sum of beliefs and attitudes of an object leading to some internally accepted picture of its attributes. Thus, the amount of external stimuli received from an object is instrumental in forming a cognitive image (Gartner, 1993b).

Measurement of Cognitive Image

Fishbein (1967) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argued the importance of differentiating between an individual's beliefs and attitudes. While beliefs represent information held about an object, attitude is a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of an object. Fishbein (1967) proposed that attitude consists of cognitive, affective, and

conative elements. He further defined cognition as the sum of what is known about a destination, which may be organic or induced. Put in other words, this is awareness, knowledge, or beliefs, which may or may not have derived from a previous visit. After all, destination images can only exist if there is at least a small amount of knowledge of the destination (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Most destination image studies have analyzed cognitive perceptions emphasizing tangible (physical) attributes. Appendix B presents a list of sample questions and destination attributes that have been used in cognitive image measurement.

The range of cognitive attributes deemed important for tourism destinations has varied because they represent what a destination can offer to tourists or what attributes tourists believe a destination possesses (Kim, 1998). Focus groups can be used to generate cognitive destination attributes, along with literature reviews and interviews with travel agents, and promotional materials (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martin, 2004). An initial list of attributes can then be compiled and pre-tested with a convenience sample and followed with factor analysis to reduce the list of attributes. This method has been used by Driscoll, Lawson, and Niven (1994) to produce 18 cognitive destination attributes. Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) utilized this method to produce 14 destination attributes and categorized the remaining attributes into 3 factor groups: "Quality of experience", "Attractions", and "Value/ environment".

Definition of Affective Image

The affective component of image is related to the motives one has for

destination selection. Motives indicate what travelers wish to obtain from the destination being considered, thus affecting destination valuation. Affect represents an individual's feelings toward an object, which may be favorable, unfavorable, or neutral (Fishbein, 1967). Since affective images are concerned with how individuals feel about various places (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993), people with different motives may feel about or value a destination similarly if they perceive that the destination provides the benefits they seek.

Affective image also plays a significant role in person-environment interactions and spatial behavior models. Russel and Snodgress (1987) examined and conceptualized emotional disposition, mood, and affective appraisal of environments via a person-environment interaction framework comprising four stages: 1) before entering an environment or anticipation; 2) travel to the environment; 3) activities in the environment and; 4) the after effect. Their findings revealed that people develop affective appraisals or an affective quality of a place before entering the environment, in the environment, and after leaving the environment. They further indicated that behavior may be influenced by the estimated, perceived, or remembered affective quality of an environment rather than by its objective properties directly.

Gartner (1993b) claimed that affect is most likely to become operational during the evaluation stage of the destination selection process. This evaluative image component has been suggested to be largely overlooked in tourism studies (Walmsley & Young, 1998). Not until recently have destination researchers studied

both cognitive and affective images of a destination together . Pike's (2002) review

of 142 destination image papers published between 1973-2000 found that only 6 had

an explicit interest in affective images. After 2000, Pike and Ryan (2004) published

an article specifically discussing the issue of affective image, and found only 3 other

articles which included affective image in their studies. However, in the field of

social psychology and psychology, the affective component has been a major

portion of the attitude construct to predict behavioral intentions (Bamberg et al.,

2003; Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Shimp & Kavas, 1984).

Measurement of Affective Image

Russel, Ward, and Pratt (1981) proposed a structure that could represent a wide

variety of affective responses to the physical environment, and argued that the

affective component of image should be separated from the perceptual or cognitive

component to better understand how people assess environments or places. They

used factor analysis to examine 105 common adjectives to describe places. Their

results indicated that only 8 adjective dimensions of affective image were included

in the development of an affective response grid and these 8 adjective dimensions

included arousing, exciting, pleasant, relaxing, sleepy, gloomy, unpleasant, and

distressing.

Affective evaluations of destinations have also been measured by using four

bipolar affective image items on a 7-point scale (Baloglu & Bringerg, 1997; Baloglu

& Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a). These studies have

demonstrated how the affective response grid could be applied to images of

destinations. The four scales (unpleasant/pleasant, sleepy/arousing, distressing/relating, and gloomy/exciting) are similar to the attitude scales in the theory of planned behavior. The authors (Pike & Ryan, 2004; Russel et al., 1981) have demonstrated that although the eight unipolar scales represent four bipolar dimensions, only two of the scales (pleasant-unpleasant and arousing-sleepy) were theoretically needed to adequately represent affective images. A common agreement across multiple-disciplines and fields is that affective evaluation depends on cognitive evaluation of the objects, and that affective responses are formed as a function of the cognitive responses (Anand, Holbrook, & Stephens, 1988; Holbrook, 1978; Russel & Pratt, 1980; Stern & Krakover, 1993). Research suggests that cognitive and affective images are interrelated though a distinction is generally made between the two dimensions. Unfortunately, theoretical and empirical research on the influence of affective factors on destination image has been limited and more research is needed to investigate the links between cognitive and affective responses (Martin & Bosque, 2007).

Definition of Conative Image

Conative image is analogous to behavior as it is the action component of image. After all internal and external information is processed a decision is generally reached. As Gartner (1993a) suggested, after one evaluates cognitive and affective images, one destination from the decision set is selected, resulting in conation (i.e. behavioral intention). Thus, conative image can be considered a behavioral intent with intent referring to the likelihood of purchase behavior (Howard & Sheth, 1969).

Conation may also be considered as the likelihood of visiting a destination within a certain time period (Pike & Ryan, 2004a). Pike and Ryan (2004) further indicated that how the cognition/affect/conation relationships apply to the decision making process is a continuous process.

<u>Overall Attitude</u>

Gartner (1986) stated that people's perceptions of various attributes within a destination will interact to form a composite or overall image. Further, Ahmed (1991) noted that an important issue in destination image is to delineate the relationship between overall image and other components and the overall notion may be favorable or unfavorable. Keown, Jacobs and Worthley (1984) studied American tourists' perceptions of retail stores in twelve selected countries by examining the relationship among six perceptual/cognitive attributes and overall image. The authors concluded that overall impression is dependent upon individual attributes, and that beliefs and feelings together influence overall attitude or image. The causal linkages suggest that beliefs influence overall or composite attitude directly as well as indirectly through affect.

Moreover, Stern and Krakover (1993), in their model of the formation of a composite urban image, depicted that both perceptual/cognitive and affective images together form a composite or overall image of a city, which confirmed Keown et al.'s (1984) results. Their results offered support for the intervening role of affect between perceptual/cognitive evaluation and overall image, as well as the interactive effects of the two components in forming overall image. Mazursky and Jacoby

(1986) also supported Stern and Krakover's (1993) point of view as their model of store image formation revealed that after consumers evaluate and integrate perceptions of store attributes, they ultimately form an overall image which is the end-product of this formation process.

General Destination Image Studies & Measurements

Several researchers have proposed a number of scales to determine the different attributes relevant to measuring perceived image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1989; Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Goodrich, 1978a; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Hunt, 1975; Phelps, 1986; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). An analysis of the major scales reveals a lack of homogeneity with respect to the attributes which define an individual's perception. Beerli and Martin (2004) argued that most studies have failed to establish the validity and reliability of their scales, casting doubts on their psychometric properties. They further claimed that only two of the reviewed works, namely that of Echtner and Ritchie (1993) and Baloglus and McCleary (1999), had effectively determined the reliability of the scales used.

This lack of a universally accepted valid and reliable scale for the measurement of image led Beerli and Martin (2004) to propose a framework incorporating aspects of a destination which could potentially be used as an instrument to measure destination image effectively. After a review of the attractions and attributes included in existing scales, Beerli and Martin (2004) incorporated and classified factors influencing the image assessments made by individuals into nine dimensions

which included: natural resources, general infrastructure, tourist infrastructure, tourist leisure and recreation, culture, history and art, political and economic factors, natural environment, social environment, and atmosphere of the place. They suggested that the selection of the attributes used in designing a scale depends on the attractions of each destination, its positioning, and on the objectives of the assessment of perceived image. They further argued that the perceived image will also determine whether specific or more general attributes are chosen and that all of these tasks can be achieved by collecting marketing materials to analyze the targeted destination attributes. They further suggested that discussing with the destination marketing organization (DMO) should take place to determine what kinds of images they are marketing to their target markets.

To measure conation, studies (i.e., Pike & Ryan, 2004) have asked respondents to indicate the likelihood of visiting various destinations within the next 12 months or recommend the destination to friends and relatives. A 7-point scale anchored by 1 (definitely not) and 7 (definitely) has generally been used. While the statement measures intention rather than actual behavior, Belk (1975) claimed intent is associated with actual behavior when context and time are included. Chen and Tsai (2007) measured behavioral intentions by asking respondents their likeliness to revisit and willingness to recommend, while Pike and Ryan (2004a) measured it by asking respondents their likelihood of visiting each destination within the next 12 months.

Typically, destination image studies have employed semantic differential scales,

Likert-type scales, or graphic positioning scales, but the formats for presenting these scales have differed (Driscoll et al., 1994). One of the most used formats is a scaled questionnaire requiring respondents to separately rate each destination on the basis of a set of attributes. After rating the first destination, the respondent repeats the same procedure for each until all destinations have been evaluated on the same set of attributes. Hunt (1975) used this format to measure respondents' perceptions of Colorado, Montana, Utah, and Wyoming. Cossens (1989) also adopted this format to measure respondents' perceptions of 10 domestic destinations in New Zealand, as did Goodrich (1978a) who measured the perceptions of nine tourist attracting regions in North America.

An alternative method for presenting the evaluation scale in tourism research is a grid-type questionnaire format. In this format, respondents are asked to complete a one-page grid that displays destinations along the horizontal axis and attributes along the vertical axis. The grid questionnaire format has been used to assess the images of tourists visiting Greece and Morocco (Pearce, 1982), to assess the tourists' perceptions of Finland (Haahti, 1986), to assess the images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001), and to assess US international pleasure travelers' images of four Mediterranean destinations (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999b). Further, Haahti (1986) reasoned that the grid format offers a more efficient use of questionnaire space and achieves a higher response rate due to its simplicity and shortness.

Driscoll, Lawson, and Niven (1994) did an exploratory study to test the

reliability and convergent validity of the two responses formats, using semantic differential scales, to generate supposedly equivalent perceptual scores for New Zealand respondents on a set of international destinations. Data were collected with the use of two self-administrated questionnaires with one adopting the scaled format and the other a grid format. The two questionnaires were identical, except for the way in which respondents rated destination attributes (scaled versus grid format). A 7-point rating scale was used for both survey formats, and 12 destinations and 18 attributes were selected for evaluation. Results revealed that overall, both sets of coefficients were relatively high, indicating good reliability, but internal reliability (using coefficient alpha) revealed that the grid format performed better than the scaled version. Bettman (1979) argued that the grid format asks for direct comparisons between the destinations across each attribute, whereas the scaled version reflects the normal compensatory multiattributes type of modeling with each destination product considered independently. Practically speaking, the grid format is an attractive option in survey research when one considers the savings in questionnaire space, duplicating costs, and postal charges (Driscoll et al., 1994). Thus, the grid format will be used in the current study.

Subjective Norms and Interpersonal Influence on Travel Decision

Interpersonal communications have long been recognized as influential in the tourism industry (Litvin et al., 2007), and have been found to be related to an individual's personal values, norms, attitudes, and perceptions (Hsu et al., 2006). Reference group influence has received limited consideration in the service sectors,

with most of the research having been done on tangible products. However,

reference group influences are likely to be exerted on a traveler when

communication among group members offers the opportunities to share direct

experiences to others about a particular destination or service and induces the

selection of a destination or other tourism services.

Characteristics of services include intangibility, perishability, heterogeneity,

and simultaneous production and consumption which can lead a service to possess

higher perceived risk with few objectively measurable qualities before purchase

(Mehta, Lalwani, & Ping, 2001). Thus, the unique features of a service make

consumer information search harder than those of tangible goods which can lead to

a more complex consumer-decision making and evaluation process (Lovelock,

1991).

Since service products' qualities are difficult to measure before purchase, and

are more difficult to search for information on than tangible products, consumers are

more likely to rely on reference group's opinion when a purchase decision needs to

be made (Hsu et al., 2006). Reference groups are defined as social groups that are

important to a consumer and against which he/she compares him/herself in forming

attitudes and behaviors (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). Parents, teachers, and friends

are normative referents who can exert significant influences on a consumer's

decision-making process (Hsu et al., 2006). Research has suggested the most

influential reference group is family because family can affect an individual's values

and expectations at early ages (Moutinho, 1987). Park and Lessig (1977) claimed

that reference groups are major sources of personal norms, attitudes, and values via direct interaction, which has also been empirically confirmed by several marketing, psychology, and sociology studies (Childers & Rao, 1992; Leigh & Gabel, 1992; Mehta et al., 2001).

Related research on subjective norm and interpersonal influence include the following studies. Hsu, Kang, and Lam (2006) segmented travelers based on their perceptions of various reference groups' influences related to selecting Hong Kong as a travel destination, and to profile each segment according to travelers' benefits sought, attitudes, behaviors, and sociodemographic characteristics. The study revealed that different reference groups' opinions were perceived differently when it came to the decision of choosing Hong Kong as a travel destination. Respondents were more likely to comply with their primary reference group's (i.e., family and friends/relatives) opinions than their secondary reference group's (i.e., travel agents) views regarding visiting Hong Kong. Findings of this study also indicated that the three traveler segments, categorized by respondents' perceptions about reference groups' opinions and susceptibility to their opinions, showed different benefits sought, perceived behavioral control, overall attitude, and intent to visit a destination. This is one of the few existing studies in the travel and tourism related field which specifically examined the influence of reference groups on the travel decision process.

Although WOM is a significant information source among travelers, only a few studies have examined how reference groups affect travelers' decisions. As

Armitage and Conner (2001) pointed out, the principal weakness of how subjective norms have been operationalized in the TPB is that it is too often utilized as a single-measure. This one-dimensional approach could be complemented by examining in detail the reference group influence construct. The current study will use Hsu, Kang, and Lam's (2006) measurement scale to hopefully strengthen the subjective norm variable in the proposed conceptual model since multiple-items will be used.

As previously mentioned, the recognition of reference group influence has led to a proliferation of research in psychology (Batra, Homer, & Kahle, 2001), sociology (Cochran, Chamlin, Beeghley, & Fenwick, 2004), and consumer behavior (Childers & Rao, 1992). In the psychology literature, Batra, Homer, and Kahle (2001) examined an individual's susceptibility to normative influence (SNI) from reference groups and revealed that motivational underpinnings of SNI are the desires to identify and comply with the norms of reference groups when individuals are making socially visible consumption (i.e., using them in public). For example, the price of an expensive car purchased by a consumer represents not only an economic cost, but also serves as a signal to acquire prestige.

In the sociology literature, reference group theory asserts that behaviors and attitudes are decisively shaped by the groups in which individuals participate (Cochran et al., 2004). Individuals may refer to their membership groups for evaluation of their past behavior (comparative reference groups) or for directives to current or future behaviors (normative reference groups).

In the consumer behavior literature, Childers and Rao (1992) studied the influence between familial and peer-based reference groups on individuals' product and brand decisions for products that range in their degree of conspicuous uses. Their results revealed that the purchase decision would attract relatively high peer influence when purchasing luxuries and the purchase decision would attract relatively high familial influence when purchasing necessities. Furthermore, for publicly consumed products, the brand choice would attract relatively high peer influence; and for privately consumed products, the brand choice would attract relatively high familial influence. They further explained that products which are observed when being consumed and are also not commonly owned (i.e., golf clubs) fall into the publicly consumed luxuries category. Such products are exclusive, making them conspicuous and thus susceptible to peer influence. Brand decisions regarding such products will most likely be influenced by peers because they are consumed in public.

Based on Childers and Rao's (1992) assumption, visiting a tourist destination falls into the publicly consumed luxuries product category and peer groups would most likely exercise more influence than family on purchase decisions. Yet reference group influence has received limited attention in service sectors (Hsu et al., 2006). Travel decisions have been argued to be affected by external factors because travel is an exemplary service product and is also purely intangible (Moutinho, 1987). Thus it involves risk and consumers may need to receive information from reliable sources to assist them in making a purchase decision.

Additionally, WOM from reference groups is one of the primary sources from which travelers receive information when making purchasing decisions (Litvin et al., 2007). As Morgan , Pritchard, and Piggott (2003) revealed, negative word of mouth can produce an overwhelming impact on a destination's image, as dissatisfied travelers spread bad comments of their experiences to others. Shanka, Ali-Knight, and Pope (2002) also found that a majority of Western Australia travel decisions were made via word of mouth communication.

Similarly, Litvin, Blose, and Laird (2004) noted in their research that word of mouth recommendations from opinion leaders were the predominant source of influence on tourists' restaurant selections. Surprisingly, only few decisions were found to be based on formal media influences. The aforementioned studies all suggest that interpersonal influences on consumer decision-making plays a more important role than traditional marketing channels such as advertising and public relations. Reference group influences are exerted on a traveler when communication among group members induces the selection of a destination or other services, and provides opportunities to share direct experiences of others regarding a particular destination or service (Moutinho, 1987). Hence, it is believed there is a need to conduct research on reference group influences on travel and tourism products and services (Hsu et al., 2006).

Definition of Constraints

Leisure constraints research aims to "investigate factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of

leisure preferences and/or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure" (Jackson, 2000, p. 62). Jackson (2005) asserted that there are essentially three general purposes for leisure constraints studies. First, it is helpful to understand individuals' leisure choices and behavior which requires investigation of all the factors, including both positive and negative, that affect those choices. Constraint studies can help to explain why observed relationships among values and attitudes, leisure preferences, and overt leisure behavior are frequently weak. Second, constraints research has assisted in generating new insights into aspects of leisure previously thought to be well-understood, such as leisure participation, motivations, satisfactions, and recreational conflict. Third, this field of research has been found to be a useful device to enhance communication among scholars with diverse disciplinary training, topical interests, and methodological orientations.

Research on leisure constraints can also potentially help practitioners to understand why population groups do not make greater use of tourist destination offerings and provide directions about how to allay the conditions that inhibit involvement (Scott, 2005). However, Jackson and Scott (1999) noted that there is little indication that practitioners are applying findings from constraints research to improve service delivery.

Related Research on Constraints

Scott (2005) asserted that to date, a number of articles have been written that seek to summarize ideas and findings associated with constraints research. He further argued that at least two articles have been published whose purpose has been

to highlight the practical implications of constraints research. One of these two articles was published by Searle and Jackson (1985), who drew attention to four elements of public park and research delivery systems that should be examined critically if constraints are to be relaxed. These four elements were agency philosophy, policy statements, program planning efforts, and marketing strategies.

The other article was published by McGuire and O'Leary (1992), and sought to link research to practice by identifying major themes within constraints research. Both Searle and Jackson (1985) and McGuire and O'Leary (1992) provided valuable guidance for practitioners. Scott (2005) argued that the success of both public and commercial entities depends, in part, on locating clients/customers and ensuring client/customer satisfaction. Public and commercial entities are equally likely to target services/products to diverse groups of clients/customers. It is believed that constraints research can potentially assist both public agencies and commercial providers as they pursue these ends. An obvious difference between public agencies and commercial entities is that the latter must make profits to survive. A profit orientation means that commercial providers can be far more selective in developing their target markets (Scott, 2005).

Leisure constraints have been defined as "factors that limit people's participation in leisure activities, people's use of leisure services (e.g., parks and programs), or people's enjoyment of current activities" (Scott, 2005, p. 280). Early research on constraints concentrated mainly on factors that prohibit people's participation in preferred activities (Jackson & Scott, 1999). Researchers and

practitioners tended to focus on barriers or constraints physical and external to the individual similar to perceived behavioral control in the theory of planned behavior. Over time, researcher started to realize that constraints could also be internal to the individual and consist of personality and individual dispositions.

Segmentation with Constraints

Crawford and Godbey (1987) argued that constraints affect other facets of people's leisure beyond participation. They stated that understanding of constraints can assist researchers in knowing how constraints relate to both leisure participation and leisure preferences. They identified three distinct types of constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural that assist us in better comprehending these relationships.

Intrapersonal Constraints

According to Crawford and Godbey (1987), intrapersonal constraints are psychological states that interfere with the acquisition of leisure preferences. These have been defined as "individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preference and participation. Examples of intrapersonal constraints include stress, depression, anxiety, religiosity, kin and non-kin reference group attitudes, prior socialization into specific leisure activities, perceived self-skill, and subjective evaluations of the appropriateness and availability of various leisure activities" (Crawford & Godbey, 1987, p. 122).

Interpersonal Constraints

Interpersonal constraints are those barriers that arise out of social interaction

with friends, family, and others. Crawford and Godbey defined interpersonal

constraints as

> the result of interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals'
> characteristics. There barriers are either the product of the intrapersonal barriers
> which accompany spouses into the marital relationship, thus affecting joint
> preference for specific leisure activities, or those barriers which arise as the
> result of spousal interaction. Barriers of this sort may interact with both
> preference for, and subsequent participation in, companionate leisure activities.
> In addition, the concept of interpersonal barriers is applicable to interpersonal
> relations in general. An individual may experience an interpersonal leisure
> barrier if he/she is unable to locate a suitable partner with which to engage in a
> particular activity (Crawford & Godbey, 1987, p. 123).

Scott (2005) further claimed that interpersonal constraints are probably

unimportant in limiting people's involvement in solitary activities, particularly ones

pursued close to home. However, interpersonal constraints appear to be highly

important within the context of group activities and may take the form of

gatekeeping mechanisms, scheduling problems, and group disbandment (Scott,

1991). Interpersonal constraints also take the form of fear of crime. Whyte and

Shaw (1994) stated that fear of sexual assault keeps many women from visiting

parks and other public recreation areas by themselves. Research also indicates that

some ethnic group members or racial minority groups do not visit public recreation

facilities due to the fear of being harassed or assaulted by Anglo visitors and/or law

enforcement representatives (Rideout & Legg, 2000).

Structural Constraints

Finally, Crawford and Godbey (1987) stated that structural constraints are those

factors that intervene between leisure preferences and participation. They further

suggested that structural constraints are how researchers typically conceive barriers

and include a variety of factors outside the control of the individual, including "family life stage, family financial resources, season, climate, the scheduling of work activities, availability of opportunity, and reference group attitudes concerning the appropriateness of certain activities" (Crawford & Godbey, 1987, p. 124). Scott (2005) asserted that while many leisure researchers have used these factors to measure constraints, they are only structural constraints to the extent they actually prohibit individuals from being able to act on their preference.

Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) theorized the three types of constraints into a hierarchical relationship. They suggested that constraints are encountered first at the intrapersonal level, which were believed to be the most powerful since they have a fundamental impact on people's motivation for participation. An individual may encounter interpersonal constraints after preferences are formed. If the individual is unable to find a suitable partner, participation may be decreased. Individuals may then face structural constraints, if both intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints are absent or overcome successfully. If structural constraints are too strong, then individuals may not be able to participate in the desired activity or at the desired level of intensity they prefer.

The three types of constraints can also interact with one another to further inhibit people's ability to use park or recreation services and facilities (Jackson et al., 1993). According to Scott (2005), fear of being assaulted or harassed at a park (an interpersonal constraint) may inhibit the expression of leisure preferences and result in negative attitudes about outdoor recreation activities in general (an intrapersonal

constraint). Additionally, transportation and accessibility problems (structural constraints) may prevent people from acquiring skills and knowledge (intrapersonal constraints) about what kinds of opportunities are available at recreation areas (Scott, 2005).

Therefore, practitioners should understand that constraints may stymie preference development and/or intervene between preference and participation. By understanding constraints and further developing useful strategies to minimize the impact of constraints, practitioners should be able to improve travelers' behavioral intentions, preferences, and attitudes toward traveling.

Related Research on Constraints

Leisure constraints are defined as factors which "limit the formation of leisure preferences and …inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure"(Jackson, 1991, p. 279). As Jackson (1988) also noted, researchers have investigated many types of constraints and developed several constraint classification systems. He divided the classification systems into conceptually and empirically derived. The formal one (conceptual) includes systems such as internal/external, where constraints are due to personal attributes of individuals or characteristics of the environment. Jackson and Searle (1985) discussed "blocking" and "inhibiting" constraints, with the former precluding participation while the latter only restrains participation, depending on context.

Raymore and colleagues (1993) noted that there was a "lack of previously existing instruments for measuring constraints" (p. 103). The common strategy has

been to have study participants respond to statements by indicating their strength of agreement with or the importance of specific constraints on a Likert-type scale. Items are normally selected on the basis of their relevance to the population being studied and the specific leisure contexts and activities of interest (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). There has been no expectation that the constraint items in such study-specific measures should be strongly intercorrelated, that is, have high internal consistency. The experience of a specific constraint is not necessarily related to the experience of another, even if they are both classified as the same type (either intrapersonal, interpersonal, or structural). For example, with respect to intrapersonal constraints, even though a person may be constrained by his/her shyness, he or she would not necessarily be constrained by a lack of skill in the activity or any other nonshyness associated intrapersonal constraint (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

Raymore and colleagues (1993) examined the possible existence of three distinct, hierarchically ordered categories of constraints on leisure originally proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) and elaborated on by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991). They developed a new instrument to measure perceptions of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints of leisure as they related to beginning a new leisure activity. They also attempted to develop a standardized and reliable scale with distinct intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraint subscales that measured "general or global perceptions of constraint on leisure" (1993, p. 103). The scale appears to work and provides support for the Crawford et

al. (1991) proposal that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints exist in a hierarchy.

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) used the Raymore et al. (1993) scale to examine an employee population and specific fitness and physical recreation activities. They believed it was important to include statements about the specific constraints that were encountered by the study participants, therefore, they included many of the items from the Raymore et al. (1993) scale. They also found it necessary to modify some of the items and add others. Similar to Raymore et al. (1993), Gilbert and Hudson (2000) also tested whether the hierarchical relationships existed for intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. The study results indicated that the three constraint levels are not independent from each other. These findings contradicted those of Raymore et al. (1993), who supported the hierarchical model.

Definition of Constraint Negotiation

The concept of negotiation has just emerged and has led to only a limited amount of research on its role in leisure constraints (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson & Scott, 1999). The research on constraint negotiation has generally been descriptive and focused on identifying and classifying negotiation strategies rather than on their operation (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). Researchers have suggested that the notion of negotiation needs further theoretical development to better understand when negotiation efforts will be forthcoming and successful (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007).

Constraints were historically thought not to be able to be overcome, however,

studies have found evidence of a constraint negotiation process (Hubbard &

Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; Scott, 1991) that challenged the

assumption that constraints would automatically lead to non-participation or reduced

participation. Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) also included six negotiation

propositions in their theory of leisure constraints. The most important proposition in

their study claimed "participation is dependent not on the absence of constraints but

on negotiation through them. Such negotiation may modify rather than foreclose

participation" (Jackson et al., 1993, p. 4). Therefore, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell

(2007) claimed that constraint negotiation is the process of responding to

encountering constraints actively via the use of personal and social resources.

Related Research on Constraint Negotiation

The constraint negotiation process has received some research attention.

Jackson et al. (1993) examined existing constraint negotiation literature and found

that people are able to describe specific strategies that they have adopted to assist

them with constraints in order to maintain a pattern of sustained involvement. For

example, when people face constraints, they adopt strategies such as efforts to

enhance the awareness of opportunities, acquisition of skills, alterations in the

timing or frequency of leisure participation, or modifications to other aspects of life

to accommodate leisure needs. Only a small amount of people will choose not to

participate when encountered with constraints, whereas the majority will choose one

or the other of the strategies noted earlier. They also claimed that people often

respond to constraints actively via negotiation rather than passively choose not to

participate. Additionally, successful negotiation of leisure constraints can enhance participation as people rearrange their schedules, spending priorities, and other aspects of their lives to achieve their leisure goals.

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) examined four competing models to understand the dynamic relationships of the leisure constraint negotiation process. These models suggest a variety of plausible though competing views of the way in which constraints, motivation, and negotiation may be interrelated and affect participation. Their research results revealed that respondents who experienced higher levels of constraints participate less. However, encounters with constraints also triggered a greater use of negotiation strategies, which can lead to a higher level of participation. Therefore, Hubbard and Mannell (2001) claimed that when constraints are encountered, people tend to react in two different ways incluing: an inhibitory influence on participation stemming directly from the constraints, or a facilitatory influence resulting from the negotiation efforts triggered. The efforts from triggering negotiation appear to mitigate or counteract the negative effect of constraints. The research findings provide support to Jackson et al's study (1993) that participation is dependent, not on the absence of constraints, but on negotiation through them, and negotiation strategy could also facilitate participation rather than inhibit. Furthermore, their results explained why constraints have been found to be unrelated or weakly related to participation.

Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) studied the relationships among constraints, motivation, negotiation, and negotiation-efficacy as they influenced the

participation of individuals with Fibromyalgia Syndrome (FM) in physically active leisure activities. Research results suggested that constraints negatively influenced participation and positively influenced negotiation efforts and negotiation efforts positively influenced participation. Their results were consisted with Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) who found that when people encounter constraints, two opposite reactions can occur: they either choose not to participate or trigger negotiation strategies to try to participate as they desire.

<div align="center">Likelihood to Return and Recommend the Destination</div>

The study's dependent variable is behavioral intentions which can be defined as an individual's anticipated or planned future behavior (Swan, 1981). It represents an individual's expectancies about a particular behavior in a given setting and can be operationalized as the likelihood to act (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The theory of reasoned action postulates that behavior can be predicted from intentions that correspond directly (in terms of action, target, context, and time) to that behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Fishbein and Manfredo (1992) concluded "considerable research demonstrates that, when properly measured, correspondent intentions are very accurate predictors of most social behaviors" (p. 33).

As in the theory of reasoned action, a central factor in the theory of planned behavior is the individual's intention to perform a given behavior. Intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence a behavior, and they are indicators of how hard people are willing to try, or how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). As a general rule,

the stronger the intention to engage in a behavior, the more likely the behavior will be done.

However, behavioral intentions can find expression in behavior only if the behavior in question is under volitional control (i.e. if the person can decide at will to perform or not perform the behavior). Evidence concerning the relationship between intentions and actions has been collected with respect to many different types of behaviors, with much of the work done in the framework of the theory of reasoned action. Reviews of this research can be found in a variety of sources such as Ajzen (1988) and Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). As a general rule it has been found that when behaviors pose no serious problems of control, they can be predicted from intentions with considerable accuracy (Ajzen, 1991). When there is an opportunity to act, the intention results in behavior; thus, if the intention is measured accurately, it should provide a good predictor of behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

It has been suggested that increasing customer retention, or lowering the rate of customer defection is a major key to the ability of a service provider to generate revenues (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) further suggested that favorable behavioral intentions are associated with a service provider's ability to get its customer to : 1) say positive things about them; 2) recommend them to other consumers; 3) remain loyal to them; 4) spend more with the company, and; 5) pay a premium price.

Synopsis of the Chapter

This chapter reviewed the theory of planned behavior literature from two

perspectives: "what is the theory of planned behavior" and "how attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control influence behavioral intentions". Each of the constructs in the original theory of planned behavior has been argued to have measurement flaws and to need some improvements in order to better predict behavioral intentions. Fishbein (1997) argued that a conceptual model from a multidisciplinary perspective should be developed to strengthen the theory of planned behavior . In spite of the importance to travelers' behavioral intention research, several authors (Hsu et al., 2006; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006) have recognized the lack of a consistent conceptual framework around this area. The proposed model in the current study adopted some concepts from tourism and other related literatures to hopefully strengthen the theory of planned behavior to better predict travelers' behavioral intentions by using destination image, subjective norms (multiple-item scale), constraints, and constraint negotiation measurements.

The following chapter will integrate all the aforementioned components to present a conceptual model for this dissertation. Moreover, the conceptual model will be used to examine how the proposed new constructs affect behavioral intentions by applying the theory of planned behavior.

CHAPTER III

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Tourist behavior theories have been the focus of research in many tourism studies, but how travelers' behavioral intention in choosing a travel destination is developed has rarely been investigated (Lam & Hsu, 2004). Researchers have paid considerable attention to tourist motivation (Crompton, 1979b; Dann, 1981), and the study of tourist motivation based on the concepts of push and pull factors has been generally accepted (Crompton, 1979b; Dann, 1981). However, how these push and pull factors help develop attitudes and how these attitudes lead to behavioral intentions in choosing a travel destination have rarely been investigated (Lam & Hsu, 2004).

The decision-making process leading to the choice of a travel destination is a complex one, influenced by social (i.e., subjective norm), psychological (i.e., attitude), and external inhibiting (i.e., constraints) factors. The questions then become as follows: Are travelers influenced by their perceived destination image when choosing a destination; Will expectations of others affect travelers' choice of a destination; What is the role of social influence on travelers' decisions; and Will facilitating or inhibiting factors affect tourists' decisions? The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1988, 1991), an extended version of the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), offers a framework that could help answer these questions.

Although a number of studies have stated that the theory of reasoned action

might not be accurate in predicting behavioral intentions (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Shimp & Kavas, 1984) and have questioned the role of subjective norms in the model (Pomazal & Jaccard, 1976), the theory of reasoned action has been successfully applied in a wide variety of behavioral studies (Buttle & Bok, 1996; Chaiken & Stangor, 1987; Cooper & Croyle, 1984).

As discussed in the previous chapter, there is a large body of theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behavior literature in sociology and psychology, but not in the tourism/leisure and marketing fields. Through a thorough review of the theory of planned behavior literature and tourism related literature, it was found that destination image (Chen & Tsai, 2007), subjective norm/interpersonal influence (Hsu et al., 2006), and constraints (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001) have been suggested as good predictors of travelers' behavioral intentions in a tourism context. This chapter hopes to link the components which form the proposed conceptual model of the current study and to show how these components are related to behavioral intentions. Figure 2 displays the proposed model which was developed based on the theory of planned behavior. Perceived destination image is proposed to be explained by both cognitive and affective images, subjective norms to be explained by a combination of normative beliefs and motivation to comply, and constraints by intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraint. Perceived destination image (i.e., attitude), subjective norms, and constraints (i.e., perceived behavioral control) are all proposed to predict behavioral intentions.

FIGURE 2

PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL
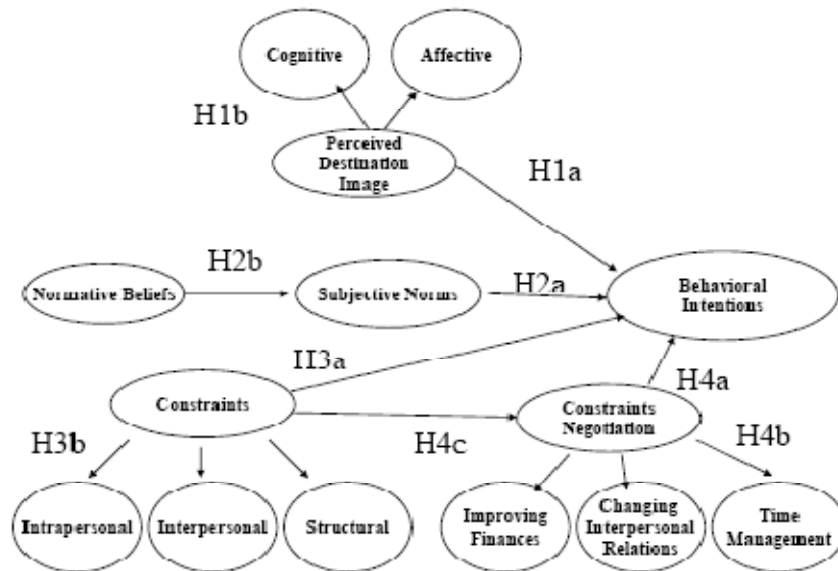
Proposed Conceptual Model

The proposed model is a systematic integration of the literature related to

destination image, subjective norms/interpersonal influences, and constraints into

the theory of planned behavior. According to the TRA and the TPB, a person's

behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and this

intention is a function of the attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms,

which is a person's perceptions related to how people who are important to them

believe they should or should not perform the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980)

and the willingness of the individual to comply with the reference group. Yet, a

number of barriers to human behaviors may exist, so the inclusion of non-volitional

variables is necessary in studying certain human behaviors (Terry & O'Leary, 1995).

In this regard, the TPB was developed to explain human behavior under both

volitional and non-volitional control.

The TPB includes perceived behavioral control, which is an individual's

possession of the opportunities and resources required to execute the behavior

(Ajzen, 1985). However, the one dimensional measurement of perceived behavioral

control was not enough to predict behavioral intentions, and then constraints will be

adopted from the leisure literature to offer a multi-dimensional measurement to

hopefully provide more comprehensive measurement and better predict

non-volitional control.

Overview of Destination Image

Destination images have been argued to be formed by two distinctly different,

but interrelated components: cognitive, and affective (Beerli & Martin, 2004) which

is illustrated in Figure 3. The interrelationships between these components can be

used to explain product predisposition (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

FIGURE 3

PROPOSED MODEL OF DESTINATION IMAGE
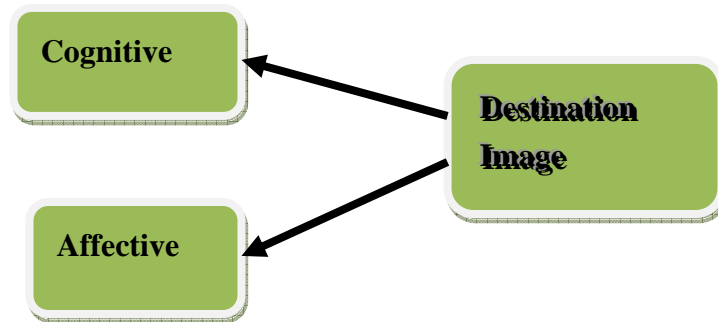
Destination image has been defined as an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and overall perception of a particular destination (Crompton, 1979a; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). It has been found that destination image performs two major roles in behaviors: (1) it influences the destination choice decision-making process and (2) it conditions after-decision-making behaviors including participation (on-site experience), evaluation (satisfaction) and future behavioral intentions (intention to revisit and willingness to recommend) (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 1993; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Mansfeld, 1992).

Destination image is also an important determinant of tourist buying behavior. Research has demonstrated a clear relationship between perceptions of destinations, and purchase decisions (Goodrich, 1978b; Pearce, 1982; Woodside & Lysonski, 1990). Similarly, negative images, even if unjustified, may deter potential tourists

and can result in a non-purchase decision. It follows that there can be significant differences between the organic and projected images which a tourist has of a destination before visiting it, and the re-evaluated images which are formed following a visit. In other words, there may be significant discrepancies between tourists' naive images, consisting of both organic and projected images, and the re-evaluated images, which include the perceptions of the product itself. These discrepancies can arise from unrealistic naive images held by the tourist or from a failure to meet expectations on the part of the destination (Selby & Morgan, 1996).

Tourist's behaviors can be expected to be partly conditioned by the images that they have of destinations. This influence starts at the stage of choosing the vacation destination, so vacation choice cannot be explained exclusively in terms of the objective environment (Johnson & Thomas, 1992).

The influence of destination image on choosing a vacation destination has been considered by various authors in decision making models (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Gartner, 1989; Goodall, 1988; Kent, 1990; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Moutinho, 1987; Schmoll, 1977; Stabler, 1990). Hence, it is thought that destinations with stronger positive images will have a higher probability of being included and chosen in the process of decision making (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Johnson & Thomas, 1992; Teichmann-Kosuta, 1994). The influence of image is not limited to the stage of choosing the destination, as it has also been found to affect the behavior of tourists in general (Ashworth & Goodall, 1988; Bordas & Rubio, 1993; Cooper et al., 1993; Mansfeld, 1992). Bigne

and colleagues (2001) argued that buying behavior is guided by cognitive and

evaluative components and that image will further affect a tourist in the process of

choosing and evaluating a stay as well as their future intentions.

Overview of Subjective Norm

Ajzen's (1991) theoretical model for predicting subjective norms is shown in

Figure 4. A subjective norm refers to perceived social pressure to perform or not to

perform a behavior. According to the theory of planned behavior, subjective norms

are assumed to be a function of beliefs that specific individuals approve or

disapprove of performing the behavior. It is assumed that an individual will intend to

perform a certain behavior when he/she perceives that important individuals think

he/she should (Ajzen, 1991).

FIGURE 4
PROPOSED MODEL OF SUBJECTIVE NORM
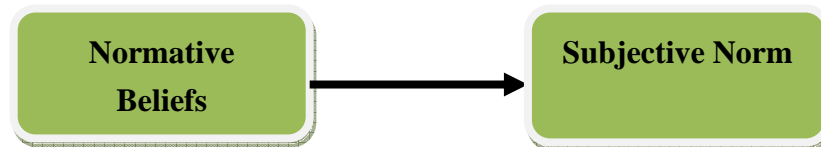
The key factor underlying subjective norms in the context of travel is important

others (Lam & Hsu, 2006). Although travel intention is voluntary, the normative

pressure from family, relatives, friends, colleagues, or neighbors is expected to have

some impact on travelers' intention to execute travel behaviors. The direct link

between subjective norms and behavioral intention can be described as compliance

as an individual accepts influence in order to gain a favorable reaction from another person or group (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000).

The proposition that an individual's subjective sense of his/her normative environment predicts intention has been successfully supported in many empirical studies (Childers & Rao, 1992; Hsu et al., 2006; Lam & Hsu, 2004). Armitage and Conner (2001) reviewed 185 theory of planned behavior studies, and the results revealed that the average correlation between subjective norms and intention was 0.34. The significant causal relationship between subjective norms and intention has also been found in hospitality and tourism research. When Kim and Park (1997) used the theory of reasoned action to analyze business travelers' hotel choice processes, the results revealed a significant correlation between subjective norms and behavioral intentions. According to the results of empirical tests of the theories, it is hypothesized in the current study that potential travelers' relevant referents positively affect their behavioral intentions.

Reference group influences are thus an important element of an individual's decision-making process because consumers can acquire information about products and services from other people. In the marketing literature, family members, friends, colleagues, and neighbors have been found to have significant influences on the consumer decision-making process (Bayus, 1985). According to Wernick (1994), a vacation is a symbolic commodity, which tends to be planned with great interpersonal influence. This notion is also supported by the finding that word of mouth (WOM) from family members, friends, and relatives is the most frequently

sought information source among potential travelers when planning a trip (Sarigollu & Huang, 2005) and for making a purchase decision (Litvin et al., 2007). These influences are especially important in the hospitality and tourism industry, whose intangible products are difficult to evaluate prior to their consumption.

Voss (1984) asserted that approximately 80% of all buying decisions are influenced by someone's direct recommendation. Although the mass media aims at persuading potential consumers via paid advertisements, brochures, sales promotions, public relations, and the Internet, many studies have suggested that interpersonal information channels (WOM) are as influential on purchase decisions as the mass media (Leigh & Gabel, 1992) due to the extensive amount of information accessible to individuals informally through their family, friends, colleagues, or neighbors whom they interact with or socialize with (Middleton, 2002). Thus, a fundamental principle of consumer behavior is that consumers have the ability to exert powerful influences on each other (Litvin et al., 2007).

Overview of Constraints

Crawford et al.'s (1991) theoretical model for predicting constraints is shown in Figure 5. Constraints have been defined as "a subset of reasons for not engaging in a particular behavior" (Jackson, 1988, p. 69). If the behavior is not under complete volitional control, individuals need to have the necessary resources and opportunities in order to perform the behavior in question. The more resources and opportunities individuals think they possess, the greater their perceived behavioral control should be over the behavior (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992). Ajzen (1991)

noted that people are not likely to form a strong intention to perform a behavior if

they believe that they do not have the resources or opportunities to do so even if

they hold positive attitudes toward the behavior and believe that important others

would approve of the behavior.

FIGURE 5
PROPOSED MODEL OF CONSTRAINTS
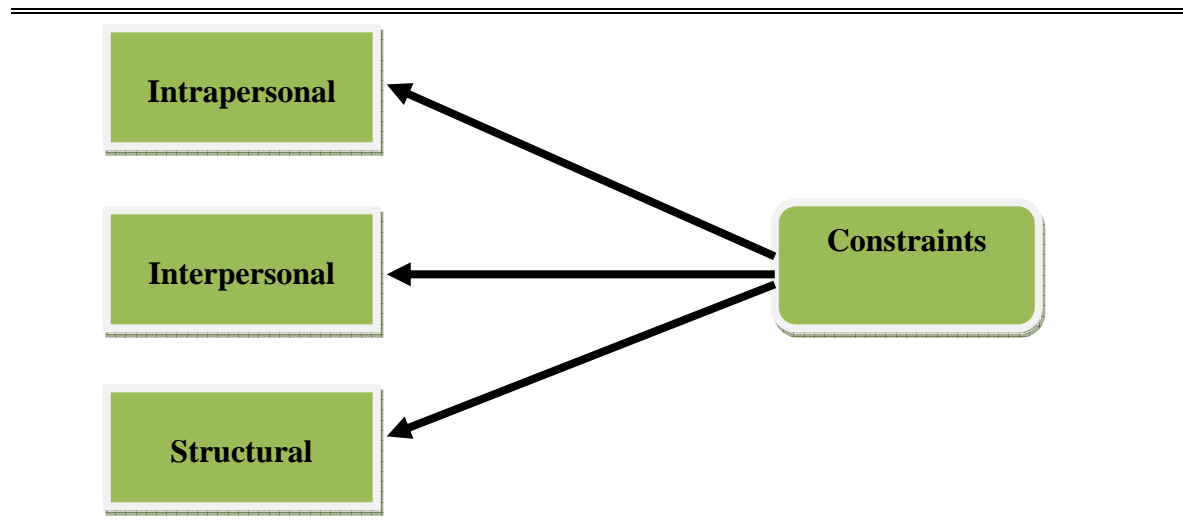
According to Crompton et al. (2005), some of the early work on image alluded

to the importance of constraints in tourists' decision making processes, yet these

studies did not formally address their role (Crompton et al., 2005). Mayo (1975)

stated " the number of alternatives actually considered may, of course, be limited by

virtue of financial, time, or other constraints" (p. 14). Similarly, Crompton (1979a)

suggested that destination images were first prioritized in terms of ideal preference,

and their prioritization was amended by the impact of perceived constraints. Based

on their review of the choice set literature, Crompton and Ankomah (1993)

proposed that "the criteria used to evaluate alternatives in the early consideration set will primarily focus on the relative merits of the destination attributes, while the criteria used to evaluate alternatives in the late consideration set will primarily focus on the constraints associated with each of the alternative destinations" (p. 469).

However, despite the acknowledged role of constraints in a tourist's decision process, relatively few researchers have reported empirical studies in which situational variables or constraints have been incorporated into the investigation of a destination's attributes, image, or potential for realizing psychological outcomes. Um and Crompton (1992), in one of the few studies that have done this, asserted that "the inclusion of situational variables, such as time, financial, or other constraints, that are specific to a tourist's decision-making context reduces the unexplained variance in the destination choice models and increases the management value of research in that area" (p. 18).

Although studies dealing with the tourists' decision making processes have tended to focus on desirable destination attributes, image, and benefits sought, Ellis and Rademacher (1986) pointed out that virtually any study in which a tourism phenomenon serves as a dependent variable is related to the topic of constraints. Among those who would select a destination based on the benefits it offers, some proportions do so because the perceived constraints to select a substitute destination are perceived to be too limited.

Relatively few empirical studies on the nature and effects of constraints have been reported in the tourism literature, but a substantial body of findings has

emerged in the leisure and recreation literatures (Crompton et al., 2005; Gilbert &

Hudson, 2000). There is some agreement in the tourism literature that constraints

can be conceptualized as a mechanism for reducing desired alternatives (Jackson &

Searle, 1985). One of the emerging findings from leisure constraints research is that

some individuals who report their leisure behavior is impacted by constraints

indicate they engage in it anyway, if not exactly in the same way as if they had been

constraint free (Jackson et al., 1993). The processes involved in participating even if

constraints exist is called constraint negotiation (Jackson et al., 1993). It appears that

for some people the benefits of participation are sufficiently substantial as they more

than offset the costs associated with the constraints. There could be an opportunity

for attracting more potential customers if we understand why certain people choose

not to travel to a particular destination, or travel somewhere else.

Crawford and Godbey (1987) argued that constraints affect other facets of

people's leisure beyond participation. They stated that our understanding of

constraints can help researchers understand how constraints relate to both leisure

participation and leisure preferences. They identified three distinct types of

constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural that assist us in better

comprehending these relationships.

For example, in the context of travel intention, a potential traveler may have a

favorable attitude toward traveling to a destination, and his/her friends may want

him/her to travel to the destination. As a result, he/she may want to travel to the

destination, but if he/she is faced with situational constraints such as lack of money,

schedule conflicts, or have family obligations, he/she might not feel fully in control of the situation resulting in no intention to travel to the place. Therefore, including situational constraints has been argued to be important to travelers' decision-making process, as they can increase the value of research in this area (Um & Crompton, 1992).

Um and Crompton (1992) claimed that the inclusion of situational variables such as budget, time, or other constraints, that are specific to a tourist's decision-making context reduces the unexplained variance in destination choice models and increases the management value of research in that area. As discussed in previous sections, many extraneous factors, such as financial resources and other opportunities, affect travel intentions. Thus, it is assumed that a traveler, who has complete control over those situational variables or intervening factors are more likely to execute the travel behavior.

Though constraints generally reduce one's level of participation, they also trigger greater use of negotiation resources, which often counteracts the negative effects. Thus, the link between the use of negotiation strategies and actual behavioral intentions decrease research attention. With respect to the direct influence of negotiation, it is possible that resources in people's lives provide enhanced opportunities to participate and consequently directly facilitate participation whether constraints are present or not (Figure 6).

FIGURE 6

PROPOSED MODEL OF CONSTRAINT NEGOTIATION
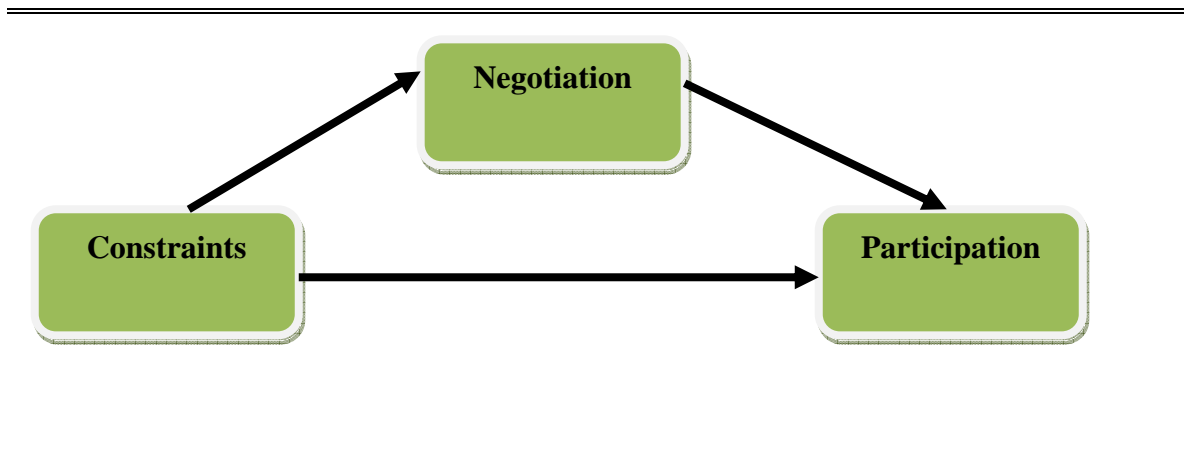
Proposed Conceptual Model

Figure 2 integrates the models of destination image, subjective norms, constraints, and constraint negotiation within the TPB framework. While an empirical assessment of the link between destination image, subjective norms, constraints, constraint negotiation and behavioral intention has not yet been rendered, literature suggests the relationships exist.

As discussed, destination image is formed by the consumer's reasoned and emotional interpretation of the consequence of two closely interrelated components: perceived/cognitive evaluations referring to the individual's own knowledge and beliefs about an object, and affective appraisals of an individual's feelings toward the object (Baloglu & Bringerg, 1997; Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Gartner, 1993b). Destination image has also been found to be an important determinant of tourist buying behavior. Research

has demonstrated a clear relationship between positive perceptions of destinations, and positive purchase decisions (Goodrich, 1978b; Pearce, 1982; Woodside & Lysonski, 1990).

In the theory of reasoned action, subjective norms are assumed to be a function of beliefs related to whether specific individuals approve or disapprove of another person performing a behavior. It is assumed that an individual will intend to perform a certain behavior when he/she perceives that important individuals think he/she should perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In the context of travel intentions, the key factor underlying subjective norms are important others (Hsu et al., 2006). Although travel intention is voluntary, the normative pressures from family, relatives, friends, colleagues, and/or neighbors are expected to have some impact on travelers' intention to actually execute the travel behavior. The direct link between subjective norms and behavioral intention can be described as compliance as an individual accepts influence in order to gain a favorable reaction from another person or group (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000).

Ajzen (1991) noted that people are not likely to form a strong intention to perform a behavior if they believe that they do not have the resources or opportunities to do so even if they hold positive attitudes toward the behavior and believe that important others would approve the behavior. Um and Crompton (1992) asserted that "the inclusion of situational variables, such as time, financial, or other constraints, that are specific to a tourist's decision-making context reduces the unexplained variance in destination choice models and increases the management

value of research in that area" (p. 18). It is based on the aforementioned literature review, that the proposed conceptual model was developed (see Figure 2).

Synopsis of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the proposed conceptual model and the relationships between the proposed variables, based on relevant literature. Despite the merit of existing findings, a theoretical understanding of the conceptual domain and antecedents of behavioral intention in a tourism context seems to be lacking. This chapter suggested that the theory of planned behavior might provide a useful theoretical framework for delineating the major determinants of tourists' behavioral intentions. Specifically, from the tourism related literature, destination image, subjective norms (with a multi-item scale), constraints, and constraint negotiations are proposed to predict travelers' behavioral intention. A conceptual model was hence structured, to describe the formation of behavioral intentions based on the theory of planned behavior. Chapter IV discusses the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods used to conduct the study in order to examine the structure and antecedents of travelers' behavioral intentions. A flow chart of the research procedures of this study is presented in Figure 7. The first section of this chapter provides an overview of the study's research design. This is followed by a presentation of the hypotheses and a discussion of the development of the questionnaire, as well as the data collection procedures. The chapter ends with an explanation of the statistical techniques used for data analysis.

Research Design

This study utilized quantitative research methods and primarily used unobserved variables, such as destination image, subjective norms, and constraints, etc. Particularly, this research adopted an online panel survey. According to Dennis (2001, p. 34), "survey panels are made up of individuals who are pre-recruited to participate on a more or less predictable basis in surveys over a period of time". Many online panels are professionally managed by survey companies, and pre-grouped into different panels based on consumption attributes. In order to conduct an online panel survey, researchers need to specify the characteristics of the targeted respondents to the survey company. Then the survey company chooses people from their panel database, and sends invitations to the chosen participants. People who are chosen by the survey company receive an invitation and are asked to

complete the online survey. Once they complete the survey, they usually receive compensation for their participation which generally results in prompt and complete responses (Li, 2006).

During the past few years there has been considerable growth in internet use. In North America, the internet access rate reached as high as 71.1% and the growth rate from 2000 to 2007 was 120.2% (Internet World Stats, 2008a). Duffy and his colleagues (2005) claimed that online research is going to become more rather than less commonplace across all industrialized countries in the foreseeable future. Survey panels offer several advantages for researchers including: a) greater speed; b) lower costs; c) more visual, flexible and interactive surveys; d) it does not require interviewers while minimizes interviewer effects; e) providing flexibility to the respondents so they can fill in the survey at their convenience, and whenever they like and; f) it's easier to elicit more honest opinion from online respondents since it offers a feeling of anonymity (Cross & Neal, 2000; Dennis, 2001; Duffy et al., 2005; Miller, 2001; Vriens, Wedel, & Sandor, 2001).

FIGURE 7

RESEARCH PROCEDURES FOR THE CURRENT STUDY

Step	Details
Review of Literature	• Theory of Planned Behavior • Validated Measurement Scale
Elicitation Study	• 8 Faculty and 16 Graduate Students • Confirmation of Measurement Items
Initial Questionnaire Development	• Review of Literature • Results of the Elicitation Study
Pilot Study	• 239 Students • Validity & Reliability of Measurements
Final Questionnaire Development	• Results of the Pilot Study • Panel of Experts
Data Collection	• Online Survey System • 1,448 Travelers
Data Analysis	• Descriptive Statistics • Hypothesis Testing via SEM

There are also disadvantages related to online research. The disadvantages cited for internet-based methodologies focus mainly on sampling issues. Specifically, online panel studies suffer three major sampling biases: a) only people with Internet access are reached; b) only those people who agree to participate in the panel are reached; c) not all panelists who are invited respond (Duffy et al., 2005).

Some researchers (Dennis, 2001) have also argued that web-based panels may be susceptible to two types of panel effect. The first one that an online panel might condition research subjects, turning them into professional respondents which means respondents' attitudes and behaviors are changed by panel participation. The other panel effect is that panels are potentially vulnerable to selection bias, which can make successive samples less representative (Dennis, 2001).

However, Duffy (2005) argued that online surveys are not any different than other survey methodologies because large sections of the public effectively rule themselves out of all surveys before they start, and these people also have a different profile from those who do take part. Therefore, Dennis (2001) did six case studies to compare different panel groups with various levels of tenure and levels of survey participation to examine panelists' brand and product attitude, responses to sensitive questions, and political opinions. Their study results did not detect serious problems related to panel effects. Duffy (2005) did a similar examination to explore the use of internet-based methodologies, in particular the extent to which data from an online survey can be matched to data from a face-to-face survey. Their results revealed that online and face-to-face methodologies resulted in similar responses to questions

related to attitudes towards immigration, but produced different responses for socio-political questions and cholesterol related questions. The authors articulated two possible reasons causing the differences. First, online respondents are more likely to answer knowledge-based questions because internet users tend to be more knowledgeable and more viewpoint-oriented. Second, questions covering sensitive issues are likely to be susceptible to eliciting socially desirable responses when an interviewer is present, suggesting that in these cases, panel studies might be better than interviewers.

Despite some of the disadvantages, researchers believe that online surveys will grow substantially due to the limited and increasingly expensive face-to-face interviewing resources, and dropping rates of landline telephone penetration (Duffy et al., 2005). Thus, while online panels may generate some sampling bias; it is still believed to be a valid and efficient research method to collect data, especially, when a study's primary interest is not public opinion (Dennis, 2001; Duffy et al., 2005; Li, 2006).

<p align="center">Study Area</p>

Texas is the largest state within continental United States and is also a popular tourist destination. In 2006, Texas attracted nearly 205 million domestic visitors and those visitors spent an estimated 430 million days at destinations across the state (Office of the Governor Economic Development and Tourism, 2008). Among those visitors, 71% are leisure travelers, and the remaining 29% are business travelers. In total, they had $53.8 billion in travel spending while, the direct travel spending

generated an additional $7.1 billion in federal, state and local taxes or about $860 in tax revenue per Texas household.

Travel spending also supported 521,000 jobs and 75% of these jobs were leisure and hospitality related such as accommodations, restaurants, entertainment, and etc. In 2007, the Texas hotel industry generated 6.7 billion revenues and sold 78.3 million room nights. Dining, shopping, general entertainment, sightseeing, nightlife, theme parks, historical sites, museums, parks, and beaches are the top ten activities for Texas leisure travelers (Office of the Governor Economic Development and Tourism, 2008). Since Texas is an important tourist destination and was convenient for the current study, it was chosen as the area to be studied.

<center>Objectives and Hypotheses</center>

Based on the fore-mentioned review of literature, the objectives of this study are five-fold:

Objective one of this dissertation is to identify the dimensions of destination image. Based on recent literature related to the structure of destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Gartner, 1993b), it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 1a: Destination image positively affects behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 1b: Destination image is explained by both cognitive and affective image.

Objective two of this dissertation is to examine the effects of subjective norms on behavioral intentions. Furthermore, the direct and positive effects of normative

belief on subjective norms will be tested.

Hypothesis 2a: Subjective norms positively affect behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 2b: Normative beliefs are positively associated with subjective norms.

Objective three is to test the direct and negative effects of constraints on behavioral intentions. Additionally, the dimensionalities of constraints will be identified.

Hypothesis 3a: Constraints (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) negatively affect behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 3b: Constraints is explained by intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints.

Objective four is to investigate the direct and positive influences of constraint negotiation on behavioral intentions. Moreover, the dimensionalities of constraint negotiation are tested. The current study will attempt to identify the relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 4a: Constraint negotiation positively affects behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 4b: Constraint negotiation is explained by improving finances, changing interpersonal relations, and time management negotiation strategies.

Hypothesis 4c: Constraint negotiation acts as a mediator between constraints and behavioral intentions.

Last, but not least, the current study will compare the predictability of travelers' behavioral intentions between the proposed model and the theory of planned

behavior.

Hypothesis 5: The proposed model has better predictability in travelers' behavioral intention than the theory of planned behavior.

It is anticipated that the theoretical discussion of this dissertation may provide some preliminary insight on factors which influence travelers' behavioral intentions in a tourism context.

Instrument Development

A self-administered online survey was used to collect data. The survey questionnaire was developed with the use of a comprehensive review of related literature, as well as extensive personal communications with leading researchers in the fields of tourism, hospitality, marketing, and leisure.

Semantic differential and Likert-type scales were used in the survey. Both types of scales have been extensively utilized in previous destination image studies (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Lee, 2005). While Likert-type scales are the most frequently used type of scale to measure travelers' cognitive image (Bernard, 2000; DeVellis, 2003). A typical Likert-type scale asks respondents to indicate their degrees of agreement with   declarative statements (DeVellis, 2003; Gay & Airasian, 2000). Generally, the response options are anchored by 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 7 (Strongly Agree) (Bernard, 2000; DeVellis, 2003; Gay & Airasian, 2000).

Semantic differential scales use adjective pairs that are bipolar in nature such as good-bad or unipolar in nature such as good- not good (Netemeyer, Bearden, &

Sharma, 2003). The respondents give a quantitative rating to a target concept presented by researchers along the continuum that characterizes the stimulus (Gay & Airasian, 2000; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

In addition, despite some critiques regarding using multiple items to measure one construct (Gardner, Cummings, Dunham, & Pierce, 1998; Peter, 1979), this study adopted multi-item measurement, which is a common practice (Aneshensel, 2002). It has been advised that the use of multiple-items can increase reliability, decrease measurement error, and effectively categorize people into groups (Groves et al., 2004). Because of the use of SEM, a minimum of three items per construct is also recommended (Kline, 2005).

Pilot Test

After the initial version of the questionnaire was developed, sixteen experts were invited to review and pretest the instrument. The expert panel was comprised of faculty members and Ph.D. students specializing in leisure or tourism marketing, all with extensive experience in quantitative research. A variety of advice and comments were collected related to the choice of scales, organization of the questionnaire, wording of some statements, and questionnaire format issues. A few comments pertained to the wording of scale statements. Some experts mentioned that the wording of two items ("Great variety of flora and fauna" and "Texas is a location with a good substructure of hotels and apartments", both adopted from Beerli and Martin 2004) measuring cognitive destination image were not completely clear to them. When these problems happened, the current author checked back to

the original literature, and discussed with the experts to seek recommendation for improvement. Only a slight rewording was made ("Great variety of plants and animals" was changed from "Great variety of flora and fauna" and "Good quality of infrastructure" was changed from "Texas is a location with a good substructure of hotels and apartments") to keep the originality of the scale.

Using the panel of experts' suggestions, a questionnaire was then designed and a pilot test was deployed. The pilot test was conducted with 239 students from three undergraduate classes (tourism, marketing, and statistics classes at the sophomore, junior, and senior level). Having consulted with some panel experts in advance, it was decided that the questionnaire would use New Orleans as the tourist destination instead of Texas. Students were not included in the pilot test if their primary residence was in New Orleans, and were also told not to fill out the questionnaire again if by chance they had already completed the survey in a different class.

Researchers are always concerned with the problems of validity and reliability when survey questionnaires are used (Bernard, 2000; Gay & Airasian, 2000; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Validity may be partially developed via using existing scales for the context under investigation (Leming, 2007). Additionally, Cronbach's coefficient alpha can be used to estimate the internal consistency of scales. It has been suggested that coefficients of 0.70 or higher are acceptable, while coefficients of 0.90 or above indicate good reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Other researchers have argued that when research is in the exploratory stage (Hatcher, 1994) or when the number of items in a scale is less than six, Cronbach's alphas

greater than 0.6 may be considered acceptable (Cortina, 1993).

An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the scale referring to the cognitive images, with the aim of reducing their dimensions and identifying the determinant factors. At the same time, the reliability of the scales was analyzed by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Seven measurement items were removed because they did not substantially contribute to the instrument including: suitable accommodations, good facilities for families, rich western image, nice parks, nice small towns and rural areas, interesting amusement and theme parks, and beautiful scenery/ natural attractions. They were removed from the cognitive image measurement because they did not load on any factor grouping (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a).

Variables Measured in the Study

The final survey instrument started with a screening question on whether the respondent has visited Texas or not to categorize respondents into visitor and nonvisitor groups. The first part of the questionnaire related to respondents' perceptions of the destination (destination image). The second part of the questionnaire measured groups or individuals whose views might influence respondents' selection of Texas as a travel destination (normative belief and subjective norms). The third part of the questionnaire measured factors that might inhibit travel to Texas (constraints). Potential visitors were asked to answer behavioral intention related questions in the fourth part. The last part of the survey measured selected demographic characteristics of the respondents. The following is

a review of factors measured in the study, with particular focus on the justification of choice of scales.

<u>Destination Image</u>

Baloglu and McCleary (1999a) and Beerli and Martin (2004) suggested that destination image should be operationalized as a two-dimensional construct. Specifically, the two dimensions proposed a perceptual/cognitive image and affective image. Twenty perceptual/cognitive evaluation items (Table 1) were generated from both the literature and a content analysis of the destination's guidebooks and brochures so that attributes selected could be applied to the destination in this study. Similar to Baloglu and McCleary (1999a), respondents were asked to rate the destination on each of the 20 attributes on a 7-point scale. The points on the 7-point scale included: strongly disagree, moderately disagree, slightly disagree, neutral, slightly agree, moderately agree, and strongly agree (1-7, respectively).

TABLE 1

PERCEPTUAL/ COGNITIVE EVALUATION ITEMS

Good climate	Appealing local food (cuisine)
Great beaches	Safe place to travel
Beautiful landscape	Standard hygiene and cleanliness
Great variety of plants and animals	Friendly people
Good quality of infrastructure	Good value for money
Convenient to get tourism information	Good birding opportunities
Various shopping opportunities	Nice hiking and biking trails
Exciting night life and entertainment (nice bars, restaurants, shows and dancing)	Nice fishing opportunities
Interesting cultural attractions	Good hunting opportunities
Interesting historical attractions	Unpolluted/unspoiled environment

Affective evaluation of the destination was measured with five bipolar scales (Pleasant-Unpleasant, Positive-Negative, Enjoyable-Unenjoyable, Favorable-Unfavorable, and Fun-Boring) (Lam & Hsu, 2006). It has been argued that a composite score of the five bipolar scales provides an overall affective evaluation of a destination (Russel & Snodgrass, 1987). As suggested by Russel and his colleagues, only two of the scales are theoretically adequate to measure affective image, but the reliability of environmental perception can be increased by using more measuring items which is the reason the current study used five items to measure affective image.

Subjective Norms

Subjective norms, normative beliefs, and motivation to comply were measured using the TPB scales (Ajzen, 1988, 1991). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), new sets of beliefs and salient referents should be elicited for each new context,

population, and behavior. Additional measurement items were adopted from Lam and Hsu (2004) who tested potential Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong based on the theory of planned behavior. Subjective norms were measured with three statements, each on a seven-point Likert scale including: "Most people I know would choose Texas as a travel destination", ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1); "People who are important to me would think I _____ visit Texas", from should (7) to should not (1); and "People who are important to me would _____of my visit to Texas", from approve (7) to disapprove (1).

Normative beliefs consisted of two components: (1) Perceptions of specific referents' opinions on whether an individual should or should not perform a behavior, or NBs; and (2) Motivation to comply with the wishes of the specific referents, or MC. Respective statements of these two components were multiplied and combined to obtain the overall degree of NBs. The referent groups in this study included family, relatives, and friends. Three-items with seven-point Likert scales were used to measure respondents' NB, ranging from should (7) to should not (1), and MC from extremely likely (7) to extremely unlikely (1). Measured items for NB were: "My spouse thinks I_____ choose Texas as a travel destination.", "My friends thinks I _____ choose Texas as a travel destination.", and "My family other than spouse thinks I _____ choose Texas as a travel destination.". Measurement items for MC were: "The likelihood for me to listen to what my spouse says about my visit to Texas is_____", "The likelihood for me to listen to what my friends say about my visit to Texas is_____", and "The likelihood

for me to listen to what my family other than spouse says about my visit to Texas

is_____".

Constraints

     Constraints were measured by having the respondents rate the extent to which

they agree with 18 statements that described a wide range of constraints. Similar to

Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) and Gilbert and Hudson (2000), a 7-point

Likert-type response format was used with values ranging from Strongly Disagree

(1) to Strongly Agree (7). Items from a 18-item scale designed to measure global

perceptions of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraint on leisure

participation in general (Raymore et al., 1993) was served as the starting point.

Based on other tourism related literature and one of the panel expert who is

specialized in leisure constraint, the wording of several statements were slightly

altered to make them more specific to the current setting. "Family is too young" was

changed to "My family is too young to travel"; "Too much planning involved" was

changed to "There is too much planning involved"; "Others don't have the money"

was changed to "The people I know don't have the money to travel with me"; "It is

too dangerous" was changed to I don't really feel safe traveling to Texas"; "Others

don't have the time" was changed to "The people I know don't have the time to

travel with me". Five intrapersonal items, five interpersonal items, and eight

structural items were included in the final scale (Table 2).

TABLE 2

MEASUREMENT ITEMS OF CONSTRAINTS

It is too expensive to travel (stru)	Traveling involves too much risk (intra)
I cannot afford to travel (stru)	I am not interested in the activities in Texas (intra)
I have no time to take a trip (stru)	I am not interested in traveling in Texas (intra)
I cannot travel to Texas because of my work responsibilities (stru)	I don't really feel safe traveling to Texas (intra)
There is too much planning involved (stru)	My family is too young to travel (inter)
Family commitments keep me from traveling (stru)	My family and friends are not interested in traveling (inter)
The things I want to do are expensive (stru)	The people I know don't have the time to travel with me (inter)
Areas I want to visit are too far away (stru)	The people I know don't have the money to travel with me (inter)
My health does not allow me to travel (intra)	I have no one to travel with (inter)

Constraint Negotiation

The current study employed a revised version of Loucks-Atkinsons and

Mannell's (2007) constraint negotiation scales. The original measurement scale was

developed for active leisure activities participation among individuals with

fibromyalgia syndrome, hence, the items were modified and reworded to better fit a

tourism context, such as "I save up money to do physically active leisure activities"

was changed to "Save up money to travel"; "I am trying to get a better job so I can

afford what I want to do" was changed to "Try to get a better job so I can afford to

travel"; "I try to meet people with similar interest" was changed to "Try to find

people with similar interest to travel with"; "I set aside time for physically active leisure activities" was changed to "Set aside time for traveling"; I prioritize what I want to do, and make physically active leisure activities a priority sometimes" was changed to "Prioritize what I want to do, and make traveling a priority". Some items were not included due to the inapplicability to current study context which including: "I reduce the difficulty of the activity"; "I change the type of physically active leisure activities that I participate in"; "I sometime substitute another more convenient activity for a preferred one"; "I participate in activities with people who also have fibromyalgia"; "I try to educate people about fibromyalgia so that they will participate at my pace"; "I apply heat or cold to my muscles before or after participation"; "I take a pain medication"; "I have learn to predict my pain and participate despite having fibromyalgia".

As a result, 15 measurement items (Table 3) were used. Similar to Loucks-Atkinsons and Mannell (2007), a 7-point Likert-type scale (1="Never", 2="Rarely", 3="Sometimes", 4="Regularly", 5="Often", 6="Very Often", and 7="Always") was utilized to measure each negotiation strategy item.

TABLE 3

MEASUREMENT ITEMS OF CONSTRAINT NEGOTIATION

Budget my money for traveling	Find a destination that best fits within my time limitations
Find a destination that best fits within my budget	Save up money to travel
Find people to travel with	Try to get a better job so I can afford to travel
Set aside time for traveling	Learn to live within my financial means
Plan ahead for things so that I can travel	Organize travel plans for people I know
Be organized so that I can travel	Try to find people with similar interests to travel with
Prioritize what I want to do, and make traveling a priority	Try to travel in the off-season when destinations are less crowded
Plan traveling around my family/friend's work time	

Behavioral Intentions

Similar to Lam and Hsu (2006), behavioral intentions were measured by asking "The likelihood to visit Texas in the next 2 years", " Intend to visit Texas in the next 2 years", and "Want to visit Texas" anchored by 1 (extremely unlikely) and 7 (extremely likely).

Demographic Variables

Respondents' demographic information was collected in this study including: gender, age, education level, ethnicity, marital status, annual household income, and origin of residence. Gender was operationalized by asking respondents to check one of the two categories (male or female). Age was operationalized by asking respondents what year they were born. Following TIA (Travel Industry Association of America, 2005a), education was operationalized by asking respondents to

describe their level of education from "Less than high school" to "Post graduate work started or completed". Ethnicity was operationalized by asking respondents to check their ethnic background from six categories. Following Petrick et al. (1999), the categories included: Black or African-American; White; Hispanic; Asian; Native American/American Indian, and "other". Following Travel Industry Association's online traveler survey (2005a), household income was operationalized by asking respondents to check one of 12 categories, ranging from "Less than $20,000" to "$250,000 or more". Marital status was operationalized by presenting respondents four options: married; single, never married; divorced/separated/widowed; and prefer not to answer. Finally, origin of residence was operationalized by asking respondents to fill in the zip code of their primary residence.

<div align="center">Selection of the Subjects and Data Collection</div>

As Dillman (2000) suggested a sufficient sample is necessary to capture the desired effect sizes and to be representative of a population. Based on power analysis, if a priori significance level (α) is set at 0.05, and statistical power (β) at 0.8, the minimum sample size for such studies should be 200 (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). Several researchers (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970; McNamara, 1992) have suggested that no matter how big the population to be investigated, a sample size of 384 should be enough. For SEM studies, Kline (2005) suggested for a small structural equation model, a sample size of 100 would be adequate for a medium structural equation model, a sample size between 100 and 200 would be adequate and for a large structural equation model, a sample size of 200 would be

adequate.

Another consideration is model complexity which means more complex models, those with more parameters, require larger samples than more parsimonious models in order for the estimates to be comparably stable. Thus, a sample size of 200 or even much larger may be necessary for a very complicated model (Kline, 2005). Kline (2005) further suggested that there are no absolute standards in the literature about the relationship between sample size and path model complexity, but some recommendations could be followed: "a desirable goal is to have the ratio of the number of cases to the number of free parameters be 20:1; a 10:1, however, may be a more realistic target. Thus, a path model with 20 parameters should have a minimum sample size of 200 cases" (p. 111). The current study had 88 free parameters, suggesting that a minimum sample size should be 880.

Based on a literature review, Golob (2003) proposed four methods to calculate desired sample size: 1) a minimum sample size of 200 is needed to reduce biases to an acceptable level for any type of SEM estimation; 2) sample size for Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation should be at least 15 times the number of observed variables; 3) sample size for ML estimation should be at least five times the number of free parameters in the model , including error terms and; 4) with strongly kurtotic data, the minimum sample size should be 10 times the number of free parameters. For each of the four methods above, it would be expected to have 200, 540, 440, and 880 respectively. Thus, a conservative minimum acceptable sample size for the current study was determined to be 880.

The survey was conducted from September 17 to September 24, 2008. Once

the survey was deployed, the survey company (Zoomerang) sent out 15,284 email

invitations to a selected group. These individuals were predetermined to be U.S.

citizens, 18 years old or older, and could not be a Texas resident. The survey took

approximately 15 minutes to complete. A technical mechanism was used to ensure

that all the questions had to be answered before submission. Using incentives is a

common practice for online panel surveys (Page, Personal Communication), thus,

upon completion of the survey, respondents were rewarded with 50 zoompoints. The

average response rate for online panel surveys is approximately ten percent (Page,

Personal Communication) and takes an average of two to four days to complete

(Page, Personal Communication). The above sampling procedures resulted in 1,448

complete responses or a response rate of 9.5%.

<div align="center">Data Analysis Procedures</div>

The data analysis procedures included six major steps, from descriptive

analysis and preliminary data analysis, to model and hypothesis testing (Table 4). To

do so, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 16.0 (SPSS) and Amos 16.0

were utilized.

TABLE 4

MAJOR STEPS IN DATA ANALYSIS

Steps	Analysis	Purpose
Step 1	Data Handling	● Data coding ● Handling missing data
Step 2	Descriptive Analysis	● Characteristics of sample ● Overall data quality
Step 3	Measurement Model Testing	● Assessment of overall model fit ● Construct reliability and validity of measures
Step 4	Structural Model Evaluation	● Goodness-of-fit indices ● Path coefficients-hypotheses test
Step 5	Model Comparison	● Model fit indices and path coefficients ● Variance explained
Step 6	Presentation of Results	● Discussion and implications of findings ● Limitations and future research agenda

Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics were examined first, for the purpose of developing sample profiles and to identify distributions of the variables. Nonresponse bias was also examined. Cross validation with profiles of general American online travelers (Travel Industry Association of America (TIA), 2005) and the online survey panel sample demographic characteristics was performed to ensure there was no sampling bias.

Preliminary Data Analysis

Several researchers (Hatcher, 1994; Ullman, 2001) have suggested that a number of practical issues should be scrutinized before conducting SEM analysis,

such as checking sample size and missing data, and examining outliers. Particularly, Byrne (2001, p. 267) emphasized that "the requirements that the data be of a continuous scale and have a multivariate normal distribution" are two important assumptions associated with SEM. In addition, preliminary information regarding measurement properties such as scale reliability, mean, and standard deviation, have also been suggested to report (Kline, 2005).

Model and Hypotheses Testing

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to test hypotheses. Advantages of SEM compared to multiple regression include more flexible assumptions, use of confirmatory factor analysis to reduce measurement error by having multiple indicators per latent variable, and the attraction of SEM's graphic modeling interface (Garson, 2008). Byrne (1994) asserted that SEM is a statistical method that takes a confirmatory approach to the multivariate analysis of a structure theory bearing on some phenomenon. The constructs in this study: cognitive image, affective image, subjective norms, constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions are all unobserved concepts that are dependent on manifest indicators. The structural model specified causal relationships between the latent variables themselves. It also provided an explicit estimation of measurement error. It was anticipated that the SEM models would provide evidence of whether each hypothesis was supported and would suggest the relative strength of the relationships.

The major task of this step was testing the fitness of the model. A variety of fit

indices have been found in the literature. Four common and widely employed

model-fit measures were used to assess the model's overall goodness-of-fit

including: adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), norm fit index (NFI), comparative

fit index (CFI), and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Table 5).

According to Kline (2005), Byrne (2001) and Browne and Cudeck (1993), the CFI,

NFI, and AGFI may range in value from 1.0 to 0.0, and a fit index of 0.0 is related

to a null model (meaning all items are not correlated), and a fit index of 1.0

represents a saturated model (the model has zero degree of freedom that perfectly

reproduces the original covariance matrix). Values greater than 0.9 have been

suggested to indicate a good fit of the data, while values higher than 0.95 indicate an

excellent fit of the data (Kline, 2005). While Chi-square value is one of the most

widely-employed criterion for model fitness, most researchers have argued that

Chi-square is highly sensitive to sample size, and is hence not too helpful in

determining the extent to which a model does not fit (Byrne, 2001). Additionally,

Kline (2005) asserted that RMSEA $\leq$ .05 indicates close approximate fit, values

between .05 and .08 suggest reasonable error of approximation, and RMSEA $\geq$ .10

suggest poor fit. Furthermore, Byrne claimed that RMSEA "it has only recently

been recognized as one of the most informative criteria in covariance structure

modeling" (Byrne, 2001, p. 84). Furthermore, Hair and colleagues (Hair, Black,

Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006) asserted that most goodness-of-fit indices share

the problem of unfairly punishing model with more observed variables per latent

construct while RMSEA actually provide an average when a model contains more

variables.

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FIT INDICES

Statistic	Acceptable Level
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.90
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<0.08
Norm Fit Index (NFI)	>0.90
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit (AGFI)	>0.80

Sources from (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Byrne, 2001; Kline, 2005)

The data was analyzed using covariance structure analysis provided with AMOS Version 16.00 (Arbuckle, 2007).

Synopsis of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the methodology employed in the study, the developed hypotheses, and the research design. Next, the development of the questionnaire was discussed, concentrating on the choice of scales. Steps such as the literature review, expert panel editing, pilot testing, and the formal study, were also stated. These were followed by a brief review of the data collection process, addressing specific issues related to sample size and subject selection. Finally, the statistical approaches to the data analysis were outlined.

CHAPTER V

DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS

This chapter consists of two sections, the first one is the profile of the respondents, and the other includes outliers, linearity, and normality assumptions which needed to be addressed before any formal analysis could be conducted. Additionally, a summary of reliability of the scale used, intercorrelations among major factors, as well as other related descriptive information about research variables are included in this chapter.

Sample Characteristics

The sampling procedure described in Chapter IV yielded a total of 1,448 responses, or a response rate of 9.5% out of 15,284 email invitations that were sent. It is difficult to compare responses rates with different studies because of the nature of the online panel survey as studies have various lengths, topics, and incentives used. According to market experiences, the average response rate for online panel surveys is 10% (Page, Personal Communication).

Table 6 shows the demographic characteristics of the effective sample. This sample was slightly dominated by male respondents (51.5%). The average age of the respondents was 45.1. The ethnicity of the sample group consisted of 85.7% white, 3.3 % Asian or Pacific Islanders, 3.1% African Americans, 3.0% Hispanic, and 1.5% Native American or Alaskan Native.

Respondents were also asked the highest level of formal education they had completed, with options from "Less than high school" to "Post graduate work started or completed". Approximately, one third (32.3%) of the respondents reported they had some college education, but not completed, 27.3 percent indicated they completed college, 19.9 percent completed high school, 12.2 percent either started post graduate work or completed, 6.4 percent had vocational or technical training, and the remaining 2.2 percent had less than high school education.

Additionally, annual household income was asked and the median income range of the sampled group was $50,000 to less than $75,000. Nearly one third (32.2%) of the respondents fell into the ranges between "$50,000 to less than $75,000" and "$75,000 to less than $100,000". While 36.5 percent of respondents made less than $40,000 last year, 10.4 percent made more than $100,000. Respondents were also asked their marital status. More than one half (54.8%) of the respondents were married, 27.7 percent were single and never married, and the remaining 16.0 percent were divorced, separated, or widowed (Table 6).

TABLE 6

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent(%)
Gender	Male	746	51.5
	Female	702	48.5
Education	Less than high school		
	Completed high school	29	2.0
	Some college, not completed	288	19.9
	Completed college	468	32.3
	Vocational/technical training	395	27.3
	Post graduate work started or completed	92	6.4
		176	12.2
Ethnicity	African-American		
	White	45	3.1
	Hispanic	1241	85.7
	Asian/Pacific Islander	43	3.0
	Native American/Alaskan Native	48	3.3
	Prefer not to answer	22	1.5
	Other	29	2.0
		20	1.4
Income	Less than $20,000		
	$20,000 to less than $25,000		
	$25,000 to less than $30,000	166	11.5
	$30,000 to less than $40,000	93	6.4
	$40,000 to less than $50,000	98	6.8
	$50,000 to less than $75,000	172	11.9
	$75,000 to less than $100,000	109	7.5
	$100,000 to less than $125,000	304	21.0
	$125,000 to less than $150,000	162	11.2
	$150,000 to less than $200,000	72	5.0
	$200,000 to less than $250,000	41	2.8
	$25,000 or more	26	1.8
	Prefer not to answer	3	0.2
		9	0.6
		193	13.3
Marital	Married	794	54.8
Status	Single, never married	401	27.7
	Divorced/separated/widowed	232	16.0
	Prefer not to answer	21	1.5

Besides demographic questions, respondents were also asked about their travel history in Texas. More than sixty percent (61.0%) of the respondents reported that they have visited Texas before. If respondents indicated that they have visited Texas, they were further asked more questions about their previous visits. Among those people who had visited Texas, they had visited Texas 5 times in their lifetime on average and almost half of (49.2%) them took their last trip in Texas between 2006 and 2008.

Data Analysis

Data Cleaning

After the data was collected, the process of data cleaning was performed. Since some open-ended questions were asked, respondents needed to fill in the blanks with numbers. Instead of filling in blanks with numbers, some respondents entered letters. For instance, respondents were asked to report how many times they have visited Texas in their lifetime, many people entered "once", "twice" or "three". Therefore, researcher had to manually recode those letters into numbers. Additionally, respondents were asked to enter the 4 digits of their birth year; hence, age was computed as 2008 minus their birth year to get their current age.

Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

Data screening was conducted after data entry to detect any outliers that might exist in the dataset. "Outliers are cases with such extreme values on one variable or on a combination of variables that they distort the resultant statistics" (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004, p. 25). Outliers can create serious problems in multivariate data

analysis and outliers can happen when data entry errors are made by the researchers, the respondent is not a member of the population for which the sample is intended, or the respondent is simply different from the remaining sample (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Statistical tests are very sensitive to outliers because an outlier can exert a great deal of influence on the results of a statistical test. When respondents were asked "How many times have you visited Texas in your lifetime?", several respondents answered "100+" or "lived there before" and were putting "1000000". Since the purpose of current study was to test the factors which affect travel behavioral intention of the majority respondents, legitimate outliers which represented rare cases were deleted from analysis. Box plot and z-scores were conducted to identify univariate outliers (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004). If normal distribution is assumed, almost 99% of the scores would lie within three standard deviations of the mean. Any z value greater than +3.00 or less than -3.00 indicates an unlikely value and the case should be considered as an outlier. Univariate outliers can also be revealed via graphical methods. Box plots box in cases that are located near the median value, while, extreme values are located far away from the box (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004).

For multivariate outliers, individual z-scores may not indicate that the case is a univariate outlier, because multivariate outliers are more subtle. Therefore, Mahalanobis distance is conducted to detect the existence of any multivariate outliers. Mahalanobis distance is defined as the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created by the means of all the

variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Mahakanobis distance was computed as a

chi-square statistic with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables in the

analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The acceptable value for Mahakanobis

distance is p < .001 which is determined by comparing the obtained value for

Mahakanobis distance to the chi-square critical value (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004).

No substantial outliers were found after performing these procedures.

Missing Data

Missing data could be categorized into three groups: missing completely at

random, missing at random, and not missing at random (Rubin, 1976). Missing data

in the first two conditions are less problematic than in the third, because not missing

at random implies a systematic loss of data (Weston & Gore, 2006). Unfortunately,

there is no way to determine if the data is missing at random or not. The methods of

handling missing data vary based on the randomness of its missing. There are

several ways to deal with missing data such as listwise deletion, pairwise deletion,

maximum likelihood (ML), and multiple imputation (Weston & Gore, 2006). In

most cases, direct ML represents the best and easiest way to manage missing data in

CFA and SEM analysis (Brown, 2006). However, the procedure of multiple

imputation is a valuable alternative to direct ML (Rubin, 1987). Multiple imputation

is a useful approach to handle missing data when researchers do not have access to a

capable program of direct ML and wish to estimate a CFA or SEM model with a

fitting function besides ML (Allison, 2003). The current study utilized LISREL to

perform multiple imputation to handle missing data. Three steps were followed to

compute multiple imputation: first, imputing missing data 5 to 10 times with random variations; second, analyzing data separately for each imputed dataset; third, averaging the parameter estimates received from each data analysis (Brown, 2006). Standard errors were combined using the average of the standard errors over the set of analysis and the between-analysis parameter estimate variation.

Normality Test

Most statistics used in SEM assume that the multivariate distribution is normally distributed, but violation of this assumption can lead to serious problems (Weston & Gore, 2006). Nonnormality can affect the accuracy of any statistical test. A normality test was conducted in SPSS to check if the data was normally distributed. Among the statistical options for assessing normality are the use of skewness and kurtosis coefficients (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004). The test results revealed that all skewness and kurtosis values were between +1 and -1 which meant the current data was normally distributed. Additionally, skewness and kurtosis were further investigated in AMOS, and all skewness and kurtosis values of each variable ranged between +1 and -1. Conclusively, the current data was deemed to be normally distributed. Since there were no serious deviations from multivariate normality, maximum likelihood estimation was used. Maximum likelihood is the preferred estimation method when data are not substantially multivariate nonnormal because it tends to produce estimates that are unbiased, consistent, and efficient (Byrne, 2001).

Non-response Bias Check

To maintain a high response rate is a challenging task in today's environment for all methodologies because today's respondents are more sophisticated in their decision making, more mobile and harder to reach, and generally are less likely to be willing to participate in survey research (Food Standards Australia New Zealand, 2008). A critical question is the extent to which people who respond may be different from those who do not respond to surveys which is called non-response bias. Non-response bias arises when there are significant differences between respondents and non-respondents on variables of interest (Coderre, Mathieu, & St-Laurent, 2004). Researchers who conduct surveys try to reduce the size of the non-response bias in various ways and stimulate higher participation is the most notable method (Pearl & Frairley, 1985).

A popular form of motivating people to participate in a survey is to offer incentives (Göritz, 2004; Knapton & Myers, 2004). In offline situations, researchers have suggested to give incentives in advance rather than giving incentives after returning the questionnaire to increase response (Church, 1993; Linsky, 1975). Göritz and colleagues examined whether three different types of promised incentives (redeemable bonus points, money lottery and gift lottery), four different amounts of bonus points or raffled money, and two different denominations of raffled money influenced quantity, sample composition, response quality and survey outcome. Their results revealed the type of incentive and number of bonus points only influenced dropout and sample composition mildly. In the current study, the

online survey company offered 50 bonus points to participants to increase response rates. McDaniel and Rao (1980) compared the accuracy of incentivized respondents and non-incentivized respondents and found that the incentivized respondents offered more accurate information and was more diligent when completing their surveys.

e-Rewards, Inc., a Dallas-based online sample provider provided a currency-based incentive to survey respondents sourced from its panel of 1.3 million members, and analyzed survey response rates from over six million survey invitations that were sent to it panel members in year 2004 (Knapton & Myers, 2004). Their results revealed that patterns of non-response within an online panel tended to exist in the same demographic categories that have experienced patterns of non-response in traditional research modes, such as, mail and telephone surveys. Therefore, non-response bias does exist regardless of the types of data collection methods.

Due to the inability of the survey company to provide non-respondents' information, it was not possible to compare respondents and non-respondent responses and demographic information which is a common practice for non-response bias checks. Demographic information was collected by the online panel company while the panel members registered with the company (Dennis, 2001), but it is prohibited to release its panel members' personal information to a third party based on their privacy protection policy. Hence, an alternative non-response bias check was conducted in the current study which was to compare

early responses with late responses. Several studies have adopted this practice as a proxy of non-response bias check when direct data of non-responses is not feasible.

Similar to previous studies (Hung, 2008; Li, 2006; TNS Social Research, 2008), this study compared 1,096 early responses (those who responded between Sept. 17 and 20) and 352 late responses (those who responded between Sept. 21 and 24) on six demographic characteristics including: gender, education, ethnicity, income, marital status, age, and destination image and behavioral intentions toward traveling to Texas. Previous research (Ott & Longnecker, 2001) suggested that chi-square is effective for nominal variables and t-test is effective for continuous variables, therefore, chi-square tests were performed to examine the differences on demographic information among early and late respondents. T-tests were performed to examine the differences on age, destination image and behavioral intentions between early respondents and late respondents.

Table 7 presents the results of the chi-square tests. No significant differences were found between early and late responses in gender (χ^2= .106, p = .745), education background (χ^2 = 7.543, p = .183), annual household income (χ^2= 6.027, p = .915), and marital status (χ^2= .5.854, p = .119). However, the test detected a difference on ethnicity (χ^2= 24.671, p < .001) between early and late respondents. Late respondents consisted of more Hispanics than early respondents and no Native Americans/American Indians/Alaskan Natives.

TABLE 7

THE CHI-SQUARE COMPARISONS OF EARLY AND LATE RESPONDENTS

Variable	Chi-Square	DF	p
Gender	.106	1	.745
Education	7.543	5	.183
Ethnicity	24.671	6	.000
Income	6.027	12	.915
Marital Status	5.854	3	.119

Independent t-tests were conducted on age, destination image, and behavioral intentions to examine the difference between early and late respondents. Age was computed as 2008 minus the birth year, perceived destination image was measured with five items and behavioral intentions were measured with three items. Previous research (Petrick & Backman, 2002) suggested to sum up all items' scores for each latent variable before conducting t- test in order to perform independent t-test on multivariate constructs. Following this suggestion, five measurement items for destination image were added up, same as behavioral intentions before conducting the t-test. Table 8 reveals that no significant differences on age, destination image and behavioral intentions were found between early and late responders. Conclusively speaking, there was only one minor difference detected on ethnicity, thus the responses between early and late respondents were deemed similar enough to suggest a lack of non-response bias.

TABLE 8

T-TEST COMPARISONS OF EARLY AND LATE RESPONDENTS

Variable	T-test	DF	p
Age	.619	1418	.536
Destination Image	.481	1446	.631
Behavioral Intentions	1.079	1446	.281

This is verified when examining the demographic information, destination

image, and behavioral intentions of early and late respondents, where no significant

differences were found. Therefore, the impact of non-response bias on the results of

this survey is likely to be negligible, assuming non-responses were similar to late

responders. This method of analysis is standard in the social and market research,

and is performed on a regular basis in other commercial organizations which are

frequently adversely affected by very low response rate (TNS Social Research,

2008).

Sampling Bias Check

A growing number of researchers regard the web as a speedy, cheap and

effective alternative to traditional data collection methods, but concerns about

internet access, technology unevenness, coverage error and sample

representativeness limited the early use of web surveys (Roster, Rogers, Albaum, &

Klein, 2004). A major reason is that sampling error can occur during the process of

selecting a sample from the frame population (Coderre et al., 2004).

Although technology barriers still pose some legitimate concerns for web-based

research, the potential for wider deployment of web surveys is ballooning as the

incidence of household computer ownership and internet accessibility has been

rising. According to Internet World Stats (2008b), there are 248 million internet users in North America which accounts for 73.6% of the total population and 129.6% increased rate in internet usage since year 2000, which means internet has been disseminated throughout the North America. Additionally, there are more and more people singing up to be online panel members (Deutskens, Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2006). Therefore, researchers from various fields have conducted internet-based surveys (Coderre et al., 2004; Duffy et al., 2005; Göritz, 2004; TNS Social Research, 2008).

Knapp and Kirk (2003) compared responses to personally sensitive questions with 352 undergraduates who were randomly assigned to respond anonymously to a survey using one of three survey methods: pencil and paper mail in, Internet survey, or an automated touch-tone telephone response system. They found no significant differences in participants' responses among these three media.

Similar to Knapp and Kirk (2003), Deutskens and colleagues (2006) examined whether online and mail surveys produce convergent results and their results revealed only minor differences between the two survey methods. They further claimed that data collected through online and mail surveys are equivalent because: first, more recent studies have found equivalence between the two methods which may indicate that people are becoming more familiar with the internet; second, respondents gain increased experiences with online surveys which makes it less likely that the response process or the way people perceive questions on a screen will be different from paper surveys; third, there should be no difference in

perceived anonymity between online and mail surveys since an interviewer is absent at both methods; fourth, the number of online panel members is increasing steadily which has decreased coverage problems; fifth, there is a growing body of literature on recommending the best design of online surveys, hence, different screen formats or other technical or interface problems have been reduced.

Besides quantitative research, Coderre, Mathieu and St-Laurent (2004) compared the quality of qualitative information obtained using three data collection methods, in the context of the development of a scale for the measurement of corporate image. Their research results showed that the quality of qualitative data obtained through a web-based survey was comparable to that of information obtained through telephone and postal surveys.

In order to examine if the current sample was a reasonable representation of the population of interest, respondents' demographic statistics were compared to Travel Industry Association of America's Travelers' Use of the Internet (2005 Edition) (Travel Industry Association of America, 2005a) and the Travel Industry Association's Profile of 2005 US Domestic Traveler Households (Travel Industry Association of America, 2005b) (see Table 9). Since the selections of samples were different and the questions being asked were also different among the studies, statistical analysis was not feasible. Therefore, the following discussion is mainly descriptive.

The general US domestic travelers are on average 46 years old with $70,200 household income annually. Approximately 40% of them have a college degree,

including 17% with graduate work started or completed. Most of them are married

(70%) and more than one third (36%) of them has one or more child live in their

household (Travel Industry Association of America, 2005b).

Similarly, respondents in the current study were 45.1 years old on average, had

a mean and median income range between $50,000 and $75,000. More than half of

the respondents (54.8%) were married, and 39.5% of them had a college degree,

including 12.2% with graduate work started or completed. There is more than one

fourth (27.1%) had one or more children live in the household.

TABLE 9

THE COMPARISON OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRENT
RESPONDENTS, AMERICAN ONLINE TRAVELERS & AMERICAN
DOMESTIC TRAVELERS

	Variable Name	Present Sample	2005 Online Travelers	2005 US Domestic Travelers
Gender	Male	51.5%	47%	
	Female	48.5%	53%	
Age	18-34		33%	
	35-54		47%	
	55+		20%	
	Average age	45.1		46
Income	Average Household Income	$50k-$75k	$73k	$70.2k
Education	College graduate or more	27.3%	42%	22%
	Post graduate work	12.2%	16%	17%
Marital	Married	54.8%	64%	70%
Status	Single, never married	27.7%	24%	16%
	Divorced/separated/widowed	16.0%	12%	14%
Children in household		27.1%	48%	36%

Additionally, in comparison to general American online travelers (Travel Industry Association of America, 2005a), it seems the current sample is around the same age with similar annual household income, but less educated. A higher percentage of the general American online travelers are married with children living in their household. Current respondents seem to represent general online travelers partially, but the present sample is demographically more similar to general US domestic travelers.

<div align="center">Measurement Properties</div>

Construct Validity

One of the biggest advantages of CFA/SEM is its ability to assess the construct validity of a proposed measurement theory. Construct validity is the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, it deals with the accuracy of measurement. Construct validity offers confidence that item measures taken from a sample represent the actual true score that exist in the population (Hair et al., 2006). Construct validity can be examined via face validity, discriminant validity, and/or convergent validity. Face validity was examined during the pilot test as the panel of experts were consulted to check the face validity of the measurement scale. Discriminant validity was performed via the average variance extracted estimate (AVE). Convergent validity is defined as "the items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proposition of variance in common" (Hair et al., 2006, p. 776). Composite reliability, factor loading, and variance extracted

were used to estimate the relative amount of convergent validity among item

measures.

Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was performed on cognitive image items as

suggested by previous destination image studies (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a;

Beerli & Martin, 2004). The factor analysis on cognitive items was conducted on the

data set from the responses. Principal component and varimax rotation procedures

were used to identify orthogonal factor dimensions. The latent root criterion of 1.0

was utilized for factor extraction and factor loadings of .40 were utilized for item

inclusion (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992). The 20 cognitive items all met

the cut-off point. Factor scores were computed by taking the average of items within

each other. Additionally, the factor analysis of the 20 cognitive items produced three

factors and explained 70.32% of the variance (Table 10). The factors were labeled as

natural environment, outdoor activity, and local attraction. Additionally, the

cronbach's coefficient alphas for each factor are displayed (Table 10). Other

researchers have argued that when research is in the exploratory stage (Hatcher,

1994) or when the numbers of items in a scale is less than six, cronbach's alphas

greater than .6 may be considered acceptable (Cortina, 1993).

TABLE 10

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF COGNITIVE ITEMS

Factor	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Cronbach's alpha
Factor I Natural Environment		11.218	56.09%	.933
Good climate	.731			
Great beaches	.614			
Beautiful landscape	.724			
Great variety of plants and animals	.587			
Good quality of infrastructure	.560			
Safe place to travel	.666			
Standard hygiene and cleanliness	.663			
Friendly people	.688			
Good value for money	.679			
Unpolluted/unspoiled environment	.740			
Factor II Outdoor Activity		1.032	5.16%	.896
Good birding opportunities	.816			
Nice hiking and biking trails	.739			
Nice fishing opportunities	.818			
Good hunting opportunities	.836			
Factor III Local Attraction		1.814	9.07%	.925
Convenient to get tourism information	.599			
Various shopping opportunities	.758			
Exciting night life and entertainment (nice bars, restaurants, shows and dancing)	.756			
Interesting cultural attractions	.744			
Interesting historical attractions	.731			
Appealing local food (cuisine)	.725			
Total Variance Explained			70.32%	

Average Variance Extracted Estimate

Another internal consistency check which is based on diagnostics is the average

variance extracted estimate (AVE). It assesses the amount of variance captured by a

set of items in a scale relative to measurement error. A rigorous level of .50 or above

has been advocated for AVE (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Netemeyer and colleagues

(2003) further suggested that AVE values near the .50 threshold (>.45) are

reasonable for newly developed scales. As can be seen in Table 11, all the AVE

values are either above .50 or near .50 which indicates the internal consistency of

the scale for current study.

TABLE 11
VARIANCE EXTRACTED FOR EACH LATENT CONSTRUCT

Cognitive Image	.687
Affective Image	.847
Normative Beliefs	.823
Subjective Norms	.806
Interpersonal Constraint	.520
Intrapersonal Constraint	.871
Structural Constraint	.522
Improving Finances & Time Management	.608
Changing Interpersonal Relations	.612
Behavioral Intentions	.870

Additionally, Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested to compare correlations

among the constructs to the square root of the AVE for each of the factors. If the

latter is greater than the former, its discriminant validity of the factors can be

established (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 12 reveals that the results of AVE

comparison for all factors' except these were found to have discriminant validity.

For constraint negotiation: the correlations between improving finances and

changing interpersonal relations, between improving finances and time management,

and between changing interpersonal relations and time management were .793, .912,

and .815 respectively, which were higher than their corresponding square root of

average variance extracted. Hence, their discriminant validities were questionable.

TABLE 12

DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY OF MEASUREMENT SCALE

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Cognitive image	.829[a]										
2	Affective Image	.690[b]	.920									
3	Normative Belief	.475	.609	.907								
4	Subjective Norm	.620	.744	.710	.898							
5	Interpersonal Constraint	-.111	-.082	-.073	-.136	.721						
6	Intrapersonal Constraint	-.462	-.584	-.438	-.587	.431	.933					
7	Structural Constraint	-.021	-.047	-.058	-.083	.629	.302	.722				
8	Improving Finance	.293	.314	.297	.285	-.086	-.213	-.010	.783	.		
9	Interpersonal Relation	.191	.228	.307	.258	.047	-.111	-.037	.793	.738		
10	Time Management	.280	.294	297	.278	-.152	-.222	-.109	.912	.815	.838	.
11	Behavioral Intentions	.469	.556	.520	.608	-.207	-.559	-.220	.308	.294	.317	.933

a. The diagonal entries (in bold) represent the square root of the average variance extracted by the construct.

b. The corrections between constructs are shown in the lower triangle.

Researchers have suggested that the use modification indices and EFA can be

used to identify problematic measurement items and misfitting parameters

(Netemeyer et al., 2003). Both modification indices and EFA were adopted for

respecification. The suggested procedure was taken to respecify constraint

negotiation. The results of the EFA did not confirm the three-factor structure of

constraint negotiation, as the "Improving finances" and "Time management"

constructs were not distinct from each other, thus, were merged into one factor:

"Improving finances and time management". "Plan traveling around my family/friend's work time" (cross-loaded on Improving finances and time management) and "Try to travel in the off-season when destinations are less crowded" (cross-loaded on Changing interpersonal relations) were deleted from measurement due to cross-loading problems, and "Learn to live within my financial means" was also dropped due to low factor loading (less than .6). This resulted in eight items for the "Improving finances and time management" construct and three items for "Changing interpersonal relations". Table 13 shows the modified discriminant validity of measurement scale and the results indicated that the square root of the average variance extracted for all factors were larger than their correlations with other factors. This implies that all the measurement scales in the current study have discriminant validity.

TABLE 13
MODIFIED DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY OF MEASUREMENT SCALE

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Cognitive image	.829[a]									
2	Affective Image	.690[b]	.920								
3	Normative Belief	.475	.609	.907							
4	Subjective Norm	.620	.744	.710	.898						
5	Interpersonal Constraint	-.110	-.069	-.080	-.146	.721					
6	Intrapersonal Constraint	-.462	-.584	-.438	-.587	.432	.933				
7	Structural Constraint	-.021	-.047	-.058	-.083	.504	.302	.722			
8	Finance & Time Mgt.	.285	.304	.303	.283	-.133	-.226	-.093	.780	.	
9	Interpersonal Relation	.147	.183	.259	..216	.096	-.075	-.052	.722	.781	
10	Behavioral Intentions	.469	.556	.520	.608	-.179	-.559	-.218	.322	.266	.933

a. The diagonal entries (in bold) represent the square root of the average variance extracted by the construct.
b. The corrections between constructs are shown in the lower triangle.

The composite reliability of the factors for each construct was examined to also test the internal consistency of indicators measuring the underlying factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Researchers (Netemeyer et al., 2003) have suggested that a factor is reliable when its composite reliability is greater than .6. The composite reliability for, interpersonal constraints, intrapersonal constraints, structural constraints, and changing interpersonal relation each had a value of .51, .55, .53, and .58 respectively. According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988), items with loadings below .6 should be deleted to maximize reliability. Therefore, "My family is too young to travel" (interpersonal constraint), "Traveling involve too much risk" (intrapersonal constraint), "My health does not allow me to travel" (intrapersonal constraint), "I don't really feel safe traveling to Texas" (intrapersonal constraint), "It is too expensive to travel" (structural constraint), "I have no time to take a trip" (structural constraint), "Family commitments keep me from traveling" (structural constraint), "There is too much planning involved" (structural constraint), "I cannot travel to Texas because of my work responsibilities" (structural constraint), and "Try to get a better job so I can afford to travel" (improving finances) had been removed to improve reliability. After item deletion, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and changing interpersonal relation still did not meet the .6 cutoff point, but all the factor loadings were above .6., it was determined that these scales were only moderately reliable. Thus, Bacon and colleagues (1995) argued that the presence of items with low loadings does not reduce reliability, but does lead to more unexplained variance in the items, which in term may lead to correlated error terms. The greater the

unexplained item variance, the larger the possibility of crossloadings or correlated terms. Thus item reliability or indicators of unidimensionality may be more useful in scale development than indicators of composite reliability (Bacon et al., 1995).

The size of a factor loading is an important criterion. In order to achieve high convergent validity, high loadings on a factor would indicate that they are statistically significant. According to Hair et al. (2006), all factor loadings should be .5, and all the measurement items met the .5 threshold.

The average percentage of variance extracted (VE) among a set of construct items is a summary indicator of convergence (Hair et al., 2006). This value can be calculated by using standardized loadings from AMOS output. A VE of .5 or higher is a good rule of thumb suggesting adequate convergence. A VE measure should be computed for each latent construct in a measurement model. VE was calculated for each construct (Table 11) and all the VEs met the recommended threshold.

Cronbach's Coefficient

The most widely adopted measure to examine scale reliability in cross-sectional studies is cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cortina, 1993). Therefore, cronbach's coefficient alpha was also performed to test the reliability of the scales used in this study. It has been suggested that coefficients of 0.70 or higher are acceptable, while coefficients of 0.90 or above indicate good reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Other researchers have argued that when research is in the exploratory stage (Hatcher, 1994) or when the number of items in a scale is less than six, Cronbach's alphas greater than 0.6 may be considered acceptable (Cortina,

1993). The reliability coefficients for the scales used in this study are reported in Table 14.

After model respecification, CFA was performed on all items again and the modified factor loadings and composite reliabilities are presented in Table 14. Cognitive image and affective image were operationalized similar to Beerli and Martin (2004) and Lam and Hsu (2006). The reliability coefficient of the three item scales of cognitive image was .859 and the five item scale of affective image was .964.

The subjective norm, normative belief, and behavioral intention measurement scales were adopted from Lam and Hsu (2004). The three-item scale measuring normative belief, subjective norm, and behavioral intentions had reliability coefficients of .931, .921, and .951 respectively.

Constraint was measured with three dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints as previous research has suggested (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). Measurement items were adopted and adjusted from Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) and Hubbard and Mannell (2001), and interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural constraints were each measured with three, two, and three items which yielded coefficient scores of .759, .931, and .760 respectively.

TABLE 14
FINAL MODEL SCALE RELIABILITIES

Scale Items		Factor Loading	Coefficient α	Composite reliability	Mean	S.D.
Cognitive Image			.859	.821		
	Natural Environment	.923			4.866	1.133
	Outdoor Activities	.656			4.462	1.194
	Local Attractions	.882			5.227	1.195
Affective Image			.964	.928		
	Unpleasant-Pleasant	.862			5.049	1.421
	Negative-Positive	.937			5.019	1.496
	Unenjoyable-Enjoyable	.953			5.016	1.464
	Unfavorable-Favorable	.954			4.986	1.530
	Boring-Fun	.892			4.935	1.464
Subjective Norm			.921	.827		
	Most people whose opinions I value would approve of me visiting Texas	.929			4.831	1.547
	People who are important to me would think I should visit Texas	.837			4.321	1.675
	People who are important to me would approve of me visiting Texas	.925			4.905	1.563
Normative Belief			.931	.862		
	Spouse/significant other	.853			24.385	13.895
	Friends	.934			21.621	12.828
	Family	.932			22.191	13.067
Constraints Interpersonal			.759	.489		
	I have no one to travel with	.706			3.060	1.929
	My family and friends are not interested in traveling	.774			3.160	1.726
	The people I know don't have the time to travel with me	.680			3.280	1.848
Intrapersonal			.931	.794		
	I am not interested in the activities in Texas	.951			3.310	1.849
	I am not interested in traveling in Texas	.915			3.310	1.915
Structural			.760	.492		
	I cannot afford to travel	.649			4.790	1.790

TABLE 14 continued

Scale Items		Factor Loading	Coefficient α	Composite reliability	Mean	S.D.
	The things I want to do are expensive	.785			4.270	1.822
	Areas I want to visit are too far away	.726			4.140	1.891
Constraint Negotiation Improving Finances & Time Management			.949	.855		
	Budget my money for traveling	.758			3.522	1.704
	Find a destination that best fits within my budget	.762			4.042	1.765
	Save up money to travel	.821			4.060	1.871
	Set aside time for traveling	.859			3.778	1.740
	Plan ahead for things so that I can travel	.932			4.046	1.776
	Be organized so that I can travel	.927			4.128	1.787
	Prioritize what I want to do, and make traveling a priority	.854			3.707	1.753
	Find a destination that best fits within my time limitations	.758			4.218	1.792
Changing Interpersonal Relations			.815	.584		
	Try to find people with similar interests to travel with	.721			3.428	1.816
	Organize travel plans for people I know	.771			2.943	1.809
	Try to find people with similar interests to travel with	.847			3.192	1.870
Behavioral Intentions			.951	.817		
	I intend to travel to Texas within the next 2 years	.957			4.037	2.130
	I want to visit Texas within the next 2 years	.914			4.262	2.101
	The possibility for me to travel to Texas within the next 2 years is	.927			4.133	2.126

Similar to Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007), constraint negotiation was measured by two sub-dimensions: improving finances and time management and changing interpersonal relations. Improving finances and time management was measured with a eight-item scale and produced a coefficient score of .949. Changing interpersonal relations was measured with three-item scale and yielded alpha coefficient of .815. Since all of the Cronbach alpha coefficients reported above were greater than 0.7, the scales were deemed acceptable.

Discriminant Validity

Furthermore, discriminant validity was performed to test statistically whether the constructs differed from each other. Researchers (Campell & Fiske, 1959; Kline, 2005) have used r = .85 as a rule-of-thumb cutoff for this assessment, fearing that correlations above this level signal definitional overlap of concepts, or is correlation among indicators of different constructs. Inter-correlations between major constructs were received from AMOS as previous research suggested (Hatcher, 1994). The correlations indicated the strength of the association between the constructs. Table 15 displays the results of the correlation analysis. As can be seen, cognitive image and affective image were highly correlated, but did not exceed the suggested cutoff point. The same occurred for the correlation between affective image and subjective norms. Normative belief and subjective norms, as expected, were highly correlated since they both were measuring family and friends' opinions about traveling to Texas. The two measurement constructs of constraint negotiation were also highly correlated to each other but did not exceed the .85 recommended threshold.

TABLE 15

IMPLIED CORRELATIONS BETWEEN MAJOR CONSTRUCTS

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Cognitive image	**1.000**									
2	Affective Image	.690	**1.000**								
3	Normative Belief	.475	.609	**1.000**							
4	Subjective Norm	.620	.744	.710	**1.000**						
5	Interpersonal Constraint	-.110	-.069	-.080	-.146	**1.000**					
6	Intrapersonal Constraint	-.462	-.584	-.438	-.587	.432	**1.000**				
7	Structural Constraint	-.021	-.047	-.058	-.083	.504	.302	**1.000**			
8	Finance & Time Mgt.	.285	.304	.303	.283	-.133	-.226	-.093	**1.000**		
9	Interpersonal Relation	.147	.183	.259	..216	.096	-.075	-.052	.722	**1.000**	
10	Behavioral Intentions	.469	.556	.520	.608	-.179	-.559	-.218	.322	.266	**1.000**

CHAPTER VI

HYPOTHESES TESTING

The goal of SEM is to provide a parsimonious summary of the interrelationships among variables while testing the hypothesized relationships between constructs (Kahn, 2006; Weston & Gore, 2006). Furthermore, SEM allows the use of multiple measures to represent constructs and addresses the issue of measure-specific error so researchers can establish the construct validity of factors (Weston & Gore, 2006). In SEM, researchers must evaluate multiple test statistics and a host of fit indices to determine whether the model accurately represents the relationships among constructs and observed variables (Weston & Gore, 2006). Additionally, SEM is a combination of factor analysis and path analysis which has two primary components: the measurement model and structural model (Kline, 2005). The measurement model describes the relationships between observed variables and the constructs those variables are hypothesized to measure. On the other hand, the structural model describes interrelationships among constructs.

The fit of the proposed model was examined with the following fit indices: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Steiger & Lind, 1980), Comparative Fit Index (Bentler, 1990), Normative Fit Index (NFI), and Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit (AGFI). It has been argued that there are problems associated with the use of Chi-square due to the influences of sample size and deviations from multinormality (Byrne, 2001). It has thus been suggested to be necessary to include other fit indices to gain a holistic understating of the overall fit between data and

proposed models including: RMSEA, CFI, and NFI to report the indication of the goodness-of-fit measures (Bentler, 1990; McDonald & Marsh, 1990; Mulaik et al., 1989).

Measurement Model

Measurement models in SEM allow researchers to evaluate how well the observed variables combine to identify underlying hypothesized constructs (Weston & Gore, 2006). Confirmatory factory analysis was used to test the measurement model, and the hypothesized factors (latent variables). This section provides graphic representation and fit indices of the models.

Constraints

There are two types of measurement models: first-order and second-order (Kline, 2005). First-order models describe the relationships among latent variables and observed variables. Second-order models represent a higher level of analysis as the latent variables are explained by other latent variables. If no relationships are observed among first-order factors, there is no justification for pursuing higher-order factor analysis (Brown, 2006).

The general sequence of CFA-based higher-order factor analysis is as follows: 1) develop a well-behaved (i.e., good-fitting) first-order CFA solution; 2) examine the magnitude and pattern of correlations among factors in the first-order solution; and 3) fit the second-order factor model, as justified on conceptual grounds (Brown, 2006). The first-order measurement model of constraints was demonstrated in Figure 8, allowing the correlations among the factors to be freely estimated. The

three-factor solution provided a good fit to the data, the Chi-square value is 80.5
with the degree of freedom of 17, RMSEA (0.051), CFI (0.987), NFI (0.983), and
AGFI (0.970). Thus, all of the goodness-of-fit indices fell into an acceptable range
(Table 16). The completely standardized parameter estimates of this solution were
checked and all eight items were reasonable indicators of their respective latent
factors.

FIGURE 8
FIRST-ORDER MEASUREMENT MODEL OF CONSTRAINTS
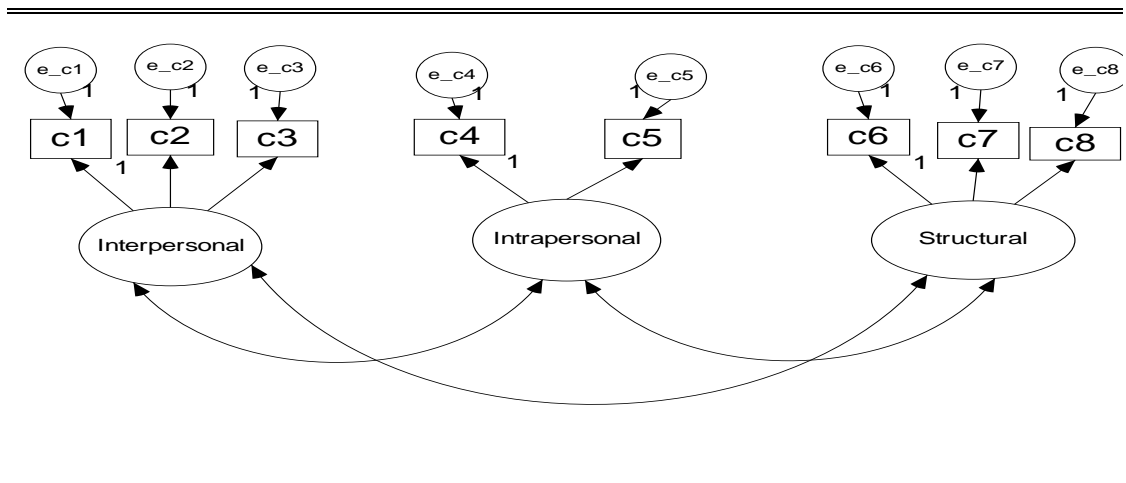
Moreover, the higher-order portion of the solution must be statistically
identified. Figure 9 presents the second-order measurement model of constraints
which means the three latent variables in the first-order measurement model were
explained by a higher level latent variable- Constraints. The fit indices are presented
in Table 16, and revealed that all of the fit indices of the second-order model are
identical to the first-order model which suggests the model had an acceptable fit. As

Brown suggested (2006, p. 326) "if the first-order model has three factors, a solution that specifies a single higher-order factor would be just-identified; that is, the higher-order solution would produce the same goodness of fit as the first-order model in which the three factors are allowed to freely covary". Additionally, Brown asserted that a higher-order solution cannot improve goodness of fit relative to the first-order solution where the factors are freely correlated (Brown, 2006). Because the second-order model did not result in a significant decrease in model fit, it can be concluded that the model provided a good account for the correlations among the first-order factors.

FIGURE 9

SECOND-ORDER MEASUREMENT MODEL OF CONSTRAINTS
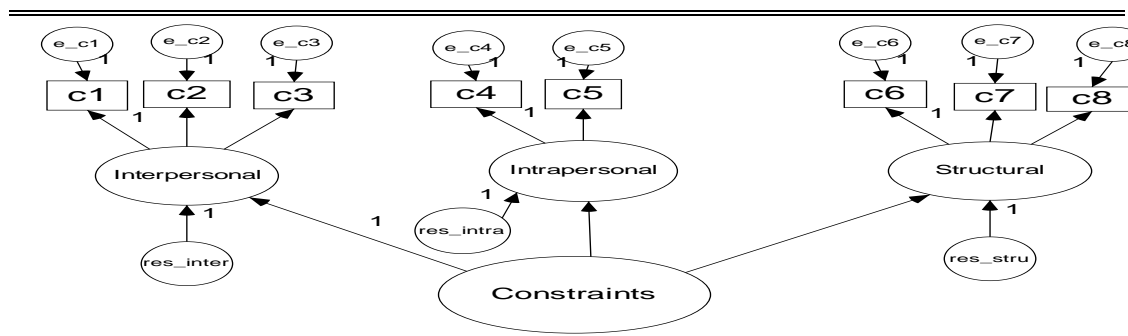
TABLE 16

ESTIMATION OF FIT INDICES OF CONSTRAINTS MEASUREMENT MODELS

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
1st order	80.5	17	.051	.987	.983	.970
2nd order	80.5	17	.051	.987	.983	.970

Constraint Negotiation

The measurement model of constraint negotiation was represented by two orders, with eight observed variables explaining "Improving Finances and Time Management" and three observed variables explaining "Interpersonal Relations" in the first-order measurement model (Figure 10). All the fit indices suggested an acceptable fit of the model (RMSEA=.130, CFI=.923, NFI=.921, AGFI=.816).

FIGURE 10
FIRST-ORDER MEASUREMENT MODEL OF NEGOTIATION
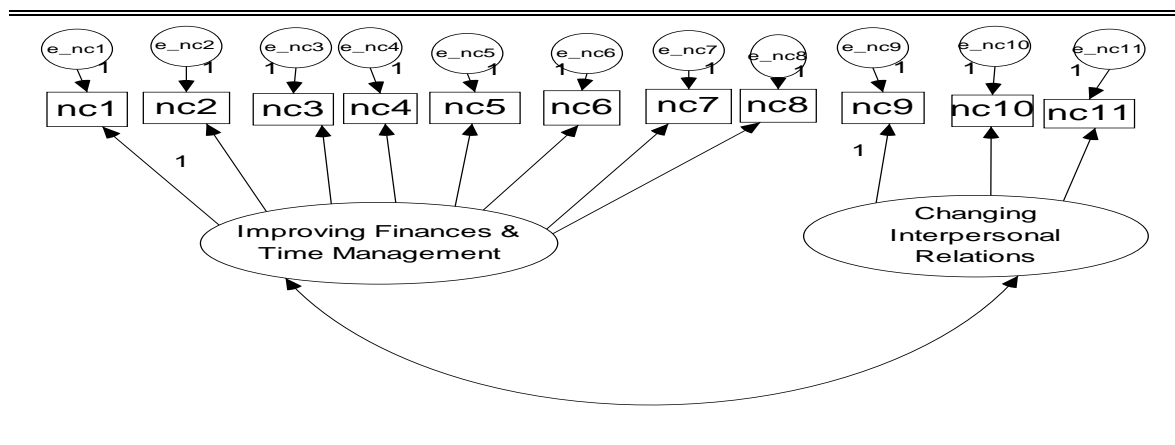
Furthermore, the higher-order portion of the solution must be statistically identified. Figure 11 presents the second-order measurement model of constraint negotiation with the two latent variables in the first-order measurement model explaining a higher level of latent variable- Constraint Negotiation. The fit indices are presented in Table 17, and revealed that; all the fit indices of second-order model

are identical to the first-order model suggesting the model had a good fit.

FIGURE 11
SECOND-ORDER MEASUREMENT MODEL OF CONSTRAINT
NEGOTIATION
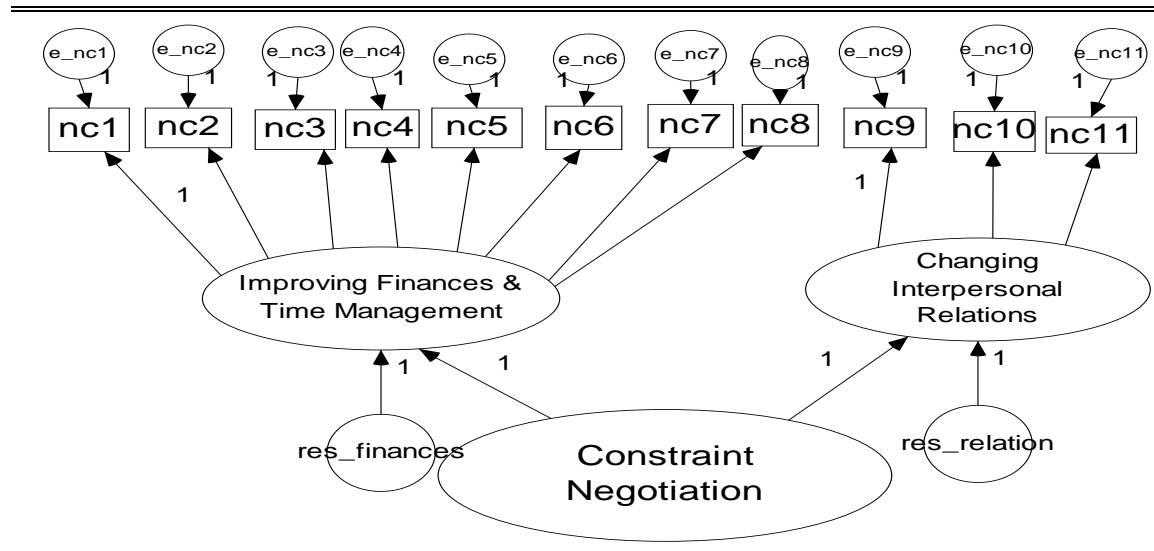
TABLE 17
ESTIMATION OF FIT INDICES OF CONSTRAINT NEGOTIATION
MEASUREMENT MODELS

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
1st order	1091.3	43	.130	.923	.921	.816
2nd order	1091.3	43	.130	.923	.921	.816

Destination Image

The measurement model of destination image was also represented by two

orders. In the first order measurement model, three variables were explained by

"Cognitive Image" and five variables were depicted by "Affective Image" (Figure

12). All the fit indices suggested an acceptable fit of the model (RMSEA=.104,

CFI=.976, NFI=.975, AGFI=.897).

FIGURE 12
FIRST-ORDER MEASUREMENT MODEL OF DESTINATION IMAGE
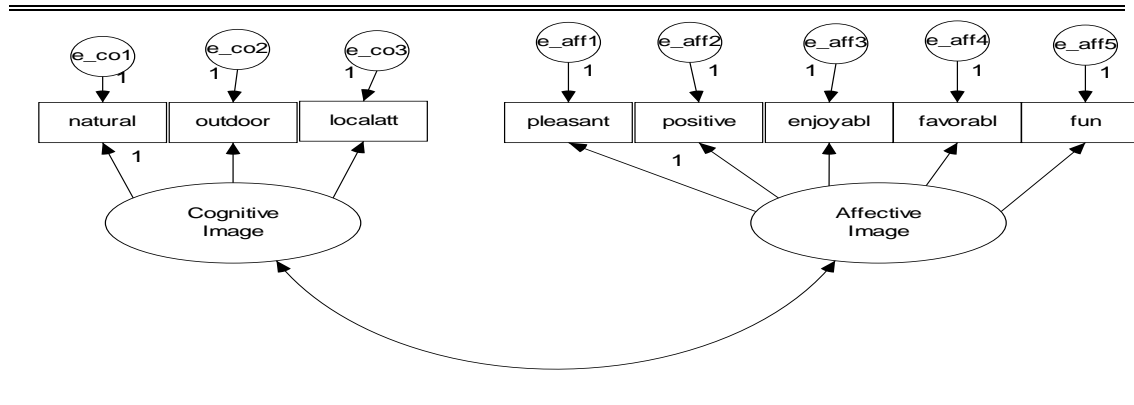
The second-order measurement model of destination image suggested that the latent variables in the first-order measurement model were predicted by a higher order latent variable-Perceived Destination Image (Figure 13). All the fit indices suggested an acceptable fit of the model. All the fit indices were suggested an acceptable fit (RMSEA=.104, CFI=.976, NFI=.975, AGFI=.897) of the model, and can be seen in Table 18.

FIGURE 13

A SECOND-ORDER MEASUREMENT MODEL OF DESTINATION IMAGE
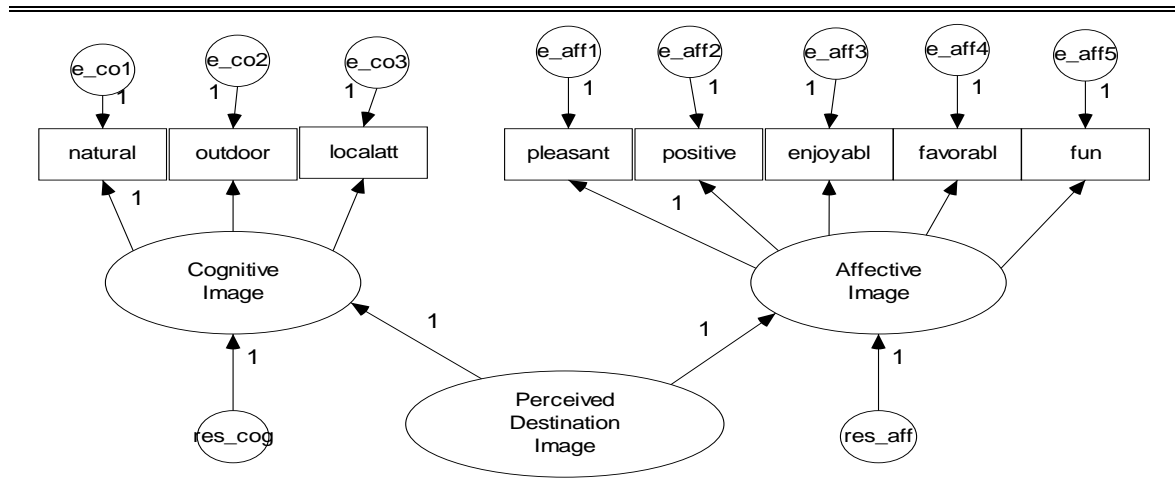
TABLE 18

THE ESTIMATION OF FIT INDICES OF PERCEIVED DESTINATION IMAGE

MEASUREMENT MODELS

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
1st order	315.3	19	0.104	.976	.975	.897
2nd order	315.3	19	0.104	.976	.975	.897

Normative Belief and Subjective Norms

The measurement model for normative belief and subjective norms is shown

in Figure 14. Three observed variables were used to explain normative belief and

subjective norm. All the fit indices (RMSEA= .106, CFI= .999, NFI= .998,

AGFI= .988) (Table 19) suggested that the measurement model for normative

beliefs and subjective norms had an acceptable fit to the data.

FIGURE 14

A MEASUREMENT MODEL OF NORMATIVE BELIEF AND SUBJECTIVE
NORMS
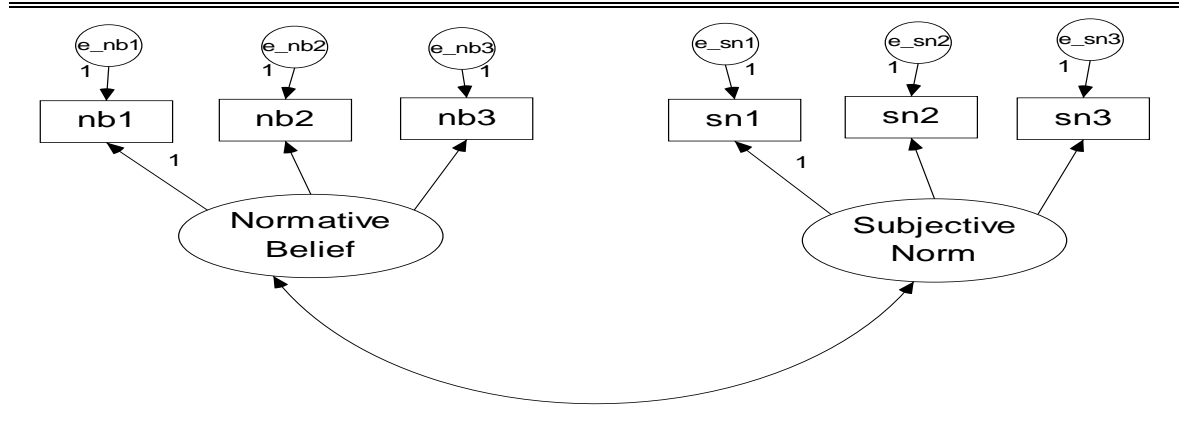
TABLE 19

FIT INDICES OF NORMATIVE BELIEF AND SUBJECTIVE NORM
MEASUREMENT MODEL

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
Measurement	137.4	8	.106	.984	.983	.918

Overall Model

The measurement model was assessed where all factors involved are assumed

to covary with each other (Kline, 2005). Byrne (2001) suggested that researchers

need to test their measurement model first to know if the measuring instrument is

appropriately measuring the underlying constructs they are designed to measure and

to assess any inadequate fits before testing the full model. The measurement model

shows some misfit, as its goodness-of fit statistics, chi-square = 3256.2 with 550

degree of freedom, RMSEA = .058, CFI= .943, NFI= .933, and AGFI= .859, fell out

of the acceptable range. The Modification Index given by AMOS suggested the

model fit could be significantly improved by permitting for pairs of errors to

correlate. The first was between items "cn1" (Budget my money for traveling) and

"cn2" (Find a destination that best fits within my budget) ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 169.8, $\triangle$df=1)

(RMSEA= .057, CFI= .947, NFI= .936, and AGFI= .864). According to Jöreskog

(1993), every correlation between error terms has to be justified and interpreted. In

the current case, the specification of an error correlation between cn1 and cn2 can be

substantiated theoretically as both measurement items are related to travel budgets.

In the same vein, it was considered appropriate to reestimate the model with the

error covariance between "cn1" (Budget my money for traveling) and "cn3" (Save

up money to travel) specified as a free parameter ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 107.3, $\triangle$df=1)

(RMSEA=.055, CFI= .949, NFI= .938, and AGFI= .867), as the two items appear to

elicit similar responses regarding to financial means.

Similarly, it was considered appropriate to reestimate the model with the error

covariance between "cn2" (Find a destination that best fits within my budget) and

"cn8" (Find a destination that best fits within my time limitations) specified as a free

parameter ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 178.0, $\triangle$df=1) (RMSEA= .053, CFI= .953, NFI= .942, and

AGFI= .875). The two items appear to elicit similar responses reflecting the same

mind set.

Likewise, it was considered reasonable to respecify the model with the error

covariance between "aff1" (pleasant) and "aff2" (positive) specified as a free

parameter ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 82.9, $\triangle$df=1) (RMSEA= .052, CFI= .954, NFI= .944, and

AGFI= .879). The two items appear to elicit similar responses reflecting the feelings toward a destination.

Specification of the four error correlations resulted in a good fit of the measurement model, χ^2 = 2718.2, df = 546, RMSEA = .052, CFI = .954, NFI = .944, and AGFI= .879. Based on previous discussion, it was concluded that the validity and reliability of measures used for measurement model had been established. Furthermore, the modified measurement model (Figure 15) demonstrated good fit. It was thus determined that the hypothesized model, which would further investigate the predictive validity of these constructs was ready to be examined.

FIGURE 15
MODIFIED MEASUREMENT MODEL
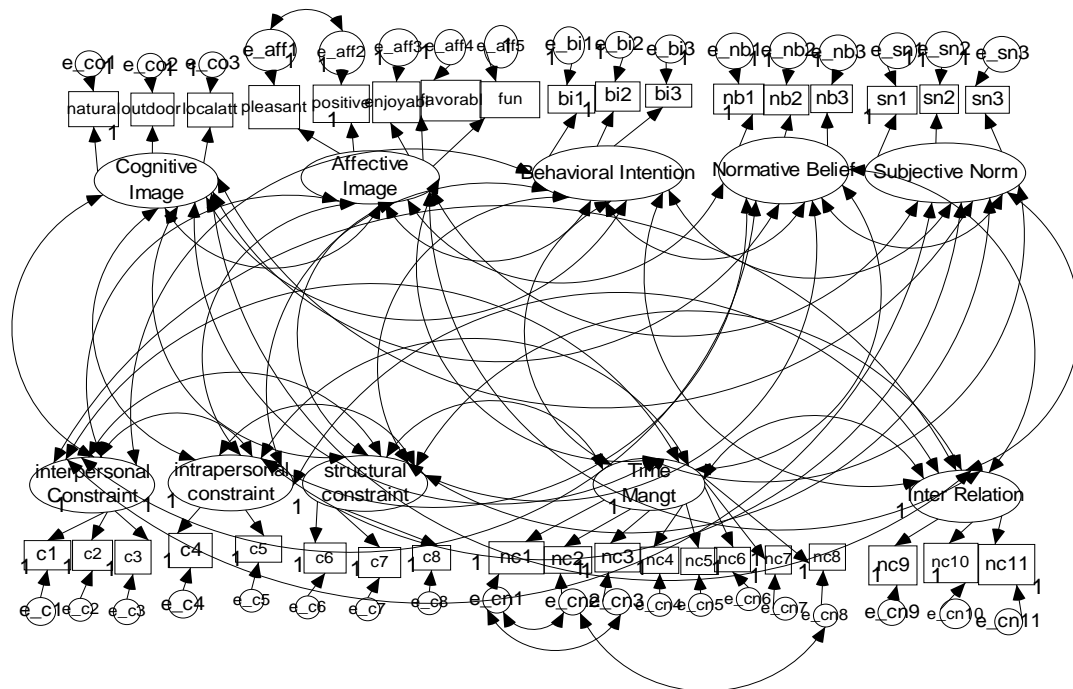
Structural Model

Structural models are typically examined after measurement models. Equations in the structural portion of the model specify the hypothesized relations among latent variables (Weston & Gore, 2006). This section tests the hypothesized relationships among latent variables and the overall fit of the proposed model to the data. The four hypotheses presented in Chapter IV were examined including the hypothesized paths: destination image → behavioral intentions; normative belief → subjective norm; subjective norm → behavioral intentions; constraints → constraint negotiation; constraints → behavioral intentions; constraint negotiation → behavioral intentions.

Model estimation, involves determining the value of unknown parameters and the error associated with the estimated value. The most obvious examination of a structural model is to test the significance for the estimated coefficients (paths), which provide the basis for accepting or rejecting the proposed relationships between latent variables (Kline, 2005). The fit of the structural model was also assessed with the Squared multiple correlaction (R^2) for structural equations, which indicates the amount of variance in each endogenous latent variable accounted for by the antecedent variables in the relevant structural equation (Chi & Qu, 2008).

To examine the overall fit of the proposed model, the grand model with all constructs of interest (cognitive image, affective image, destination image, normative belief, subjective norm, constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions) were all tested at once in AMOS (Figure 16). The fit indices

(RMSEA= .071, CFI= .911, NFI= .900, and AGFI= .808) suggested the model had a

good fit to the data (Table 20).

FIGURE 16

TESTING PROPOSED MODEL
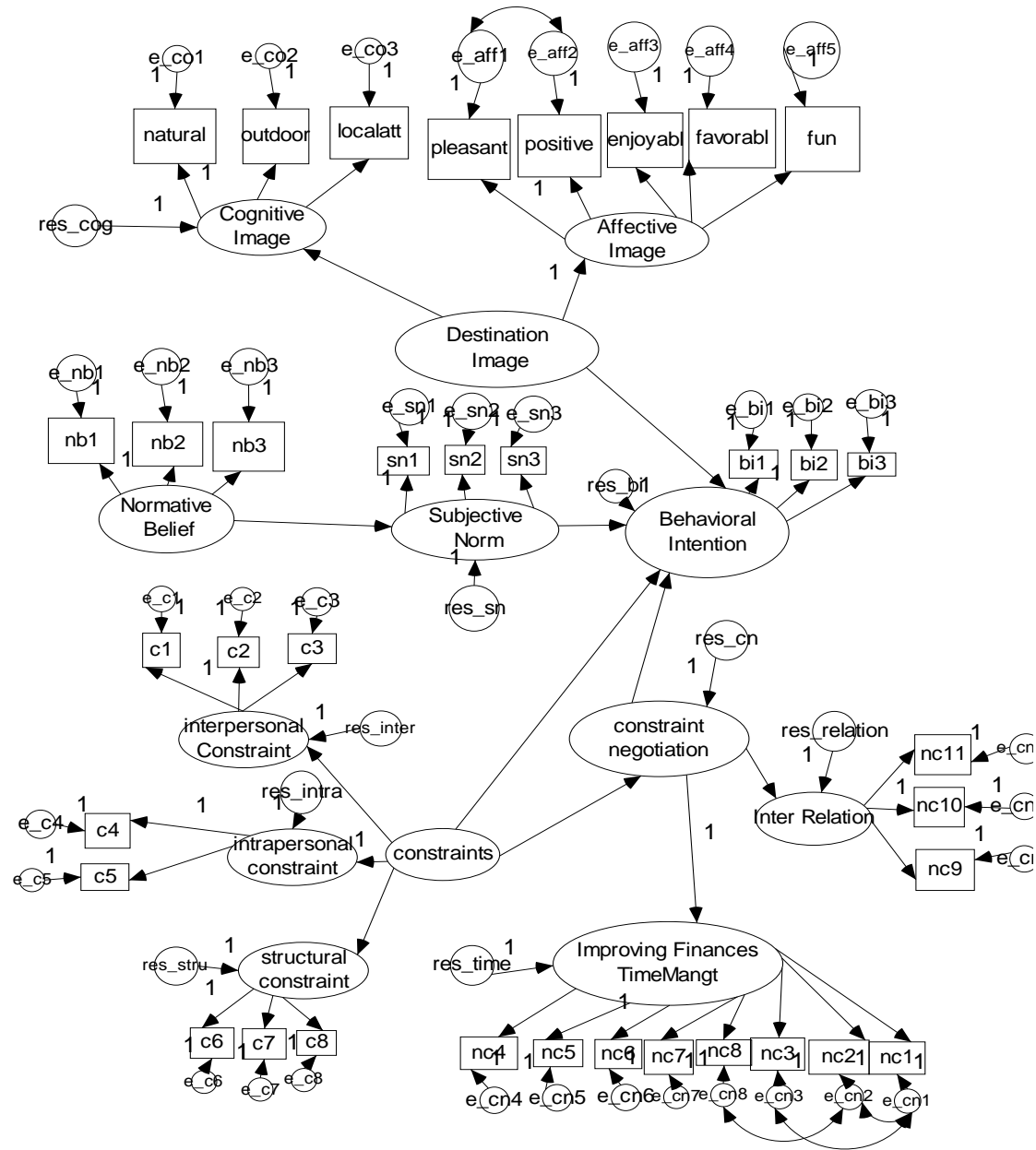
TABLE 20

ESTIMATION OF FIT INDICES OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
Proposed	4836.2	578	.071	.911	.900	.808

As mentioned previously, R^2 is an indication of how much variance of an endogenous variable is depicted by exogenous variables. Subjective norms, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions are endogenous variables in the proposed model and their R^2 values are presented in Table 21.

TABLE 21

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION VALUES OF ENDOGENOUS VARIABLES

Endogenous variable	R^2 value
Subjective Norm	.506
Constraint Negotiation	.028
Behavioral Intention	.316

The test results revealed that normative beliefs explained 50.6% of the variance in subjective norms. Additionally, 31.6% of the variance of behavioral intention was explained by perceived destination image, subjective norms, constraints, and constraint negotiation. However, only a small percentage (2.8%) of the variance in constraint negotiation was explained by constraints.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing was conducted in the following section to examine the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the proposed model. The

regression paths for the proposed model are presented in Table 22.

TABLE 22

REGRESSION PATHS OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ration (t-value)	p
Destination image → Behavioral intention	.242	.034	10.074	P<.001
Normative belief → Subjective norm	.712	.027	29.110	P<.001
Subjective norm → Behavioral intention	.417	.030	16.821	P<.001
Constraints → Constraint Negotiation	-.167	.057	-7.447	P<.001
Constraints →Behavioral intention	-.284	.055	-8.323	P<.001
Constraint negotiation → Behavioral intention	.023	.011	1.355	P = .175

Hypothesis 1a: Destination image positively affects behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 1 investigated the relationship between destination image and behavioral intentions. It was hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between these two constructs. Results revealed that the proposed relationship was statistically significant (p<.001) (Table 23). The standard regression coefficient for the effect of destination image on behavioral intentions was .242 which means that for each unit increase of destination image the corresponding increase of behavioral intentions was .242. The positive regression coefficient reveals a positive influence of destination image on behavioral intentions as predicted in hypothesis 1a. Hence, hypothesis was supported.

TABLE 23

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 1a

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Destination image → Behavioral intention	.242	.034	10.074	P<.001

Hypothesis 1b: Destination image is explained by both cognitive and affective

image.

Hypothesis 1b tested the relationships between destination image and cognitive

and affective images. It was hypothesized that destination image would be explained

by both cognitive and affective images. The research results suggested that the

proposed relationships were statistically significant (p<.001) (Table 24). The

standard regression coefficient for the effect of destination image on cognitive

image was .685 which means that for each unit increase of destination image the

corresponding increase of cognitive image was .685. The positive regression

coefficient reveals a positive influence of destination image on cognitive image as

predicted in hypothesis 1b. Hence, hypothesis was supported.

TABLE 24
TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 1b

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p	Squared multiple correlations (R^2)
Destination image → Cognitive image	.685	.022	27.466	P<.001	.469
Destination image → Affective image	1.000	---	---	---	---

Hypothesis 2a: Subjective norms positively affect behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 2a examined the relationship between subjective norms and

behavioral intentions. It was hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship

between these two constructs. This relationship was supported by the data (p<.001)

(Table 25) and suggested that people who receive positive opinions from people

they know regarding traveling to Texas were more likely to travel to Texas than

people who received negative opinions from people they know about their traveling to Texas. The standard path coefficient was .417 which means that by increasing one unit of subjective norm, behavioral intentions increase .417 correspondingly. Hence, hypothesis 2a was accepted.

TABLE 25

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 2a

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Subjective norm → Behavioral intention	.417	16.821	P<.001

Hypothesis 2b: Normative beliefs are positively associated with subjective norms.

Hypothesis 2b was concerned with the relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norms. It was expected that the relationship between these two constructs would be positive. Results revealed that this was the case. The path between normative beliefs and subjective norms was positive (.712) and statistically significant (p<.001) (Table 26). This result indicates the higher the normative belief people possess, the more they think the people they know would approve their travel to Texas.

TABLE 26

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 2b

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Normative belief → Subjective norm	.712	.027	29.110	P<.001

Furthermore, the standard path coefficient showed how much change in subjective norm occurred in corresponding to the changes of normative belief. For

instance, the standard coefficient for the path between normative belief and subjective norm was .784 which means for each unit increase of normative beliefs, subjective norms would have a .784 unit change. Therefore, hypothesis 2b was accepted.

Hypothesis 3a: Constraints (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) negatively affect behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 3a explored the relationships between constraints and behavioral intentions. It was hypothesized that there would be a negative relationship between those two constructs which means the more constraints people experienced toward travel, the less likely they would like to travel. This hypothesis was supported by the data. The path between constraints and behavioral intentions was found to be statistically significant ($p<.001$) (Table 27). The standard path coefficients for the model was -.284 which suggested that behavioral intentions decreased -.284 unit for every unit increased in constraints. The negative notation in the regression coefficient signaled a negative relationship among those two constructs and which was predicted. Hence, hypothesis 3a was accepted.

TABLE 27

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 3a

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Constraints → Behavioral intentions	-.284	.055	-8.323	P<.001

Hypothesis 3b: Constraints are explained by intrapersonal, interpersonal, and

structural constraints.

Hypothesis 3b tested the relationships among constraints and interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural constraints. It was hypothesized that constraints would be explained by interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural constraints. The research results suggested that the proposed relationships were statistically significant (p<.001) (Table 28).

TABLE 28

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 3b

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p	Squared multiple correlations (R^2)
Constraints → Interpersonal constraint	.724	.083	11.914	P<.001	.525
Constraints → Intrapersonal constraint	.613	---	---	---	.375
Constraints → Structural constraint	.590	.057	11.162	P<.001	.384

A further investigation was performed to find out whether interpersonal, intrapersonal, or structural constraints were the most important element in explaining travel constraints. Standard path coefficients and R^2 were compared across the three constraint factors (Table 28). It was found that "interpersonal constraint" had the highest path coefficient (.724) and R^2 (.525). This revealed that for the current study interpersonal constraints were the best predictor of constraints.

Hypothesis 4a: Constraint negotiation positively affects behavioral intentions.

This hypothesis investigated the effect that constraint negotiation has on behavioral intentions. It was hypothesized that constraint negotiation would be positively related to behavioral intentions and also suggested that the more negotiation strategies people utilized to minimize their constraints, the more likely people would like to travel. The results of current study did not support this

hypothesis (p= .175) (Table 29). The coefficient was weak which did not signal a

positive relationship between these two constructs. Hence, hypothesis 4a was

rejected.

TABLE 29

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 4a

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Constraint negotiation → Behavioral intentions	.023	.011	1.355	P=.175

Hypothesis 4b: Constraint negotiation is explained by improving finances and time management and changing interpersonal relations negotiation strategies.

Hypothesis 4b examined the relationships among constraint negotiation and

improving finances and time management and interpersonal relations. It was

hypothesized that constraint negotiation would be explained by improving finances

and time management and interpersonal relations. The research results suggested

that the proposed relationships were statistically significant (p<.05) (Table 30). Thus,

hypothesis 4b was accepted.

TABLE 30

TESTING RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS 4b

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Negotiation → Improving finances & Time Management	1.621	---	---	---
Negotiation → Interpersonal relation	.440	.091	2.473	P<.05

Hypothesis 4c: Constraint negotiation will act as a mediator between constraints and behavioral intentions.

Hypothesis 4c provided an opportunity to test competing models of the

constraint negotiation process by examining the relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions. Past research findings have suggested that constraints do not always prevent or reduce participation (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Scott, 1991). However, so far, the research on constraint negotiation has generally been descriptive and concentrated on identifying and categorizing negotiation strategies rather than on their operation (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; White, 2008). The interrelationships among constraints, and constraint negotiation, and the process by which these factors influence behavioral intentions require not only empirical study, but also further theoretical specification. Similar to Hubbard and Mannell, the current study examined two competing models of these interrelationships.

The first was to examine the direct effects of constraints and constraint negotiation on behavioral intentions, meaning that constraints has a negative effect and negotiation has positive effects. The first model named independent model (Figure 17). Level of behavioral intentions is predicted from the summation of these positive and negative effects.

FIGURE 17
INDEPENDENCE MODEL
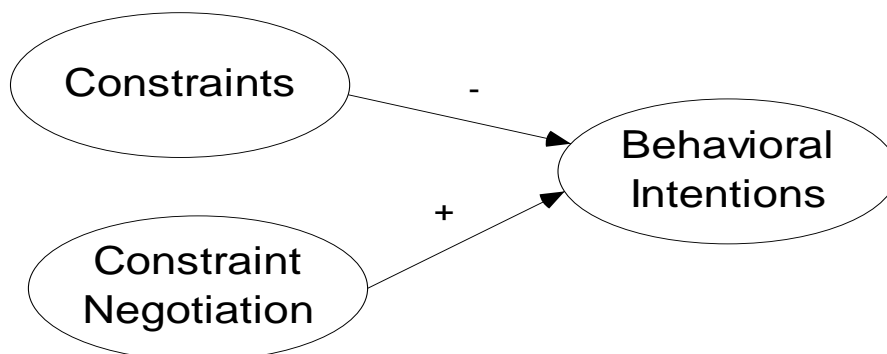
As suggested by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), a mediation model (Figure 18) was developed to describe an alternative set of relationships or processes that might exist among constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions.

FIGURE 18
MEDIATION MODEL
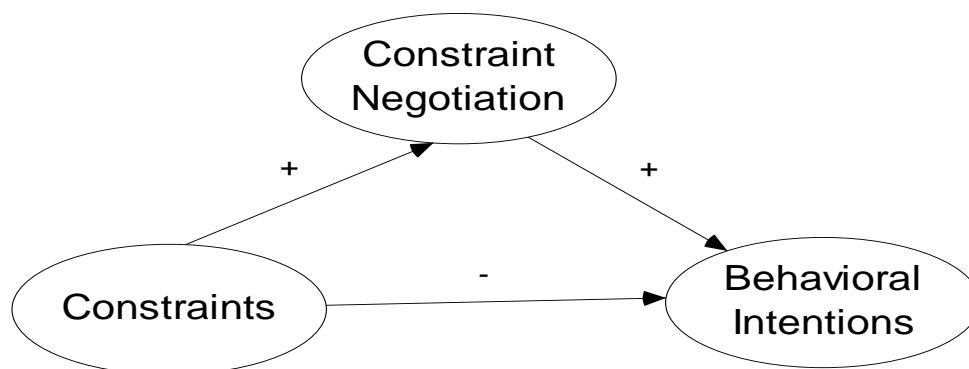
Constraint negotiation could have various roles in the constraint negotiation process. Constraints and constraint negotiation is hypothesized in the model to affect

behavioral intentions directly, negatively and positively respectively which is similar to the independence model. Moreover, constraints and constraint negotiation are proposed to be directly related to each other. If constraints are assumed to trigger negotiation efforts, it would lead to a positive relationship.

The paths linking constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions variables defined the competing structural models that were proposed. For the independence model, the standard path coefficient for the paths linking constraints (-.575) and negotiation (.267) to behavioral intentions were statistically significant (p<.001) and the direction of the relationship was consistent with predictions (Table 31). The fit indices of RMSEA (.072), CFI (.938), NFI (.930), and AGFI (.875) values all suggested that the independence model had a good fit to the data (Table 32).

TABLE 31

TESTING RESULTS OF INDEPENDENCE MODEL

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Constraint → Behavioral intentions	-.575	.133	-12.312	P<.001
Negotiation →Behavioral intention	.267	.048	9.427	P<.001

TABLE 32

ESTIMATION OF FIT INDICES FOR THE INDEPENDENCE AND MEDIATION MODELS

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
Independence	1711.0	199	.072	.938	.930	.875
Mediation	1667.9	198	.072	.940	.932	.876

The results of the AMOS analysis for the mediation model is reported in Table 32. All the fit indices (Table 32) suggested that the mediation model had a slightly better fit to the data than the independence model. The standard path coefficient for the constraints-negotiation path (-.246) (Table 33) is not consistent with the relationship hypothesized in the mediation model. The data did not support the mediation model which was also the proposed path model in the current study. This means that a higher level of constraints did not trigger greater efforts to negotiate. Overall, constraint negotiation was found to act as a mediator between constraint and behavioral intentions, but constraint negotiation was not found to have a positive effect on behavioral intentions. Thus, hypothesis 4c was partially supported.

TABLE 33

TESTING RESULTS OF MEDIATION MODEL

Regression paths	Standard path coefficient	Standard error	Critical ratio (t-value)	p
Constraints → Negotiation	-.246	.073	-7.063	P<.001
Constraints →Behavioral intention	-.553	.137	-11.894	P<.001
Negotiation →Behavioral intention	.190	.043	6.160	P<.001

Hypothesis 5: The proposed model has better predictability in travelers' behavioral intention than the theory of planned behavior.

Hypothesis 5 explored and compared the predictability of travelers' behavioral intentions between the proposed model and the theory of planned behavior (Figure 19). It was hypothesized that the proposed model would be better at predicting behavioral intentions than the theory of planned behavior and fit the data better. The research results (Table 34) shows that the proposed model has better fit indices than

the TPB model. As mentioned previously, R^2 is an indication of how much variance of an endogenous variable is depicted by exogenous variables. Attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intentions were the endogenous variables in the TPB model and their R^2 values are presented in Table 35. The TPB model explained slightly more of variance of behavioral intentions (R^2= .352) (Table 35) than the proposed model (R^2= .316). Hence, hypothesis 5 was only partially accepted.

TABLE 34

FIT INDICES OF PROPOSED MODEL AND THE TPB MODEL

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	AGFI
Proposed	4836.2	578	.071	.911	.900	.808
TPB	8522.4	554	.100	.826	.816	.679

TABLE 35

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATION VALUES OF ENDOGENOUS
VARIABLES IN THE COMPETING MODELS

Endogenous variable	R^2 value TPB	R^2 value Proposed
Attitude	.353	-----
Subjective Norms	.505	.506
Perceived Behavioral Control	.086	-----
Constraint Negotiation	------	.028
Behavioral Intention	.352	.316

FIGURE 19

THE STRUCTURE OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR
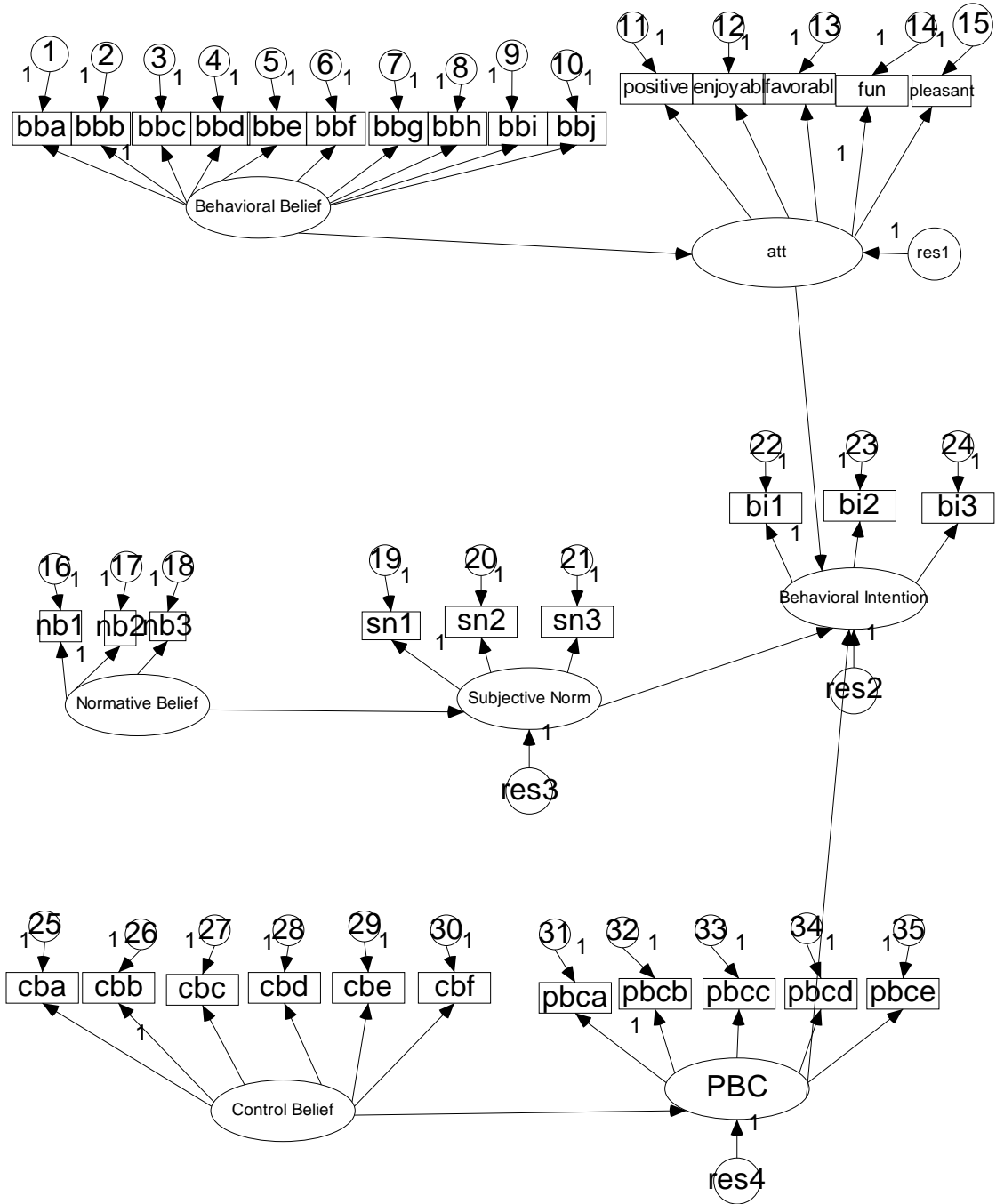
Synopsis of the Chapter

The present chapter examined the hypotheses proposed in Chapter IV. Structural equation modeling analysis found acceptable fit for the proposed model of the relationships among cognitive image, affective image, destination image, normative belief, subjective norms, constraints, and behavioral intentions. With the exceptions of Hypothesis 4 and 4b, which posit "constraint negotiation positively affects behavioral intentions" and "constraint negotiation is acting as a mediator between constraints and behavioral intentions", all other hypotheses were at least partially supported by the data. Additionally, the proposed model was compared with the TPB model to examine the predictability of behavioral intentions. The results of the comparison show that the proposed model has better fit indices, but the TPB can explain slightly more variances of behavioral intentions. In an attempt to arrange the results, a condensed summary of the study's major findings is presented in Table 36.

TABLE 36

SUMMARY FINDINGS

Relationship	Results
Hypothesis 1a: Destination image positively affects behavioral intentions.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 1b: Destination image is explained by both cognitive and affective image.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 2a: Subjective norms positively affect behavioral intentions.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 2b: Normative beliefs are positively associated with subjective norms.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 3a: Constraints (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) negatively affect behavioral intentions.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 3b: Constraints is explained by intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 4a: Constraint negotiation positively affects behavioral intentions.	**Rejected**
Hypothesis 4b: Constraint negotiation is explained by improving finances and time management and changing interpersonal relations negotiation strategies.	**Supported**
Hypothesis 4c: Constraint negotiation is acting as a mediator between constraints and behavioral intentions.	**Partially Supported**
Hypothesis 5: The proposed model has better predictability in travelers' behavioral intention than the theory of planned behavior.	**Partially Supported**

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The final chapter is divided into three parts. The first part reviews study results reported in Chapter VI. The next part discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the results. Finally, recommendations for future studies are given based on the results of this study.

Review of the Study Results

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of the structure and antecedents of potential Texas travelers' behavioral intentions. Specifically, the study examined the dimensionality of the destination image constructs. Additionally, the study adopted the theory of planned behavioral as the theoretical base and made some justifications as literature (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Bandura, 1992; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960) suggested to propose a new model which is more suitable to predict travelers' behavioral intentions in the tourism field. Moreover, the theory of planned behavior guided study also attempted to integrate the seemingly segregated findings related to the antecedents of behavioral intentions from the leisure/tourism literatures.

Churchill's (1979) comprehensive procedures for developing measures were adopted in the current study. A panel of experts reviewed the developed measurement scales to confirm the face validity of the instrument. Following a pilot test, 239 undergraduate students from marketing, statistics, and tourism departments at Texas A&M University were recruited and EFA was subsequently conducted to

examine the reliability and validity of the survey instrument.

After confirmation of the measurement scale, ten hypotheses were examined. All but one of the proposed hypotheses were supported by the data (Table 36). Hypothesis 1a suggested that destination image positively affects behavioral intentions and this hypothesis was supported by the data. This study confirmed the relationship between destination image and behavioral intention as suggested by previous studies (Bigne et al., 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Lee, 2005; Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000).

Furthermore, hypothesis 1b suggested that destination image would be explained by two dimensions (cognitive and affective) rather than one and this hypothesis was also supported by the study. A second-order factor analysis was conducted to achieve a deeper knowledge of destination image. Thus, image was examined as a second-order factor based on the relationship between first-order factors. The goodness-of-fit indices were acceptable and the structural coefficients for the image factors were positive and significant. According to the results, three cognitive factors and five affective factors represents the underlying concept of destination image. Therefore, the current study suggests that destination image includes an individual's cognitive and affective evaluations of the tourist destination prior to visiting. These results confirm previous destination image studies (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Martin & Bosque, 2007).

Hypothesis 2a investigated the influence of subjective norms on behavioral

intentions which was supported by the study. Armitage and Conner (2001) and Shimp and Kavas (1984) suggested that subjective norms are a weak predictor in the theory of planned behavior due to its single-item measurement. Therefore, the current study used a multiple-item instrument to examine subjective norms to hopefully better tap important facets of social influences. By using a multiple-item measurement scale and also categorizing referent groups into three sub-groups, the current study found that subjective norms was not a weak predictor on behavioral intentions. In fact, subjective norms (.417) was found to have a stronger path coefficient than either destination image (.242) or constraints (-.284).

Additionally, normative beliefs were positively associated with subjective norms as hypothesized in hypothesis 2b. Normative beliefs are concerned with the likelihood that important individuals or groups approve or disapprove of performing a given behavior. The study results revealed that normative beliefs significantly influenced subjective norms. Put differently, if people believe that most referents are approving of their intentions to travel to Texas, their perception of social pressure to execute the travel behavior will increase with their motivation to comply.

Hypothesis 3a suggested that constraints negatively affect behavioral intentions. The data suggested that this was the case, as results provided evidence for the interaction between constraints and behavioral intentions proposed by Crawford et al (1991) and Raymore et al. (1993). Notwithstanding, the study of constraints and participation in leisure activities has been a growing research topic during the past three decades (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008), while the exploration on constraints in

tourism field is very limited (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000). This study contributes to the constraint literature by demonstrating the applicability of constraints in a tourism context.

A further investigation was conducted to test hypothesis 3b which proposed that constraints are explained by interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural constraints. From a theoretical perspective, this study has demonstrated the existence of sub-dimensions with the traditional structural component of constraints to leisure activity participation. In this case, constraints were specifically focused on travel. It was found that interpersonal constraints ($\beta = .724$) had stronger impacts on constraints than intrapersonal ($\beta = .613$) or structural constraints ($\beta = .590$). Finally, a three-dimension structure of constraints was found (hypothesis 3a supported).

Hypothesis 4a tested the relationships between constraint negotiation and behavioral intentions. The study did not support the hypothesis. Previous studies (Jackson et al., 1993; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007) have suggested greater capacity to negotiate not only increases the possibility to participate, but also reduces the extent to which people actually feel constrained in a situation. However, the current study did not find the hypothesized relationship.

Furthermore, hypothesis 4b proposed that constraint negotiation would be explained by: improving finances and time management and interpersonal relations. The current results supported the proposed hypothesis. Hubbard and Mannell (2001) suggested that negotiation strategies include time management, skill acquisition, interpersonal coordination, and financial resources management. They tested their

study in a recreational setting. The current study removed "skill acquisition" because this study was tested in a tourism setting and travel requires little acquisition of skill to be performed. Moreover, Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) claimed that there is only limited research on leisure constraint theory in a tourism context. Hence, it is hoped that the current study extended the leisure constraints model by examining constraint negotiation in the tourism context. Originally, the current study hypothesized that negotiation would be explained by three dimensions, but EFA revealed that there were only two dimensions. It was found that the improving finances and time management constructs did not discriminant from each other, hence they were merged into one construct similar to Hung (2008).

Additionally, hypothesis 4c explored the relationships between constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions. Two possible models were proposed to investigated their relationships as suggested by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). The data fit both proposed models well with moderate goodness-of-fit indices. The mediation model had better fit indices than the independence model. However, the current study revealed different study results from Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and White's studies (2008). A reversed relationship was found between constraints and constraint negotiation, which suggests that the more constraints people perceive that they possess, the less likely they would adopt constraint negotiation strategies. This finding was contrary to the positive relationship between constraints and constraint negotiation proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) in their constraint-effect-mitigation model. The different study

outcomes may be caused by the nature of the different study's contexts. Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) study examined full-time employees' participation on physical recreation activities and White's (2008) study tested Arizona residents' participation in outdoor recreation. The current study examined possible visitors' travel intentions to Texas. Since travel to other places may involve greater risks than participating in a physical recreational activity nearby, people might tend to put more efforts and considerations on what resources they have before they make a travel decision.

Finally, the overall fit of the proposed model was examined in this study, too. The research results revealed that the proposed model had a good fit to the data. Therefore, the study results provided evidence for validating the proposed model, and suggested that behavioral intentions are a function of perception of destination image (cognitive and affective images), influences from family and friends, perceived constraints (interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural constraints), and travel resources (negotiation strategies from improving finances and managing time and changing interpersonal relations). Moreover, a comparison between the proposed model and the TPB was executed to examine the predictability of travelers' behavioral intentions. Results revealed that the proposed model had a good fit to the data, but the TPB model did not. However, the TPB model explained more of the variance in behavioral intentions than the proposed model. Conclusively, the proposed model appeared to be a useful framework for understanding the effects on behavioral intentions and how the antecedents of behavioral intentions interact with each other. The proposed model was revised based on the current study results

which constraint negotiation was taking out from the model since the relationship

between negotiation and behavioral intentions was not significant (Figure 20).

FIGURE 20
THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR
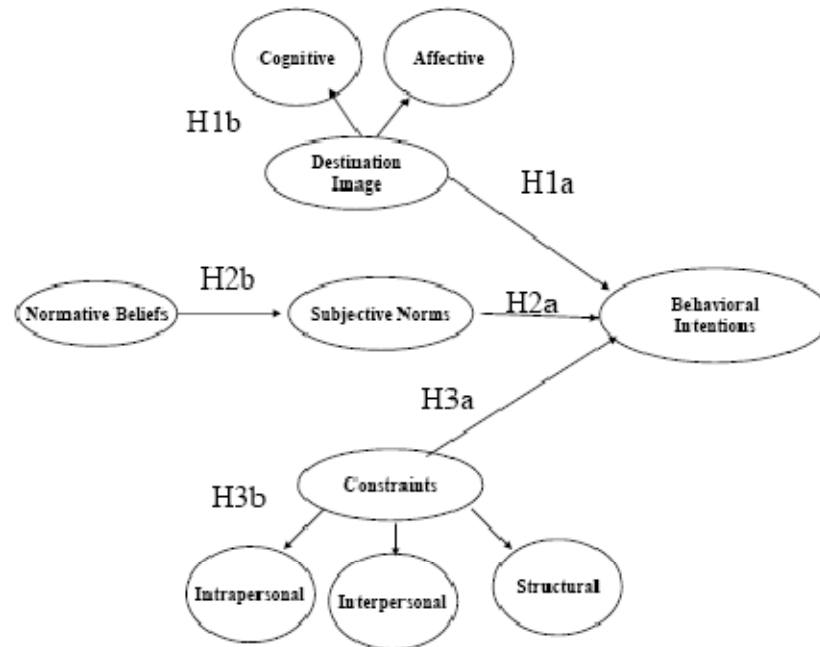
Theoretical Implications

Tourist behavior theories have been the center of studies in a lot of tourism

research, and researchers have paid considerable attention to tourist motivation. The

study of tourist motivation on a basis of the concepts of push and pull factors has

been generally accepted. However, how these push and pull effects help develop

travelers' attitudes and how these attitudes lead to behavioral intentions in selecting

a destination have rarely been explored. Frankly speaking, the decision-making

process leading to the choice of a vacation destination is very sophisticated and a theoretically sound framework is needed to examine the process. Therefore, the current study applied the theory of planned behavior model as a research framework to predict the behavioral intentions of choosing a travel destination. The theory of planned behavior has three major constructs: attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, and was first introduced by Ajzen (1985). The theory of planned behavior has been applied to a variety of social behaviors, but researchers (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Terry & O'Leary, 1995) have argued that the construct itself has measurement flaws that need to be improved in order to increase the predictability of behavioral intentions. The current study took this advice and slightly reformed the measurement scales of each construct in the theory of planned behavior.

First, it has been argued that attitude should not be measured using a single evaluative score assessing only the affective component, instead, it should comprise both cognitive and affective components (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Therefore, the concept of destination image was introduced in this study to substitute the one-dimensional concept of attitude proposed in the theory of planned behavioral. However, many destination image studies in the tourism field have only measured respondents' cognitive image without measuring the affective feeling toward a place. Similar to Beerli and Martin (2004), this study incorporated both affective components proposed from the theory of planned behavior and the cognitive components proposed from destination image studies to provide a multi-dimensional

instrument to measure destination image. Recognizing the dimensions of perception that individuals use to represent a tourist destination in their mind, as well as factors that significantly condition these mental representations could be great help in understanding the decision-making and behavioral processes in tourism. The current study has attempted to contribute to the body of knowledge on destination image by examining the multi-dimensional nature of destination image.

Second, consumers are more likely to use reference groups for intangible products than tangible goods because purchasing intangible products involves greater risk, hence, a higher degree of personal influence is utilized (Hsu et al., 2006). The application of subjective norms in the current study integrated interpersonal influences from the tourism field. Armitage and Conner (2001) argued that subjective norms are a weak predictor of intentions due to their single-item measures. Further, they claimed that the way in which norms are conceptualized within the theory of planned behavior fails to tap important facets of social influence. Hence, this study separated referent groups into multiple constructs and the results revealed subjective norms as a strong determinant of behavioral intentions. It is thus believed that results of this study made a contribution to the literature on reference group influence by measuring this construct via multiple items and found that subjective norms were a strong predictor of behavioral intentions.

Third, Ajzen (1991) argued that the perceived behavioral control (PBC) and self-efficacy constructs are interchangeable. However, several authors (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Terry & O'Leary, 1995) have suggested that self-efficacy and PBC are

not completely synonymous. The current study used leisure constraints instead of PBC, as it is believed that it offers a promising foundation for the investigation of inhibiting factors within the TPB. PBC tends to focus on the structural category of constraints. However, it is quite plausible that both interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints (from the leisure literature) could intervene to influence behavioral intentions. Results found that while all three types of constraints aid in predicting overall constraints, interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints were found to be better predictors. This suggests that since PBC focuses on structural constraints, that the use of the leisure constraint model improves the TPB.

The current study also contributes to the leisure constraints literature by extending its implication to the tourism context. Furthermore, this study examined the relationship among constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions which has not previously been examined in a tourism context. The study results revealed that the more constraints people perceive they have, the less likely they would execute negotiation strategies which is contrary to past research conducted in a recreation setting. The results of the study suggest that constraints and constraint negotiation are important variables influencing the travel decision-making process, and consequently, should be incorporated in studies of travel decision-making.

<div align="center">Practical Implications</div>

The significant positive relationship between destination image and behavioral intentions implies that destination marketing organization (DMO) should understand the images that target markets posses. If the image is a positive one, DMOs need to

maintain this image. If target markets hold a negative image or an untrue image, DMOs should do what they can to correct the image via effective marketing. Tourists will use these image dimensions to form their impressions and evaluate the considered destinations in their choice processes. Finally, potential visitors' preferences derived from these evaluations, as well as contextual variables such as political stability and social factors may be the main forces for determining which tourist destination to visit.

One of the most important challenges in the promotion of a tourist destination is to recognize its strength and weakness in the individual's mind. Promoters should develop different actions to maintain strengths of the tourist destination and improve the attributes where main weaknesses are found. In the current study, research results showed that the TPB could better explain why people travel to Texas than the proposed model, but by merely knowing respondents' affective feeling toward a place, is very difficult for DMOs to make any improvements or changed based on the affective results. The proposed model incorporated both the cognitive and affective aspects of Texas's image, thus, it gave a direction for Texas DMOs to improve their destination image based on the cognitive results. According to the current study, cognitive image consisted of three dimensions (natural resources/infrastructure, outdoor activities, and local attraction), and natural resources/infrastructure was found to have the highest rates. Hence, marketers should position their marketing efforts to maintain the image of natural resources/infrastructure including unpolluted and unspoiled environment, climate,

beaches, landscapes, variety of plants and animals, quality of infrastructure, safe place to travel, standard hygiene and cleanliness, friendly people, and good value for money to differentiate their product from competing destinations. On the other hand, outdoor activities were found to have the lowest perceived rating. Thus, Texas needs to improve their marketing communications of outdoor activities such as birding opportunities, hiking and biking trails, fishing opportunities, and hunting opportunities.

Since tourists use cognitive and affective dimensions to form their images of a tourist destination, promoters should emphasize not only their destination's physical properties, but also the feelings that it is able to evoke in the tourist's mind. In the first case, the individual's beliefs about the destination are reinforced, while in the second the tourist promotion influences the individual's affective component. If this promotion is carried out properly, tourists are likely to prioritize the destination as a preferred destination during their decision process. This study found that most people's feelings toward Texas is favorable and enjoyable, hence, marketers of Texas should maintain or reinforce this feeling of Texas to keep Texas as a preferred traveling destination.

Subjective norms were also found to have a significant positive effect on behavioral intentions. This suggests that reference groups should be categorized into multiple-groups in order to tap the multiple-facets of social influences. In this study, respondents were more likely to comply with their significant other's opinions than their friends regarding visiting Texas. Therefore, destination managers need to

monitor how their target markets interact with their reference groups in disseminating or collecting travel related information.

As reference groups appear to play an important role in influencing tourists' decisions to travel to Texas, it is imperative for Texas DMOs to understand, and attempt to affect, the word of mouth reputation likely to be spread. DMOs thus need to aggressively ask for feedback from tourists on a regular basis through comment cards, customer representatives or formalized market research (i.e., focus groups) to gauge word of mouth efforts and also monitor any negative word of mouth and correct it in a timely manner. Destination managers also need to constantly ask recommendations from on-site visitors to ensure the services provided to visitors are the services that visitors desired. A thank you note card could be sent to each visitor with their name on it in order to foster the feeling of being special and unique, in a long term, destination markets hope to turn first-timers to repeater, and eventually, the loyal visitors to the destination.

It was further found that the more constraints people perceived that they have, the less likely they would adopt constraint negotiation strategies. This finding was contrary to the positive relationship between constraints and constraint negotiation found in previous research. This might be because there are more travel options and alternatives available for visitors to choose from than there are recreational opportunities. Hence, potential travelers could easily switch to other destinations if they perceived they are going to experience some constraints while visiting certain places.

Through an examination of the estimated standardized regression coefficients, certain constraints affected potential travelers' intentions of visiting Texas more than others. Barriers identified as interpersonal constraints were the most influential predictors among all constraint factors, including: I have no one to travel with; My family and friends are not interested in traveling; The people I know don't have the time to travel with me. Therefore, marketing efforts should focus on reducing these perceived interpersonal constraints. Texas DMOs should thus spend efforts on promoting Texas as a destination for family trips, honeymoon, graduation trips, friend gathering, girls get away, anniversary, or even a new place to meet new people. Discounts or incentives could also be given to encourage people to take vacations together.

Since constraints demonstrated a negative influence on behavioral intentions and was also a strong predictor of behavioral intentions in the proposed model, marketers should deliver their promotion messages in a way which could minimize perceived constraints. For instance, intrapersonal constraints were also found to be an influential predictor of constraints. Marketing messages should be tailored to promote Texas as a safe and friendly place to travel and offering a variety of activities for travelers to participate. Texas DMOs should provide a safe environment for visitors via reinforced police patrol and educate local residents to be hospitable, courteous, and helpful to tourists. Similarly, tour operators should develop a series of activities to satisfy each individual's needs.

Understanding constraints to travel is important to destination marketers

because knowing why people do not travel may suggest strategies to overcome constraints. However, many of these constraints are based on perceptions that may not be valid, so marketers should counteract these images in their promotional activities. Additionally, intrapersonal constraints are harder for marketers to change (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008), thus, need more efforts than regular marketing strategies because they have to change people's psychological perceptions of barriers. Among all three types of constraints, information availability and access can most easily be managed by destinations. Thus, information distribution channels should be appropriate and reachable to reduce the possible perceived constraints and to increase negotiation strategies and resources.

<div align="center">Limitation of Present Study</div>

Like all studies, this one had limitations. First, the timeframe used for the behavioral intention measure was the next 24 months and it is possible that this was too long or not long enough for some respondents. Second, to determine causality it would be useful to undertake further research of a longitudinal and experimental nature. Third, the present study tested a proposed model on respondents regardless if they have visited Texas or not. It would be useful to compare the model with respondents who have visited Texas with those who have not.

Additionally, Texas was the only travel destination included in the questionnaire. A comparison with other US states could provide important benchmarks to contextualize the findings. Moreover, only US citizens were recruited to participate in this study, and opinions from international tourists may result in

different outcomes.

Further, an online panel survey was conducted for data collection to test the proposed model and hypothesized relationships among the interested constructs. Online panels are participated in by people who have registered with online panel companies and some of those people even register for multiple online panel companies which can make them "professional respondents". Hence, those respondents may not be representative of the general U.S. population.

Finally, the online company the current study used, performed sampling and invited panel members on behalf of the investigator. Therefore, the current author could not know the general demographic information of the invited respondents due to the privacy policy of the online panel company. Thus, there was no way of knowing if the demographics and psychographics of the sample matched typical domestic travelers. A non-response bias checked also could not be performed because the current author had no access to nonrespondents' contact information.

Recommendations for Future Studies

Finally, several additional directions for future research are suggested. First, creating a competitive position in the market place implies examining not only the strengths and weaknesses of a tourist destination, but also those relative to competitors. Future studies could apply the destination image concept to a wider group of tourist destinations to identify the cognitive and affective images that tourists have of their destinations compared with major competitors. The results of this comparison would most likely be useful for developing marketing strategies to

differentiate from competitors.

Second, this study only used three reference groups. The inclusion of external promotional messages, travel consultants or online contacts to compare the extent of their influence with that of the reference groups would generate a more comprehensive understanding of the importance of social influences in the travelers' decision-making process.

Last but not least, the constraints, constraint negotiation, and behavioral intentions models proposed in this study need to be examined with other populations and tourism activities to determine their generalizability. For instance, travelers and non-travelers may perceive constraints differently and each of the groups may adopt different negotiation strategies to reduce the perceived constraints and further lead to travel intentions.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

This study investigated different factors which affect travel intentions. A tourist behavioral model was proposed and empirically tested. The proposed model was constructed based on the theory of planned behavioral which has been applied in various fields of research. Behavioral intentions were proposed to be influenced by four major antecedents: destination image, subjective norms, constraints, and constraint negotiation. In this study, destination image was measured by both cognitive and affective dimensions; subjective norms were measured by three factors related to reference groups' opinions on travel intentions; constraints were measured by interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural components; and constraint

negotiation was measured by improving finances and managing time strategies and changing interpersonal relations. Quantitative research methods were used to develop the appropriate measurement scales in order to examine the proposed model and hypothesized relationships among all constructs. The proposed model was found to have an acceptable fit to the data. There were ten proposed hypotheses and nine were supported by the data. Accordingly, theoretical and practical implications were depicted and reported followed by suggestion for future research.

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APPENDIX A

SUMMARY OF DEFINITIONS OF DESTINATION IMAGE

Authors	Year	Definition
Reynolds	1965	An image is the mental construct developed by the consumer on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions. It comes into being through a creative process in which selected impressions are elaborated, embellished and ordered
Oxenfeldt	1974	Image as an overall or total impression which is formed as a result of the evaluation of individual attributes which may contain both cognitive and emotional content.
Hunt	1975	Impressions that a person or persons hold about a state in which they do not reside
Lawson & Baud-Bovy	1977	Image as the expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudice, and emotional thoughts an individual or a group have of a particular object or place
WTO	1979	Image is defined as an aura, an angle, a subjective perception accompanying the various projections of the same message transmitter.
Crompton	1979	An image may be defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination
Assael	1984	Image as a total perception of a product that is formed by processing information from various sources over time.
Dichter	1985	It describes not individual traits or qualities but the total impression an entity makes on the mind of others
Mazursky& Jacoby	1986	Image as a set of cognitions and affects that represent an entity to an individual
Phelps	1986	Perceptions or impression of a place
Moutinho	1987	An individual's attitude toward the destination attributes based on their knowledge and feelings
Fridgen	1987	It is a mental representation of an object or place which is not physically before the observer
Calantone et al.	1989	Perceptions of potential tourist destinations
Embacher & Buttle	1898	Image is comprised of the ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of a destination under investigation. Image may comprise both cognitive and evaluative components

Dobni & Zinkhan	1990	Brand image is formed through consumers' reasoned and emotional interpretation. They also concluded that an image is affected by both stimulus elements of the product and the characteristics of the perceiver
Chon	1990	Image results from the interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination
Echtner & Ritchie	1991	The perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination
Kotler	1991	Image is the set of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person holds of an object
Fakeye & Crompton	1991	Image is the mental construct developed by a potential tourist on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions
Dadgostar & Isotalo	1992	Overall impression or attitude that an individual acquires of a place
Gartner	1993	Destination images are developed by three hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and conative
Santos Arrebola	1994	Image is a mental representation of attributes and benefits sought of a product
Parenteau	1995	It is a favorable and unfavorable prejudice that the audience and distributors have of a product or destination
Milman & Pizan	1995	Destination image may be referred to as the visual or mental impression of a place, a product, or an experience held by the general public
MacKay & Fesenmaier	1997	Destination is a composite of individual inputs and marketers inputs
Pritchard	1998	A visual or mental impression of a specific place
Baloglu & McCleary	1999	An individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global impressions about a destination
Coshall	2000	The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations
Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith	2000	A sum of associations and pieces of information connected to a destination, which would include multiple components of the destination and personal perception

Tapachai & Waryszak	2000	Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefits or consumption values
Bigne, Sanchez & Sanchez	2001	The subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist
Kim & Richardson	2003	Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE COGNITIVE IMAGE ATTRIBUTES

Cognitive Image Items	Scales	Statements	Origin of the Literature
Climate, availability/quality of accommodations, sports/recreational opportunities, scenery, food, entertainment, uniqueness of local people's life, historical attractions, museums/cultural attractions, communication difficulty due to language barriers, festivals/special events, accessibility, shopping, attitude toward tourists, availability/quality of local transportation, price level	5-point scale where 1 means almost no importance and 5 means very important	To evaluate the relative importance of each touristic attribute in contributing to the attractiveness of a travel destination	Hu & Ritchie, 1993
Good value for money, dominated by Disney attractions, similarity between Florida and other sunny states, only suitable for families with children, reasonable attraction prices, plenty of shopping bargains, rural area, small airport, monotonous scenery, hot weather year-round, limited number of hotels, lack of	5-point scale where 1 means disagree strongly and 5 means agree strongly	To evaluate a series of statements pertaining to their overall perception of the tourist destination	Milman & Pizan, 1995

information about the destination, unsafe, hospitable local residents			
Good Value for money, beautiful scenery/natural attractions, good climate, interesting cultural attractions, suitable accommodations, appealing local food, great beaches/water sports, quality of infrastructure, personal safety, interesting historical attractions, unpolluted/unspoiled environment, good nightlife and entertainment, standard hygiene and cleanliness, interesting and friendly people	1 means offers very little to 5 means offers very much	To rate each country as a summer vacation destination on each of 14 attributes on a 5 point scale	Baloglu & McCleary, 1999
Suitable accommodations, good value for money, a comfortable drive from home, natural scenic beauty, good cafes/restaurants, good weather, lots to see and do, good ocean beaches, friendly locals, places for swimming or boating, not too touristy, hot pool bathing, places for	7 point scale anchored with 1= not important and 7=very important	Respondents were asked to indicate the perceived performance of each destinations across the same attributes	Pike & Ryan, 2004

walking/tramping, shopping, wineries, adventure activities, fishing, close to other holiday destinations, snow sports, Maori culture experiences			
Nice weather, nice beaches, lovely landscape, great variety of flora and fauna, good developed infrastructures, a good substructure of hotels and apartments, many facilities to get touristic information, facilities for training sports, facilities for shopping, night life, interesting historic and cultural venues, cultural events, good gastronomy, a different way of living, great economic development, political stability, personal safety, low level of prices, clean locations, crowded locations, dirty location with a lot of traffic, inhabitants are friendly and hospitable, big level of poverty, good quality of life, luxury location,	7-point scale, anchored by 1 means that the statement is total in disagreement, and 7 means that the statement agree in total with it	To mark each of the statement reflect the image you had from the destination	Beerli & Martin, 2004

fashionable locations, well known location with good reputation, exotic destination, good facilities for families			

APPENDIX C

PILOT TEST QUESTIONNAIRE

STUDENT SURVEY

This study is being conducted by the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences at Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas. Your input will assist us in understanding travelers' and potential travelers' experiences. Careful responses to questions about your intentions to travel to New Orleans will be greatly appreciated by us, as well as the thousands of people who travel to New Orleans each year.

Q1a. Have you **ever visited New Orleans** before? (Please check)

Yes ☐

No ☐ (Please go to Q2)

Q1b. How many times have you **visited New Orleans** in your **lifetime**? _____ Times

Q1c. How many of these trips are **NON-Business** trips? _____ Times

Q1d. During the **last 3 three years**, how many times did you travel to New Orleans? _____ Times

Q1e. When was your **last visit**? Month_____ Year_____

Q2. Listed below are some attributes that determine the quality of a tourist's experience at a destination. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree. Please rate New Orleans as a vacation destination for each item that best shows your perceptions regardless **whether you have visited New Orleans or not.**

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Good climate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Great beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beautiful landscape	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Great variety of plants and animals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good quality of infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Suitable accommodations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Convenient to get tourism information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Various shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting night life and entertainment (nice bars, restaurants, shows and dancing)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting historical attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Appealing local food (cuisine)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Safe place to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Standard hygiene and cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good facilities for families	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rich western image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nice parks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nice small towns and rural areas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting amusement and theme parks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good birding opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nice hiking and biking trails	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nice fishing opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good hunting opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unpolluted/unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3. Below is a list of items that can be used to describe your **feelings toward a place**. Please evaluate New Orleans as a vacation destination on each word set by circling the appropriate number.

Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
Sleepy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Arousing
Distressing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relaxing
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Positive
Unenjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable
Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Favorable

Boring		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Fun

Q4. Please circle the number that best describes your **overall image of New Orleans** as a vacation destination.

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive

Q5. The following statements are related to **how people you know think about you traveling to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Most people I know would choose New Orleans as a travel destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people whose opinions I value would approve of me visiting New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People who are important to me would think I should visit New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People who are important to me would approve of me visiting New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q6. The following statements are related to **how people you know think about whether you should/should not travel to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Definitely Should Not to 7 = Definitely Should. Circle the most appropriate number.

1. My **spouse/significant other** thinks I should/should not choose New Orleans as a travel destination.
   Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should
   ☐ Not Applicable

2. My **friends** think I should/should not choose New Orleans as a travel destination.
   Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should
   ☐ Not Applicable

3. My **<u>family other than my spouse/significant other</u>** thinks I should/should not choose New Orleans as a travel destination.
Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should
☐ Not Applicable

4. My **<u>travel consultant(s)</u>** (not online, i.e. travel agent or someone who has many travel experiences, and etc.) think I should/should not choose New Orleans as a travel destination
Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should
☐ Not Applicable

5. My **<u>online contacts</u>** (i.e. Blog, chat room, online forum, and travel websites) think I should/should not choose New Orleans as a travel destination
Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should
☐ Not Applicable

Q7. The following statements are related to **how likely you think you would listen to people who you know about your traveling to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Extremely Unlikely to 7 = Extremely Likely. Please circle the most appropriate number.

1. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **<u>spouse/significant other</u>** says about visiting New Orleans is?
Extremely Unlikely 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely
☐ Not Applicable

2. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **<u>friends</u>** say about visiting New Orleans is?
Extremely Unlikely 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely
☐ Not Applicable

3. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **<u>family other than my spouse/significant other</u>** says about visiting New Orleans is?
Extremely Unlikely 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely
☐ Not Applicable

4. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **travel consultant(s)** says about visiting New Orleans is?

   Extremely Unlikely 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely

   ☐ Not Applicable

5. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **online contacts** say about visiting New Orleans is?

   Extremely Unlikely 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely

   ☐ Not Applicable

Q8. The following are examples of reasons that people offer for why they don't intend to travel to New Orleans or don't go as often as they would like. We would like to know if these reasons also apply to you. Please indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning **why you might not intend to travel to New Orleans or don't go as often as you would like**.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
It is too expensive to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are no areas in New Orleans I want to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot afford to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no time to take a trip	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no one to travel with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family and friends are not interested in traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Family commitments keep me from traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is not fun to travel by myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My health does not allow me to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no information about places to visit and activities in which to participate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The things I want to do are expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Areas I want to visit are too far away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Traveling involves too much risk	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am unable to drive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't have friends and family to stay with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The weather is not favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not interested in the activities in New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not interested in traveling in New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is too much traffic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family is too young to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are other places more appealing to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is too much planning involved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot travel to New Orleans because of my work responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The people I know don't have the time to travel with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't really feel safe traveling to New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The people I know don't have the money to travel with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q9. The following are some of the things people have told us that they do to get around the obstacles that they face in starting, continuing, or increasing their involvement in traveling to New Orleans. Please read each of these statements and on the items provided circle the number that best represents **how frequently you have done or are doing the following things to try to start, continue, or increase your participation in traveling to New Orleans**.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often	Always

Budget my money for traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find a destination that best fits within my budget	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find people to travel with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Set aside time for traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Plan ahead for things so that I can travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Be organized so that I can travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prioritize what I want to do, and make traveling a priority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Plan traveling around my family/friend's work time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find a destination that best fits within my time limitations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Save up money to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Try to get a better job so I can afford to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn to live within my financial means	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Organize travel plans for people I know	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Try to find people with similar interests to travel with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Try to travel in the off-season when destinations are less crowded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q10. Below are several statements that describe **different behaviors that you might consider as a potential traveler to New Orleans**. Please indicate the likelihood of your behaviors by circling the number that applies on a scale from 1 (extremely unlikely) to 7 (extremely likely).

	Extremely Unlikely	Moderately Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Neutral	Slightly Likely	Moderately Likely	Extremely Likely
Say positive things about New Orleans to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
New Orleans is my first choice among all destinations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend New Orleans to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will encourage friends and relatives to go to New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to travel to New Orleans within the next 2 years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I want to visit New Orleans within the next 2 years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The possibility for me to travel to New Orleans within the next 2 years is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q11. The following statements are related to **your personal beliefs** about traveling to New Orleans. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

Visiting New Orleans would enable me to………	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
experience a different life style	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
go sightseeing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
go shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
enjoy fabulous night life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
visit amusement parks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
share travel experiences with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
visit friends/relatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
rest and relax	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
break from my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
experience unique New Orleans cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
enjoy outdoor activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
experience Western history/culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
enjoy a variety of entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q12. The following statements are related to **how these factors affect your decision to travel to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Not important at all to 7 = Very Important.

	Not Important at All		Slightly Important		Moderately Important		Very Important
Experiencing different life styles is ……	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sightseeing is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoying fabulous night life is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting amusement parks are	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Sharing travel experiences with others is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting friends/relatives is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Resting and relaxing are	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Breaking from my daily routine is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experiencing unique New Orleans cuisine is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoying outdoor activities is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experiencing western history/culture is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoying a variety of entertainment is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q13. The following statements are related to **your personal opinion about traveling to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
If I wanted, I could easily visit New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I wanted, I would be able to visit New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I wanted, I have control to visit New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the past, I have had many opportunities to visit New Orleans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the future, the possibility that I will visit New Orleans is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q14. The following statements are related to **your personal opinion about traveling to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Visiting New Orleans is expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting New Orleans is not safe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not many marketing materials promote New Orleans as a bargain tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
New Orleans is not a desirable destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

New Orleans is too far to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The gas price for traveling to New Orleans is unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q15. The following statements are related to **your considerations about traveling to New Orleans**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Extremely Unlikely to 7 = Extremely Likely.

	Extremely Unlikely	Moderately Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Neutral	Slightly Likely	Moderately Likely	Extremely Likely
The cost of travel to New Orleans would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The personal safety of travel to New Orleans would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Marketing materials promoting New Orleans as a bargain tourist destination (or not) would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The desirability of traveling to New Orleans would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The distance of traveling to New Orleans would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The cost of gas for traveling to New Orleans would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q16. Are you ? ☐ Male ☐ Female

Q17. What year were you born? (Please fill in 4-digit year)
_____Year

Q18. How many years of education have you completed?
☐ Less than High School ☐ Completed High School
☐ Some College, not completed
☐ Completed College ☐ Vocational/Technical training
☐ Post graduate work started or completed

Q19. What is your ethnic background?

☐ African-American   ☐ White   ☐ Hispanic

☐ Asian/ Pacific Islander

☐ Native American/American Indian/Alaskan Native

☐ Other, If you selected "other", please specify: _____

Q20. What was your approximate total household income last year?

☐ Less than $20,000   ☐ $20,000 to less than $25,000

☐ $25,000 to less than $30,000   ☐ $30,000 to less than $40,000

☐ $40,000 to less than $50,000   ☐ $50,000 to less than $75,000

☐ $75,000 to less than $100,000   ☐ $100,000 to less than 125,000

☐ $125,0000 to less than $150,000   ☐ $150,000 to less than 200,000

☐ $200,000 to less than $250,000   ☐ $250,000 or more

Q21. What is your marital status?

☐ Married   ☐ Single, never married   ☐

Divorced/Separated/Widowed

Q22. How many children under 18 years old live in your household? _____

Q23. What is the zip code for your primary residence? __ __ __ __ __ (zip code)

Q24. Which category best describes your current employment status?

☐ Employed full-time   ☐ Employed part-time ☐ Full-time homemaker

☐ Not currently employed ☐ Retired   ☐ Student

☐ Other, please specify_____

Thank you very much for your participation!

APPENDIX D

FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

This study is being conducted by the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences at Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas. Your input will assist us in understanding travelers' and potential travelers' experiences. Careful responses to questions about your intentions to travel to Texas will be greatly appreciated by us, as well as the thousands of people who travel to Texas each year.

Q1a. Have you **ever visited Texas** before? (Please check)

   Yes   ☐

   No   ☐   (Please go to Q2)

Q1b. How many times have you **visited Texas** in your **lifetime**? _____ Times

Q1c. How many of these trips are **NON-Business** trips? _____ Times

Q1d. During the **last 3 three years**, how many times did you travel to Texas? _____Times

Q1e. When was your **last visit**?   Year_____

Q2. Listed below are some attributes that determine the quality of a tourist's experience at a destination. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree. Please rate Texas as a vacation destination for each item that best shows your perceptions regardless **whether you have visited Texas or not.**

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Good climate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Great beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beautiful landscape	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Great variety of plants and animals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good quality of infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Convenient to get tourism information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Various shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting night life and entertainment (nice bars,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

restaurants, shows and dancing)							
Interesting cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interesting historical attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Appealing local food (cuisine)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Safe place to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Standard hygiene and cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good birding opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nice hiking and biking trails	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nice fishing opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good hunting opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unpolluted/unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3. Below is a list of items that can be used to describe your **feelings toward a place**. Please evaluate Texas as a vacation destination on each word set by clicking the appropriate number.

Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
Sleepy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Arousing
Distressing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relaxing
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Positive
Unenjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable
Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Favorable
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun

Q4. Please click the number that best describes your **overall image of Texas** as a vacation destination.

Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive

Q5. The following statements are related to **how people you know think about you traveling to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree

to 7 = Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Most people I know would choose Texas as a travel destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people whose opinions I value would approve of me visiting Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People who are important to me would think I should visit Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People who are important to me would approve of me visiting Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q6. The following statements are related to **how people you know think about whether you should/should not travel to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Definitely Should Not to 7 = Definitely Should. Click the most appropriate number.

1. My **spouse/significant other** thinks I should/should not choose Texas as a travel destination.

Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should

☐ Not Applicable

2. My **friends** think I should/should not choose Texas as a travel destination.

Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should

☐ Not Applicable

3. My **family other than my spouse/significant other** thinks I should/should not choose Texas as a travel destination.

Definitely Should Not1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should

☐ Not Applicable

4. My **travel consultant(s)** (not online, i.e. travel agent or someone who has many travel experiences, etc.) think I should/should not choose Texas as a travel destination

Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should

   ☐ Not Applicable

5. My **online contacts** (i.e. blog, chat room, online forum, and travel websites) think I should/should not choose Texas as a travel destination

Definitely Should Not   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Definitely Should

   ☐ Not Applicable

Q7. The following statements are related to **how likely you think you would listen to people who you know about your traveling to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Extremely Unlikely to 7 = Extremely Likely. Please click the most appropriate number.

1. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **spouse/significant other** says about visiting Texas is?

Extremely Unlikely   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely

   ☐ Not Applicable

2. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **friends** say about visiting Texas is?

Extremely Unlikely   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely

   ☐ Not Applicable

3. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **family other than my spouse/significant other** says about visiting Texas is?

Extremely Unlikely   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely

   ☐ Not Applicable

4. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **travel consultant(s)** says about visiting Texas is?

Extremely Unlikely   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely

   ☐ Not Applicable

5. For me, the likelihood of listening to what my **online contacts** say about visiting Texas is?

Extremely Unlikely   1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Extremely Likely
☐ Not Applicable

Q8. The following are examples of reasons that people offer for why they don't intend to travel to Texas or don't go as often as they would like. We would like to know if these reasons also apply to you. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning **why you might not intend to travel to Texas or don't go as often as you would like**.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
It is too expensive to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot afford to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no time to take a trip	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no one to travel with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family and friends are not interested in traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Family commitments keep me from traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My health does not allow me to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The things I want to do are expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Areas I want to visit are too far away	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Traveling involves too much risk	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not interested in the activities in Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not interested in traveling in Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family is too young to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is too much planning involved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot travel to Texas because of my work responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The people I know don't have the time to travel with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I don't really feel safe traveling to Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The people I know don't have the money to travel with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q9. The following are some of the things people have told us that they do to get around the obstacles that they face in starting, continuing, or increasing their involvement in traveling to Texas. Please read each of these statements and on the items provided click the number that best represents **how frequently you have done, or are doing, the following things to try to start, continue, or increase your participation in traveling to Texas**.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Very Often	Always

Budget my money for traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find a destination that best fits within my budget	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find people to travel with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Set aside time for traveling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Plan ahead for things so that I can travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Be organized so that I can travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prioritize what I want to do, and make traveling a priority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Plan traveling around my family/friend's work time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find a destination that best fits within my time limitations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Save up money to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Try to get a better job so I can afford to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Learn to live within my financial means	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Organize travel plans for people I know	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Try to find people with similar interests to travel with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Try to travel in the off-season when destinations are less crowded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q10. Below are several statements that describe **different behaviors that you might consider as a potential traveler to Texas**. Please indicate the likelihood of your behaviors by clicking the number that applies on a scale from 1 (extremely unlikely) to 7 (extremely likely).

	Extremely Unlikely	Moderately Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Neutral	Slightly Likely	Moderately Likely	Extremely Likely
Say positive things about Texas to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend Texas to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will encourage friends and relatives to go to Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to travel to Texas within the next 2 years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit Texas within the next 2 years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The possibility for me to travel to Texas within the next 2 years is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q11. The following statements are related to **your personal beliefs** about traveling to Texas. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

Visiting Texas would enable me to………	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
experience a different life style	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
go sightseeing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
enjoy fabulous night life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
visit amusement parks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
visit friends/relatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
rest and relax	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
take a break from my daily routine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
enjoy outdoor activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
experience Western history/culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
enjoy a variety of entertainment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q12. The following statements are related to **how these factors affect your decision to travel to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Not important at all to 7 = Very Important.

	Not Important at All		Slightly Important		Moderately Important		Very Important
Experiencing different life styles is ……	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sightseeing is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoying fabulous night life is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting amusement parks are	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting friends/relatives is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Resting and relaxing are	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Taking a breaking from my daily routine is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoying outdoor activities is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experiencing western history/culture is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enjoying a variety of entertainment is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q13. The following statements are related to **your personal opinion about traveling to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
If I wanted, I could easily visit Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I wanted, I would be able to visit Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I wanted, I have control to visit Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the past, I have had many opportunities to visit Texas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the future, the possibility that I will visit Texas is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q14. The following statements are related to **your personal opinion about traveling to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Visiting Texas is expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting Texas is not safe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Not many marketing materials promote Texas as a bargain tourist destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Texas is not a desirable destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Texas is too far to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gas prices for traveling to Texas are unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q15. The following statements are related to **your considerations about traveling to Texas**. Please rate each item on a scale from 1 = Extremely Unlikely to 7 = Extremely Likely.

	Extremely Unlikely	Moderately Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Neutral	Slightly Likely	Moderately Likely	Extremely Likely
The cost of travel to Texas would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The personal safety of travel to Texas would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Marketing materials promoting Texas as a bargain tourist destination (or not) would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The desirability of traveling to Texas would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The distance of traveling to Texas would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The cost of gas for traveling to Texas would influence my decision to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q16. Are you ? ☐ Male ☐ Female

Q17. What year were you born? (Please fill in 4-digit year)

_____Year

Q18. How many years of education have you completed?
    ☐ Less than High School   ☐ Completed High School
    ☐ Some College, not completed   ☐ Completed College
    ☐ Vocational/Technical training   ☐ Post graduate work started or completed

Q19. What is your ethnicity?

☐ African-American   ☐ White   ☐ Hispanic

☐ Asian/ Pacific Islander   ☐ Native American/American Indian/Alaskan

Native☐ Prefer not to answer

☐ Other, If you selected "other", please specify: _____

Q20. What was your approximate total household income last year?

☐ Less than $20,000   ☐ $20,000 to less than $25,000

☐ $25,000 to less than $30,000   ☐ $30,000 to less than $40,000

☐ $40,000 to less than $50,000   ☐ $50,000 to less than $75,000

☐ $75,000 to less than $100,000   ☐ $100,000 to less than 125,000

☐ $125,0000 to less than $150,000   ☐ $150,000 to less than 200,000

☐ $200,000 to less than $250,000   ☐ $250,000 or more

☐ Prefer not to answer

Q21. What is your marital status?

☐ Married   ☐ Single, never married   ☐ Divorced/Separated/Widowed

☐ Prefer not to answer

Q22. How many children under 18 years old live in your household? _____

Q23. What is the zip code for your primary residence? __ __ __ __ __ (zip code)

Q24. Which category best describes your current employment status?

☐ Employed full-time   ☐ Employed part-time ☐ Full-time homemaker

☐ Not currently employed ☐ Retired   ☐ Student

☐ Other, please specify_____   ☐ Prefer not to answer

Thank you very much for your participation!

APPENDIX E

INFORMATION SHEET

INFORMATION SHEET

Thank you for participating in the study. This study is confidential in that no identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to fill out the questionnaire, which will take approximately 15-20 minutes. All your responses will be used only for the purpose of the study. You understand that your participation in this study is very important.

This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board-Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University.

Responding to this survey, you acknowledge that you understand the following: your participation is voluntary; you can elect to withdraw at any time; the researcher has your consent to publish materials obtained from this research.

If you have further questions, you can contact Yu-Chin Huang at (979)739-2001, jocehuang@neo.tamu.edu. By clicking on the button below you confirm that you have read and understood the information provided above and that you agree to participate in this survey.

☐ I have read and understood the information provided above and I agree to participate in this study

VITA

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