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UNIVERSIDADE DO ALGARVE  
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**TOURIST DESTINATION LOYALTY: A MULTIDIMENSIONAL  
PERSPECTIVE**

ANA RITA DE DEUS ROCHA ALVES PERES DA COSTA

PhD in Economic And Management Sciences

Thematic Area: Management

Research conducted under the supervision of:

Professora Doutora Antónia de Jesus Henriques Correia

Professor Doutor José Sancho de Sousa e Silva

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# TOURIST DESTINATION LOYALTY: A MULTIDIMENSIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Doutoramento em Ciências Económicas e Empresariais

Especialidade em Gestão

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## **ABSTRACT**

This research seeks to reduce the existing gap in destination marketing knowledge by explaining tourists' loyalty from an integrated perspective whereby several variables intervene in its formation. The study investigated the utility of applying the Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980a; 1983) to reveal the processes underlying loyalty formation, integrating the findings of loyalty antecedents from marketing and tourism literature, namely, satisfaction, motivations, variety seeking, commitment, investment size and income.

Moreover, to reinforce the understanding of loyalty process patterns and validate the determinants that persist under different contexts and over the years, this research has examined whether the destination loyalty model was invariant across different groups (Lisbon and Faro and the Azores and Madeira, as well as, over the IATA years 2009/10 and 2010/11).

The model was validated empirically by employing a sample of 8991 questionnaires collected for the INITIATIVE:pt<sup>1</sup> study. Structural Equation Models (SEM) using AMOS 19 were developed to examine the relationships between the various variables in the model.

The results indicates that motivation is influencing tourists' satisfaction level, which in turns, determines the level of commitment. The investment tourists need to make, negatively influence tourists commitment and both explain loyalty from an attitudinal or behavioural perspective. Loyalty is explained by the promise of tourists to risk new destinations (variety seeking). The variety seeking is explained by motivations and satisfaction, but it is not influenced by the tourist family income. The findings suggest that the Investment Model, (Rusbult, 1980a) worked in the context of destinations loyalty. Finally, it was found that some of the model relations exert differential effects between the various groups being more evident on the in Azores and Madeira and on the longitudinal perspective (2009/10 and 2010/11).

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<sup>1</sup> For further information about the project see: <http://www.initiative-ualg.com/>, consulted in 14<sup>th</sup> May, 2015.



This results provide an opportunity for new research to be undertaken on developing a comprehensive destination loyalty model that not only contributes to progress in knowledge on the processes which produce loyalty in tourists, but also to progress in management techniques and marketing strategies to tackle such a challenge: gaining and retaining destination visitors.

**Keywords:** Investment Model, Loyalty, Tourism, Structural Equation Model

## **RESUMO**

A tese aborda a temática da fidelização do turista, visando compreender sob uma perspectiva integrada, um conjunto de variáveis que contribuem para sua formação, combinando comportamentos e atitudes, através de uma perspectiva multidimensional, integrando vários antecedentes com origem nos domínios do marketing e do turismo, nomeadamente, a satisfação, as motivações, a procura de variedade, o comprometimento, volume do investimento e rendimento.

A discussão sobre a fidelização tem evidenciado inúmeros fatores como antecedentes da fidelização. Entre os quais a satisfação (Anderson e Srinivasan, 2003; Bloemer e Lemmink, 1992; Yoon e Uysal, 2005), os custos de mudança e os investimentos (Backman e Crompton, 1991a; Beerli, Martin e Quintana, 2004; Morais, Dorsch e Backman, 2004), a qualidade percebida (Baker e Crompton, 2000; Olsen, 2002; Yu, Wu, Chiao e Tai, 2005), a perceção do valor (Agustin e Singh, 2005; Chiou, 2004; Lam, Shankar, Erramilli e Murthy, 2004; Yang e Peterson, 2004) que se evidenciaram bastante relevantes na explicação da fidelização tanto ao nível conceptual como empírico. Contudo, de acordo com Agustin e Sing (2005) ainda não existe um consenso sobre quais as variáveis que determinam a fidelização. Os autores referem igualmente que ainda falta um quadro teórico que justifique os determinantes da fidelização. Desta forma, a ausência de um quadro teórico capaz de identificar com objetividade os determinantes da fidelização justifica o tema desta tese, quadro este que pretende extravasar os limites do conceito de satisfação como elemento base da fidelização.

Sob este pressuposto, esta investigação, adota a perspectiva do Modelo do Investimento (MI) desenvolvido por Rusbult (1980a, 1980b, 1983) de forma a revelar os processos subjacentes à formação da fidelização, integrando vários determinantes da fidelização. Mais ainda, admitindo que qualquer comportamento de consumo apresenta um ciclo de vida limitado no tempo, importa clarificar a temporalidade destes comportamentos. Por outro lado e porque a fidelização decorre da ligação a um destino/produto ou experiência, importa perceber os padrões de fidelização adotados em cada uma das regiões turísticas que constituem o país. Assim sendo, é ainda objetivo desta investigação compreender os processos de formação da fidelização e validar os determinantes em contextos diferentes. Para tal, este estudo avaliou o modelo da fidelização de destinos a dois níveis: ao nível

do destino (regiões), nomeadamente Lisboa/Faro e Acores/Madeira e, ainda ao nível temporal, considerando os anos IATA 2009/10 e 2010/11.

O modelo foi validado empiricamente através de uma amostra de 8991 questionários recolhidos para o estudo INITIATIVE. pt. Para a realização do estudo foi aplicado um modelo de equações estruturais Modelos de Equações Estruturais (AMOS 19) para examinar as relações entre as várias variáveis do modelo.

Os resultados indicam que a motivação influencia o nível de satisfação, que por sua vez influencia o nível de comprometimento. Os investimentos que os turistas fazem afetam negativamente o seu comprometimento, e ambos influenciam a fidelização tanto na perspectiva comportamental, como da atitude. Os resultados sugerem ainda que a fidelização é explicada pelo interesse dos turistas em visitar e arriscar novos destinos, que é explicado pelas motivações e pela satisfação, mas não pelo rendimento familiar dos turistas. A comparação entre grupos revelou que as relações do modelo diferem de acordo com o destino e os anos IATA, revelando-se mais evidentes nos Açores e Madeira e na perspectiva longitudinal.

Os resultados desta investigação visam, por um lado, proporcionar novas investigações que contribuam para o conhecimento e compreensão sobre os processos de fidelização dos turistas aos destinos, e por outro, contribuir para o progresso em técnicas de gestão e estratégias de marketing de destinos, que permitam enfrentar o desafio de ganhar e reter os visitantes ao destino.

*Palavras-chave:* Modelo de Investimento, Fidelização, Turismo, Modelo de Equações Estruturais.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AM	Alternative Models
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
COM	Commitment
CR	Composite Reliability
DMIS	Destination Marketing Information System
DMO	Destination Marketing Organisations
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
IATA	International Air Transport Association
IFI	Incremental fit index
IM	Investment Model
INC	Income
IS	Investment Size
LOY	Loyalty
MG	Model Generating
MGA	Multiple-Group Analysis
MOT	Motivations
NFI	Normed Fit Index
NNFI	Non-Normed Fit Index

RFM	Recency Frequency Monetary Value
PGFI	Parsimonious Goodness-of-Fit Index
PNFI	Parsimonious normed fit index
PR	Parsimony Ratio
RMR	Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SAT	Satisfaction
SC	Strictly Confirmatory
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling

## **CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Background of the Study**

The present study aims to examine the factors influencing tourist loyalty in a leisure tourism context. The Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b, 1983), originating from the social psychology literature is employed as the theoretical foundation underpinning the development of a conceptual model. It has been observed that the tourism industry is facing some major market challenges. Hence, there is a need for a better understanding of its customers in general, and more specifically of what influences loyalty towards tourist destinations.

In the past few decades, tourism has clearly become one of the most prominent economic sectors for many countries (Goh & Law, 2002). The tourism sector has experienced continued growth and deepening diversification to become one of the fastest-growing economic sectors in the world. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2015), after achieving an historic milestone in 2012 of one billion people traveling the world in a single year, international tourism continued its momentum with a 4.7% growth in 2013 and a 4.4% growth in 2014, or an additional 97 million international tourists in this last year, bringing up the world total to a record of 1.135 billion arrivals. Despite this growth in tourist flows, a growing number of new destinations are either entering the market or attempting to capture a higher market share. As a result, the tourism industry has become much more competitive and destinations have become even more proactive in attracting and retaining tourists.

Despite all the financial adversity that has been affecting Europe, and in particular Portugal, the Portuguese travel and tourism industry has been able to adapt to this challenging landscape and the most important indicators registered solid performances. Therefore, according to Turismo de Portugal (2015), the revenue attributed to international tourism achieved €9250 million in 2013, showing an annual average growth of 7.6% since 2009 (constant prices). On the other hand, according to the same source, the number of nights of foreigners in Portuguese hotels reached 9.4 million in 2013, resulting in an average growth rate of 6% since 2009. This favourable evolution was

evident across the main tourist destinations: Algarve (+5.2%), Lisbon (+8.3%), Madeira (+4.1%), as well as to other emerging national destinations.

Notwithstanding its recent success, in order to maintain growth of inbound tourism flows, destination marketing organisations (DMOs), including Portuguese national and regional organisations, are facing an ever-greater difficulty in convincing potential visitors to choose their specific destination over an increasing number of alternatives (Pike & Ryan, 2004; Castro, Armario & Ruiz, 2007). Strategies are broadly directed at maintaining strong revisitation levels by enhancing destination loyalty while at the same time stimulating demand through attracting new tourists. By examining the factors influencing loyalty, this thesis aims to contribute with knowledge that could help DMOs to tackle one such challenge: gaining the loyalty of visitors.

The fact that this research focused on tourism demand, notably on consumer behaviour, and related this perspective with the performance of tourism destinations, does not contradict the focus on the strategic planning of tourism supply offered by contemporary perspectives of tourism planning. The planning perspective follows from Gunn's (1994) argument that during decades tourism was "(...) dominated by theories of tourism promotion (...)", and that the planning perspective has only recently emerged. The two perspectives are not, however, mutually exclusive, because the planning perspective cannot ignore the contribution of marketing and consumer behaviour theories. These theories provide tourism planning with an important contribution to the strategic marketing of destinations and therefore underpin a planned and integrated approach to tourism development.

The topic of the tourism consumers' choice behaviour is frequently investigated by scholars (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Um & Crompton, 1990; Ajzen & Driver, 1991; Chen, 1998) from different perspectives. These choice behaviour studies have been linked to the issues of decision rules, decision-making processes, and choice factors (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Broadly speaking, choice behaviour has been assessed from two conceptual perspectives: relating to visitors' consumption behaviour (Oppermann, 1999), and pertaining to tourists' attitudes toward products or services (Pritchard & Howard, 1997). These two perspectives were used by tourism scholars as a starting point for explaining both the process used to purchase tourism services and behaviour towards a destination (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). In spite of the significant contributions from

studies on choice behaviours (Woodside & Carr, 1988; Fesenmaier, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993, among others), the literature pertaining to the relationship between tourists' choice behaviour factors and destination loyalty is rather limited, even though loyalty has been assumed as one of the major driving forces in competitive markets (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

In the context of travel and tourism, a review of the literature reveals an abundance of studies on tourist loyalty behaviour because, among other things, it is thought that the marketing costs needed to attract loyal visitors are lower than those required for non-loyal visitors (Petrick, 2004). Moreover, a return (loyalty) is a positive indicator of one's satisfaction, and the positive attitude of high repeaters increases their likelihood to return (Oppermann, 1999; Alegre & Juaneda, 2006). Studies have documented that loyal consumers are more likely to act as free word-of-mouth advertising agents who informally bring networks of friends, relatives and other potential consumers, accounting for up to 60% of sales to new consumers (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Chi & Qu, 2008). In spite of the significant importance of tourism destination loyalty, some theoretical issues have not been thoroughly investigated and developing a comprehensive loyalty model at the destination level remains an open area of research (Hossain, Quaddus & Shanka, 2012).

Most existing studies in the context of tourism are focused on activity loyalty and service-provider loyalty (Lee, Graefe & Burns, 2004). Only a few attempts have been made to investigate destination loyalty (Lee *et al.*, 2004; Chi & Qu, 2008) and consequently they have incorporated a limited number of variables explanatory of loyalty. In addition, even though researchers have tried to develop models to identify the factors determining destination loyalty, there has been little work done to advance the theoretical formation of loyalty applying to existing behavioural theories.

From a relationship management perspective, marketing strategies attempting to attract more customers are defined as transactional while marketing strategies attempting to get more business from a select number of existing customers are titled relational (Dwyer, Schurr & Oh, 1987; Grönroos, 1994). However, contrary to what seems to be happening in destination marketing thought, these two paradigms should not be treated as independent but rather understood as situated at opposite ends of a continuum (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987). In destination marketing, one end of this continuum would have tourists

engaging in discrete transactions with the destination, exchanging money for goods and services. The other end of the continuum would have tourists engaged in relationships with the destination, making tangible and intangible investments and expecting equitable retribution over time. In between, there would be tourists engaged in destination choices involving both transactional and relational characteristics. Therefore, researchers should concentrate on understanding and interpreting variations in tourist behaviour across groups and contexts (Decrop, 2000; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) because “there are [various] possible decision-making processes depending on the individual, the group, and the moment in time” (Decrop, 2000: 129). This variability provides an excellent opportunity for new research to be undertaken on developing a comprehensive destination loyalty model that not only contributes to progress knowledge on the processes which produce loyalty in tourists, but also to progress management techniques and marketing strategies aiming destination loyalty.

## **1.2 Statement of Problem**

After 70 years of research there still is no consensual approach to measuring the loyalty construct, even though there appears to be considerable agreement on its conceptualization. Olson & Jacoby (1971) defined loyalty as "a biased, behavioural response, expressed over time, by some decision-making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and [moreover] . . . a function of psychological processes" (Pritchard, Howard & Havitz, 1992: 159). This definition came to be “widely accepted as the conceptual basis for loyalty research” (Backman & Crompton, 1991b: 207). Later Oliver (1999: 34) put the focus on the frequency of rebuying: “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future”. This definition was criticised as some products have quite different levels of repurchase (Curtis, Abratt, Rhoades & Dion, 2011).

Despite the lack of consensus around loyalty, it is consensual that loyalty is a construct that comprises at least two dimensions: behavioural and attitudinal. It has been argued that to capture a “loyalty index”, the proportion of purchases and the attitude towards that brand needs to be reflected upon. Velázquez, Saura & Molina (2011) stated that the multi-dimensional nature of loyalty comprising behavioural and attitudinal components is the most widely accepted. Behavioural loyalty is reflected in the level of repeat purchase

intentions; attitudinal loyalty includes recommending the service to others (Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Dimitriadis, 2006). In consonance with consumer behaviour theory, tourism and leisure researchers have documented that loyalty to a destination is viewed as bi-dimensional: it has behavioural and attitudinal components (Selin, Howard, Udd & Cable, 1988; Backman & Veldkamp, 1995).

Aside from the consensual multidimensionality, loyalty has been assumed as a decision process to which antecedents and consequents contribute to tourists' loyalty formation (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

Under this perspective a plethora of researches explore the relationships between dimensions and determinants of loyalty. In the context of travel and tourism, a review of the literature reveals an abundance of studies on the antecedents of loyalty, with some of the most relevant being satisfaction (Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Bloemer & Lemmink, 1992; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), switching costs and investments (Backman & Crompton, 1991a; Beerli, Martin & Quintana, 2004; Morais, Dorsch & Backman, 2004), perceived quality (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Olsen, 2002; Yu, Wu, Chiao & Tai, 2005), and perceived value (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Chiou, 2004; Lam, Shankar, Erramilli & Murthy, 2004; Yang & Peterson, 2004). All of them prove that each of these constructs contributes separately to explaining tourists' loyalty, but none used all of them simultaneously.

In fact, loyalty research is still lacking an integrated perspective aiming to explain loyalty as a behavioural process, (Oppermann, 1999). These are the mindset that make off the aim of this thesis.

### **1.3 Aims of the Thesis**

This research aims to assess loyalty as a behavioural process, for tourists travelling for leisure purposes. The reasoning for this research, aside from the claim for integrative processes to modelling loyalty, arose from the value of retaining tourists to ensure successful marketing strategies. (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). Furthermore this research aims to understand how and why repeat decisions are taken, in accordance with Oppermann (2000).



The empirical research was carried out in Portugal, a country where regional diversity is more than evident. Furthermore, tourists' decisions are dynamic (Woodside, MacDonald & Burford, 2004; Decrop & Kozak, 2009; Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira, 2013) and assuming that repeat decisions are also a decision process (Oppermann, 2000; Kozak, 2001) the determinants of loyalty process may be assessed across the regions and over time (Assaker, Vinzi & O'Connor, 2011). Under these tenets and to offer generalizability to the conceptual model derived, this research empirically tests the model across different destinations in Portugal, as well as over the years, by means of multigroup analysis.

The destination and yearly analysis allow us to account for specificities of tourism at the regional level, reinforcing the understanding of loyalty process patterns and validating the determinants that persist under different contexts and over the years. Accordingly, the following three objectives are defined:

1. To define a conceptual model of tourist loyalty;
2. To derive the main determinants of tourists' destination loyalty;
3. To assess the extent to which the determinants of loyalty vary across tourism regions and to assess the extent to which the determinants of loyalty vary over time.

In pursuing these objectives, the research did not rely on the tourism literature alone; rather, other areas of knowledge such as behavioural theory, economics and psychology were purposefully considered. Finally, by incorporating individual and product perspectives and pre-trip components (tourist motivations and variety-seeking) and post-trip elements (tourist satisfaction, investment size and commitment), the results could help to develop tailored strategies aimed at improving destination loyalty processes.

## CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW.

### 2.1 Introduction

The concept of loyalty has been approached in the literature under quite different approaches, these being the behaviourist, the attitudinal and mixed, which is one the most referred to. Originally loyalty was defined as “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future” (Oliver, 1999: 34). According to Jones & Sasser (1995) customer loyalty is the feeling of the attachment or affection for a company’s people, products, or services.

The behaviourist approach is defined as the consumer’s repeated purchase of a specific alternative (Oliver, 1997). Later, the loyalty definition was extend to incorporate an attitudinal dimension. This extension alleviates the importance of repeating patterns to posit the loyalty definition at the level of having a positive attitude towards the brand or product. This discussion began with Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) and Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman (1996) among others, who argued that some purchases may happen once or twice in your life and this does not mean that loyalty does not exist, rather that consumers may be regarded as ambassadors of the product and this is also a form of loyalty.

Nowadays, Dick & Basu (1994); Amine (1998) and Campo & Yagüe (2008), among others, proposed loyalty as a composite which includes both behavioural and attitudinal dimensions.

Aside from the consensus that loyalty is a multidimensional construct, another stream of research explores the antecedents and consequents of loyalty, arguing that loyalty is a process (Chi & Qu, 2008; Zabkar, Brencic & Dmitrovic, 2010; Hossain *et al.*, 2012). Antecedents are the factors leading to loyalty (Johnson, Herrmann & Huber, 2006) whereas consequents are regarded as manifestations of the construct (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998).

The most referred antecedents of loyalty are: *satisfaction* (Bloemer & Lemmink, 1992; Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), which was defined as “a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfilment” Oliver (1997: 13) or as an overall evaluation of a purchase (Fornell, 1992); switching-costs (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Beerli *et al.*,

2004), which are technical, financial or psychological factors which make it difficult or expensive for a customer to change brand (Beerli *et al.*, 2004) and investments (Morais *et al.*, 2004), considered as the resources that are attached to a relationship, that would decline in value or be lost if the relationship were to end (Rusbult, 1991). Perceived quality (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Olsen, 2002; Yu *et al.*, 2005), which is the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml, 1988) and perceived value (Chiou, 2004; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Agustin & Singh, 2005), which is a consumer's global evaluation of the utility of a product according to their perception of what they receive and what they give (Zeithaml, 1988) are also considered important antecedents in loyalty research.

However, other antecedents have been considered, such as *motivations* (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), which has been referred to as psychological/ biological needs and wants, including integral forces that arouse, direct, and integrate a person's behaviour and activity (Dann, 1981; Uysal & Hagan, 1993); *place attachment* (Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010), which reflects the emotional or affective bond between an individual and a place (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Kyle & Mowen, 2005); *image* (Chi & Qu, 2008), defined as an individual's overall perception or a total set of impressions of a place (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991); *perceived quality of performance* (Baker & Crompton, 2000), which has been viewed as the quality of opportunity that consists of the attributes of a service (Lee, Yoon & Lee, 2007); and *trust*, defined as the expectation held by customers that the provider is dependable and can be relied on to deliver on promises (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

All of them have been proved to be significant in determining loyalty. As previous research considered some of the antecedents at the time, but not all of them simultaneously, the question of what are the most critical factors explaining loyalty still remains to be answered (Agustin & Singh, 2005).

The most referred consequents are behavioural intentions, referred to as intention to revisit and intention to recommend (Bigné, Sanchez & Sanchez, 2001; Kozak, 2001, among others); word-of-mouth communication, such as diffusion, transmission, communication, and dissemination of thoughts, information, messages, opinions, evaluations, and comments between at least two persons about some products, services, brands, and related experiences (Petrick, 2004; Bigné & Andreu, 2005, among others)

and resistance to counter-persuasion (Dick & Basu, 1994), which emphasizes resistance as a motivational state, in which people have the goal of reducing attitudinal or behavioural change or of retaining one's current attitude (Knowles & Linn, 2004), the main limitation of this also being the lack of research considering all of them simultaneously with the aim of explaining how loyalty influence these consequents (Gursoy, Chen & Chi, 2014).

Aside from the lack of integrative models to explain loyalty, further limitations rely on specificities of the geographical analysis undertaken at a single destination and for a single and very limited period (McKercher, Denizci-Guillet & Ng, 2012).

The much-demanded cross-region research agenda (Correia, Zins & Silva, 2015) is covered in this study as well as the temporal frame that may make tourists change their mind set (Jang & Feng, 2007; McKercher *et al.*, 2012).

A general problem is that changes over time are rarely accounted for and time is a critical ingredient of strong, committed relationships (Gundlach & Murphy, 1993), so it is also important to observe tourists' revisit intentions from a time perspective because the intention often changes over time. Unfortunately, a lack of longitudinal research investigating the impact of customer satisfaction and some other factors on loyalty makes it difficult to judge conclusively the long-term effect of the relationship.

As such this chapter aims to provide an in-depth review of the different perspectives that have been proposed in the conceptualization of loyalty; to understand the main antecedents of loyalty, suggested by marketing and tourism studies and to investigate the factors that enhance/reduce the development of the tourist loyalty process over time.

To achieve these objectives, and bearing in mind the extant literature review on loyalty, this review pretends, to uncover relationships that have not been explicitly spelled out in theoretical formulations. The main findings of previous research with theoretical supports, aiming thus to reflect a better knowledge and interpretation of the value chain of the process of loyalty formation and providing a critical overview that strengthens the conceptual model proposed in chapter III.

## 2.2 Conceptualization of Loyalty: Different Approaches

The concept of loyalty relies on three different streams: as a behaviourist approach (Oliver, 1997; Buttle & Burton, 2002); as an attitude approach (Czepiel & Gilmore, 1987) and as a behaviourist and attitudinal component (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Backman & Crompton, 1991b; among others).

According to Oliver (1997), loyalty is to be understood from the behavioural point of view as it refers to the future repeat purchase commitment of a product or service despite situational influences and marketing efforts directed at causing changes in behaviour. However, this way of considering and measuring loyalty prevents any differentiation between loyal customers from those who usually buy a product or service. Hence, many researchers define loyalty on the basis not only of behaviour but also attitude, since a simple repeat purchase may be due to inertia, indifference or changing costs (Reichheld, 2003).

A particular stream of research has focused on the conceptualization and classification of loyalty, and demonstrates that loyalty is a multidimensional construct that includes both behavioural and attitudinal variables (Selin *et al.*, 1988; Pritchard & Howard, 1997). Moreover, according to Baloglu (2001), conceptualizing loyalty as a two-dimensional measure combining behaviours and attitudes more adequately captures the “richness” of the loyalty construct, and differentiates between distinct loyalty types (segments).

Following is a discussion of loyalty typology specific on determinants of behavioural and attitudinal and composite loyalty.

### 2.2.1 Behavioural Loyalty Approach

The literature on customer loyalty started in the 1920s and until the mid-1960s, loyalty was mainly defined as behavioural loyalty toward a particular brand. This is evidenced by the Tucker (1964: 32) statement “no consideration should be given to what the subject thinks nor what goes on his/her central nervous system, his/her behaviour is the full statement of what brand loyalty is”.

Early studies of consumer loyalty mainly focused on the behavioural aspects of consumer loyalty, and are based on patterns or frequency of purchase. Copeland (1923) was one of the first scholars to examine what is called “brand insistence”, followed by Churchill (1942) who was the first to collect panel data in order to determine customers’ total

buying behaviour, their brand loyalty and switching between brands. Brown (1952), also used the behavioural approach, and focused primarily on a sequence-of-purchase measurement. Brand loyalty is established when a preferred brand is selected in three consecutive purchases (Tucker, 1964), four successive purchases (McConnell, 1968) or five consecutive purchases (Lawrence, 1969). Nonetheless, Cunningham (1956, 1961), in his study on the loyalty formation sequence, introduced the concept of market share or proportion-of-purchase index as an indicator of loyalty. The author was one of the first scholars to suggest that brand loyalty is the proportion of total purchases represented by the largest single/dual brand used. Brown (1952) and Iwasaky & Havitz (1998), also followed the same concept to study loyalty. However, Charlton & Ehrenberg (1976) found that the proportion of purchase varied considerably with price promotion and brand familiarity.

So, based on the past behaviour and the probability of purchase, Kuehn (1962) argues that the probability of buying a brand at time “ $t$ ” depends on the sequence of past purchases before time “ $t$ ”. In support, Lipstein (1959); Frank (1962); Ehrenberg (1988); Ostrowski, O'Brien & Gordon (1993) argue that behavioural loyalty reflects customer actions and involves the measurement of past purchases of the same brand or and/or the measurement of probabilities of future purchase given past purchase behaviours.

In contrast, Maffei (1960) stated that future behaviour is unaffected by past purchase, with the exception of immediate past purchase at “ $t-1$ ”. Also, DuWors & Haines (1990) argue that brand loyalty is transitory as after a period of habitual behaviour most families try other brands.

Sheth (1968) was the first scholar to interpret loyalty as “mixed behaviours”, stating that consumer behaviour is so complex that no single theoretical model is adequate for all products and consumers. This author suggests combining the patterns of purchase of a particular brand and the number of times the consumer buys it.

Similarly, Burford, Enis & Paul (1971) suggests combining the percentage of purchase allocated to a particular brand with the number of switchers among available brands and the number of brands purchased from those available. Also, Jones & Sasser (1995) argue that continued patronage and actual spending behaviours such as the amount of brokerage the consumer pays to the firm are the ultimate measures of behavioural loyalty. This way of measuring loyalty, also defined as price premium (Pessemier, 1959; Jacoby & Kyner,

1973; Aaker, 1996), describes brand switching behaviour and intentions of switching brands.

The major assumption of loyalty from a behavioural perspective is that internal processes are spurious and behaviour captures loyalty (Tucker, 1964; Hart, Smith, Sparks & Tzokas, 1999). The behavioural measures anticipate the repeat purchase pattern of consumers from basic information about penetration and average purchase frequency (Knox & Walker, 2001).

Despite the popularity of the behavioural approach, the lack of a conceptual basis (Dick & Basu, 1994), the focus on macro rather than micro data, and the stochastic picture of the consumer's behaviour (Jacoby & Kyner, 1973) led to a paradigm shift to consider the attitudinal components of loyalty. Moreover, this is considered to be a relevant measure, as the main criticism of this typology is that it does not include the customer's motives for their behaviour. Additionally, behavioural loyalty may reflect false or spurious loyalty (which is not accompanied by a high relative attitude towards the object) as indicated by habitual or incentive-driven behaviour (Uncles & Laurent, 1997). It is too simplistic, does not capture the multidimensionality of the construct of loyalty (Kumar, Shah & Venkatesan, 2006), and it neglects the psychological (decision-making or evaluative) commitment to the brand/store (Han & Back, 2008). In support, Back (2005) argues that the behavioural loyalty approach neglects the importance of understanding the customers' decision-making process underlying their purchase behaviours.

While a behavioural approach to loyalty is still valid as a component of loyalty, it is argued that attitudinal approaches to loyalty should supplement the behavioural approach (Samuelson & Sandvik, 1997). Thus, the following section discusses the necessity of considering the attitudinal components in loyalty.

**Table 2.1- Behavioural Approach**

<i>Loyalty Construct</i>	<i>Author/s</i>
<i>Pattern on frequency of Purchase</i>	Copeland (1923); Churchill (1942); Brown (1952); Cunningham (1956); Tucker (1964); McConnell (1968); Lawrence (1969); Kahn, Kalwani & Morrison, (1986); Pritchard <i>et al.</i> (1992); Iwasaki & Havitz (1998); Knox & Walker (2001), among others.
<i>Proportion of Purchase</i>	Brown (1952); Cunningham (1956, 1961); Charlton & Ehrenberg (1976); Iwasaki & Havitz (1998), among others,
<i>Purchase Probability</i>	Lipstein (1959); Kuehn (1962); Frank (1962); Ehrenberg (1988); Ostrowski <i>et al.</i> (1993); Hui, Wan & Ho (2007).
<i>Mixed Behaviour</i>	Pessemier (1959); Sheth (1968); Burford <i>et al.</i> (1971); Jacoby & Kyrner (1973); DuWors & Haines (1990); Jones & Sasser (1995); Aaker (1996).

Source: Own elaboration

### 2.2.2 Attitudinal Loyalty Approach

Attitudinal loyalty is the consumer's psychological disposition toward the same brand or brand-set and involves the measurement of consumer attitudes (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Fournier, 1998). Guest (1944) was arguably one of the first researchers to propose the idea of measuring loyalty as an attitude. The author used a single preference question asking participants to select the brand they like the best, among a group of brand names. Sherif, Sherif & Nevergall (1965), proposed a continuum for brand loyalty's attitudinal strength (e.g. acceptance, rejection and neutral regions). These authors were then followed by a number of marketing researchers who tend to refer to attitudinal loyalty in at least three different ways: (1) behavioural intentions (e.g. word of mouth, recommendation and repurchase) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Oliver, 1980; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1996; Butcher, Sparks & O'Callaghan, 2001; Reichheld, 2003; Rauyruen & Miller, 2007; among others); (2) attitude (e.g. positive attitude, strong attitude and preference) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Mitra & Lynch, 1995; Mellens, Dekimpe & Steenkampe, 1996; Söderlund, 2006) and (3) commitment (e.g. enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship) (Traylor, 1981; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Fournier, 1998; Keh & Lee, 2006; Auh, Bell, McLeod & Shih, 2007).

However, positive attitudes towards the product/service must be developed over a long period of time (Kumar *et al.*, 2006). Indeed commitment has a significant role to play in



attitudinal loyalty: “since commitment reflects the consumers’ self-evaluation of the context and the active decision to engage in a long-term relationship” (Evanschitzky, Iyer, Plassmann, Niessing, Meffert, 2006: 1210). So, concerning the relationship between loyalty and commitment, a review of the literature on customer loyalty indicates that there are at least three schools of thought on the relationship.

The first school of thought states that commitment and loyalty are synonymous (e.g. Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Buchanan, 1985; Assael, 1987) and therefore could be used interchangeably. The second school of thought argues that commitment is synonymous with attitudinal loyalty (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978) or consists of the affective and conative phase of loyalty (Chen, 2001). Lee (2003) argues that it is logical to equate the attitudinal dimension of loyalty with commitment because loyalty encompasses attitudinal components and commitment reflects socio-psychological binding mechanism. Also, Iwasaki & Havitz (2004) state that attitudinal loyalty is reflected in the components of psychological commitment. The last school of thought argues that commitment is an antecedent of customer loyalty or more specifically of its attitudinal and behavioural components (e.g. Beatty, Homer & Kahle, 1988; Dick & Basu, 1994; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2006; among others). For example, Evanschitzky *et al.* (2006) distinguish between commitment as a desire and attitudinal loyalty as intention and argue that attitudinal loyalty is often preceded by desire/commitment.

More recently, Reichheld (2003) argued that loyalty may be conveniently and effectively assessed using only one variable – “willingness to recommend” (i.e., word of mouth, which is traditionally considered as an attitudinal loyalty outcome). The author found that the tendency of loyal customers to bring in new customers is of vital importance for a company’s growth. However, customers’ willingness to recommend is a particularly effective measure of customers’ loyalty, in comparison to traditional measures such as satisfaction or customer retention rate.

The attitudinal measure of loyalty has linked or equated attitudinal loyalty with different concepts, such as commitment (Park, 1996; Kyle, Graefe, Manning & Bacon, 2003), relative attitude toward the brand or brand providers (Dick & Basu, 1994; Morais *et al.*, 2004), attachment (Backman & Crompton, 1991b), involvement (McIntyre, 1989), but once more each of these constructs was approached separately without providing an attitudinal approach of loyalty integrated. Another attitudinal measure of loyalty is future

expectation. These expectations reflect the current and expected fit between marketplace offerings and consumer needs. For example, consumers' expectations about product availability may act to either postpone a repurchase of the current product (where a better alternative is anticipated) or increase repurchase when faced with its removal from the market). Alternatively, expectations may reflect beliefs about the attitude itself (e.g. a consumer may expect his or her decision criteria to change as needs change with continued usage and increased product knowledge) (Dick & Basu, 1994).

The main criticism of the attitudinal loyalty approach is that it lacks power in predicting actual purchase behaviour, even though a recent meta-analysis on attitude behaviour studies (Kraus, 1995) stated that attitudes significantly help to predict future behaviour (Rundle-Thiele, 2005). Moreover, according to Morais (2000) using attitudinal loyalty alone may not capture the whole picture of the loyalty phenomenon. Furthermore, Backman & Crompton (1991b) have suggested that the limited explanatory power of attitudinal loyalty could be the result of intervening influences from other constraining factors to purchase behaviours, such as personal variables, self-efficacy, perceived skill level, price awareness and perceived risk.

In the attitudinal approach, based on consumer brand preferences or intention to buy, consumer loyalty is an attempt on the part of consumers to go beyond overt behaviour and express their loyalty in terms of psychological commitment or statement of preference. In the tourism and leisure industry, tourists may have a favourable attitude toward a particular product or destination, and express their intention to purchase the product or visit the destination. Consequently, loyalty measures consumers' strength of affection toward a brand or product, as well as explaining an additional portion of unexplained variance that behavioural approaches do not address (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Psychological or affective attachment is the underlying cognitive process which predisposes consumers to behave in a selected manner toward the service or products (Lee *et al.*, 2007). However, a study of attitude alone cannot determine competitive effects (multi-brand or shared loyalty), familiarity, and situational factors (Selin *et al.*, 1988; Baloglu, 2001).

In general, the foremost criticism was that loyalty measures based on the attitudinal dimension alone would not tell us much about competitive effects (multibrand or shared loyalty), familiarity, and situational factors (Jarvis & Mayo, 1986; Pritchard *et al.*, 1992), considering that in an attitudinal perspective, customer loyalty has been viewed by some

researchers as a specific desire to continue a relationship with a service provider (Czepiel & Gilmore, 1987).

In the same vein, with the behavioural approach, customer loyalty is defined as repeat patronage, that is, the proportion of times a purchaser chooses the same product or service in a specific category compared to the total number of purchases made by the purchaser in that category (Neal, 1999). The dilemma lies in the fact that intention may not lead to action, and repeated buying behaviour may not reflect intentions. Nevertheless, the consensus among scholars is that a composite measure of loyalty shows more predictive power.

Therefore, the following section discusses the assumption that loyalty may be regarded as a composite construct, with an attitudinal and a behavioural dimension.

**Table 1.2- Attitudinal Approach.**

<i>Loyalty Construct</i>	<i>Author/s</i>
<i>Loyalty defined as a psychological disposition toward the same brand or brand-set</i>	Day (1969); Jacoby & Chestnut (1978); Ajzen & Fishbein (1980); Oliver (1980); Traylor (1981); Czepiel & Gilmore (1987); Backman & Crompton (1991b); Zeithaml <i>et al.</i> (1996); Fournier (1998); Butcher <i>et al.</i> , (2001); Chen (2001); Lee (2003); Reichheld (2003); Iwasaki & Havitz (2004); Keh & Lee (2006); Rauyruen & Miller (2007); Auh <i>et al.</i> , (2007); among others.
<i>Behavioural intentions (e.g. word of mouth, recommendation, saying and repurchase)</i>	Ajzen & Fishbein (1980); Oliver (1980); Westbrook & Oliver (1981); Zeithaml <i>et al.</i> , (1996); Patterson, Johnson & Spreng (1997); Bloemer, De Ruyter & Wetzels (1999); Bigné <i>et al.</i> (2001); Lee & Cunningham (2001); Kosak (2001); Kim & Cha (2002); Petrick & Backman (2002b); Baloglu, Pekcan, Chen & Santos (2003); Reichheld (2003); Beerli <i>et al.</i> (2004); Barroso, Armario & Ruiz (2007); Jang & Feng (2007); among others.
<i>Attitude (e.g. positive attitude, strong attitude and preference)</i>	Ajzen & Fishbein (1980); Pritchard <i>et al.</i> (1992); Mitra & Lynch (1995); Mellens <i>et al.</i> (1996); Bloemer <i>et al.</i> (1999); Taylor, Celuch & Goodwin (2004); Söderlund (2006); among others.
<i>Commitment/ attachment/ involvement</i>	Jacoby & Kyner (1973); Traylor (1981); Assael (1987); Dick & Basu (1994); Morgan & Hunt (1994); Mellens <i>et al.</i> (1996); Park (1996); Fournier (1998); Chen (2001); Lee & Cunningham (2001); Lee (2003); Iwasaki & Havitz (2004); Kyle <i>et al.</i> (2003); Beerli <i>et al.</i> (2004); Gustafsson, Johnson & Ross (2005); Evanschitzky <i>et al.</i> (2006); Keh & Lee (2006); Auh <i>et al.</i> (2007), among others.

Source: Own elaboration

### 2.2.3 Composite Approach

As previously shown, applying behavioural and attitudinal measures did not provide an efficient tool for explaining consumer loyalty. Hence, the need to combine both measurements emerges. Day (1969) demonstrated that loyalty should be viewed as a multidimensional concept, a combination of attitudes and behaviour. The author suggests that to capture loyalty a “loyalty index” is needed to reflect the proportion of purchases and the attitude towards that brand. Jacoby & Kyner (1973: 26) argue that loyalty should comprise a composite perspective, and accordingly the authors’ definition of loyalty is that “The behavioural view of loyalty fails to distinguish between brand loyalty behaviour and brand loyalty attitudes. “Brand loyalty behaviour is defined as the overt act of selective repeat purchasing, while brand loyalty attitudes are the underlying predispositions to behave in a selective fashion” (Jacoby & Kyner, 1973: 26).

Consequently, they argue that it is important to establish the causal link between attitudes and behaviour in order to understand the reasons for brand loyalty and its strength. Overall, for Jacoby & Kyner (1973: 2), brand loyalty can be defined by six conditions that must be present and are collectively sufficient, conceptually, “brand loyalty is (1) the biased (i.e., nonrandom), (2) behavioural response (i.e., purchase) (3) expressed over time, (4) by some decision-making unit, (5) with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and (6) is a function of psychological (decision-making, evaluative) processes”. Also, Newman & Werbel (1973: 404) state that brand loyalty “should reflect buyer resistance to persuasion to switch brands”.

Lutz & Winn (1975) propose loyalty indexes based on composites of attitudinal and behavioural measures, stating that a behavioural measure captures only the static outcome of the dynamic process of loyalty, and that spurious loyalty is not based on any attitudinal attachment toward the brand. Once the attitudinal components are added to the loyalty measure, higher explanatory power is imposed on the measurement, and a clearer understanding of behaviour can be gained.

In line with the previous authors, Dick & Basu (1994) highlighted the need to consider relative attitudes in defining loyalty. Relative attitudes refer to the degree to which the consumer’s evaluation of one alternative brand dominates over another. They argue that

preferences in purchase behaviour do not occur in isolation and a high absolute attitude score toward a particular brand could be low if it is compared to other brands. In support, Engel & Blackwell (1982) argue that brand loyalty refers to the consumer's preferential attitudinal and behavioural response toward one or more brands.

The composite loyalty index was applied extensively in tourism research (Selin *et al.*, 1988; Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Dick & Basu, 1994; Pritchard, Havitz & Howard, 1999; Shoemaker, 1999; Morais *et al.*, 2004; Petrick, 2004), and these researches allow it to be proved that loyalty is a two-dimensional construct made up of an attitudinal and a behavioural component (Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994). Behavioural loyalty is reflected in repeat purchase; attitudinal loyalty includes recommending the service provider to others and repurchase intentions (Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Dimitriades, 2006).

This study follows the stream developing and testing a composite destination loyalty model in a tourism destination.

**Table 2.3- Composite Approach**

<i>Loyalty Construct</i>	<i>Author/s</i>
<i>Composite Loyalty.</i> <i>(Attitudinal and behavioural component)</i>	Day (1969); Jacoby & Kyner (1973); Engel & Blackwell (1982); Selin <i>et al.</i> (1988); Backman & Crompton (1991b); Dick & Basu (1994); Backman & Veldkamp (1995); Pritchard & Howard (1997); Pritchard <i>et al.</i> (1999); Shoemaker (1999); Oppermann (1999); Baloglu (2001); Bigné <i>et al.</i> (2001); Kozak (2001); Kozak, Huan & Beaman (2002); Niininen & Riley (2003); Morais <i>et al.</i> (2004); Petrick (2004); Dimitriades (2006); Barroso <i>et al.</i> (2007); Velázquez <i>et al.</i> (2011); Toufaily, Ricard & Perrien (2013); Kitterlin & Yoo (2014); Meleddua, Pacib & Pulinac (2015); among others.

Source: Own elaboration

## 2.3 Tourism Destinations and Loyalty Constructs

### 2.3.1 Tourism Destinations

The destination is viewed as a territorially coherent and integrated entity which includes cultural and natural resources, attractions, resident population, transportation, image, equipment and tourism infrastructure Gunn (1994). This perspective has been shared by others such as Davidson & Maitland (1997), Cho (2001) and Laws (1995). For them destinations have a number of characteristics they deem to be horizontal, such as the existence of a ‘total tourism product’ that is complex and multidimensional which exists alongside other economic activities, the host community, an active private sector and elected local public authorities. In this context, the starting point required to conceptualise a tourism destination is based mainly on analysing the multiple tangible and intangible factors that need to be integrated as well as the need for partnerships and integrated planning (Framke, 2002).

More recently, a different perspective emphasised the issues required to territorially define the concept. For example Saraniemi & Kylänen (2011: 114) argue that “(...) the complex processes of tourism production and consumption depend on destinations, be they a single community and its surroundings, a region, or a country”. This perspective, points towards an accepted understanding that tourism destinations are not associated to a pre-defined territorial entity defined (Cho, 2001; Weaver & Lawton, 2002; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003), and are instead underpinned in the existence of “(...) an homogenous geographical territory, with common characteristics, and able to support planning objectives (...)” (Valls, 2004). Still within the more conventional approaches, the literature (Keller, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Jörgen, Lars & Björn, 2009; among others) has often considered the need to bring together the territorial perspective with that of the integrated marketing management, with the boundaries of the tourism destination concept defined based on the juxtaposition of these two components.

Brackenbury (2000), Valls (2004), and Silva, Mendes, Guerreiro, Viegas, Sequeira, Ferreira & Pereira (2001) highlight this link, introducing the assumptions of autonomous decision-making and the existence of an external component associated with perception and image.

Further, Buhalis (2000) describes tourism destinations as a bundle of tourism products able to offer an integrated experience to consumers and highlights the role that planning and marketing play in its management. To Seaton & Benett (1996), tourism destinations emerge as unique and complex sociocultural entities which have both physical and intangible features.

Valls (2004) notes another common feature of tourism destinations: the ability to become the centre of the mobility and become the place visitors define as their objective and the centre of their tourist experience. As a consequence, according to the author, destinations should offer a structured product oriented towards satisfying customers but also have a brand that is perceived as attractive, symbolises all of the destination's tourism product, facilitates its recognition by markets and generates affect and feelings. This definition suggests that there are advantages of joint marketing when promoting the destination. This requirement is put forward by Brackenbury (2000), who highlights it as the pinnacle of an institutional perspective that produces vertical marketing cooperation underpinned by a strategic vision and a joint plan for the entire destination. Silva *et al.* (2001) analysed the work published by the European Commission in 1999 about quality in urban, coastal and rural destinations, concluding that there are two interdependent elements when profiling tourist destinations. The internal element covers a contiguous that is coherent and autonomous in its decision-making, while the external element refers to issues related to perception and image.

Tourists desire uniqueness, security and hospitality, as well as personalised services that match or exceed their expectations, so that their experience is memorable and results in a positive evaluation of the experience (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zabkar *et al.*, 2010). Authors such as Lash & Urry (1994) had earlier emphasised that idea that tourist decision-making is mainly based on emotions and the symbolic elements of the product. Therefore, the ability to make tourists capture the social nature of the place and the spatiality of the experience becomes essential (Urry, 1990; Rojek & Urry, 1997). Saraniemi & Kylänen (2011) referred that when concentrating on the sign value that connects to the identity work of the customer, it therefore becomes possible to stress the socio-political relations of production and consumption and, thus, help to understand the construction of

experience. Therefore, it can be argued that the most recent thought perspectives value the development of symbolic perceptions rather than any marketing tactics.

To Mathieson & Wall (1992), tourist destinations are able to differentiate themselves from competitors based on their attractiveness and identity. On the other hand, Porter (2000) and Keller (2000) point out that competitive advantage and the associated tourist experiences emerge as a dynamic system comprising a number of independent factors such as the structure and quality of the supply, market structure and demand. Dwyer & Kim (2003) later adopted an integrated model inspired in Crouch & Ritchie's (1999) model, adding a component that includes demand elements (awareness, perception and preferences). Based on the above, it can be concluded that the competitiveness of the destination is built on a variety of tourism resources and products that are effectively managed, and the destination promotion includes a socio-cultural component in order to access and attract markets.

However, bearing in mind that tourism activity is made up of a fragmented structure requiring the coordination of different actors, as well as the development of partnerships, the competitive advantage of the destination can be highly influenced by the ability to operationalise a complex and integrated final product that satisfies consumers. Silva (2009) argues that destination performance always reflects the consistency of the relationships that are established between a diverse set of actors, whereby the effective and continuous partnership between public and private organisations takes on a decisive role perspective of whether they are directly or indirectly related to tourism service provision.

Authors such as Gunn (1994), Costa (2001), Silva *et al.* (2001), Crouch & Ritchie (1999) and Buhalis (2000) also recognise that only tourist destinations have favourable conditions to develop an integrated tourism system based on effective partnerships and able to directly allocate responsibilities in tourism development. Therefore, one of the most substantial challenges when designing and implementing tourism development policies involves managing the interests of the different actors (Silva *et al.*, 2001; Costa, 2001; Silva, 2009).



As Silva (2009) argues, in most cases the final product experienced by tourists and the memories they take home, result from a complex interaction with different resources (e.g. accommodation, residents, environment) and therefore interventions should be framed within sustainable tourism development principles and at the same time approached from an interdisciplinary perspective involving other areas such as environment, urban and territorial planning and culture (Silva *et al.*, 2001). From a strategic point of view, the destinations should consider the need to deliver favourable conditions for businesses to prosper, which can be achieved through defining and promoting quality standards, reduced bureaucracy, training support and easy access to markets (Costa, 2001). Such perspective match the new marketing paradigm labelled ‘holistic marketing’ by Kotler & Gertner (2002), which starts with market requirements, focuses on delivering consumer value and works towards developing customer loyalty.

Therefore, creating and integrating value-added products and services can increase visitors’ satisfaction which is essential for enhancing destination loyalty (Hossain *et al.*, 2012).

### **2.3.2 Tourists Loyalty**

Loyal customers are frequent, repeat purchasers who feel a sense of belonging to a product and services and who are reluctant to change even in the presence of similar offerings from other brands. Today destinations face the toughest competition and it may become tougher still in years to come, so marketing managers need to understand why tourists are faithful to destinations and what determines their loyalty (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). Destinations, with the aim of achieving sustainable competitive advantage for the travel and tourism sector, have to find and define the main distinguishing features of the travel destination and build an image that is attractive to visitors (Glinska & Florek, 2013), developed in a way that matches the evolving travellers’ and tourists’ preferences, aiming for a positive impact on their loyalty behaviour. However, in a tourism context, the measurement of loyalty is particularly challenging, since the purchase of a tourism product is not bought on a daily basis (Oppermann, 1999), at least it may occur on a yearly or twice yearly basis (Jago & Shaw, 1998).

Tourism is something to be purchased in advance: the purchase happens a long time before the consumption and individuals who bought tourism products experience the products and the services out of their home, which makes them much more vulnerable and demanding. Under this plethora of constraints, satisfaction and loyalty is much harder to achieve than within normal products. This difficulty among others relies on the risk that choosing new destinations may bring. This risk may be mitigated if instead of a new destination they choose a familiar one, as this is the only argument that contributes to increase the probability of repeating the same destination. Risk aversion, therefore, may induce loyalty (Jones, Mothersbaugh & Beatty, 2000). Other factors may also contribute to induce loyalty such as: the type of tourist – domestic versus international (Mechinda, Serirat & Gulid, 2009), travel distance (Mckercher & Denizci, 2010), past repeat behaviour (Kozak, 2001) and destination lifecycle stage (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011). Further, Backman & Crompton (1991b) argue that psychological attachment and behavioural consistency are dimensions of loyalty.

Overall and independently of the variables used to explained loyalty, it is consensual that loyalty is a composite construct that comprises an attitudinal and behavioural dimension (Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Oppermann, 1999; Baloglu, 2001; Kozak *et al.*, 2002; Niininen & Riley, 2003).

Most of the latest research on tourism satisfaction and loyalty has mainly focused on testing relationships in the context of travel agencies (Macintosh, 2007; Patterson *et al.*, 1997; San Martín *et al.* 2008), types of tourism (e.g. cultural, urban, thermal) (Petrick, 2005; Correia, Oom Do Valle & Moço, 2007; Aleén & Fraiz, 2006; Barroso *et al.* 2007). On the other hand loyalty has been also approached on specific phases of the tourist experience, such as backpacker hostels (Chitty, Ward & Chua, 2007), transportation (Dimitriades, 2006), tourist shopping (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007) or hospitality services (Ekinci, Dawes & Massey, 2008). All of them concluded that loyalty and satisfaction correlate differently in light of the context. Furthermore most of these researches focus on a single site/business/destination (Niininen, Szivas & Riley, 2004; Chi & Qu, 2008; Mechinda *et al.*, 2009).

Even if satisfaction is an antecedent of loyalty, this is not the only variable to be considered at the time of understanding loyalty as a process (Chi & Qu, 2008). In this

line, there are some studies (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Chi, Gursoy & Qu, 2009; Li & Petrick, 2010; among others) analysing the contribution of variables such as service quality, perceived value, commitment and other moderator determinants which can contribute to a deeper understanding of the nature of this construct in the tourism context.

Based on the above discussion, the next section discusses and defines some critical variables in relation to explaining tourist loyalty.

### **2.3.3 Destination Loyalty Constructs**

#### **2.3.3.1 Satisfaction**

Customer satisfaction remains a worthy pursuit among the consumer marketing community (Oliver, 1999). Indeed, customer satisfaction is a critical focus for effective marketing programs. Tse & Wilton (1988) defined satisfaction as a consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption. According to Yi (1991) customer satisfaction is a collective outcome of perception, evaluation and psychological reactions to the consumption experience with a product or service. On the other hand Oliver (1997) defined satisfaction as customers' judgments about products or service fulfilment. Customer satisfaction plays the most important role in total quality management. And in comparison with other traditional performance measures, customer satisfaction is probably less sensitive to seasonal fluctuations, changes in costs, or changes in accounting principles and practices (Kotler & Keller, 2006).

Chen & Wang (2009) suggest a view of customer satisfaction as a kind of consistency evaluation between prior expectations and perceived service performance. Accordingly, the positive evaluation of the product or service that the customer acquires is a major reason to continue a relationship with a company's products or services, and an important pillar that upholds loyalty. Satisfied customers are thus more likely to repurchase, lower their price sensitivity, engage in positive word-of-mouth recommendations, and become loyal customers.

The definition of satisfaction contains some conceptual and operational differences. However, after thoroughly reviewing the existing literature, Giese & Cote (2000) concluded three general components were shared by the definitions: (1) consumer satisfaction is an emotional response; (2) the response refers to a specific focus; (expectations, product, consumption experience, etc.) and (3) the response occurs at a particular time (after consumption, after choice, based on accumulated experience, etc.).

Different researchers have investigated different aspects of consumer/tourist satisfaction in the tourism industry and hospitality, such as satisfaction with specific destinations (Pizam, Neumann & Reichel, 1979; Chon & Olsen, 1991; Pizam & Millman, 1993; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000), tour guides (Reisinger & Waryszak, 1995), the behaviour of local people (Pearce, 1980), specific tours (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Hsu, 2000), hotels (Ekinci & Riley, 1998); casinos (Mayer, Johnson, Hu & Chen, 1998), cruise lines (Teye & Leclerc, 1998); restaurants (Oh & Jeong, 1996) and travel agencies (Millan & Esteban, 2004).

Numerous studies report that satisfaction is an antecedent of post-purchase attitudes and repeat purchase intentions (Anderson, 1994; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1996). In general, authors agree that satisfaction influences loyalty (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000; Fecikova, 2004). So, satisfaction has also been frequently identified as a major prerequisite of loyalty in the literature of marketing (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Olsen, 2002; Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2004) and leisure/tourism (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

In fact, according to the extant literature review, the positive effect of satisfaction on loyalty has been somewhat taken for granted, and research has focused more on identifying moderators and/or mediators of the effect of satisfaction on loyalty (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998; Mittal & Lassar, 1998; Abdullah, Al-Nasser & Husain, 2000; Homburg & Giering, 2001; Lee, Lee & Feick, 2001; Yang & Peterson, 2004), or the nature of the satisfaction-loyalty relationship (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Mittal & Kamakura, 2001; Gómez, McLaughlin & Wittink, 2004; Agustin & Singh, 2005).

Despite the intuitive appeal, the view that customer satisfaction positively determines loyalty is not consensual. Some researchers have argued that the strength of the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty may vary significantly under different conditions (Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003). For example, Jones & Sasser (1995) suggested that the strength of the

satisfaction-loyalty link depends upon the competitive structure of the industry. Although, Oliver (1997) considered loyalty as a type of “long-term effect” related to satisfaction, the author also warned that, even with the presence of satisfaction, true loyalty may only be achieved in special situations (Oliver, 1999). Petrick (1999) identified an inverted relationship between satisfaction and loyalty, in which loyalty served as an antecedent of repeat visitors’ satisfaction. Some researchers only found weak or non-direct connection between satisfaction and loyalty (Hellier, Geursen, Carr & Rickard, 2003; Skogland & Siguaw, 2004).

Other studies show a nonlinear, asymmetric relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001; Bowen & Chen, 2001; Agustin & Singh, 2005). Thus several studies highlight the complexity of the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Bennett & Rundle-Thiele, 2002). The marketing literature agrees, however, that loyalty is the result of satisfaction and this is shown by several studies in the area of services (Mattila, 2001). However, Fredericks (2001) also points out that there is a big difference between satisfaction, which is a passive customer condition, and loyalty, which is an active or proactive relationship with the organization.

Extant tourism literature reveals that travellers’ satisfaction with a tourist destination is a significant determinant of their post-holiday behaviours (Arasli & Sadeghi, 2014).

In the tourism industry, there is empirical evidence that tourists’ satisfaction is a strong indicator of their intentions to revisit and recommend the destination to other people (Ross, 1993; Juaneda, 1996; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Kozak, 2001). As mentioned in various studies, it is consensual that if tourists are satisfied with their holiday experience, it is expected that they will be more likely to continue to return to a destination and recommend it to others (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Oppermann, 1999). For example, Dabholkar, Shepherd & Thorpe (2000) found that satisfaction (affective component) mediates the effect of service quality (cognitive component) on behavioural intentions (conative component).

Moreover, Chi & Qu (2008) arrived at a similar conclusion: attribute satisfaction (operationalised in a similar way as perceived quality) is an antecedent of overall satisfaction, and attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction are both determinants of loyalty. In other words, the relationship between perceived quality and loyalty is partly mediated by overall satisfaction. Brady, Knight, Cronin, Hult & Keillor (2005) study,

conducted in a multi-industry and multi-country setting, reinforces this result. They found that service quality, satisfaction and service value all directly affect behavioural intentions when assessed collectively.

Dimitriades (2006) pointed out that research into satisfaction-loyalty relationship has not been exploited and greater conceptual and empirical efforts are needed. Moreover, Chi and Qu (2008) stated that more research is required to examine variables other than satisfaction in order to improve understanding of loyalty, some of them being the motivations that instigate this process.

### **2.3.3.2 Push and Pull Motivations**

Understanding tourist motivations is also crucial to loyalty in the tourism context. According to Lee & Hsu (2013), tourist motivations rarely result from a single motive. Instead, tourist motivation is generally complex and multifaceted (Crompton, 1979; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). According to George (2004) and March & Woodside (2005) travel motivations can be considered as one of the most important psychological influences of tourist behaviour. Motivations are the inner state of a person, or certain needs and wants of a person, which forces them to act or behave in a specific way and thus sustaining human behaviour and energy levels of the human body (George, 2004; Decrop, 2006).

The authors Crompton (1979) and Yoon & Uysal (2005) proposed a structural model testing the effects of tourist motivation ('pull' and 'push') and satisfaction on destination loyalty (operationalized as revisit and recommendation intentions). Their empirical findings revealed that motivation influences tourist satisfaction, which in turn affects destination loyalty. Thus satisfaction directly affects destination loyalty in a positive direction; and meanwhile it also mediates between motivation and destination loyalty. However, McKercher *et al.* (2012) argue that tourists have a greater ability to exert their free will on the entire travel process, making the decision process a complex task, even when they decide to repeat the same destination. According to this model, push forces cause tourists to leave home to seek some unspecified vacation destination, whereas pull forces compel tourists to visit specific destinations that possess attractive attributes (Kozak, 2002).

There is a general consensus in the literature about the distinction between the tourists' 'push' and 'pull' motivations: 'push' factors influence the decision to travel and are related to the intangible and intrinsic personal preferences of tourists: relaxation, evasion, escape from routine, among others, as defined by Crompton (1979). Whereas, 'pull' factors refer to the attributes tourists are looking for at the destination, as such: culture, heritage, museums, climate, and landscape, among others. These factors influence the choice of a specific destination and are related to the tangible attributes of each place (Kozak, 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). An examination of how motivation and satisfaction affect loyalty was performed by Yoon & Uysal (2005) and Correia *et al.* (2007).

The push and pull forces study, developed by Crompton (1979) was explored using unstructured in-depth interviews or scale statements. The study classified a total of nine dimensions influencing the selection of types of pleasure vacations and destinations. Numerous studies of tourism have used the push–pull concept to discuss tourist motivations and to assess both motivations and perceptions (Goossens, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Jang & Wu, 2006; Correia *et al.*, 2007; Pan & Ryan, 2007).

Primarily, the tourism studies to date have addressed and examined the constructs of motivation and satisfaction independently. Later motivations have been included in tourists' decision processes to understand how motivations may explain different levels of satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Correia, Pimpão & Tão, 2012; Correia *et al.*, 2013). Although motivation explained satisfaction and even the likelihood of being loyal, it is possible that some tourists, even when satisfied with the touristic experience, may decide not to return as there are too many destinations in the world to visit (McKercher *et al.*, 2012). This evidence put the discussion at the level of variety-seeking behaviour developed at the next section.

### 2.3.3.3 Variety Seeking

Variety seeking is the tendency of individuals to seek diversity in their choice of services or goods (Kahn, 1995). The varied behaviour of individuals, i.e. switching among goods and service alternatives, has attracted the attention of marketing and consumer behaviour researchers for the last two decades (Kahn, 1995), and with this concern it has been considered a key factor of consumer choice in the consumer behaviour literature (Bigné, Sanchez & Andreu, 2009; Galak, Redden & Kruger, 2009; Inman, 2001). Some early works (Bass, Pessemier & Lehman, 1972) explored the observed weaknesses in the relationship between the self-reported attitudes or preferences of consumers and their actual choices. Based on this analysis, variety-seeking was incorporated through a marketing perspective of the consumer choice process as a relevant, although partial, explanation of varied behaviour. Since then, most of the research has focused on conceptualization (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982), and measurement models of variety seeking and its motivations (McAlister, 1982; Givon, 1984; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1992).

The concept of a loyal customer seems to be at odds with the belief that variety seeking is an underlying dimension of travel (Pearce & Lee, 2005; Castro *et al.*, 2007). Tourists' search for variety is a voluntary activity which is directed at breaking with routine in decision making (Godbey & Graefe, 1991) and can contribute to the repetition of the same type of holidays and/or the same destination (Opperman, 1997, Niininen *et al.*, 2004).

Focusing on tourist destinations, Niininen *et al.* (2004) analyse the role played by variety seeking propensity in tourist destination choice, in order to better understand tourist loyalty in this field, where variety seeking is usually important for consumers. The findings moderately support the authors' proposal: tourists with a high variety-seeking propensity will show a varied pattern of destination choice. However, choice, limited travel barriers, and low opportunity costs may also push variety seeking. Choice overload occurs when the number of choice options is greater than the person's ability to make effective and efficient decisions (Haynes, 2009). When encountered, decision efficacy falls (Jacoby, Speller & Kohn, 1974), and people find it more difficult and frustrating to make choices than those with fewer options (Haynes, 2009). Outcomes include the tendency to choose simple alternatives that require less personal investment or to continue with habitual or routine actions (Bettman, Luce & Payne, 1998; Griffin, Liu & Khan, 2005). Howard & Sheth (1968)



also suggested that boredom with a choice is related to purchase frequency. This implies that the more frequently a product/service or related experience is purchased, the more bored the customer becomes with that choice, which stimulates variety seeking behaviour.

The literature of variety-seeking (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Kahn *et al.*, 1986; Barroso *et al.*, 2007; Tang & Chin, 2007; Sánchez-García *et al.*, 2012) proposes that consumers choose alternatives in an alternation way, providing the most enjoyment on a specific consumption occasion even though the alternatives are familiar. The need to seek variety can also lead individuals to systematically rotate among their favourite alternatives (Ratner, Kahn & Kahneman, 1999).

McAlister & Pessemier (1982) classified these variety seeking behaviours as either derived or direct. The distinction between derived varied behaviour and direct variety seeking depends on whether the switching behaviour is extrinsically or intrinsically motivated (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Kahn, 1995). Derived varied behaviour refers to variety seeking that is triggered by changes in the external environment rather than internal motivation. It is suggested that there are also motives like the desire for group affiliation or individual identity that influence variety-seeking behaviour, because social pressures for conformity create the need to express individuality in subtle ways (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982).

Many works have adopted a descriptive approach, focusing mainly on the measurement of variety-seeking behaviour and on the motivations that lead consumers to seek variety in their purchases (Kahn, 1995).

Lee & Crompton (1992) showed that the novelty construct comprises the following four dimensions: thrill, adventure, surprise, and boredom alleviation, and relies on push motivations. In the context of marketing, novelty seeking relates to variety seeking, which is the tendency for consumers to switch away from a choice made on the most recent occasion (Ratner *et al.*, 1999).

However, if tourists feel a sense of novelty when visiting a destination, they will be satisfied and the destination may be perceived as an attractive place, with some novel experiences to allow successive revisits. This may lead to destination loyalty.

The inherently satisfying aspects of changing behaviour are also considered to be caused by forces both internal, intrapersonal, and external to the individual. Internal forces have to do with the desire for the unfamiliar, for alternation among the familiar and for information. External forces have to do with needs for group affiliation and personal identity.

The search for variety in destinations and services is typical of the tourism consumer, influencing behaviour patterns and therefore behavioural loyalty (Niininen *et al.*, 2004), and is therefore being increasingly studied in tourism research because of its influence on loyalty (Riley, Niininen, Szivas & Willis, 2001). So, the search for variety is considered as a variable which can modify the intensity of the relationship between satisfaction and the two dimensions of loyalty. A number of studies have been undertaken in search for factors which influence the probability of the consumer to exhibit variety-seeking behaviour. Although variety-seeking research has a long tradition in marketing, there are still several topics that deserve investigation (Kahn, 1995; Berné, Múgica & Yague, 2001). Most researchers have focused on goods, so studies in the service industry are still scarce and quite recent (Niininen *et al.*, 2004; Barroso *et al.* 2007). Therefore, the relationship between variety seeking and loyalty in services is an under-researched topic in the marketing literature (Berné *et al.*, 2001).

In this direction, a new impulse has been given to the need to understand and model variety seeking and its impact on customer loyalty (Berné *et al.*, 2001). First, differences in loyalty for different products or consumer services, as found in different studies, may be due to the unequal presence of intrinsic variety seekers (Van Trijp, Hoyer & Inman, 1996). Second, marketing efforts such as customer retention programmes might be very inefficient if no distinction is made between variety-seekers and non-variety-seekers (O'Brien & Jones, 1996). Third, the intensity of variety seeking in a specific market could be a basic feature of the market as it may determine the potential market shares of brands and the marketing plans of manufacturers and distributors (Feinberg, Kahn & McAlister, 1992).

Aside from the immaterial side of the tourist's decision, this decision is also ingrained on rationality that influences the final decision - the opportunity cost or the investment side is of utmost importance to decide to revisit or to choose a new destination (Valle, Correia & Rebelo, 2008).

### 2.3.3.4 Investment Size

In the marketing literature, it seems to be consistent that customers' investment in one brand is mainly reflected by switching and sunk costs, the former referring to "the technical, financial or psychological factors which make it difficult or expensive for a customer to change brand" (Beerli *et al.*, 2004: 258), and the latter being investments that "have been irrevocably committed and cannot be recovered" (Wang & Yang, 2001: 180). According to Beerli *et al.* (2004) and Dick & Basu (1994), when customers have made an initial investment in certain services or goods, or when the costs of switching brands are expected to be high, it is reasoned that the customer tends to remain loyal. Lastly investment size, i.e., any tangible or intangible resources attached to a relationship that may be lost or diminished once the relationship is dissolved, also contributes to the stability of a partnership. Investments may include intrinsic/direct investments, such as time or self-disclosure, and extrinsic/indirect investments, such as mutual friends and social status that the relationship brings. In certain circumstances, "social norms and moral prescriptions may serve as compelling sources of investment" (Rusbult, 1991: 159).

Comparable discussion is also echoed in the field of leisure/tourism, where the idea of investments has traditionally been associated with Becker's (1960) notion of "side bets" (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle & Mowen, 2005). Side bets or investment in recreation behaviours may be indicated by equipment owned, organizational membership, emotional attachment, experience, money spent, and efforts (Buchanan, 1985; Park, 1996). Backman & Crompton (1991b) reported that side bets or investments were significantly associated with the composite measure of loyalty (i.e., as attitudinal and behavioural loyalty combined). People normally become more committed to a relationship if they invest numerous resources in it. Investments can be financial, temporal or emotional. Investments in other words can have a "sunk cost" effect, where a person stays in a relationship simply because he/she has already invested significantly in it (Li, Browne & Wetherbe, 2006). This substantial investment in a relationship helps lock the individual into the current relationship. According to Yang & Peterson (2004) the results can be explained by both cost-benefit theory, which is the examination of a decision in terms of its consequences or costs and benefits (Drèze & Nicholas, 1987) and prospect theory, which is a psychological perspective that describes how people make decisions under uncertainty (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Customers tend to employ

the net utility that is switching benefits minus switching costs, to determine whether they will maintain their relationship with the current service provider. When perceived value or their satisfaction is above average, customers' chance of getting a better service from another provider is not likely to be high (Yang & Peterson, 2004).

Therefore, the increasing switching costs will reduce their net utility from the switching action, which in turn prevents them from switching. On the contrary, when perceived value or satisfaction is below average, customers tend to consider that their losses are larger (Yang & Peterson, 2004).

It also makes conceptual sense that the more satisfied a customer is, and the more investments one makes in a brand, the more reluctant the customer will be to seek alternative product offerings, or view alternative options as favourable, as this might result in cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). Researchers have found that high investment size accompanies a decrease in the appeal of alternative offerings to customers (Klemperer, 1995; Beerli *et al.*, 2004).

It has been suggested that it is the lack of alternative options and accumulation of investments in a particular programme/activity/brand that make recreationists or tourists reluctant to switch to other alternatives (Park, 1996). However, the Investment Model asserts that dependence is also influenced by a third factor-investment size. Investment size refers to the magnitude and importance of the resources that are attached to a relationship-resources that would decline in value or be lost if the relationship were to end (Becker, 1960; Rubin & Brockner, 1975; Teger, 1980).

The length of stay and its effective analysis could be an indicator of the profile of tourists visiting one destination and their propensity to spend while on vacation (Alegre & Pou, 2006; Gokovali, Bahar & Kozak, 2007; Peypoch, Randriamboarison, Rasoamananjara & Solonandrasana, 2011). Recent research findings show that overseas travellers visiting the United States and wishing, for example, to visit cultural and natural attractions (e.g., museums and national parks) are likely to spend more time and money than those engaged in other forms of tourism (Judith, 1999). Considering the length of stay as a substantial part of quantitative measures in estimating tourism performance could provide destinations with some advantages, such as giving visitors an opportunity to have more experiences at the destination and positively influence the amount of money they spend

on vacation (Kozak, 2004). The amount of money spent increases as the opportunities to have more experiences increase (Kozak, 2001; Gokovali *et al.*, 2007), as the longer the tourists choose to stay, the more likely they are to become aware of facilities and services at the location where they are staying and also at neighbourhood locations. In fact, and as Davies & Mangan (1992) argue, an increased length of stay may allow tourists to undertake a larger number of activities, which may affect their overall spending, sense of affiliation and satisfaction. The relationship between tourists' reference price and their perception of transaction value has been identified as one of the most important measures for the evaluation of overall value, for gaining a competitive edge and as indicator of repurchase intentions (Petrick & Backman, 2002a; Al-Sabbahy, Ekinci & Riley, 2004; Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez & Moliner, 2006).

### **2.3.3.5 Commitment**

In the field of loyalty studies there are other significant factors which merit attention. In this concern, some authors indicate that a high degree of satisfaction does not always lead to loyalty (Mittal & Lassar, 1998), so recent research has investigated the way commitment or consumer involvement with the supplier company depends on perceived provider effort and can influence the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty. Commitment has been defined as 'an implicit or explicit pledge of relational continuity between exchange partners' (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987: 19). Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpandé (1992: 316) defined it as 'an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship'.

Commitment has been associated with several disciplines and specific concepts, such as place attachment (Lee, 2003; Kyle & Mowen, 2005); recreation specialization (Bryan, 1977; Buchanan, 1985; Scott & Shafer, 2001) and involvement (Crosby & Taylor, 1983; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Kim, Scott & Crompton, 1997). However, according to Chen (2001) none of these concepts are as conceptually close to commitment as loyalty is. Several studies have analysed the role of commitment in the loyalty process. The relationship marketing perspective puts forward that customer commitment to the service provider substantially drives customer loyalty in service industries. Also in services, there is empirical evidence for the impact of loyalty on purchase intentions, attitudes and

recommendations (Johnson, Gustafsson, Andreassen Lervik & Cha, 2001; Fullerton, 2005; Wang, Liang & Wu, 2006).

In the marketing and tourism literature, there is a certain form of attitudinal bias underlying both psychological commitment and loyalty (Pritchard *et al.*, 1999), which has caused some conceptual confusion between the two terms. According to Chen (2001), Lee (2003) and Pritchard *et al.* (1999), there are three views on the relationship between psychological commitment and loyalty. The first relationship states that commitment and loyalty are synonymous (Jacoby & Kyler, 1973; Assael, 1987), and may be used interchangeably. The second view posits that commitment is synonymous with attitudinal loyalty (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Kyle & Mowen, 2005), or that psychological commitment is affective plus conative loyalty (Chen, 2001). And finally, the third relation states that commitment is an antecedent of loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994; Olivia, Oliver & MacMillan (1994), with psychological commitment leading to loyalty (Pritchard *et al.*, 1999; Lee, 2003), or behavioural loyalty (Beatty *et al.*, 1988; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Gustafsson *et al.*, 2005).

In the leisure and tourism literature, there is common agreement that commitment is a multidimensional construct consisting of "personal and behavioural mechanisms that bind individuals to a consistent pattern of leisure behaviour" (Kim *et al.*, 1997: 323). These mechanisms instil a tendency in recreationists to resist changes in preference in response to conflicting information or experience (Crosby & Taylor, 1983).

It is also believed to imply a willingness to make short-term sacrifices to realize long-term benefits (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987; Anderson & Weitz, 1992). According to the authors, it implies the adoption of a long-term orientation toward the relationship – a willingness to make short-term sacrifices to realize long-term benefits from the relationship. So, long-term orientation is based on an assumption that the relationship is stable and will last long enough for the parties to realize long-term benefits. That is to say, that according to the same authors, the key distinction of the commitment phase is that the parties purposely engage resources to maintain a relationship fuelled by the on-going benefit incurred by each party.

In the same vein, Anderson & Weitz (1992) referred that commitment signifies a long-term relational perspective and encourages exchange parties to resist the short-term

benefits offered by other firms in favour of the benefits associated with remaining in a relationship.

In accordance with the results from the study developed by Yen, Liu & Tuan (2009), commitment is driven by satisfaction, indicating that visitors will be committed to a relationship with a service provider when they are satisfied with this service provider. Commitment is also driven by trust, indicating that visitors will be committed to a relationship with a service provider when they have trust in this service provider. Finally, with regard to satisfaction, trust and commitment, behavioural loyalty is only driven by commitment, indicating that visitors will revisit much often and spend with a higher budget with a service provider when they commit to a relationship with this service provider. Further, Yen *et al.* (2009) confirm that satisfaction only leads to behavioural loyalty by commitment in recreation park services. Dimitriades (2006) investigates and also confirms the mediator effect of commitment between satisfaction and behavioural and attitudinal loyalty in entertainment and transportation services.

Although all these variables may influence tourists' decisions, the socio-demographic profile is one of the most influential variables on tourists' decisions.

### **2.3.3.6 Social Demographic Characteristics**

The relevance of personal characteristics (age, gender, level of education, income, among others) has been found in the context of consumer loyalty in the tourism context.

Scholars from a variety of social science disciplines focus on how individuals go about making choice decisions (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). It is well established that a market is composed of subgroups of people and that each group has distinct needs and wants (Kotler & McDougall, 1983). The distinct needs and wants of travellers are likely to result in a large diversity of vacation behaviour. The segmentation of visitors into homogeneous markets allows for the comparison of consumer variables by groups and can assist management in formulating consumer-oriented marketing strategies (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1996). One of the most common segmentation criteria is demographics.

It is evident from the literature that some studies have been conducted to find out the roles of moderating variables in the formation of customer loyalty (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Homburg, Giering & Menon, 2003). In a review of the literature, it is found that

moderator variables can be roughly divided into two groups: personal characteristics and situational characteristics. The relevance of personal characteristics (age, gender, level of education, income) has been found in the context of consumer loyalty in the tourism field. Therefore, it is also expected that personal characteristics are general moderators on each relationship of the destination loyalty model. Different and recent studies have focused on the effect of social-demographic characteristics in the destination loyalty process. For instance, Franch, Martini, Mich, Inverardi & Bufa (2006) identified the tourist profile of the Dolomite area of Italy using two dimensions: socio-demographic characteristics and the organization of the holiday. Kozak *et al.* (2002) also characterized tourist profile as an amalgam of socio-demographic variables, in addition to travel behaviour variables. Mykletun, Crofts & Mykletun (2001) also studied the relationship between a number of demographic variables including age, household income, and education versus visitors' perception of a destination and revisit probability.

Chi (2011) compared the destination loyalty model across various mutually exclusive tourist segments to see if different segments formed loyalty differently. So, this author studied the effects of the demographic variables, like gender, age, education and income level, on the destination loyalty model. The results show that travellers' gender and education segments had different levels of image perceptions: female travellers held more positive image perceptions than did male travellers, and travellers with a lower level of education perceived the destination more favourably than those with a higher level of education, but they also exhibited comparable levels of satisfaction and loyalty across groups. These findings reflected the mixed results generated from prior research regarding the effects of demographic variables on consumer behaviour.

Research based on age has received increasing attention in the travel literature, like gender, which has also inspired growing interest in the travel literature, such as for instance, women have become an increasingly important market segment in the tourism and hospitality industry. Concerning age, most of the research has concentrated on the subsegmentation, motivation, constraints, and behaviour of the senior market (Lieux, Weaver & McCleary, 1994; Zimmer, Brayley & Searle, 1995; Kim, Wei & Ruys, 2003).

Moisey & Bichis (1999) study the effects of age on consumer decision, as have other authors and they reported that seniors and non-seniors were different in their travel



motivations, visitation patterns, and recreation activities. However, others argued that traveller age was likely to significantly influence his or her travel behaviour patterns, satisfaction and loyalty. For instance, Hsu (2000) and Pritchard & Howard (1997) stated that older customers (age > 50 years) tended to show higher satisfaction and loyalty than the younger group (age < 50 years). Other studies revealed that age may have an influence on consumer loyalty and that older customers tended to be more satisfied and loyal than younger ones (Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997; Hsu, 2000).

Gender based travel research has focused on addressing the needs and preferences of female travellers (Howell, Moreo & DeMicco, 1993; McGehee, Loker-Murphy & Uysal, 1996). Meng & Uysal (2008) found that when tourists consider destinations, significant gender differences exist regarding the perceived importance of destination attributes and travel values.

Prior research also studied the effects of different demographic variables on satisfaction and loyalty (e.g., Snyder, 1991). Exter (1986) found that people's loyalty towards a brand did not vary based on their demographic background. Moreover, Uncles, Dowling & Hammond (2003) argued that conceptualization of loyalty should take into account variables such as the individual's current circumstances, their characteristics and the purchase situation faced.

Previous studies suggest that there is a relationship between loyalty and income level (Homburg & Giering, 2001), however some studies did not find any link between loyalty and income (East, Harris, Wilson & Lomax, 1995).

Moreover, those variables are very useful for featuring the characteristics of tourists visiting a destination, and combining them into a wider construct such as tourist profile variable will eventually simplify their inclusion into complex models such as destination choice, market segmentation, satisfaction and loyalty.

Most of the research has been done in one single time frame although tourist behaviour may vary across the years as they acquire more information/experience.

## 2.4 Destination Loyalty Over-Time

In travel and tourism studies, it has been argued that previous experiences with a destination can have a significant impact on individuals decision-making and destination selection process (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Bosnjak, Sirgy, Hellriegel & Maurer, 2011; Peña, Jamilena & Rodriguez, 2013). Studies suggest that tourists' previous experiences are likely to have significant impact on their present and future behaviour (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Chi, 2012).

Time is a critical ingredient of strong, committed relationships (Gundlach & Murphy, 1993; Jang & Feng, 2007), so it is also important to observe tourists' revisits intentions from a time perspective because intention often changes over time.

Contrast bias describes the inclination to overrate or underrate a subject compared with another (Herr, Sherman & Fazio, 1983). The contrast bias is exhibited when the sequence of visiting tourist destinations is changed in different contexts. In other words, previous travel experiences of tourists affect their assessment of the satisfaction of their next travel experiences. Implicit in this habit discussion is the important role of time. In general, scholars agree that the memory advantages of habits increase or decay over time depending on the frequency with which the actor performs the behaviour. However, actual empirical research attempting to pinpoint the necessary pattern for a behaviour to become habitual is scant, and "information that could be found regarding the development of the strength of habits is very imprecise" (Tobias, 2009: 416).

As behaviour repeats over time, people decreasingly employ deliberative processing to form intentions and increasingly rely on automatic decision-making (Ajzen, 2002; Wood & Neal, 2007). Habits benefit actors by allowing them to perform well learned behaviours efficiently with minimal awareness, facilitating the simultaneous execution of additional behaviours. Because habit selection is essentially effortless, people find it difficult to suppress habitual behaviours or engage in alternative behaviours (break a habit) because doing so requires costly deliberative processing and the cognitive resources necessary to form or recall less familiar competing intentions (Tobias, 2009).

Previous research has rarely addressed temporal issues related to destination revisits (Oppermann, 1999). Oppermann (1999: 58) suggested that time is significant in tourist retention and loyalty because “time firstly plays a role in identifying appropriate time intervals during which a purchase may or may not take place”.

Considering the research on temporal destination revisit intention, Gyte & Phelps (1989) found that most visitors have the intention to revisit the destination in the future. Baloglu & Erickson (1998), in their study based on international repeat tourists in Mediterranean tourism destinations, also reported a similar pattern, which means that most international travellers to one destination are more likely to switch to another destination for their next trip, but many of them hope to revisit the same destination in the future.

Studies examining revisit intentions and its predictors need to consider the temporal dimensions of destination revisit (Jang & Feng, 2007; Bigné, Sanchez & Andreu, 2009; Assaker, Vinzi & O’Connor, 2011; García, Gómez & Molina, 2012). When the time frame for revisit intentions is included, destination image, overall satisfaction, and novelty seeking have markedly different effects on revisit intentions in the short or long term.

Nevertheless, according to Woodside & MacDonald (1994) and Hughes (1995), the results of this study relied on superficial patterns that appeared from the data analysis and on two assumptions: (1) revisit intention lapses over time; and (2) the strength of revisit tends to be constant once it is created. Considering the first assumption it is implied by recency-frequency-monetary value (RFM), which serves as one of the essential operational principles for many loyalty programs (Hughes, 1995). The RFM is a behavioural-based model, and suggests that individuals who buy a product more recently, more frequently and spend more money tourist are more likely to repurchase in response to an initiative to repurchase (Hughes, 1995). In Correia *et al.* (2015) it is postulate that with past visits happening more recently, as more frequent tourists likely to spend more on the same destination than the first-time visitors. The results revealed that the effect is more evident in recency than in monetary value. That is to say that the number of years visiting Portugal increases the expected number of visits. However, the same study also found that the relationship with the destination was ceasing, which is not surprising considering the duration of the relationship those tourists maintained with Portugal; more than 30 years of repeat visits contradicts all the patterns of destination life cycles (Butler,

2009a). Furthermore, at the regional level tourists visiting Algarve or Lisbon since 2000, presenting a life cycle of 12 years or less, were about to cease this relationship.

The notion of recency crosses the borders of consumption life cycle theory (Deaton, 2005), in which a decreasing likelihood of repurchase is expected over a time period.

The next assumption is implied by some extant tourist typologies. For instance, Schmidhauser (1976) argued that there are at least two different types of tourists: continuous repeaters who choose the same destination over and over again and continuous switchers who do not come back even though they are satisfied with the destination in their current visit.

On the other hand, Gitelson & Crompton (1984) categorized repeat visitors into three subgroups: infrequent, frequent, and very frequent, however they did not specify the frequency of visits for each group. Finally, Woodside & MacDonald (1994) identified two distinct tourists segments: visitors return to a destination due to familiarity and visitors not returning due to familiarity.

Opperman (1999) suggested a conceptual typology based on multiple visits: somewhat loyal (infrequent), loyal (regular), and very loyal (annual and biannual). Yim & Kannan (1999) extended the definition of loyalty including exclusive and reinforcing loyalties. These authors postulate that exclusive loyalties are those consumers who have been won over by a particular alternative over time. Reinforcing loyalties are potential switchers who tend to purchase more than one alternative and have an increase tendency to repurchase the alternatives after their initial purchase. The authors also emphasized that the reinforcing loyalty was associated with variety seeking which is similarly based on the optimum-level of stimulation (Zucherman, 1971).

Later, Jang & Feng (2007) argued a trichotomous tourist destination revisit intention tourist segmentation with a 5-year time frame: continuous repeater (travellers with consistently high revisit intentions over time), deferred repeater (travellers with low revisit intentions in the short term but high revisit intentions in the long term), and continuous switcher (travellers with consistently low revisit intentions over time). Among the three segments, deferred repeaters tend to reinforce visit intentions. Thus, they are also potential switchers who tend to visit more than one destination, showing divided loyalties and displaying an increased tendency to revisit the destination after their initial visit.

The literature about both groups shows that first time visitors are less satisfied than repeat visitors (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Kozak, 2000); tend to try another place on their next holiday because they are seeking variety and new cultural experiences (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984); show a different expenditure pattern, being more active and therefore, spending more than their repeat counterparts (Oppermann, 1997); tend to be younger (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984); visit many more locations and attractions (Opperman, 1996) are willing to pay to go to the destination for the first time (Moutinho & Trimble, 1991).

Previous research suggests that repeaters are less likely to be satisfied (McKercher & Wong, 2004), but have a stronger intention to revisit in the future than first-time visitors (Juaneda, 1996; Petrick & Backman, 2002b). In this particular situation, time plays an important role since the effect of customer satisfaction seems to decay over time. DubT & Morgan (1998) argued that satisfaction may be stable over time; despite the fact that emotional and cognitive aspects could change from one encounter to the next. The role of cognitive evaluation processes degrades with continued repurchase decisions (Gefen, 2003), and satisfaction may not be a core element of loyalty once loyalty has been established (Oliver, 1999). Therefore, the association between perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty may disintegrate over time. Because consumers accumulate domain expertise through encounter-specific consumption experiences as the relationship with the service provider unfolds (Park, Mothersbaugh & Feick, 1994), the impact of cognition and loyalty are likely to decrease over time.

Stewart & Vogts (1999) found that tourists tend to over plan their trips, and previous visitation history influence tourists planning efficiency, have also been challenged. March & Woodside (2005) argued that tourists realized consumption behaviours could be greater in number than planned. Further, their comparison between first-time, moderately-experienced, and heavily-experienced tourists suggested that previous destination experience did not significantly influence the incongruence between planned and realized spending or length-of-stay.

In regard to satisfaction, the results are rather inconsistent. While some studies show that first-timers are more easily satisfied with a destination than repeaters (Anwar & Sohail, 2004), others report that repeaters indicate a higher level of satisfaction than first-time

visitors (Mohr, Backman, Gahan & Backman, 1993). Thus, the question regarding who is more receptive to satisfaction is inconclusive at this stage.

A majority of studies in the field indicate that repeat visitors are more likely to revisit the destination than first-time visitors (Gyte & Phelps, 1989; Juaneda, 1996; Petrick & Backman, 2002b). However, repeaters might have a lower level of satisfaction because of higher expectations in some cases (Anwar & Sohail, 2004; McKercher & Wong, 2004). Kozak (2001) built a theoretical framework of future behavioural intentions based on multiple variables such as the number of previous visits, tourist overall satisfaction, and tourists' satisfaction with destination-based attributes. From the empirical data he found that future intentions were influenced more by satisfaction than by past experience.

Complicating the time determination of satisfaction, Cote, Foxman & Cutler (1989) argue that none of the above definitions is appropriate since satisfaction can vary dramatically over time. They suggest that satisfaction is only determined at the time the evaluation occurs. In some cases, this satisfaction assessment may be a naturally occurring, internal response such as after consumption, or prior to repurchase. In other cases, the assessment of satisfaction may be externally driven, such as when a company conducts a satisfaction survey. In either case, this could be post choice, purchase, or consumption in time 1, time 2, (although satisfaction at previous time periods may be recalled and even influence current satisfaction). As such, satisfaction is a changing phenomenon that reflects the current response. In sum, the presence of a satisfaction determination time is evident, yet current definitions differ in their conceptualization of when it might occur.

It has even been argued that none of the above time frames is appropriate since satisfaction can vary dramatically over time and satisfaction is only determined at the time the evaluation occurs. In addition, the consumers discussed the duration of satisfaction, which refers to how long a particular satisfaction response lasts. Thus, tourist satisfaction with their expected or actual experience at each tourism destination can be influenced largely by different sequences of visiting. Researchers also found that first-timers and repeat visitors have significantly different motives for traveling. In Lau & McKercher's study (2004), first-time visitors were motivated to explore, while repeat visitors came to consume; first-timers participated in geographically dispersed activities, while repeat visitors tended to shop, dine, and spend time with family and friends.

Gitelson & Crompton (1984) also found that first timers sought new cultural experiences while repeat visitors were more likely to relax. Consistently, relaxation and familiarity were identified as the most distinctive motivations for repeat tourists, while novelty and new cultural experiences the most crucial motivations for first-timers (Hughes & Morrison-Saunders, 2002). Fluker & Turner (2000) also found significant differences in needs and motivations, but fewer differences in expectations between first-time and repeat whitewater rafters. They reported that, first-time rafters focused more on the action of whitewater rafting per se by seeking a new experience and exploring adventure alternatives, and were more willing to take risks to accomplish these goals. Repeaters, on the other hand, were more likely to seek relaxation, the ancillary benefits of whitewater rafting, and had more realistic expectations.

In terms of intended activities, most findings seem to suggest that repeat visitors prefer to participate in more social activities such as shopping, dining, and visiting friends and relatives, while first-time visitors seem to enjoy visiting major iconic attractions that may help satisfy novelty seeking motivations (Anwar & Sohail, 2004; Fallon & Schofield, 2003; Lau & McKercher, 2004).

Wang (2004) also showed that repeat visitors were more likely to stay longer, take part in fewer activities and be involved in local life-related activities than first-time visitors. Consistent with previous studies, Lau & McKercher (2004); Li *et al.* (2006); Oppermann (1997) and Wang (2004), repeaters spend their time more intensively, engage in activities related to local culture and life, prefer participating in more social activities such as shopping, dining or visiting friends and relatives, and are destination-aware visitors who are knowledgeable regarding the range of activities available. The same author also found that repeat visitors spend more than first-time visitors. Moreover, concerning changing patterns in tourism demand, the decreasing effect of monetary value on average spending in Portugal is also noteworthy, suggesting that the longer people stay the lower their daily expenditure is (Correia *et al.*, 2015).

A possible explanation for this finding is that repeat visitors perceive the overall value for money to be more satisfactory than first-time visitors (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000), and satisfaction leads to repeat action (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Kozak, 2001). Oppermann (1997), Alegre & Juaneda (2006), Li *et al.* (2006) and Petrick (2004) all found in their respective research that first-time visitors spend significantly more than

repeaters. In general, the authors concluded that repeat visitors are more price-sensitive and more apt to search for lower prices than first-time visitors.

An increase in the number of trips to a specific destination can cause an individual to be relatively more involved with that destination compared to a traveller with fewer or no previous trips. According to Kahn (1995), if there are more brand varieties in the category, the phenomenon will increase consumers' need for stimulation in that product category, even when they are provided with the option of repeating consumption. Furthermore, a high-variety product category offers consumers the opportunity to enjoy a diversity of options over time and is therefore more likely to induce consumer variety-seeking behaviour (Kahn, 1995). As highlighted by the study of Kahn & Lehmann (1991), a varied portfolio of options offers greater variety as represented by the greater number of items in the assortment. As a result, the amount of diversity available in a product-category portfolio influences the need for diversity in choices.

As shown previously and according to Opperman (2000: 28) “no study has looked at differences in tourist behaviour or other characteristics of the various repeat visitor types.” Further, “one problem inherent in the analysis of purchase sequences is the issue of length of time used for each purchase period (p.30)”. Thus, the desirability of repeat visitors may vary significantly based solely on the intensity of their visit frequency (i.e., one trip every year versus one trip every seven years). Darnell & Johnson (2001: 125) also noted the significance of temporal viewpoint to destination management, indicating, “The time profile of repeat visiting has important implications for visit flows”.



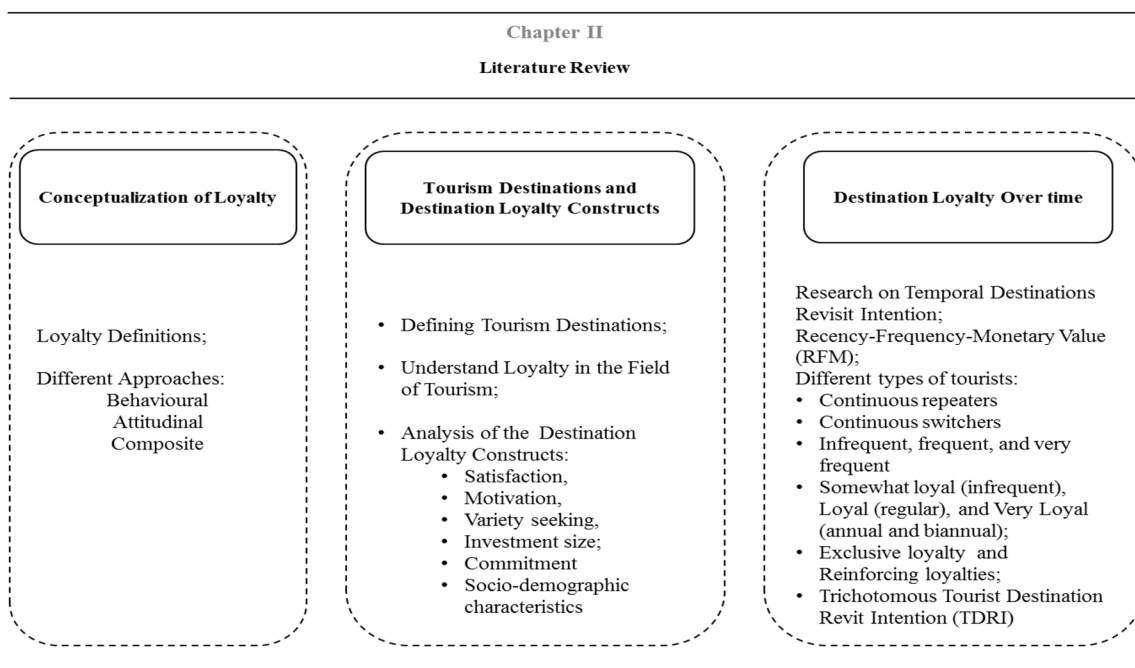
## 2.5 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present an extant loyalty literature review. In the first part of the chapter, the main objective was to understand what loyalty is. Based on this, it seems that until recently, loyalty studies followed attitudinal, behavioural and composite approaches. As a result the literature review in this part suggests that a full understanding of loyalty needs to consider a composite approach, which will be considered in this research to understand the tourist loyalty process.

The second part of this chapter focuses on what determines loyalty. However, before discussing what determines tourism destination loyalty it is important to introduce in first place, what a tourism destination is. Consequently, different empirical research studies which are highly related to tourism destination loyalty were reviewed to gain an understanding of the multidimensionality of tourist loyalty. Specifically the measures and dimensionality of loyalty were re-examined, taking into account different research streams in the marketing and leisure and tourism literature.

Bearing in mind that one of the most critical challenges within loyalty research is capturing the multifaceted interplay among the multiple dimensions of destination loyalty, it is also very important to understand specifically how they change over time. So, in the third part of this chapter the main objective was to investigate what factors may enhance or reduce the development of loyalty process over time.

**Figure 2.1- Structure of Literature Review Chapter.**



Source: Own elaboration

## **Chapter III: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES.**

### **3.1 Introduction**

A conceptual framework is a fundamental part of a quantitative research study as it explains the research questions or hypotheses (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Punch, 2005). The conceptual framework basically represents a movement from confusion to certainty (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and provides clarity, focus and simplicity to the research task (Punch, 2005). Additionally, it clears away all the issues and materials that are not relevant to the research topic and question, helps to make explicit what we already know and think about the research topic (Punch, 2005) and finally it provides structure and coherence to the researcher's dissertation (Miles & Huberman, 1994)

On the basis of the previous literature review, the aim of this section is to propose a conceptual model, seeking to gain an understanding of the structure and determinants of tourist destination loyalty, based on the perspective of the Investment Model (IM). Drawn from empirical studies and research as well as concepts and theory (as discussed in Chapter II), a conceptual structural model is proposed, framed by nine research hypotheses, categorizing two types of precursors to customer-loyalty (customer satisfaction, variety seeking and commitment) and service/product-related factors (investment size and motivations).

### **3.2 Investment Model**

The Investment Model (IM) was initially developed as a means of describing satisfaction and commitment related to romantic involvement (Rusbult, 1980a). It consists of “theories of the process by which individuals become committed to their relationships as well as the circumstances under which feelings of commitment erode and relationships end” (Rusbult, Drigotas & Verette, 1994: 116).

The model is theoretically grounded within interdependence theory (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959; Kelly & Thibaut, 1978), also called comparison-level theory (Ganesh, Arnold & Reynolds, 2000) or theory of interpersonal relations (Anderson & Narus, 1984, 1990) and is considered by many as a branch of social exchange theory (Anderson and Narus, 1984; Young & Perrewé, 2000). According to interdependence theory, the behaviour of one

participant enacts in a dyadic relationship and the resulting outcomes of each behaviour depend on the behaviour of the other participants, which results in a condition of mutual dependence.

Following and extending major principles of interdependence theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978), IM proposes that one's commitment to a dyadic relationship is a function of (a) satisfaction with the relationship, (b) a comparison of the best available alternatives to the relationship, and (c) one's investments in the relationship. To explain the following discussion the authors proposed two participants in discussion, hereafter referred to as John and his partner Mary. So, concerning satisfaction, IM assumes that people are generally motivated to maximize rewards and minimize costs (Rusbult, 1980a).

Following interdependence theory, the model proposes that John's satisfaction with the relationship depends on the rewards John estimates derives from the relationship, the amount of costs he takes, and his general expectations of relationships. John's expectations result from two sources: John's past experiences and John's social comparison with friends and family. John will feel satisfied with the relationship to the degree that the rewards relative to costs obtained in that relationship exceed his expectations. Concerning the quality of the alternatives, John may also contemplate what might be experienced outside the current relationship. That is, what his relationship experience would be if he were not with Mary, but in the best alternative situation (Rusbult *et al.*, 1994), such as in another relationship, or being alone. The quality of alternatives is "individual-level forces" pulling one from sustaining the relationship. John's commitment to Mary is reduced to the degree that the quality of alternatives is high.

Conversely, John may feel more committed to the relationship if the "pulling forces" are weak. Lastly investment size, i.e., any tangible or intangible resources attached to a relationship that may be lost or diminished once the relationship is dissolved, also contributes to the stability of a partnership. A variety of things may be tied to John's current relationship, for which John becomes bound to his relationship with Mary. Investments may include intrinsic/direct investments, such as time or self-disclosure, and extrinsic/indirect investments, such as mutual friends and social status that the

relationship brings. In certain circumstances, “social norms and moral prescriptions may serve as compelling sources of investment” (Rusbult, 1991: 159).

Consequently, IM maintains that John’s commitment to Mary is strengthened by the level of satisfaction that John derives from the relationship, fuelled by his investments to the relationship, and weakened by the quality of alternatives to the relationship. The three forces may sometimes work together. For instance, poor satisfaction, attractive alternative options, and low investment size may work together and push John to leave Mary. Elsewhere, the three forces may strain against each other. For instance, substantial investment and poor alternatives may trap John in a less satisfactory relationship. Research has suggested that “not all of these factors must be present for commitment to be experienced”, and “there can be a lack of commitment when only one component is promoting commitment” (Le & Agnew, 2003: 39).

This example, taken from a social perspective, intends to explain the rationality of individuals. This model introduced the presuppositions of maximum utility that drives all consumption decisions (Varian, 1990). The assessment of maximum utility derives from a cost-benefit analysis of value/cost considering the cost as the best alternative consumers need to give up to have this one. This evidence highlights the economic theory of consumer behaviour (Varian, 1990).

Support for the model has also been obtained in non-relational domains, although the model has been shown to better predict interpersonal relations (Le & Agnew, 2003). But according to Le & Agnew (2003: 54), “the Investment Model is not strictly an interpersonal theory and can be extended to such areas as commitment to jobs, persistence with hobbies or activities, loyalty to institutions, decision-making, and purchase behaviours.”

Due to this fact, and according to Li (2006), the Investment Model may help explain the formation of the attitude dimension of the loyalty construct, following the mainstream conceptualization in the marketing and leisure/ tourism literature (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; Backman & Crompton, 1991a; Park, 1996; Kyle & Mowen, 2005).

### 3.2.1 The Investment Model Explaining the Loyalty in the Tourism

Rusbult (1991: 156) pointed out that commitment is one's "tendency to maintain a relationship and feel attached to it". Commitment is a psychological state — including both cognitive and emotional components — that directly influences decisions to continue or end a relationship." Other Investment Model theorists (Le & Agnew, 2003: 38) have suggested that commitment is "characterized by an intention to remain in a relationship, a psychological attachment to a partner, and a long-term orientation toward the partnership". Thus, the Investment Model's view of commitment is behaviour-oriented.

In fact, commitment derives from previous consumptions, (Kim *et al.*, 1997; Kyle & Mowen, 2005) and satisfaction derives from the perceived quality of the alternative chosen (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Olsen, 2002; Agustin & Singh, 2005). Pritchard & Howard (1997) suggest that perceived travel service performance is an antecedent of tourist loyalty. Furthermore, perceived quality and perceived value, two of satisfaction's related variables, have also been proposed as either directly or indirectly influencing customer loyalty (Chiou, 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2004; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Yu *et al.*, 2005; among others).

Concerning the relationship between quality and loyalty, there are at least three types of relation that have been identified in the literature. Zeithalm *et al.* (1996); Bloemer *et al.*, (1999); Lee & Cunningham (2001) suggest that quality can exert a direct influence on loyalty; while others argue that quality influences loyalty both directly and indirectly (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Yu *et al.*, 2005). Regarding the relationship between perceived value and loyalty, Sirdeshmkh, *et al.* (2002) found that value had a direct relationship with customer loyalty, while convergent evidence suggests that service quality is a critical determinant of perceived value (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Cronin *et al.*, 2000), which, in turn, impacts on satisfaction (Patterson, Johnson & Spreng, 1997; Day & Crask, 2000) in determining behavioural intentions and loyalty (Cronin *et al.*, 2000). So, for Patterson *et al.*, (1997), the positive relationship between value and loyalty is interceded by satisfaction, further indicating that value does not on its own fully explain the loyalty concept.

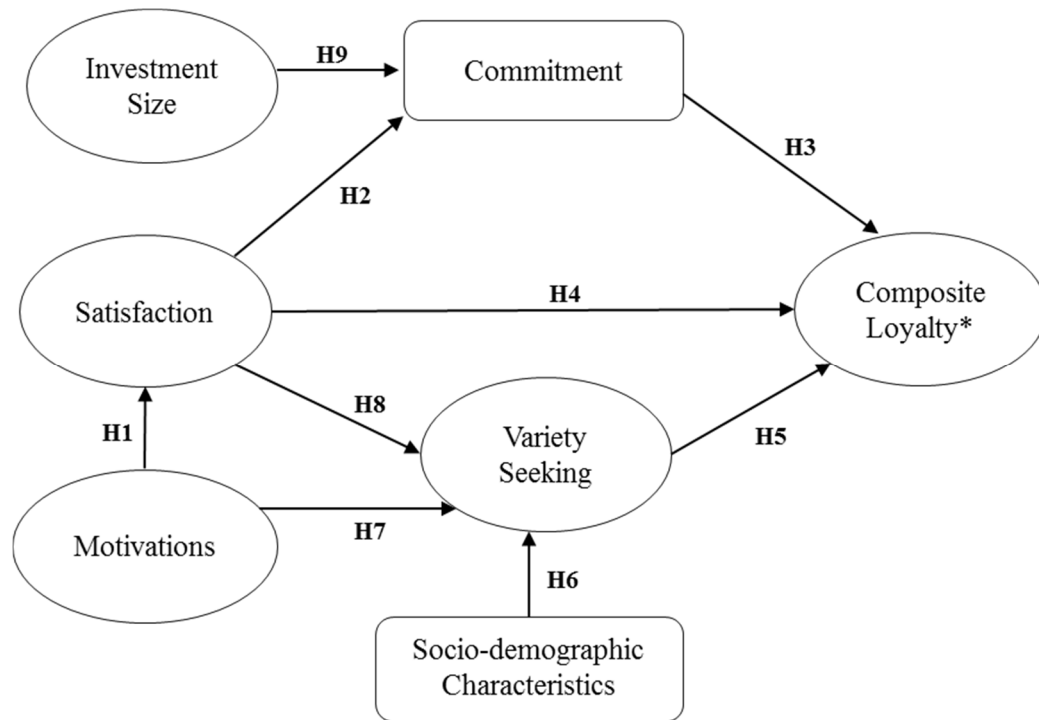
In addition to the above, Petrick (2004), in his study based on cruise passengers, proposed that quality had both an indirect effect (through both perceived value and satisfaction) and a direct effect on cruise passengers' behavioural intentions, with quality, value and satisfaction all having a significant impact on repurchase intentions. More specifically, quality had more of a significant impact on repurchase intentions than perceived value, and perceived value had more impact of repurchase intentions than satisfaction.

This is to say, that in tourism, the service quality-value-satisfaction sequence has received special attention in attempts to explain loyalty (Petrick & Backman, 2002b; Gallarza & Gil, 2006).

### **3.3 Proposed Model**

Based on the above discussion, a conceptual model has been developed (Figure 1). This model seeks to gain an understanding of the structure and determinants of tourist destination loyalty. Specifically, the study will examine the dimensionality issue of the loyalty construct and identify measures of loyalty from a multidimensional perspective.

The proposed structural model describes a logical flow between constructs by indicating the directions of the causes and effects of the interplay of factors relating to tourist loyalty as a process, being empirically analysed in Portugal as a tourism destination. Specifically, the study will examine loyalty as a process where several variables intervene in its formation. It is assumed that motivation is the starting point, influencing tourists' assessment of the place visited (satisfaction). Satisfaction determines the level of commitment that depends on the investment tourists need to make, and both explain loyalty whether it be from an attitudinal or behavioural perspective. Loyalty is also explained by the promise of the tourists to risk new destinations or to engage in the same ones to avoid surprises (variety seeking). The level of variety seeking which tourists are willing to engage in is also explained by motivations and satisfaction, as well as by their socio-demographic profile.

**Figure 3.1- Conceptual Model.**

\*Attitudinal and Behavioural Loyalty

Source: Own elaboration

### 3.3.1 Justification and Hypothesis

The intention is to study loyalty, combining behaviours and attitudes through a multidimensional perspective, where the formative process of loyalty is depicted, through an antecedent - consequent paradigm. The conceptual model proposed assumes that tourists are rational and consequently that loyalty attitudes are a new decision process that follows presuppositions of maximum utility. Yet this model is also grounded on behavioural economics, psychology and sociology. This study also proposes to assess if loyalty is a decision process based on personal values; to assess how likely it is that loyalty relies on destination attributes and how this differs from one region to another, and finally to understand how much time tourists need to be loyal and until when they will be loyal to the destination.

In accordance with the reasoning of the Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b, 1983), it is suggested that satisfaction, variety-seeking and commitment are critical antecedents of consumers' loyalty. Consequently, based on the behavioural and attitudinal

components of loyalty, we define a conceptual model, which tests the main antecedents found in the literature: satisfaction, investment size, motivations, variety seeking, and commitment, to explain loyalty as a behavioural and attitudinal consequent.

Following the previous conceptualization of the interrelationships between composite loyalty and its determinants, this study posits that satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Cronin *et al.*, 2000; Fecikova, 2004), commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Yen *et al.*, 2009) and variety seeking (Riley *et al.*, 2001) affect loyalty directly with variety seeking also being driven by satisfaction, motivations and socio-demographic characteristics. Finally, it also postulates the direct effect of satisfaction and investment size on commitment.

The next subchapters' presents the main relations that support the previous conceptual model proposed, and in the summary chapter it is possible to have an overview of the entire hypothesis to be tested (Figure 3).

### **3.3.1.1 Tourist Motivations and Satisfaction**

A tourist's individual motivation can have a significant impact on their satisfaction with a destination and therefore, indirectly influence their loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Prebensen, Woo, Chen & Uysal, 2013). Internal forces push and external forces pull individuals who travel (Crompton, 1979; Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Kozak, 2001; Correia & Crouch, 2004; Correia *et al.*, 2007). This interplay between push and pull motivations has been also reflected in satisfaction, by means of considering push satisfaction (emotional) and pull satisfaction (cognitive) as in Correia & Pimpão (2008). "Push satisfaction is an individual's internal state of well-being towards his or her holiday, and in harmony to his or her main push motivations. Pull satisfaction confirms tourist expectations in terms of destination attributes" (Correia & Pimpão, 2008)

The evaluation of the physical products of destination (instrumental performance) as well as the psychological interpretation of a destination product (expressive attributes) are necessary for human actions (Swan & Combs, 1976; Uysal & Noe, 2003), which may be represented as travel satisfaction and destination loyalty. Since the expressive is more related to emotion, whereas instrumental performance is more cognitively oriented, expressive experiences truly motivate and contribute to satisfaction. Instrumental performance includes maintenance attributes which, if absent, could create



dissatisfaction. Both concepts can be examined within the context of a tourism system representing two major components of the market place, namely demand (tourist) and supply (tourism attractions). It has been suggested that the instrumental and expressive attributes work in combination to produce overall satisfaction (Uysal & Noe, 2003).

So, it is hypothesized in this study that:

***H1: Tourist motivations positively influence tourist satisfaction.***

### **3.3.1.2 Tourist Satisfaction and Commitment**

According to the results from the study developed by Yen *et al.* (2009) commitment is driven by satisfaction indicating that visitors will be committed to a relationship with a service provider when they are satisfied with it. Commitment is also driven by trust indicating that visitors will be committed to a relationship with a service provider when they have trust in it. Dimitriadis (2006) investigates and also confirms the mediator effect of commitment between satisfaction and behavioural and attitudinal loyalty in entertainment and transportation services.

As far as some authors indicating that a high degree of satisfaction does not always lead to loyalty (Mittal & Lassar, 1998) is concerned, recent research has investigated the way commitment or consumer involvement with the supplier company depends on perceived provider effort and can influence the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty.

Based on Hennig-Thurau & Klee (1997) and Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner & Gremler (2002), satisfaction positively influences commitment. In addition, satisfaction is related to the fulfilment of customers' social needs and the repeated fulfilment of these social needs is likely to lead to bonds of an emotional kind, which also constitutes commitment (Henning-Thurau & Klee, 1997). Additionally, Fullerton (2005) has reported that commitment serves as a mediator of the service quality and loyalty relationship.

Drawing on Hennig-Thurau & Klee (1997), who in their research postulates that tourist satisfaction will positively influence commitment, a high level of satisfaction provides the consumer with repeated positive reinforcement, thus creating commitment-inducing bonds. In line with this conceptualization, the Investment Model specifically suggests

satisfaction as a major determinant of commitment. As such, this research assumes the following hypothesis:

***H2: Tourist satisfaction positively influences tourist commitment.***

### **3.3.1.3 Tourist Commitment and Composite Loyalty**

According to Dwyer *et al.* (1987), Hennig-Thurau *et al.* (2002) there is a strong association between commitment and customer loyalty. Given that commitment plays a critical role in maintaining long-term relationships, service providers must ensure that they do everything within their control to improve commitment levels.

While commitment has been shown to positively predict aspects of customer loyalty, such as referrals, the relationship between commitment and loyalty has not received substantial research attention (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2002). Customers that are committed to a firm will hold the relationship in high regard, believing that the relationship deserves effort and attention. Commitment signifies a long-term relational perspective (Anderson & Weitz, 1992) and encourages exchange parties to resist short-term benefits offered by other firms in favour of the benefits associated with remaining in a relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Indeed commitment has a significant role to play in loyalty: “since commitment reflects the consumers’ self-evaluation of the context and the active decision to engage in a long-term relationship” (Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2006: 1210). So, concerning the relationship between loyalty and the commitment, a review of the literature on customer loyalty in marketing and tourism indicates that there are at least three schools of thought on the relationship. The first school of thought states that commitment and loyalty are synonymous (e.g. Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Buchanan, 1985; Assael, 1987) and therefore may be used interchangeably. The second school of thought argues that commitment is synonymous of attitudinal loyalty (e.g. Day, 1969; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978) or consists of the affective and conative phase of loyalty (Chen, 2001). Lee (2003) argues that it is logical to equate the attitudinal dimension of loyalty with commitment because loyalty encompasses attitudinal components and commitment reflects the socio-psychological binding mechanism. Also Iwasaki & Havitz (2004) state that attitudinal loyalty is reflected in the components of psychological commitment.

The last school of thought argues that commitment is an antecedent of customer loyalty or more specifically of its attitudinal and behavioural components (Beatty *et al.*, 1988; Dick & Basu, 1994; Lee, 2003; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Gustafsson *et al.*, 2005; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2006). For example, Evanschitzky *et al.* (2006) distinguish between commitment as a desire and attitudinal loyalty as intention and argue that attitudinal loyalty is often preceded by desire/commitment.

This research followed the third view of commitment, in which commitment is recognized as being crucial to long-term relationships (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). In fact, commitment has long been regarded as a critical variable in successful social exchanges (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), including customer-provider relationships (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Committed customers are more likely to remain loyal to the service firm (Moorman, Deshpandé & Zaltman, 1993) as they feel that the service relationship is important (Moorman *et al.*, 1992). As a result, they have a desire to maintain the relationship while also being willing to put effort into maintaining the relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Pritchard *et al.* (1999) also distinguished commitment and loyalty. Their study showed that the tendency to resist changing preference (as evidence of commitment) is a key precursor to loyalty.

Based on this statement, it is hypothesized in this study that:

***H3: Tourist commitment positively influences tourists' composite loyalty.***

#### **3.3.1.4 Tourist Satisfaction and Composite Loyalty**

According to Li (2006), among all factors potentially related to loyalty, satisfaction may be the most straightforward one. Many marketing (Bloemer & Lemmink, 1992; Bloemer & Kasper, 1995; Homburg & Giering, 2001; Olsen, 2002; Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Chiou, 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2004; Yu *et al.*, 2005) and leisure/tourism (Back, 2005; Bowen & Chen, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) studies have shown that customer satisfaction may affect indicators of customer loyalty.

As a matter of fact, the positive effect of satisfaction on loyalty has been somewhat taken for granted, and recent research has focused more on identifying moderators and/or mediators of the effect of satisfaction on loyalty (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998; Mittal &

Lassar, 1998; Abdullah *et al.*, 2000; Homburg & Giering, 2001; Lee *et al.*, 2001; Lee, 2003; Yang & Peterson, 2004), or the nature of the satisfaction-loyalty relationship (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Mittal & Kamakura, 2001; Gómez *et al.*, 2004; Agustin & Singh, 2005)

The tourism literature also includes contributions which positively relate tourist satisfaction to repurchase intentions (Opperman, 2000; Petrick, 2005) and more globally, to loyalty (Bowen & Chen, 2001). Most studies confirm that satisfaction with a tourist experience contributes positively to loyalty (Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Oppermann, 1999; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008). Empirical research on tourism also concluded that tourist satisfaction is a good indicator of intentions to repeat and recommend to others (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Other studies also find some significant effects of satisfaction on the willingness to pay more and the intensity of the service experience (Bigné *et al.*, 2001), and a very significant relationship with positive word-of-mouth (Macintosh, 2007).

According to George (2004) in the specific context of tourism, many researchers have investigated different dimensions of consumer choice and an overview of the previous studies indicates that satisfaction and loyalty are generally accepted as extremely valuable concepts in understanding the performance of a tourism destination. Despite the abundance of research into loyalty and satisfaction in the service literature, more research is required. As Dimitriadis (2006) has pointed out, research into the satisfaction-loyalty relationship has not been exploited and greater conceptual and empirical efforts are needed.

Considering the need for new measurements of loyalty and the nature of its relation with satisfaction and following the specific measurement of consumer satisfaction into two dimensions (pull and push) and the extant research findings on the relationship between tourist satisfaction and loyalty, it is hypothesized that:

***H4: Tourist satisfaction positively influences tourists' composite loyalty.***

### 3.3.1.5 Tourist Variety Seeking and Composite Loyalty

Variety seeking is defined as an individual's motivations to diversify his or her choices across categories and within each of those categories to fulfil a specific goal in a common consumption situation (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Kahn *et al.*, 1986). The need to seek variety can also lead individuals to systematically rotate among their favourite alternatives (Ratner *et al.*, 1999). Hence, in this study, variety-seeking is defined as an individual's motivations to diversify his or her choices across categories and within each of those categories to fulfil a specific goal in a common consumption situation (Kahn *et al.*, 1986; McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Ratner *et al.*, 1999).

Focusing on tourist destinations, Niininen *et al.* (2004) analyse the role played by variety-seeking propensity in tourist destination choice, in order to better understand tourist loyalty in this field, where variety seeking is usually important for consumers. Their findings moderately support the proposal: tourists with a high variety-seeking propensity will show a varied pattern of destination choice, and a lower propensity to be loyal to the same destination. Regarding the work of Barroso *et al.* (2007), the authors demonstrate the effect of variety-seeking propensity in the relationship between destination image, satisfaction, perceived quality and tourists' future behavioural intentions.

In this research the aim is to highlight the role of variety-seeking propensity in tourists' composite loyalty. Therefore:

***H5: Tourist variety seeking negatively influences tourists' composite loyalty.***

### 3.3.1.6 Tourist Income and Variety Seeking

There is a long tradition of explaining tourism demand through socio-demographic profile (Howell *et al.*, 1993; Hsu, 2000; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; among others), with one of the most influential being income (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Mergoupis & Steuer, 2003; among others). Income is a personal budget constraint that determines the spending capacity of individuals and is taken into account to maximize utility (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). In fact, income has been proved to be highly explanatory of tourist behaviour (Mergoupis & Steuer, 2003). Essentially, empirical literature shows that medium-high and high-income groups are more likely to take part in different tourist activities (Hay & McConnell, 1979;

Walsh, John, McKean & Hof, 1992) and to spend more on them (Cai, Hong & Morrison, 1995; Fish & Waggle, 1996; Cai, 1998; Agarwal & Yochum, 1999; Cannon & Ford, 2002). Woodside & Lysonski (1989) notice that age, income, past experiences, and personal values affect destination image as well as its income. Weaver, McCleary, Lepisto & Damonte (1994) found that age is a discriminant variable that influences the decision of visiting a destination, while Zimmer *et al.* (1995) identify income and education as factors affecting the decision.

Changes in behaviour due to changes in the choice problem are phenomena with which economists have dealt thoroughly. Two notable economists (Stigler & Becker, 1977: 89) claim that "all changes in behaviour are explained by changes in prices and incomes." Income available is the last driver of tourists' decisions, conditioning tastes, preferences and wishes (Varian, 1990). As such the following hypothesis is proposed:

***H6: Tourist income negatively influences tourist variety seeking.***

### **3.3.1.7 Tourist Motivations and Variety Seeking**

Motivation is identified as a key determinant of variety-seeking behaviour. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors are determinants of variety-seeking behaviour. In general, variety-seeking behaviour is generated through a range of intrinsic and/or extrinsic motivations (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Hirschman, 1992; Van Trijp *et al.*, 1996; Decrop & Snelders, 2005). This type of personal and situational factors tends to moderate the strength and direction of the relation between behavioural variables (Han & Ryu, 2009). Studies (Van Trijp *et al.*, 1996) have begun to consider the idea that consumer variety-seeking behaviour is different depending on the product category involved.

Accordingly, variety-seeking behaviour does not occur for all products to the same extent due to various product category-level determinants of this behaviour, generated through intrinsic and and/or extrinsic motivations. According to Kahn (1995), if there are more brand varieties in the category, the phenomenon will increase consumers' need for stimulation in that product category, even when they are provided with the option of repeat consumption. Furthermore, a high-variety product category offers consumers the opportunity to enjoy a diversity of options over time and therefore, is more likely to induce consumer variety-seeking behaviour (Kahn, 1995). As highlighted by the study of

Kahn & Lehmann (1991), a varied portfolio of options offers greater variety as represented by the greater number of items in the assortment. As a result, the amount of diversity available in a product-category portfolio influences the need for diversity in choices.

Following the research findings on the relationship between tourist motivations and variety seeking, it is hypothesized that:

***H7: Tourists motivations positively influence tourist variety seeking.***

### **3.3.1.8 Tourist Satisfaction and Variety Seeking**

According to Godbey & Graefe (1991), Opperman (1997) and Niininen *et al.* (2004) tourist variety seeking is a voluntary activity which is directed at breaking with routine in decision-making and can contribute to the repetition of the same type of holidays and/or the same destination. More recent research in the literature on tourist satisfaction focuses on the characteristics of tourism in relation to other services and their influence on the conceptualization and measurement of satisfaction. The search for variety in destinations and services is typical of the tourism consumer, influencing behaviour patterns and therefore behavioural loyalty (Niininen *et al.*, 2004). Barroso *et al.* (2007) reported that the intensity of the relationship between satisfaction and intention to recommend and revisit is moderated by the tourist's need for variety.

As previous research has mentioned, some scholars (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Bigné *et al.*, 2009; Sánchez-García *et al.*, 2012; among others) have paid greater attention to explaining the divergence in variety seeking between customers. However, the lack of research places focus on explaining and combining the role of variety seeking in the satisfaction-intentional loyalty from a tourism perspective (Bigné *et al.*, 2001), because it is reasonable to anticipate that visitors may satisfy their need for variety, either through the enjoyment of new options or alternating between the facets of different destinations. As a result, differences in the proportion of variety seekers could lead to disparity in visitors' loyalty to different destinations.

Concerning the previous statements and the development of the research on variety-seeking, this study will explore the impact of tourist satisfaction on variety seeking.

***H8: Tourist satisfaction positively influences tourist variety seeking.***

### 3.3.1.9 Tourist Investment Size and Commitment

The Investment Model also suggests investment size as a key determinant of commitment (Beckman & Crompton, 1991b; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Morais *et al.*, 2004).

Investments include intrinsic resources that are put into the partnership, such as time and effort, experienced emotions, disclosure of personal information and the importance that the relationship holds for one's identity. The extrinsic resources such as mutual social networks, the social status that the relationship brings, and material possessions also serve as investments that contribute to commitment (Rusbult *et al.*, 1994).

The total value of the resources invested by the customers in a provider is called customer equity (Dorsch & Carlson, 1996). In contrast with the transaction described before, this investment-based relationship creates a dependency of the customer on the provider because the customer does not want to waste all the investments he or she made in the provider and start all over again with a new one. The larger the value of a customer's equity, the greater is his or her drive to protect the investments; therefore, the more likely he or she is to maintain the relationship with that nature-based tourism provider. Moreover, according to Yen *et al.* (2009), loyalty is only driven by commitment indicating that tourists will revisit more often and spend more with a service provider when they commit to a relation with this service provider. According to Beerli *et al.* (2004) and Dick & Basu (1994), when customers have made an initial investment in certain services or goods, or when the costs of switching brands are expected to be high, it is reasoned that the customer tends to remain loyal. However, the investment size, i.e., any tangible or intangible resources attached to a relationship may be lost or diminished once the relationship is dissolved. The Investment Model asserts that dependence is also influenced by investment size. Investment size refers to the magnitude and importance of the resources that are attached to a relationship-resources that would decline in value or be lost if the relationship were to end (cf. Becker, 1960; Rubin & Brockner, 1975; Staw, 1976; Teger, 1980)

Based on this statement, this research proposes that travellers' investment size is likely to influence negatively their intention to be committed to the destination.

***H9: Tourist investment size negatively influences tourist commitment.***



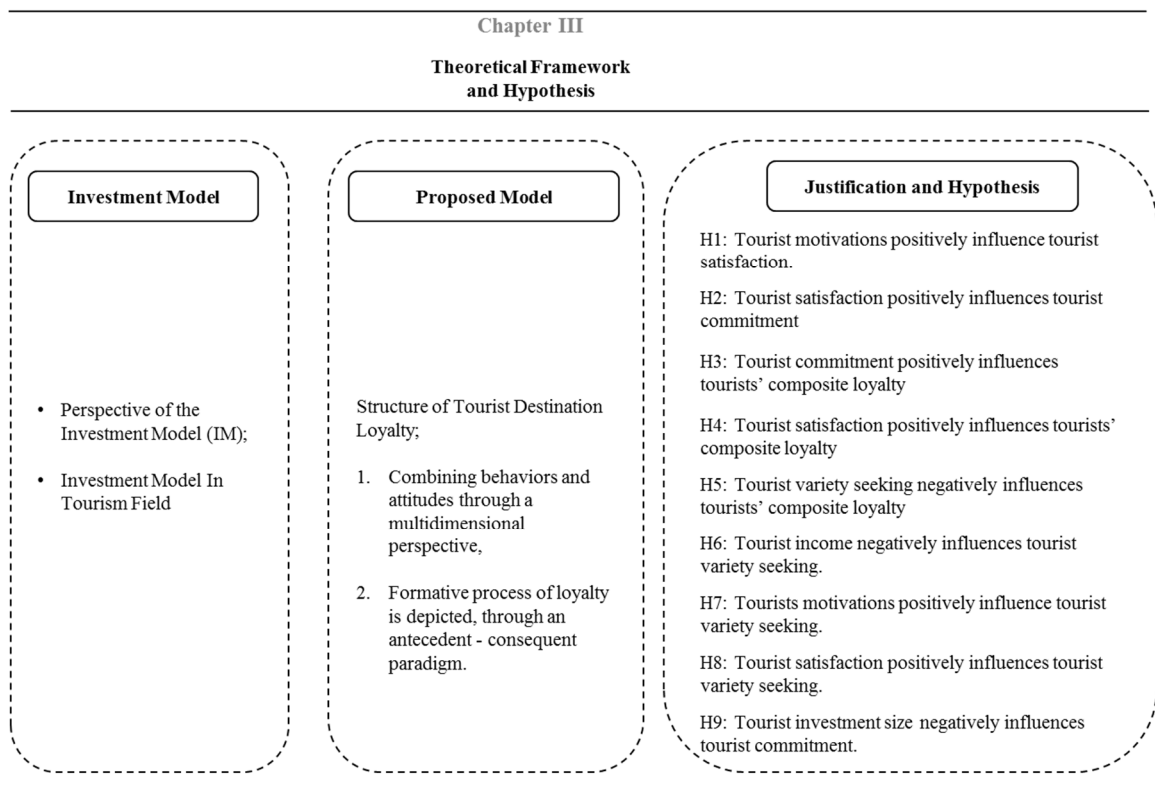
The different constructs that were proposed as centred in the model and their relationships were developed based on the field study and validated using an extensive literature review. Based on the above discussion a conceptual structural model is proposed based on the underlined hypotheses that attempted to support the conceptual model and provide an understanding of loyalty as a decision process.

**3.4 Summary**

This chapter starts with the theoretical foundations of the Investment Model, and with an explanation of it in the field of tourism. It was concluded that the Investment Model provides a conceptually sound and parsimonious explanation in delineating the determinants of the tourist destination loyalty process.

Consequently, the proposed model was presented and nine causal-relationships crossing the different constructs to loyalty were justified.

**Figure 3.2- Structure of the Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Chapter.**



Source: Own elaboration

## CHAPTER IV: METHODOLOGY.

### 4.1 Introduction

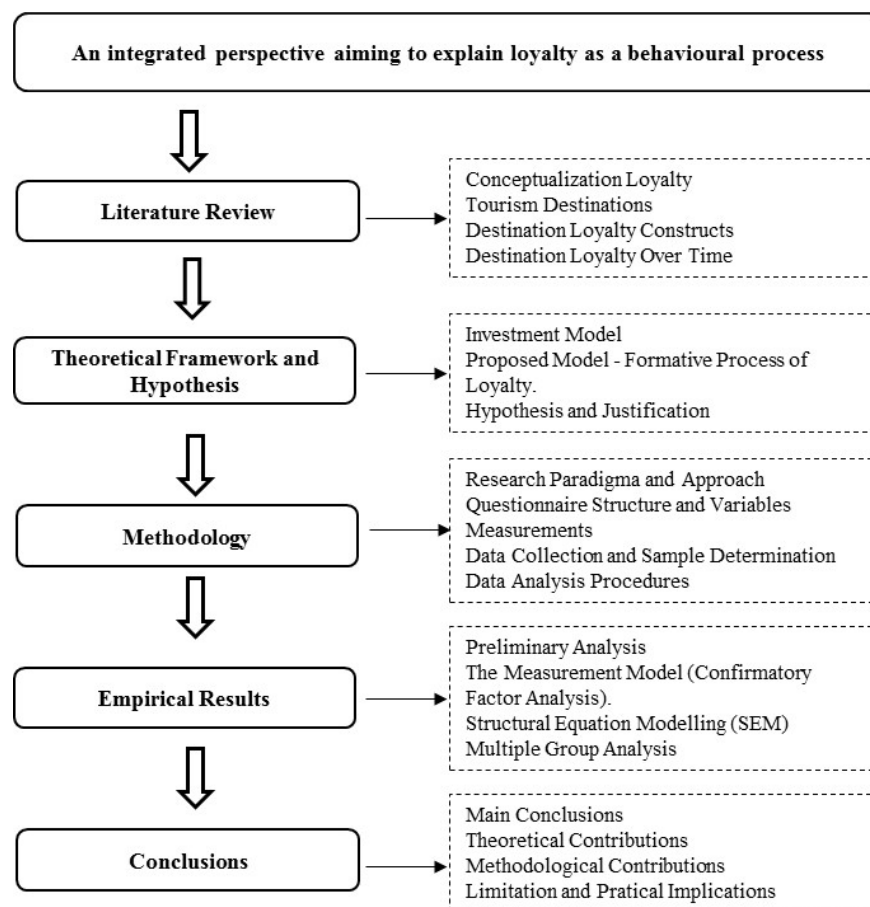
The current chapter presents the methodology used in this research. However, in line with this methodology, the present research, respect all the steps of the scientific process (Figure 4), namely, the statement of problem; the literature review and its association with the problematic research and the construction of the conceptual framework model.

Based on this, this chapters on its first section explains the details of the research paradigm, followed by the research approach.

The next section presents the survey instrument used to collect data as well as the variables used to measure each of the constructs.

The chapter ends with an explanation of the data collection and sample determination, followed by the data analysis procedures and statistical techniques used for data analysis.

**Figure 2.1- Structure of the Methodology followed this Research.**



Source: Own elaboration, Adapted from Quivy & Campenhoudt (1998)

## 4.2 Research Paradigm

According to Guba (1990) and Jennings (2001) a research paradigm can be viewed as a set of basic beliefs which guide the action of the researchers to recognize their role in the research process with a disciplined enquiry. That is to say that a research paradigm is a research course of action, which reflects on research design, a data collection method, presentation of findings and how interpretations of the findings are made. Guba & Lincoln (1994) introduced four different paradigms for conducting research, namely: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism. The authors also added a fifth paradigm, participatory, into their list of alternative inquiry paradigms.

Later, Creswell (2003) proposed four schools of thought with regard to knowledge; specifically post-positivism, constructivism, pragmatic and advocacy/participatory (Eta, 2010). Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2007) and Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2005) asserted that there are two basic research philosophies named positivism (depending on existing theories) and interpretivism (collecting information to create and build new theory). Considering interpretivist research, it tries to obtain an understanding of phenomena (Smith, 1983) and to see all things as 'becoming'. As interpretivists are more concerned with understanding individuals' perceptions of the world, they assume that the personal nature of social constructs can be extracted and refined through the interaction of researchers and the research subject (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Interpretivists use subjective interpretation, reasoning and feelings of people (qualitative data) to understand and explain realities.

On the other hand, positivist researchers emphasize the importance of an objective scientific method and believe that the research idea can be objectively measured and observed (Hessler, 1992). Relying on this paradigm, the quantitative researcher assumes that reality is independent from the knower (Smith, 1983) and sees reality as 'being' rather than 'becoming'. Positivists elaborate research questions based on theoretical background and previous studies, and analyze quantitative data using statistically valid techniques before making generalizations and conclusions. Under this philosophy hypothesis formulation is essential (Creswell, 2003).

Based on the above grounds, the present study adopts a quantitative methodology, guided by the positivist/scientific realism paradigm (Hunt, 2002). Moreover, it is noted by different researchers in this area that most of the paradigms that have been used in existing loyalty research were positivist (quantitative) paradigms. In fact, tourism loyalty studies are also dominated by a positivist (quantitative) view. Furthermore, this research aims to investigate the factors influencing tourist loyalty as a source to explain the formation of destination loyalty. The relationship between different loyalty dimensions has been previously investigated in literature. Accordingly, the positivist philosophy is more suitable for use in this investigation, since, this philosophy is used when variables are available that are easily to identify and the studies are “highly structured” (Creswell, 1994: 10).

Considering the research objectives, this research studies the causal relationship between two types of precursors; from customer (tourist) loyalty (satisfaction, variety-seeking and motivations) to service/product (destination) related factors (investment size and commitment). This can be achieved by using the positivism paradigm, based on Collis & Hussey’s (2003: 53) content that “according to positivism paradigm, explanation consists of creating causal relationships between the variables by establishing causal laws and linking them to a deductive or integrated theory”. Moreover, the conceptual framework proposed is to be tested statistically, in order to generate more reliable results that can be generalized to the study population. This statement is also consistent with the positivist paradigm (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

The research investigates the logical flow between loyalty constructs by indicating the direction of the causes and effects of the interplay of factors relating to the tourist loyalty as a process, and it is assumed that those different relationships (reality) already exist. So, this is consistent with the ontological assumption of the positivism philosophy (Creswell, 1994; Miller & Brewer, 2003). According to Jennings (2001), human behaviour can be shaped and controlled once causal relationships have been determined. Furthermore, the same author argued that positivism is nomothetic, which means that it is founded upon observable or testable facts from which generalizations can be made to develop theories to explain behaviour in relationships in the natural and social world – that is to explain “reality”.

The relationship between the loyalty constructs is investigated in this research, apart from the researcher's perceptions of the relationship, to ensure objectivity and value-free interpretation. So, the research is assumed not to impact on or influence the results or findings in a research project. As a consequence, other researchers are able to replicate this research and obtain similar findings. This is consistent with the epistemological assumption of positivistic philosophy (Creswell, 1994; Jennings, 2001; Miller & Brewer, 2003).

Finally, to understand loyalty, the research needs to go beyond the determinants of loyalty. Consequently, a longitudinal study will be applied in this research to explore the model proposed, based on the length of time interval between successive visits, to understand how it affects tourists' loyalty behaviour. According to Collis & Hussey (2003), a longitudinal study is a positivistic strategy which involves the study of a variable on a group of subjects over a period of time. Additionally and bearing in mind that Portugal is composed by different touristic regions, a cross-sectional study is followed to assess if the multidimensionality model proposed assumes or not similar patterns when tested on a regional perspective. The cross-sectional study is a positivistic design to gain information at a single point of time; moreover, this type of study is strongly placed in the context of quantitative research (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Bryman & Bell, 2003)

### **4.3 Research Approach**

Research approach is concerned with how the research project will engage the use of theory (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). In general, there are two research approaches: the deductive approach (testing theory) and the inductive approach (building theory) (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Miller & Brewer, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The theory testing approach (deductive) is usually associated with quantitative data, whereas the theory construction approach (inductive) is more commonly associated with qualitative data (Finn, Elliott-White & Walson, 2000).

Based on these statements, the deductive approach was adopted in this research, for the following reasons: first, the deductive approach owes more to the positivistic philosophy (Saunders *et al.*, 2007) which has been chosen as the current research philosophy. Second, the usefulness of the Investment Model as an holistic theoretical framework will be tested

to explain the development of tourist destination loyalty formation. Third, the research hypotheses are derived from the proposed conceptual framework that illustrates the causal-relationships crossing the different constructs that contribute to loyalty. Moreover, secondary data were used to test the model. Data was gathered through a questionnaire designed to evaluate routes operating in the main Portugal airports. Additionally, the “concepts” were “operationalized” in ways that enable variables to be “measured quantitatively” (Saunders, *et al.*, 2007: 86). Finally, the study has a large sample to generalize the findings to the study population, which is also in accordance with the deductive approach.

#### 4.4 Questionnaire Structure

The survey was developed by a team of researchers from the University of Algarve. The aim was to evaluate routes operating in the airports. The questionnaire contains 45 questions arranged in six groups according to the type of information that each group is intended to collect. The survey was designed in two versions, Portuguese and English. A Likert-type scale is arguably the most common form of scaling (Bernard, 2000; DeVellis, 2003) in terms of measuring people’s internal states such as attitudes and emotions (Bernard, 2000; Gay & Airasian, 2000). A typical Likert-type scale asks respondents to indicate their degrees of agreement with or endorsement of a declarative statement (Gay & Airasian, 2000; DeVellis, 2003). In the presented measurements, the response options contain five points, anchored by Strongly Agree and Strongly Disagree among others (Bernard, 2000; DeVellis, 2003; Gay & Airasian, 2000).

The six parts of the survey are:

1. **Part A** – Trip Logistics – which is composed by eleven questions allowing an identification of passengers’ final destination, type of accommodation, transport used between the airport and the final destination; travel companions and place of residence.
2. **Part B** – Travel Expenses - this information assisted the estimator of the tourist’s economic activity, specifically asking about the cost of the package, the cost of each component of the trip and the total amount spent per day.
3. **Part C** – Travel Experience – this part contains questions that identify first and repeat visitors, as well as the repeating patterns of these tourists.

**4. Part D** – Buying/Consumption Procedures – contains nine questions allowing an identification of buying behaviour aspects, namely advance purchase; planning of trip; identifying and assessing sources of information; type of reservation; motives for the choice of the travel period and the spending amount intention on the trip.

**5. Part E** – Motivations and Satisfaction – this part of the questionnaire tackles the expectation towards the final destination; it assesses the importance and satisfaction of several attributes of the destination, as well as future revisiting intentions and recommendations.

**6. Part F** – Socio-demographic Characteristics - contains nine questions, identifying the socio-demographic profile, namely age; gender; nationality; social status; family average monthly income; employment and education.

#### **4.4.1 Variables Measurements**

A review of the extant literature regarding tourist loyalty provides the foundation for the development of the constructs to be included in this research.

##### **4.4.4.1 Composite Loyalty**

Loyalty measurement was operationalized using two-dimensional construct made up of an attitudinal and a behavioural component (tourist composite loyalty) (Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994). Behavioural loyalty is reflected in repeat purchase whereas attitudinal loyalty includes recommending the service provider to others and repurchase intentions and the expectations may reflect beliefs about the attitude (Dick & Basu, 1994; Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Dimitriades, 2006). As such, this research, includes three items pertaining to attitudinal loyalty “Intention to return to final destination” (LOY1); “Intention to recommend to friends and relatives the final destination” (LOY2); “Intention to recommend to friends and relatives Portugal as a tourism destination” (LOY3); “How do you rate the final destination” (LOY4) and one pertaining to behavioural loyalty, “How many times have you been in your final destination” (LOY5).



#### 4.4.4.2 Pull and Push Satisfaction

In our research two separate levels of satisfaction were established: pull satisfaction (SATPULL) (in which level of achievement of internal motivations is measured through the sense of emotional fulfilment), and push satisfaction (SATPUSH) (measured by the perceived quality of the destination attributes, see Table 14) According to Kumar, Dalla Pozza & Ganesh (2013) an important issue is related to the way customer satisfaction is measured. While an attribute-based measure of customer satisfaction can be useful for managers to identify areas of future intervention and improvement, it does not lend itself to the delivery of a holistic experience for the customer that involves “sensing, feeling, thinking, acting and relating”.

Based on the principles of experiential marketing (Schmitt, 2009), marketers should touch upon higher levels of the customer experience and start thinking of an operationalization of customer satisfaction that encompasses not only physical product characteristics or concrete aspects of the service, but also intangible elements of the customer experience that can satisfy higher-order needs such as self-esteem, socialization, or both. Considering this and the notion that satisfaction is a multi-dimensional construct, with multi-item scales that have been frequently used in marketing studies (Oliver & Swan, 1989) and in tourism (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Lee *et al.*, 2007) it makes sense to use the traditional breakdown of motivations into push and pull motives in satisfaction assessment.

According to Correia & Pimpão (2008) a tourist goes on holiday because there is a need to achieve intellectual, physical and social rewards and the concept of push satisfaction measures the level of internal achievement perceived by the tourist. Pull satisfaction confirms tourist expectations in terms of destination attributes, a concept traditionally explored in tourism studies (Murphy, Pritchard & Smith, 2000; Bigné *et al.*, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Correia, Barros & Silvestre, 2007).

Tourist destinations are rich in terms of experiential attributes, and the potential to evoke an emotional response is even greater (Otto & Ritchie, 1996).

For the holidaymaker, the tourism experience is of high personal value and is accompanied by satisfying and pleasurable emotions. Emotional reactions to the tourism experience are fundamental determinants of post-consumption behaviours such as

satisfaction, intention to recommend, attitude judgments, and choice (Gnoth, 1997). For example, Goossens (2000) found that experiential processes such as imaging, daydreams, and emotions play an important role in destination choice behaviour.

As such the score average mean of all the items related with push satisfaction was calculated, the same was done to establish the level of pull satisfaction, and both were then recoded in five quantiles.

#### 4.4.4.3 Variety Seeking

The distinction between derived varied behaviour and direct variety seeking depends on whether the switching behaviour is extrinsically or intrinsically motivated (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Kahn, 1995). It is critical to our study to make this distinction since our interest is to understand variety-seeking as an individual trait that might affect the tourist loyalty dimension. A general consensus exists on the pre-eminence of hedonic motivations in the consumption of tourism and leisure services (Hirschman, 1992; Decrop & Snelders, 2005). Hence, in this study, variety-seeking is defined as an individual's motivations to diversify his or her choices across categories and within each of those categories to fulfil a specific goal in a common consumption situation (Kahn *et al.*, 1986; McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Ratner *et al.*, 1999). Moreover, according to Ratner *et al.* (1999) the need to seek variety can also lead individuals to systematically rotate among their favourite alternatives.

Variety and novelty seeking play a key role in the comprehension of tourist behaviour, affecting their intention to return to the same destination in the future (Niininen *et al.*, 2004; Barroso *et al.*, 2007; Jang & Feng, 2007). Nevertheless, Crompton (1979) referred to novelty as a new experience but not necessarily as new knowledge. Thus, the desire to seek new experiences and new travel destinations can play an important role in explaining travellers' intentions to return to a location, perhaps irrespective of their level of satisfaction and destination image (Babu & Bibin, 2004; Jang & Feng, 2007; Sánchez-García, Pieters, Zeelenberg & Bigné, 2012).

McAlister & Pessemier (1982) suggest that there are also motives like the desire for group affiliation or individual identity that influence variety-seeking behaviour because social pressures for conformity create the need to express individuality in subtle ways. Founded on these statements, variety-seeking in our research is operationalized through the following statements: “to try as many things as possible” (VS1); “to do what most others

have not done and then tell my friends about it” (VS2) and “to seek novelty and change”(VS3).

#### **4.4.4.4 Pull and Push Motivations**

Tourist motivation refers to an individual’s desire to participate in a tourism activity to satisfy his or her needs (Pizam *et al.*, 1979). Since both internal and external forces can influence an individual’s desire to travel, (Gursoy, 2011; Prebensen *et al.*, 2013), an individual’s desire or motivation usually represents the first step in travel decision-making process (Chi, 2011).

One of the most frequently utilized theories to study reasons why people travel has been the push-pull theory (Gavcar & Gursoy, 2002). Push factors represent an individual’s internal desires such as the desire to have fun, the desire to relax and the desire to escape from daily routine, among others, whereas pull factors represent destination specific attributes and attractions such as entertainment opportunities, good quality restaurants and museums, among other destination attractions.

Based on the previous statements this research operationalizes this variable, as pull and push motivations, considering that a close match between the push factors and the pull factors is a must for an individual to consider a specific destination over other similar destinations; the individual traveller must believe that services provided at the destination will, at least, meet his or her expectations (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The procedure adopted for satisfaction was also applied here, the statements about push motivations (MOTPUSH) were grouped with the calculus of the average mean, and the statements about pull motivations (MOTPULL) were also grouped and recoded in five quantiles (see Table 14).

#### **4.4.4.5 Investment Size**

In terms of measurement, this research follows the authors Foa & Foa (1974); Sriram & Mummalaneni (1990); Dorsch & Carlson (1996); Morais, Backman & Dorsch (2003), operationalizing investment size in intangible goods, including monetary expenses. Length of stay has been shown to play a role in the way tourists perceive and assess the destination visited (Gokovali *et al.*, 2007).

In this research variables used to measure investment size are: “In economic terms, how do you evaluate your final destination” (IS1); “On average how much did you spend/ intend to spend daily” (IS2) and “In total, how many days were / will you be away from home on this trip” (IS3) “How satisfied are you with the following attributes of the destination - Attribute Price” (IS4).

They argued that the effect may be due to the presence of a reputation mechanism as proposed by Shapiro (1983): longer stays may increase the tourist’s knowledge of destination features, and thus the likelihood of revisiting. There have been a number of empirical studies that consider the length of stay as a part of market segmentation variable in estimating the determinants of tourist spending (Davies & Mangan, 1992; Legohérel, 1998). Davies & Mangan (1992) argue that an increased length of stay may allow tourists to undertake a larger number of activities, which may affect their overall spending, sense of affiliation and satisfaction. Findings of some studies support the proposition that those staying longer spend a higher amount of money than those with shorter visits (Spotts & Mahoney, 1991). Whereas, those with shorter stays are likely to spend more per day, on average, than longer-staying visitors (Mok & Iverson, 2000).

#### **4.4.4.6 Commitment**

Anderson & Weitz (1992) established that parties become committed when one party takes specific actions that will bind it to another party. These actions include pledges, investments, and side bets (Becker, 1960), as well as contracts or service agreements that limit free choice for the period of the contract (Anderson & Weitz, 1992). According to these authors, committed partners are willing to invest in valuable assets specific to an exchange, demonstrating that they can be relied upon to perform essential functions in the future. Achrol (1991) posits that commitment is an essential ingredient for successful long-term relationships. Moreover, Moorman *et al.* (1993), posits that committed customers are more likely to remain loyal to the service firm as they feel that the service relationship is important. As a result, they have a desire to maintain the relationship while also being willing to put effort into maintaining the relationship.

Considering the previous statements and bearing in mind the conceptualization of commitment and the streams of the current study context, commitment is operationalized incorporating tourist intention to buy a vacation house in Portugal, this being the most

evident form of commitment to the destination. As Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard & Hogg (2006) refer, tourists are hostages of a destination if they own a house or have family and friends there. As such the following variable was considered “Do you intend to buy a vacation house in Portugal” (COM).

#### **4.4.4.7 Socio-Demographic Characteristics – Tourist Income**

The study carried out by Um, Chon & Ro (2006) concluded that the revisit decision-making process should be modelled in the same way as modelling a destination choice process. This implies that the personal characteristics of tourists, such as motivations and socio-demographic characteristics also play an important role in explaining their future behaviour. Despite sharing equal degrees of satisfaction, tourists with different personal features can report heterogeneous behaviour in terms of their loyalty to a destination (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). Moreover, individual’s current circumstances, their characteristics and the purchase situation faced, are variables that may account in loyalty conceptualization (Uncles *et al.*, 2003).

Consequently, the current research has further investigated the effect of tourist’s income on the destination loyalty process. As such the following variable was considered: “Family average monthly income” (INC).

For the development of the present thesis the parts of the survey that were considered were those presented in the following Table (4.1) in the next page

Table 4.1- Constructs and Indicators used from the Original Questionnaire.

Constructs and Indicators		Authors
<b>VARIETY SEEKING (VS)</b>		
<b>VS1</b>	To try as many things as possible	McAlister & Pessemier (1982);
<b>VS2</b>	To do what most others have not done, and then tell my friends about it	Givon (1984); Steenkamp & Baumgartner (1992); Lee & Crompton (1992); Kahn (1995); Niinenen <i>et al.</i> (2004)
<b>VS3</b>	To seek novelty and change 1) <i>Not important</i> ; 2) <i>Somewhat important</i> ; 3) <i>Moderately important</i> ; 4) <i>Quite important</i> and 5) <i>Extremely important</i>	
<b>COMPOSITE LOYALTY (LOY)</b>		
<b>LOY1</b>	Intention to return to your final destination	
<b>LOY2</b>	Intention to recommend to friends and relatives the Final destination	Ehrenberg (1988); Ostrowski <i>et al.</i> (1993); Jones & Sasser (1995); Iwasaki & Havitz (1998); Johnson <i>et al.</i> (2001); Kosak, (2001); Reichheld (2003); Bigné & Andreu (2005); Fullerton, (2005); Dimitriades, (2006); Barroso <i>et al.</i> (2007); Jang & Feng, (2007); Chen & Wang (2009)
<b>LOY3</b>	Intention to recommend to friends and relatives Portugal as a tourism destination 1) <i>No</i> ; 2) <i>I don't know</i> ; 3) <i>Probably</i> ; 4) <i>For sure</i>	
<b>LOY4</b>	How do you rate the final destination 1) <i>Worse than I expected</i> ; 2) <i>Exactly what I expected</i> ; 3) <i>Better than I expected</i>	
<b>LOY5</b>	How many times have you been in your final destination? 1) <i>1 - 2 times</i> ; 2) <i>3 - 5 times</i> ; 3) <i>6 - 9 times</i> ; 4) <i>10 - 15 times</i> ; 5) <i>More 15 times</i>	
<b>INVESTMENT SIZE (IS)</b>		
<b>IS1</b>	In economic terms, how do you evaluate your final destination? 1) <i>Very inexpensive</i> 2) <i>Inexpensive</i> 3) <i>Fairly priced</i> 4) <i>Expensive</i> 5) <i>Very expensive</i>	Foa & Foa (1974); Sriram & Mummalaneni (1990); Spotts & Mahoney (1991); Dorsch & Carlson (1996); Morais <i>et al.</i> (2003); Ledesma, Navarro & Pérez-Rodríguez (2005)
<b>IS2</b>	On average how much did you spend/ intend to spend daily? <i>open question</i>	
<b>IS3</b>	In total, how many days were / will you be away from home on this trip 1) <i>Less than 4 days</i> ; 2) <i>Between 4 and 6 days</i> ; 3) <i>7 days</i> ; 4) <i>between 8 and 13 days</i> ; 5) <i>more than 14 days</i>	
<b>IS4</b>	How satisfied are you with the following attributes of the destination? Attribute Price 1) <i>Very dissatisfied</i> ; 2) <i>Dissatisfied</i> ; 3) <i>Satisfied</i> ; 4) <i>Very satisfied</i> ; 5) <i>Extremely satisfied</i>	
<b>COMMITMENT (COM)</b>		
<b>COM</b>	Do you intend to buy a vacation house in Portugal? 1) <i>No</i> ; 2) <i>I don't know</i> ; 3) <i>Probably</i> .; 4) <i>Definitely</i> 5) <i>I already have one.</i>	Anderson & Weitz (1992); Moorman <i>et al.</i> (1993); Solomon <i>et al.</i> (2006)
<b>INCOME (INC)</b>		
<b>INC</b>	Family average monthly income: 1) <i>Less than 2000€</i> ; 2) <i>2001€-3500€</i> ; 3) <i>3501€-5000€</i> ; 4) <i>5001€-8000€</i> ; 5) <i>8001€ and above</i>	Mykletun <i>et al.</i> (2001); Uncles <i>et al.</i> (2003); Mittal & Kamakura (2001); Franch <i>et al.</i> (2006) Chi (2011)

Continued on the next page

Construct and Indicators		Authors
<b>MOTPUSH</b>	<b>PUSH MOTIVATIONS</b>	
To do something together with my family	To be at a place with fame & reputation	
To get away from the usual demands of life	To go to recommended places	
To know interesting people	To try as many things as possible	
To learn about cultures where I travel	To visit a region where I haven't been before	
To return home with a story to tell that will dazzle my friends	To have fun	
	To visit a region where I haven't been before	Crompton (1979); Uysal & Hagan, (1993); Goossens (2000); Kozak (2002); Yoon & Uysal (2005); Jang & Wu (2006); Pan & Ryan (2007); Correia, Pimpão & Tão (2012); Correia et al. (2013)
To re-live good times I have had in the past	To have an adventure	
<b>MOTPULL</b>	<b>PULL MOTIVATIONS</b>	
Cleanliness	Accommodation	
Safety and security	Gastronomy	
Landscape and nature	Weather	
Cultural /historical resources	Relaxing environment	
Nightlife	Accessibilities	
Commerce	Social life	
Information available	Hospitality	
Sports equipment	Beaches	
Transportation facilities	Sightseeing and excursions	
Closeness to home		
1) <i>Not important</i> ; 2) <i>Somewhat important</i> ; 3) <i>Moderately important</i> ; 4) <i>Quite important</i> and 5) <i>Extremely important</i>		

*Continued on the next page*

Construct and Indicators	Authors	
<b>SATPUSH</b>		
To do something together with my family	Ryan & Glendon (1998); Zeithaml <i>et al.</i> (1996); Murphy, Pritchard & Smith, (2000); Goossens (2000); Bigné <i>et al.</i> (2001); Yoon & Uysal (2005); Correia & Pimpão (2008); Kumar <i>et al.</i> (2013)	
To get away from the usual demands of life		
To know interesting people		
To learn about cultures where I travel		
To return home with a story to tell that will dazzle my friends		
To re-live good times I have had in the past		
<b>SATPULL</b>		
Cleanliness		Kumar <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Safety and security		
Landscape and nature		
Cultural / historical resources		
Nightlife		
Commerce		
Information available		
Sports equipment		
Transportation facilities		
Closeness to home		
1) <i>Very Dissatisfied</i> ; 2) <i>Dissatisfied</i> ; 3) <i>Satisfied</i> ; 4) <i>Very Satisfied</i> and 5) <i>Extremely Satisfied</i>		

Source: Own elaboration

#### 4.5 Data Collection and Sample Determination

Methods of collecting data vary according to the adopted research approach; quantitative or qualitative (Thiéart, 2001). There are two basic sources of data: secondary data and primary data. Secondary data is "data that already exists such as books, documents and films" (Collis & Hussey, 2003: 355). Primary data is "data collected specifically for the research project being undertaken" by the researcher (Saunders *et al.*, 2007: 607). Secondary methods were used to conceptualize and operationalize the current study constructs and to investigate previously conducted studies that empirically test the relationship between the loyalty determinants, in order to develop a conceptual framework. For the current study, the data were collected from the study INITIATIVE:pt<sup>2</sup>, conducted by the entity that manages the Airports of Lisbon, Faro,

<sup>2</sup> For further information about the project see: <http://www.initiative-ualg.com/>, last accessing 14<sup>th</sup> May, 2015.



Azores (hereafter ANA); the entity that manages Madeira Airport, University of Algarve and Turismo de Portugal, IP. The time period that embodied the present study is the International Air Transport Association (IATA) year (2009/10-2010/11). The data was collected in the departure lounge of the international airports of Lisbon, Faro, Azores and Madeira.

Moreover, data used in this research followed the routes assessed on the two years under the Initiative:pt program, on 2009/10 and 2010/11. In Airports of Lisbon this research followed the European cities: Cork, Helsinki, Moscow and Warsaw; in Faro International Airport: Liverpool, Bremen, Dusseldorf (Niederrhein), Frankfurt (Hahn), Knock, Kerry, Derry, Madrid, Stockholm (Skavsta), Paris (Beauvais), Oslo (Rygge), Memmingen (Mun), Maastricht and Billund. In the Islands, the main European cities were for Azores: Copenhagen, Stockholm and Toronto and Madeira International Airport: Bristol, London (Stansted), London (Gatwick), Manchester, Paris (Orly), Copenhaga and Stocholm.

The calculation of the annual sample was based on the number of passengers, by route to ensure the generalizibility of the sample to each route. A total of 8991 valid responses were collected representing a sampling error in the case of an infinite population of 5.4% for a confidence level of 95% ( $p=q=0.5$ ). Furthermore, questionnaires containing missing data were eliminated to avoid bias. As suggested by Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham (2006), the analysis of data with missing values should be avoided since missing values influence global data.

#### **4.5.1 Sample Profile/ Multi-Groups Sample Profile**

The socio-demographic and tripographic profile of tourists is presented in Table 4.2 and 4.3. The sample was almost equally split between females (55%) and males (45%), with an average age of 42 years old. In terms of social status 69.3% are married or living together. Regarding educational background, the great majority (76.1%) have a university or college degree, with an average monthly family income between 3501€ and 5000€. The majority of the respondents are from the North and Central Europe, with 49.3% and 44% respectively. For a large majority of the respondents (87.3%) Portugal (islands included) was their primary destination option, and vacation/leisure was quoted as the

major purpose of the trip (90.3%). The vast majority of the tourists stayed in hotels (44.1%) in bed and breakfast regime (31.9%) or only accommodation (36%).

Table 6 also shows the characteristics of the sample across groups. The results show that there were five differences between respondents arriving at Faro and Lisbon airports: education, country of residence, accommodation, boarding plan and travel purpose. The results show a higher proportion of those visiting Lisbon having university/college education. Nearly half of the respondents arriving at Faro airport travelled from Southern and Central Europe, whereas virtually all those arriving at Lisbon airport came from Northern Europe. Those arriving in Lisbon were more likely to stay in hotels whereas a higher proportion of those visiting the Algarve stayed in an aparthotel or rented house. As a consequence, those arriving at Algarve airport were more likely to stay on a room-only basis, while a greater proportion of those in Lisbon stayed on a bed-and-breakfast basis. Finally a greater proportion of those arriving in Lisbon did it for the purposes of visiting family and friends. Respondents did not differentiate with regards to age, gender, marital status, family average monthly income and whether Portugal was the final destination option.

There were several differences across the island and across the years. With regards to the former, there were differences between those travelling to the Azores and those travelling to Madeira in terms of their age, education, family average monthly income, residence, accommodation, accommodation board and travel purpose. Those travelling to the Azores were more likely to have higher income, be more educated, older and travelling from North Europe when compared to those travelling to Madeira. Those travelling to Madeira travelled more for vacation/leisure purposes and as a consequence were more likely to stay in commercial accommodation, notably aparthotels. There were no differences in the areas of gender, marital status, and Portugal being the final destination option.

The 2010/11 sample was more likely to be older, have a higher income and the majority were males. Two thirds came from central Europe (as opposed to half from Northern Europe in 2009/10). A higher proportion of the 2010/11 sample stayed in hotels, and as a consequence stayed more on no-meals, breakfast-only or half-board basis. A higher proportion of the 2009/10 sample staying in a family and friends' house reflects a higher proportion travelling for the purpose of visiting family and friends. There were no differences in the areas of education and Portugal being the final destination option.

Table 4.2- Socio-Demographic Profile.

	Continent			Islands		Years	
	All n = 8991	Algarve n= 4451	Lisbon n= 545	Azores n=725	Madeira n=3270	2009/10 n=1350	2010/11 n=234
<b>Age</b>	$\chi^2= 3.814; df=2 p*0.149$			$\chi^2= 34.252; df=2 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 34.215; df=2 p*0.000$	
Less than 30	29.8	38.4	39.1	14.2	20.1	27.6	11.5
31 to 50	42.8	47.8	44.4	32.3	38	46.2	48.3
More than 51	27.4	13.8	16.5	53.5	41.9	26.2	40.2
<i>Mean</i>	<b>42</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>Gender</b>	$\chi^2= 0.127; df=1 p*0.722$			$\chi^2= 1.099; df=1 p*0.295$		$\chi^2= 5.801; df=1 p*0.016$	
Female	55.0	55.0	55.8	53.2	55.4	55.9	47.4
Male	45.0	45.0	44.2	46.8	44.6	44.1	52.6
<b>Marital Status</b>	$\chi^2= 5.309; df=3 p*0.151$			$\chi^2= 1.526; df=3 p*0.676$		$\chi^2= 36.629; df=3 p*0.000$	
Single	26.3	33.4	30.6	16.7	18.1	26.4	9.8
Married/Living Together	69.3	62.5	64	78.6	77.2	68.7	87.6
Divorced	3.2	3.4	3.9	2.8	3.1	3.8	1.3
Widowed	1.2	0.7	1.5	1.9	1.6	1.0	1.3
<b>Education</b>	$\chi^2= 15.689; df=3 p*0.001$			$\chi^2= 18.845; df=3 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 0.791; df=3 p*0.852$	
Elementary	2.1	1.6	0.6	3.3	2.7	2.9	2.6
Secondary	19.3	18.5	13.9	20.3	21.1	21.3	19.7
University/College	76.1	77.5	84.4	75.9	72.8	73.9	75.2
Other	2.6	2.4	1.1	0.6	3.5	1.9	2.6
<b>Average Monthly Family Income</b>	$\chi^2= 3.168; df=4 p*0.530$			$\chi^2= 38.219; df=4 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 23.580; df=4 p*0.000$	
Less than 2000€	16.4	21.7	19.4	6.6	10.7	16.1	5.6
2001€-3500€	23.6	26.2	24.8	14.6	21.8	24.4	23.9
3501€-5000€	33.0	30.6	33	38.8	34.9	31.4	35.5
5001€-8000€	14.7	11.3	12.7	23.2	17.8	14.9	14.5
8001€ and above	12.4	10.2	10.1	16.8	14.7	13.3	20.5
<b>Residence</b>	$\chi^2= 410.442; df=3 p*0.000$			$\chi^2= 1639.741; df=3 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 60.444; df=3 p*0.000$	
Northern Europe	49.3	53.2	98.5	67.9	31.6	49.5	30.8
Southern Europe	3.3	6.5	0.2	0.4	0.1	3.3	0
Central Europe	44.0	38.8	0.9	0.6	68.0	42.1	68.4
Others	3.4	1.5	0.4	31.2	0.4	5.1	0.9

Source: Own elaboration based on SPSS output

Table 4.3- Tripographic Profile.

	All n = 8991	Continent		Islands		Years	
		Faro n= 4451	Lisbon n= 545	Azores n=725	Madeira n=3270	2009/10 n=1350	2010/11 n=234
<b>Accommodation</b>		$\chi^2= 260.824; df=5 p*0.000$		$\chi^2=152.568; df=5 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 43.309; df=5 p*0.000$	
Hotel	44.1	26.4	58.0	61.9	61.8	31.6	47
Aparthotel	15.4	18	5.1	7.9	15.1	16.9	16.7
Rented House	12.6	19.6	6.8	3.4	6.0	12.7	18.4
Family/ friend's house	14.5	19.5	17.8	18.9	6.2	25.1	10.3
Own house	7.6	8.5	6.4	6.3	6.8	9.3	5.1
Other	5.9	8.0	5.9	1.5	4.1	4.4	2.6
<b>Regime</b>		$\chi^2= 224.439; df=5 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 195.392; df=5 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 49.011; df=5 p*0.000$	
No meals	36.0	45.1	19.4	11.6	31.8	34.6	42.7
Breakfast only	31.9	22.1	45.5	52.7	38.3	24.3	30.3
Half board	7.0	2.5	6.1	8.4	12.9	3.9	10.3
Full board	0.9	0.6	2.2	1.5	0.9	0.9	0.4
All inclusive	2.0	1.3	1.8	1.0	3.2	1.5	1.3
Others	22.3	28.4	25.0	24.8	12.9	34.9	15.0
<b>Travel purpose</b>		$\chi^2= 21.046; df=1 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 108.550; df=1 p*0.000$		$\chi^2= 21.820; df=1 p*0.000$	
Vacations/ Leisure	90.3	90.2	83.9	81.4	93.5	84.2	95.7
Visiting family and Friends	9.7	9.8	16.1	18.6	6.5	15.8	4.3
<b>Portugal was the final destination option</b>		$\chi^2= 1.707; df=1 p*0.191$		$\chi^2= 0.031; df=1 p*0.860$		$\chi^2= 0.240; df=1 p*0.624$	
Yes	87.3	85.8	83.7	89.8	89.6	90.9	91.9
No	12.7	14.2	16.3	10.2	10.4	9.1	8.1

Source: Own elaboration based on SPSS output

## **4.6 Data Analysis Procedures**

The data analysis procedures included four major steps, from descriptive analysis; preliminary data analysis, to model and hypothesis testing and multiple-group analysis. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 18.0 (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures 19.0 (AMOS) were used to test and measure the structural models (Jöreskog & Long, 1993).

### **4.6.1 Descriptive Analysis**

Descriptive statistics have different uses: first to explain the characteristics of the sample; second to test the variables for any violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical methods that were employed to address the research questions (Pallant, 2007).

This analysis includes central tendency measures such as means, median and mode; variability (dispersion) measures, such as, standard deviation, range of scores, and some information concerning the distribution of scores (Skewness and kurtosis) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Stevens, 2009). In the current study, descriptive statistics were first examined, with the aim of developing sample profiles based on socio-demographic and travel characteristics information.

### **4.6.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)**

According to Byrne (2010), Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is “a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the multivariate analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon” (p. 3). Essentially, SEM may be viewed as a combination of exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression analyses (Ullman, 2006).

There are at least two advantages to using SEM. First, SEM has the ability to incorporate latent variables, which are not measured directly in the analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, in addition to dealing with observed variables as most statistical tools can, SEM procedures allows the incorporation of latent constructs, which are constructs that cannot be directly measured (Byrne, 2010). Secondly, Hair *et al.* (2006) asserted that the

most obvious difference between SEM and other multivariate techniques is the use of separate relationships for each of a set of dependent variables. It estimates a series of separate, but interdependent, multiple regression equations simultaneously by specifying the structural model used by the statistics program.

Research indicates that a theory can be defined as a statement of relationships among constructs within a set of boundary assumptions and constraints (Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). From this definition, a theory can be decomposed into two parts: one that specifies relationships between theoretical constructs and another that describes relationships between constructs and indicators (Bagozzi & Lynn, 1982; Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). A construct which consists of relative indicators is defined as a conceptual term used to describe a phenomenon of theoretical interest (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). An indicator is defined as an observed score gathered through self-report, interview, observation, or some other means (Little, Lindenberge & Nesselroade, 1999). The nature of the construct depends on the nature of the indicators used in the construct that represent reflections, or manifestations, of a construct. Hence, variation in a construct leads to variation in its indicators (Bollen, 1989). Two types of constructs are broadly used in the literature, i.e. reflective and formative constructs (Roberts & Thatcher, 2009).

### **Reflective Construct.**

When different indicators of a construct represent reflections or manifestations of a construct (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Gefen, Straub & Boudreau, 2000) it is called a reflective construct. Such indicators are termed as reflective because they represent reflections. For example, destination loyalty in leisure and tourism is often operationalized with three reflective indicators (Chi & Qu, 2008; Zakbar, Brencic & Dmitrovic, 2010). Hence, an individual's change in the latent behavioural intention construct results in corresponding changes in each manifest indicator of intention. Reflective indicators should be internally consistent (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994); hence, it is expected that reflective indicators will be correlated. Since they are correlated, reflective indicators are interchangeable, meaning the removal of an indicator does not change the essential nature of the construct. Although every indicator need not be interchangeable, it is necessary to capture the domain space of the construct for proper operationalization (Roberts & Thatcher, 2009).

**Formative Construct.**

Constructs can also be viewed as being formed by their indicators (Bagozzi & Fornell, 1982). Such constructs are termed formative, meaning the construct is formed or induced by its measures (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Gefen *et al.*, 2000). Formative constructs are commonly conceived as composites of specific component variables or dimensions (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). Conceptually, formative indicators are assumed to be uncorrelated (Barclay, Higgins & Thompson, 1995). It is important to note that, although theoretically uncorrelated in practice, formative indicators may covary (Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). What is important to understand is that even if correlated, formative indicators are not interchangeable. In fact, removing a formative indicator implies removing a theoretically meaningful part of the construct (Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). For example, 'price' in consumer behaviour is used as monetary price and non-monetary price (Zeithaml, 1988). Its real meaning may vary with changes in any one of its directions (reference price). Alternately, at the organizational level, knowledge embeddedness may be defined in terms of planning, analysis, design, and construction knowledge (Purvis, Sambamurthy & Zmud, 2001). Hence, indicators of planning, analysis, design, and construction knowledge form the latent variable knowledge embeddedness.

The model proposed in this study is reflective in nature and presents causal relations from each latent variable to their respective manifest variables.

This model features 7 (seven) constructs and 18 (eighteen) indicators (final model).

Causal analysis aims to legitimize models that are supported by a theory, without aspirations to discovering the causes of something verified by reality. This paper sets out from the assumption that there are a series of premises (Bisquerra, 1989), which are:

- A temporal sequence between some variables, such that the causal variables must precede in time the variables that describe the effects;
- Any factor must be correlated with at least one certain effect factor;
- The only plausible explanation of any observed effect must reside in another causal effect, with no other acceptable alternatives.

The task is therefore to develop an analysis of causality between the constructs described in the designed model, and thus define scientific explanations of the phenomena, such that it can validate or not the hypotheses that define these models.

According to Bisquerra (1989) the steps to follow to carry out this task are:

- A specification of the conceptual model – this is the formal design of the theoretical model which tests the research questions and reflects the previously defined assumptions, starting from the theoretical framework under study. It develops a causal model, based on theory, which describes the structures of relations that, by selection of variables that best represent the problem to be analysed, we are attempting to measure.
- Model identification – this establishes a system/structural equation model (regression), so that it is possible to provide a solution for the parameters that comprise these structures.
- Parameter estimation – if the model meets the above requirement, parameters are estimated which make up the system of structural equations. This phase consists of obtaining estimates of the model parameters that best reproduce the data observed in the sample under analysis (Maroco, 2010).
- Model Evaluation – this is assessed to check how it fits the reality it is intended to describe, i.e. whether it is a simple but adequate representation of the phenomenon under study and if it fits the data collected properly. Under the assumption that the existence of the adaptation cannot be concluded safely, this process should be developed again until the proposed requirements are significantly met.

The statistical procedure for investigating relations between sets of observed and latent variables is that of factor analysis. There are two basic types of factor analyses: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is designed for the situation where links between the observed and latent variables are unknown or uncertain. The analysis thus proceeds in an exploratory mode to determine how, and to what extent, the observed variables are linked to their underlying factors. Typically, the researcher wishes to identify the minimal number of factors that underlie (or account for) covariation among the observed variables. (Hair *et al.*, 2006). In contrast to EFA, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is appropriately used when the researcher has some knowledge of the underlying latent variable structure. Based on knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both, the research postulates relations between the observed measures and the underlying factors a priori and then tests this hypothesized structure statistically (Bollen, 1989; Byrne, 2010).



In summary, then, the factor analytic model (EFA, CFA) focuses solely on how, and the extent to which, the observed variables are linked to their underlying latent factors. More specifically, it is concerned with the extent to which the observed variables are generated by the underlying latent constructs and thus the strength of the regression paths from the factors to the observed variables (the factor loadings) is of primary interest (Byrne, 2010).

Finally, the development of the complete structural model can be carried out, by establishing the relations between different constructs, and the statement of hypotheses of the impact of certain latent constructs on others.

According to Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson (2009) the factors that contribute most to the option of using this technique are: a) It is a direct method for simultaneously dealing with various types of variables, analysing the multiple relations they establish with each other and checking their statistical significance; b) It allows one to estimate these relations, in an understandable way, and establish the transition from exploratory to confirmatory analysis. According to these authors, this technique is particularly useful to verify the most complex theoretical models in which the dependent variables become independent in subsequent dependency relations. The use of structural equation analysis is subject to observation with a set of basic assumptions, namely: the independence of observations; random sampling of respondents; and the linearity of all relations. In addition to these conditions, another important assumption in structural equation models concerns the sample size. According to Hair *et al.* (2009) the sample must be close to 200 observations, or at least five observations per estimated parameter, and the ideal number would be 10 observations per parameter.

As mentioned above, structural equation modelling simultaneously examines a series of dependency relations which are empirically tested by means of a model implementing a theory which supports the phenomena studied.

The objective of the model is to provide a representation of the relations to be examined, and which is formalized by means of a path diagram or a set of structural equations.

Via confirmatory factor analysis, incorporated into the structural equation model, we seek to describe the relations between two types of variables: the observable/manifest and the latent. As already mentioned, the first can be measured directly, while latent variables express theoretical concepts (constructs) which are not subject to direct observation and

need to be reduced to specific empirical indicators. The general structural equation model can be decomposed into two submodels: a measurement model, and a structural model. (Hair *et al.*, 2009): 1) the measurement model defines relations between the observed and unobserved variables. In other words, it provides the link between scores on a measuring instrument (i.e. the observed indicator variables) and the underlying constructs they are designed to measure (i.e., the unobserved latent variables) and 2) the measurement model, then, represents the CFA model described earlier in that it specifies the pattern by which each measure loads on a particular factor.

The general strategic framework for testing structural equation models (Jöreskog & Long, 1993) distinguished among three scenarios which he termed strictly confirmatory (SC), alternative models (AM), and model generating (MG). In the strictly confirmatory scenario, the researcher postulates a single model based on theory, collects the appropriate data, and then tests the fit of the hypothesized model to the sample data. From the results of this test, the researcher either rejects or fails to reject the model; no further modifications to the model are made. In the alternative models case, the researcher proposes several alternative (i.e. competing) models, all of which are grounded in theory.

Following analysis of a single set of empirical data, he or she selects one model as most appropriate in representing the sample data. Finally, the model-generating scenario represents the case where the researcher, having postulated and rejected a theoretically derived model on the basis of its poor fit to the sample data, proceeds in an exploratory (rather than confirmatory) fashion to modify and reestimate the model (Byrne, 2010: 8). The primary focus, in this instance, is to locate the source of misfit in the model and to determine a model that better describes the sample data. (Jöreskog & Long, 1993) noted that, although respecification may be either theory or data driven, the ultimate objective is to find a model that is both substantively meaningful and statistically well fitting. He further posited that despite the fact that “a model is tested in each round, the whole approach is model generating, rather than model testing” (Jöreskog & Long, 1993: 295).

To carry out this strategy, the various steps suggested in the literature on structural equation modelling were followed (Hair *et al.*, 2009):

**First and Second steps: Definition of Individual Constructs and Path Diagram.**

The first step is to present the conceptual model developed from a set of theoretical assumptions made based on the literature review. This model, theoretically supported, defines the covariance structures to be measured and evaluated. Schematic representations of models are termed path diagrams because they provide a visual portrayal of relations which are assumed to be held among the variables under study.

By convention, circles (or ellipses) represent unobserved latent factors, squares (or rectangles) represent observed variables, single-headed arrows ( $\rightarrow$ ) represent the impact of one variable on another, and double-headed arrows ( $\leftrightarrow$ ) represent covariances or correlations between pairs of variables.

The analysis of the nature and type of variables in the model is a relevant element in the application of this technique. It is helpful while working with SEM models to distinguish between latent variables that are exogenous and those that are endogenous. Exogenous latent variables are synonymous with independent variables; they “cause” fluctuations in the values of other latent variables in the model. Changes in the values of exogenous variables are not explained by the model. Rather, they are considered to be influenced by other factors external to the model. Background variables such as gender, age, and socioeconomic status are examples of such external factors. Endogenous latent variables are synonymous with dependent variables and, as such, are influenced by the exogenous variables in the model, either directly or indirectly.

Fluctuation in the values of endogenous variables is said to be explained by the model because all latent variables that influence them are included in the model specification.

**Third Step: Development of Measurement Model and Structural Model.**

The structural equation model can be organized into two sub-models according to the relational structure between variables: the measurement submodel and structural submodel. The measurement submodel defines how the constructs or latent variables are operated on by the manifest variables, while the structural submodel defines the causal relation or association between the latent variables (Maroco, 2010).

The structural equation model estimation takes place in two steps: the first step estimates the measurement model and, secondly, the structural model is estimated (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

### **Model Specification.**

The measurement model indicates which manifest variables measure the latent variables and how the former operate on the latent variables with which they are associated. In the measurement model specification stage, the researcher designates the manifest variables and defines a number of relations which suggest how they represent and operate on certain constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

The main objective of the measurement model lies in ascertaining the appropriateness of items/indicators used to measure the latent variables with which they are associated (if significant), if they measure what they are supposed to measure (unidimensionality) and whether each construct has satisfactory reliability, allowing relations to be estimated in subsequent steps.

The evaluation of the fit of a theoretical measurement model to the correlational structure between the manifest variables is done via confirmatory factor analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis is a technique that allows us to confirm or reject the theoretical assumptions underlying the proposed model by verifying the adequacy of each integral construct in the model. CFA is achieved via a set of procedures, which are: the analysis of fit measurements (analysis does not go ahead if the measurement model does not attain acceptable levels); the analysis of unidimensionality; and the analysis of reliability and validity (these concepts will be explained in more detail in the next section). CFA is usually used as a validation tool of latent variables and evaluation of measurement scales (Hair *et al.*, 2009; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

### **Structural Model Specification.**

The structural model evaluates the causal or association relations between latent variables. The structural model specification corresponds to the representation, in equations, of the relations defined in the path diagram. This specification is done by designating relations of one construct to another, based on the proposed theoretical model (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

In the specification process, it must be determined which parameters are null, which effects are pre-set to a constant (usually 1) and which parameters are to be estimated.

#### **Fourth Step: Choosing the Data Matrix and Estimation of the Model.**

“The estimation phase consists of obtaining estimates of the model parameters to best reproduce the data observed in the sample under analysis” (Maroco, 2010: 34). The objective is to find a set of estimates of the model parameters (factor weights, regression coefficients, covariances, means, etc.) which maximize the probability of observing the correlational structure of manifest variables observed in the sample. The process starts with the choice of type of data matrix to be used as the basis of the estimation process. The choice of the data matrix depends on the nature and aims of the study and two options can be considered: the correlation matrix and the covariance matrix (Hair *et al.*, 2009). Both have advantages and disadvantages. When the goal of the research is to test a theory, it is more appropriate to use the covariance matrix. When the goal is more towards seeking to understand the relation between the constructs of a model, it is more appropriate to use the correlation matrix (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

The next phase involves the choice of the most appropriate method for estimating the structural model (Hair *et al.*, 2009). There are several estimation methods, based on minimizing the discrepancy functions between the sample covariance matrix and the covariance matrix implied by the model (Ullman, 2006): Maximum Likelihood, Weighted Least Squares, Generalized Least Squares, and Unweighted Least Squares.

In this study, the method of Maximum Likelihood was used because it is one of the most often used in structural equation modelling (Ullman, 2006) and produces estimates of centred and consistent parameters when the manifest variables have normal multivariate distribution (Maroco, 2010).

#### **Fifth Step: Structural Model Identification.**

The diagnostic phase of the model identification check is one of the most important phases in the application of the structural equation modelling technique. In general, a model is identified when it is able to generate unique estimates, that is, meaningful and logical ones (Hair *et al.*, 2009) for each parameter to be calculated. For a model to be identified, the number of known parameters (unique variance/covariance) must equal the number of parameters to be estimated (Hair *et al.*, 2009). In a sub-identified model there

are more parameters to be estimated than elements in the covariance/variance matrix. When the number of degrees of freedom of a model is negative, i.e. when the number of parameters to be estimated is higher than the number of data, the model is said to be "unidentified" (Maroco, 2010: 30).

### **Sixth Step: Evaluation of Model Fit Measurements.**

“The evaluation phase of model quality aims to evaluate how well the theoretical model is able to reproduce the correlational structure of the manifest variables in the sample under study” (Maroco, 2010: 40). In the study of Structural Equation Modelling, model quality evaluation is surely one of the least consensual areas among experts. This lack of consensus has given rise to numerous simulation and empirical observation studies suggesting different strategies and recommendations for analysing the goodness-of-fit (see e.g. Barrett, 2007; Bentler, 1990; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; McIntosh, 2007, among other). Currently, the literature contains dozens of statistics that can be used to assess goodness-of-fit and can be calculated by most SEM software.

The set of fit measurements most frequently used can be classified into three groups: absolute measurements, incremental measures and parsimony fit measurements (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

A check of compliance of the researcher’s theory with reality is made by comparing the estimated covariance matrix and the observed covariance matrix.

If the matrices were equal, this would mean that the theory perfectly fitted the reality (the data) and the model fit was perfect. Thus, as a general criterion, the closer the values between the matrices, the better the model fit.

The evaluation of the mode’s goodness-of-fit must use at least one incremental index, one absolute index, and one index on poor goodness-of-fit, in addition to the value of  $\chi^2$  and associated degrees of freedom (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

### **Assessment of Model Fit.**

The absolute fit measures provide information on the extent to which the model as a whole provides an acceptable fit to the data. Different indices are used to assess measurement and structural model fit as recommended by some researchers (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

i)  $\chi^2$  Goodness-of-fit test – The most significant absolute goodness-of-fit index is the  $\chi^2$  statistic. It is also the only SEM fit measurement of a statistical nature. “The  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit test is a test of significance of the minimized discrepancy function during model fit” (Maroco, 2010: 41). The non-statistical problem is then to assess whether the adjusted model is reasonable, i.e., whether it is a simple but adequate representation of the phenomenon under study and if it adequately fits the collected data (MacCallum, 2003; Steiger, 2007). The difference in covariance matrices is the key element in the assessment of goodness-of-fit in any SEM model (Hair *et al.*, 2009). A chi-square test ( $\chi^2$ ) provides a statistical test of the difference between the covariances and is formally represented by the following equation:  $\chi^2 = (N - 1) (S - \Sigma_k)$ :

where N is the sample size, S the observed sample covariance matrix,  $\Sigma$  the covariance matrix estimated and k is the number of free parameters to be estimated. It should be noted that the  $\chi^2$  value increases with the size of the sample even when the differences in the covariance matrices remain constant. The estimated SEM covariance matrix is also influenced by the number of free parameters (the k in  $\Sigma$ ), and thus the degrees of freedom of the model also influence the goodness-of-fit test. Here, similarity between matrices is sought, i.e. a low  $\chi^2$ , to support the model as representative of the data.  $\chi^2$  increases with the sample size and with the increase in the number of observed variables, and may therefore signal a less suitable fit with no justification. In this context, the  $\chi^2$  test should not be used as the sole indicator for assessing the goodness-of-fit, and confirmation via alternative fit measurements is advised (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

ii) The Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) is a measurement of the variance and covariance that are accounted for by the predicted model (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1983). The GFI values range between 0 and 1 and values closer to 1 represent a good fit. The recommended threshold value for the GFI is .95 or above (Hair *et al.*, 2006). Like the Chi-Square test, the GFI is sensitive to sample size and should be interpreted with caution (Byrne, 2010).

iii) Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) – The RMR and the SRMR are the square root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesised covariance model. The range of the RMR is calculated based upon the scales of each indicator; therefore, if a questionnaire contains items with varying levels (some items may range from 1 – 5 while others range from 1 – 7) the RMR becomes difficult to interpret (Kline, 2005). The standardised RMR (SRMR) resolves this problem and is therefore much more meaningful

to interpret. Values for the SRMR range from 0 to 1.0 with well-fitting models obtaining values less than .05 (Byrne, 1998), however values as high as 0.08 are deemed acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). An SRMR of 0 indicates perfect fit but it must be noted that SRMR will be lower when there is a high number of parameters in the model and in models based on large sample sizes.

iv) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) – The RMSEA tells us how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates, would fit the population covariance matrix (Byrne, 2010). In recent years it has become regarded as ‘one of the most informative fit indices’ (Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw, 2000: 85) due to its sensitivity to the number of estimated parameters in the model. In other words, the RMSEA favours parsimony in that it will choose the model with the lower number of parameters. Recommendations for RMSEA cut-off points have been reduced considerably in the last fifteen years. Up until the early nineties, an RMSEA in the range of 0.05 to 0.10 was considered an indication of fair fit and values above 0.10 indicated poor fit (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996). It was then thought that an RMSEA of between 0.08 to 0.10 provides a mediocre fit and below 0.08 shows a good fit (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996). However, more recently, a cut-off value close to .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) or a stringent upper limit of 0.07 (Steiger, 2007) seems to be the general consensus amongst authorities in this area.

One of the greatest advantages of the RMSEA is its ability for a confidence interval to be calculated around its value (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996; Hair *et al.*, 2009). This is possible due to the known distribution values of the statistic and subsequently allows for the null hypothesis (poor fit) to be tested more precisely (McQuitty, 2004). It is generally reported in conjunction with the RMSEA and in a well-fitting model the lower limit is close to 0 while the upper limit should be less than 0.08.



### **Incremental Fit Indices.**

Incremental fit indices, also known as comparative (Miles & Shevlin, 2007) or relative fit indices (McDonald & Ho, 2002), are a group of indices that do not use the chi-square in its raw form but compare the chi-square value to a baseline model. For these models the null hypothesis is that all variables are uncorrelated (McDonald & Ho, 2002; Hair *et al.*, 2009).

a)) This statistic assesses the model by comparing the  $\chi^2$  value of the model to the  $\chi^2$  of the null model. The null/independence model is the worst case scenario as it specifies that all measured variables are uncorrelated. Values for this statistic range between 0 and 1 with Bentler & Bonnet (1980) recommending values greater than 0.90 indicating a good fit. More recent suggestions state that the cut-off criteria should be  $NFI \geq .95$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999). A major drawback to this index is that it is sensitive to sample size, underestimating fit for samples less than 200 (Mulaik et al, 1989; Bentler, 1990), and is thus not recommended to be solely relied on (Kline, 2005). This problem was rectified by the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI, also known as the Tucker-Lewis index), an index that prefers simpler models. However, in situations where small samples are used, the value of the NNFI can indicate poor fit despite other statistics pointing towards good fit (Bentler, 1990; Kline, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A final problem with the NNFI is that due to its non-normed nature, values can go above 1.0 and can thus be difficult to interpret (Byrne, 2010). Recommendations as low as 0.80 as a cut-off have been proffered. However, Hu & Bentler (1999) have suggested  $NNFI \geq 0.95$  as the threshold.

$$NFI = 1 - \chi^2 / \chi^2_b$$

b) Comparative Fit Index (CFI) – The Comparative Fit Index (Bentler, 1990) is a revised form of the normed fit index (NFI) which takes into account sample size (Byrne, 2010) and which performs well even when the sample size is small (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This index was first introduced by Bentler (1990) and subsequently included as part of the fit indices in his EQS program (Kline, 2005). Like the NFI, this statistic assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated (null/independence model) and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model. As with the NFI, values for this statistic range between 0.0 and 1.0 with values closer to 1.0 indicating good fit. A cut-off criterion of  $CFI \geq 0.90$  was initially advanced but recent studies have shown that a value greater than 0.90 is needed in order to ensure that mis-specified models are not accepted (Hu &

Bentler, 1999). From this, a value of  $CFI \geq 0.95$  is presently recognised as indicative of good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Today this index is included in all SEM programs and is one of the most popularly reported fit indices due to its being one of the measures least effected by sample size (Fan, Thompson & Wang, 1999).

iii) Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) – The TLI, sometimes called the Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index (NNFI), is similar to the NFI. However, the index is lower, and hence the model is regarded as less acceptable if the model is complex. According to Marsh, Balla & McDonald (1988), the TFL is relatively independent of sample size. The TFI is usually lower than the GFI – but values over .90 or over .95 are considered acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

### **Parsimonious Goodness-of-Fit Indices.**

This index group is designed specifically to help us ascertain which among a set of alternative models is better when considering the fit related to its complexity. “The parsimony indices are obtained by correction of the relative indices with a penalty factor associated with the complexity of the model” (Maroco, 2010: 46). It is reflected in an improvement of the fit resulting from the presence of a better fit or the creation of a simpler model (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

The parsimonious goodness-of-fit indices are conceptually very similar to the notion of an adjusted  $R^2$  in that both relate the model fit with its complexity.

The parsimony ratio (PR) – The ratio of the degrees of freedom used by a model to the total of degrees of freedom available is called a parsimony ratio and is the basis of these measures.

i) Parsimonious Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI) – The PGFI adjusts the GFI using the parsimony ratio (PR). Theoretically values vary between 0 and 1.

In this context, two models can be compared and the one with the larger PGFI is preferable, based on the combination of fit and parsimony represented by this index. The use of the PGFI in isolation is neither a useful nor reliable indicator for model fit. As with other parsimonious goodness-of-fit indices, the PGFI should be used only when comparing with the PGFI of another model.

ii) The Parsimonious Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI) – which takes values between 0 and 1 and the closer to unity, the better the model fit. If there is a drop in PGFI as compared to GFI, the overall fit of the model can be questioned (Hair *et al.*, 2006).

Parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI) – is a modification of NFI and is mainly used to compare alternative models with different degrees of freedom. Higher values of PNFI are better, though there are no recommended levels of acceptable fit. However, when comparing models, differences of .06 to .09 are considered to be indicative of substantial model differences (Hair *et al.*, 2006).

The PNFI represents an improvement on the normed fit index (NFI) by multiplying it by the parsimony ration (PR). As with the PGFI, relatively high values indicate a better degree of fit, and can therefore be used in the same way the NFI. The PNFI index is a relative index, and so the PNFI values of a model must be used in comparison with another model, with higher PNFI values reflecting a better fit.

The PNFI is the most widely used parsimony fit index.

### **Model Respecification.**

Evaluation of the fit indices allows us to check the respecification of the initial model by introducing changes is necessary or not, with a view to adapting the constructs to the general model. In general, an initial model rarely presents a ‘good’ level of fit to the data. This means that the adjusted model is not appropriate to explain the correlational structure of observed variables in that particular sample, while it is not possible to conclude that the model is completely wrong. It is possible, by introducing some changes, to respecify the model so that the fit improves significantly.

The respecification phase should start the process again, following the path described here to move again onto the phase of evaluating the fit of the revised model. If the new fit measurements are satisfactory, the researcher should check whether the main relations proposed by the theory were confirmed within the minimum threshold of significance, whether competing models contribute to alternative formulations of the theory, and whether the hypothesized relations are in the expected direction (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

Regardless of the answer to these questions, there may be reasons that lead the researcher to adjust the model, and so options exist to generate modification indices suggesting

changes to the model in order to obtain a better fit. In this way the adjusted model needs to be validated on a sample independent from that on which the model was adjusted (Maroco, 2010). An oft-adopted solution consists of a cross-validation strategy using two subsamples (dividing the sample in half), the first sub-sample having the first 50% of cases and the second subsample the last 50%. If the adjusted model in the first sample shows a good fit in the second, it can be concluded that the model is invariant (maintains structure) on the two subsamples, and if these are representative of the population, the model is valid for the population which is the object of the study (Maroco, 2010).

Finally, taking into account the techniques to be used and the importance of obtaining reliable and robust results, it is indispensable to conduct an analysis of issues related to the validity and reliability of measures.

### **Validity and Internal Consistency of Measurement Scales.**

#### **Validity.**

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the real world (Hair *et al.*, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2008). “Validity is the property of the instrument or measurement scale that assesses whether it measures and is indeed the operationalization of the latent construct which is actually to be assessed” (Maroco, 2010: 175). The concept of validity aims to assess to what extent a given set of indicators associated with a particular latent variable effectively measure the theoretical concept which they are supposed to measure, and not another. Therefore it is said that an indicator has validity if it is a true indicator of the variable that the researcher intends to measure (Hill & Shih, 2009).

There are two approaches to validation of an instrument: content validity and construct validity.

Content validity arises when there is widespread consensus among the researchers that the instrument contains the items that cover all aspects of the variable being measured (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Content validity is the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content. The key to content validity lies in the procedures that are used to develop the instrument. If the instrument contains a representative sample of all related items under study, then the content validity is good (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Content or expression validity is an essential component of

construct validity: if a measurement scale does not have content validity, it cannot have construct validity regardless of the results of the statistical analysis (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). In this study, the content analysis problem did not arise because we used scales which had already been used and tested by other authors in other research.

According to Maroco (2010), the validity related to the construct is, in turn, determined by three components: factorial validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity. The first occurs when the specification of items of a particular construct is correct (i.e. the items measure the latent factor as intended) and it is generally evaluated by standard factor weights.

According with (Hulland, 1999), when multiple measures are used for an individual construct, the researcher should be concerned not only individual measurement item reliability, but also with the extent to which the measures demonstrate convergent validity. We are in the presence of convergent validity when a set of indicators represents one and the same underlying construct, and this representation can be demonstrated by means of its unidimensionality (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). Convergent validity reflects the existence of a high positive correlation between the chosen set of indicators to measure the same concept (Götz, Liehr-gobbers & Krafft, 2010). Fornell & Larcker (1981) suggest average variance extracted (AVE) as the most appropriate criterion to evaluate convergent validity. When the average variance extracted (AVE) has a value of 0.5 or higher, this indicates the existence of sufficient convergent validity, meaning that the latent variable explains, on average, more than half the variance of its indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Götz *et al.*, 2010; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011).

Discriminant validity, in turn, evaluates the extent to which a particular latent variable is unique and different from others, i.e. to what extent two distinct constructs actually measure different concepts. Discriminant validity aims at demonstrating that a measure does not correlate with another measure from which no theoretical relationships are expected (Hair *et al.*, 2006).

In terms of discriminant validity, two criteria are usually used: the Fornell & Larcker criterion (1981), which has gained increasing popularity over the last decade, and the cross-loadings criterion, which can be considered generically more liberal in terms of discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2011). The Fornell-Larcker criterion (1981) maintains that a latent variable shares more variance with its respective indicators than any other

latent variable (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Henseler *et al.*, 2009). In practical terms this means that the average variance extracted (AVE) of each latent variable must be greater than the quadratic estimation of the correlations between the variable and the remaining constructs of the model. The differentiation between the correlations of constructs and the square root of the AVE of a given construct thus constitutes one of the assessment instruments of discriminant validity. The second criterion for assessing discriminant validity is processed by analysing the cross-loadings. The discriminant validity is established when AVE values exceed the square of the correlations between each pair of latent constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

According to this criterion, it can be expected that the loading of each indicator on the construct to which it is associated will be higher than the loading of this indicator on any of the remaining constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Götz *et al.*, 2010).

In this context, the researcher should reconsider the measurement model if an indicator has a lower correlation (loading) with the respective construct than its correlations with any of the other constructs. Thus, loadings (correlations) of the indicators on their constructs should be higher than the loadings observed between these indicators and other constructs.

There is another type of validity which it is also necessary to assess. This is nomological validity. This validity, according to Hair *et al.* (2009) determines to what extent the theoretical relations proposed from previous research and/or accepted principles are confirmed by the scales used. The assessment of nomological validity may be carried out by observing some constructs relative to other constructs that they must predict.

### **Internal Consistency/Reliability**

A necessary (but not adequate) condition for scale validity is that they are reliable: a measurement is reliable when it is error-free and provides consistent results (Peter, 1979), i.e. Reliability is the degree to which a measurement instrument is free from error and therefore yields consistent results (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Zikmund, 2003). Further reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair *et al.*, 2006). Reliability is a necessary contributor to validity but not a sufficient condition (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

“The reliability of an instrument refers to the property of consistency and reproducibility of the measurement” (Maroco, 2010:174).

The individual internal consistency of each indicator reveals the extent to which its variance can be explained by the latent variable with which it is associated. The individual internal consistency of indicators is assessed by analysing the factorial loadings (or simple correlation) of the manifest variables with their constructs (Hulland, 1999), i.e. the assessment of the contributions of the indicators on the latent variables to which they are linked.

According to Hulland (1999: 198) “A rule of thumb employed by many researchers is to accept items with loadings of 0.7 or more, which implies that there is more shared variance between the construct and its measure than error variance”. As the factorial loadings are correlations, this implies that more than 50% of the variance in the manifest variable (i.e., the square of the loading) is due to the construct with which it is associated (Hulland, 1999), that is, the variable latent should explain a significant proportion of each indicator (usually at least 50%) (Henseler *et al.*, 2009). Thus, for an indicator to be safely accepted as part of the construct, it must have a standardized loading factor equal to or greater than 0.7.

There are, in general, three main methods to measure the reliability of a measurement scale: test-retest, parallel forms (equivalent); and internal consistency (Cooper & Schindler, 1998). The current study measurements were evaluated for reliability by using Cronbach’s Alpha, which is a technique that calculates the mean reliability coefficient for all possible ways of splitting a set of items into two halves (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). An Alpha of 0.70 or above is considered acceptable as a good indicator of reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In other words, high Alpha scores mean more internal reliability in the measurement scale whereas a low Alpha indicates that the items used do not really capture the construct and some items may have to be eliminated to improve the Alpha level. However, according with Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) and Hair *et al.* (2006) the lower limit for Cronbach’s alpha is 0.70. Bryman & Bell (2003) asserted that the figure 0.080 is typically employed as a rule of thumb to denote an acceptable level of internal reliability.

In this context, each reflective indicator should provide a high level of correlation (factor loading) with the corresponding latent variable in order to contribute to the formation of

the attitude which is to be measured. It should also display strong correlation with other indicators (internal consistency) on the assumption that each item measures something in common with the other items and that what is measured in common by these indicators is the construct which is intended to be measured. As a result of this analysis it will be possible to identify the indicators that do not contribute to the formation and interpretation of constructs that are linked, and exclude them from the model.

#### **4.6.3 Multiple-Group Analysis (MGA)**

“Multiple-group analysis aims to assess whether the structure of the measurement model or the structural model is equal (invariant) in different groups or populations with different characteristics” (Maroco, 2010: 275). Groups may be formed from a general sample divided according to a significant logical feature such as gender, nationality, or other (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

Groups may be formed from a large sample divided randomly into two sub-samples in order to allow cross-validation, or they may be constituted from different samples which are obtained in order to assess similarities or differences between populations.

Byrne (2010) argues that the main concern in multiple-group analysis is whether the components of the measurement model and/or the structural model are invariant, i.e. equivalent between groups. According to this author, the tests of invariance in multiple group analysis amount to answering five questions (Byrne, 2010: 197):

- a) Do the items that make up a particular measurement tool act equivalently in distinct populations?
- b) Is the factorial structure, whether a single tool or a construct measured by multiple tools, equivalent between distinct populations?
- c) Are certain paths in a specific causal structure equivalent between different populations?
- d) Are the average values of specific constructs different in distinct populations?
- e) Is the factorial structure of a measurement tool replicated in independent samples of the same population?



When two groups are derived from the same original sample, this approach is often used to confirm the quality of the model's specification. If the fit indices do not differ significantly between the two groups and, at the same time, these indices do not differ from levels obtained from the initial sample, then we have minimal evidence of cross-validation (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

According to Maroco (2010), the most appropriate strategy for confirming or otherwise the invariance of the measurement model can be carried out in two steps:

- i) By an analysis of the factorial model in each of the groups separately: in this case the parameters are free and  $\chi^2$  statistics obtained for each group are additive. The 'equivalent' model should be selected for both groups;
- ii) Multiple-group analysis: in this phase we move onto introducing the constraint parameters for the selected model in the first step in order to test the invariance hypothesis.

This two-step strategy enables efficient estimation (i.e. with minimum variance) of the parameters imposing restrictions to the factorial structure.

The first step consists of free cross-validation by applying Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to the measurement model to each group or sub-sample separately. This model is tested by comparing two sub-samples (groups) which may differ by any specific characteristic (e.g. gender, age group, nationality or other). If there are no restrictions to the model's parameters, i.e. all the parameters are free, the group analysis can be done individually on each group. However, an understanding of the factors that give rise to non-invariance requires further analysis, i.e. the introduction of restrictions on one or more parameters so as to identify the causes of non-equivalence. In a scenario of restrictions on the model's parameters between groups, analysis must take into account all groups' information simultaneously to obtain efficient estimates (i.e. with minimal variance) of the parameters.

In this context, multiple-group analysis begins with a simultaneous comparison of the 'model' fit between the different groups (Hair *et al.*, 2009; Maroco, 2010).

According to Maroco (2010), this simultaneous analysis is conducted by gradually introducing ordered restrictions of increasing complexity:

- i) to the factorial weights. This test restricts the estimates of factorial weights being equal in each group;
- ii) to the factorial weights and covariance of the factors of a measurement model – with the aim of assessing whether the measurement model is invariant between groups;
- iii) to the structural coefficients – with the aim of assessing whether the supposed causal relationships are invariant between groups;
- iv) to the variance/covariance – with the aim of assessing whether the structure of the model residuals remains invariant in different groups (rare).

### **Measurement Model Invariance**

Invariance analysis of the measurement model is intended to show that the proposed model is invariant between the groups, i.e. that the factorial weights did not differ significantly between groups. If the test results lead to the conclusion that there is non-equivalence between the groups the process ends at this point. According to Jöreskog & Long (1993), only when the null hypothesis (invariance between groups) is rejected in the omnibus test, should one proceed with the study of model invariance (Maroco, 2010). If  $H_0$  is rejected, the next step ensues, consisting of testing the invariance of factorial weights of the measurement model. Now the test of invariance of factorial weights of the measurement model is carried out, conditioned by the equality restrictions of the factorial weights of all groups, i.e. the factorial estimates should be equal in all groups. The equivalence of factorial weights is tested by examining the effect of the restriction introduced in relation to the fit of the free model.

If the factorial equivalence hypothesis is rejected, the group comparison process ends here. If, on the other hand, the hypothesis of factorial invariance is not rejected, we should proceed to the next phase and try to assess the possible invariance of specific factors.

If the equivalence of factorial weights is upheld, the next step is an examination of the equivalence of covariance between factors with the introduction of another restriction. Now the model should be estimated by adding the restriction that the covariance matrix between factors of a group is equivalent to the covariance matrix of another group (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

If equivalence is confirmed, we can move to the final phase which consists of introducing a new restriction (fixed residuals) with a view to checking whether or not there is variance equivalence of error/residuals. It should be pointed out, however, that although the error variance associated with each manifest variable is an integral part of the measurement model, testing its equivalence between groups is considered excessively restrictive and therefore this practice is rarely applied (Byrne 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2009).

### **Structural Model Invariance**

Multiple-group analysis can also be performed by comparing structural paths between latent variables in a general structural equation model or between manifest variables, in the particular case of pathway analysis (Maroco, 2010). The standard procedure for testing a structural model within multiple-group analysis is to adjust a model in which the parameters are estimated independently for all groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, the model should initially be tested separately, so that all relationships can be freely estimated in each group. In the second phase, we proceed to model estimation, introducing a restriction which fixes the structural coefficients. It is observed whether this restriction (structural coefficient equality) adversely affects the model fit or not. The effect of the restriction on the fit may be estimated by  $\Delta\chi^2$ . If this effect proves to be significant, this indicates that the introduced restriction adversely affects the model fit.

For the structural model the procedure is similar to that previously presented for the measurement model. The same theoretical assumptions can be addressed, and the free parameters defined and fixed for each group.

Comparison is possible after model estimation. If the restricted model (structural coefficients equality) fits as well as the original model (free parameters), then the result is consistent with the invariant structural parametric estimates and does not support the prediction (theoretical assumptions of the researcher). If, however, the restricted model reveals a significantly poorer degree of fit than the original model, this means that a solution in which the parameters have distinct values in each group seems more appropriate. (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

The model allows us to analyse specific relationships between constructs, confirming or invalidating the hypotheses raised by the researcher, by the introduction of restrictions on these relations, imposing equality on these coefficients. The model further allows us to

assess the moderating effect of one or other specific construct. When an equality restriction is imposed on the relationship between two constructs which adversely affects the model fit, this leads to two conclusions: i) that the model has better fit when relations between the constructs are distinct; ii) that the best fit is due to the effect of the moderating variable (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

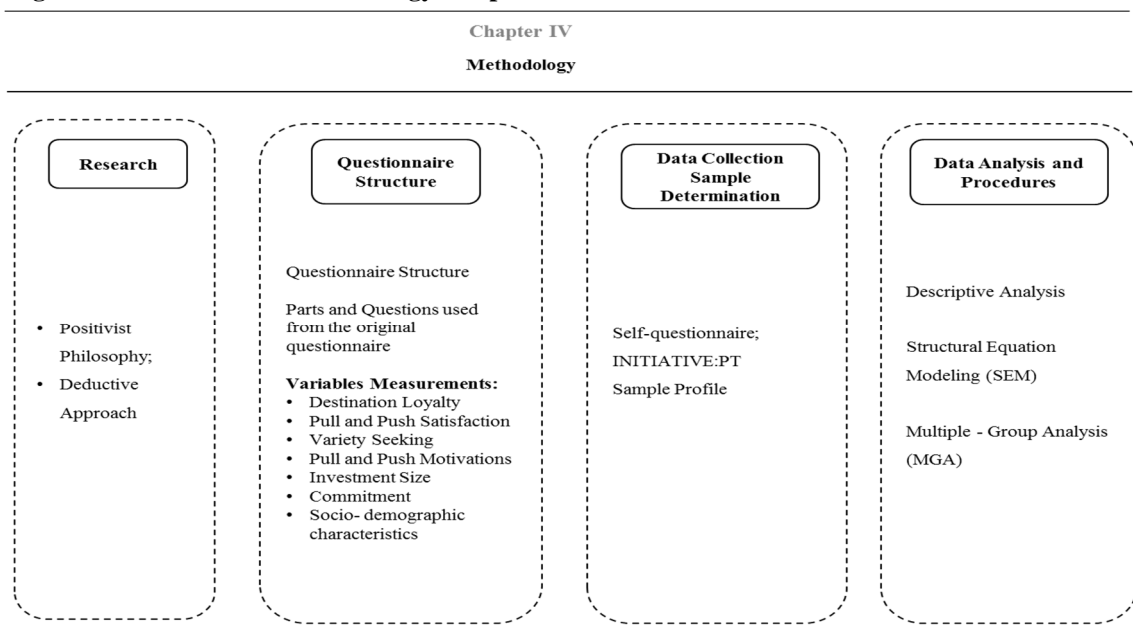
#### 4.7 Summary

This chapter starts with the research paradigm. The positivistic philosophy was the appropriate paradigm to explore the causal relationships among the different determinants of the destination loyalty process. Next the research approach, based on deductive paradigm was presented and justified.

This chapter also examined the study instruments used in this research. This chapter has defined the questionnaire composed by six parts, justified the main parts of the survey that were considered for data analysis and are summarized considering the questionnaire parts, questions and also the scales. Additionally, in this part the measurement of the research variables is also explained, namely: destination loyalty; variety seeking; pull and push motivations; investment size; and commitment.

In the data analysis procedures section, the statistical techniques used in data analysis were examined for their purpose and benefits of uses in this study. The statistical method used to test hypotheses in the thesis (Structural Equation Models) was also discussed in depth including various issues such as the application of SEM. Employing the research methodology proposed in this chapter, data analysis in terms of data descriptive, measurement model, hypothesis testing (SEM) and a comparison of different perspectives (multiple group analysis) was described and discussed considering the different objectives of the present research.

**Figure 4.2- Structure of Methodology Chapter.**



Source: Own elaboration

## **CHAPTER V: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter sets out the findings by presenting the quantitative analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire survey in order to test the dimensional structure of destination loyalty. The proposed research model (see Chapter III) will be tested, by using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (Hair *et al.*, 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Because of this, SEM will be used to analyse the data and it therefore helps to generate the model using AMOS software version 19.0. This provides users with powerful and easy-to-use software. It creates more realistic models than using standard multivariate statistics or multiple regression models alone. By using AMOS, users can specify, estimate, assess, and present the model in an intuitive path diagram to show hypothesized relationships among variables (Arbuckle, 2005).

Additionally, the results of the Multiple Group Analysis in structural equation modelling will be presented to understand how the relationships among satisfaction, motivation, variety-seeking, investment size and commitment affects tourists' loyalty behaviour over the years, and vary across regions.

### **5.2 Preliminary Analysis**

A SEM that is typically used to test theory is applicable for this research because it can simultaneously specify the relationship between latent variables representing the theoretical concept in the proposed conceptual model of this research.

A two-stage process recommended by Anderson & Gerbing (1988) for conducting SEM was undertaken in this research. Specifically, the measures for each individual construct were purified based on the measurement model prior to test the structural model. First the measurement model was tested using Confirmatory Factor Analysis to establish the reliability and validity of the measures. Subsequently, the test of the structural model which incorporates the hypothesised relationship among the latent constructs was undertaken with the use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

However, before conduction of SEM analysis, a preliminary data analysis should be examined, such as checking sample size and missing data, absence of outliers and so on (Ullman, 2006). The presence of missing data can occur for a wide variety of reasons that are usually beyond the researcher's control. Some examples are as follows: absence on the day of data collection, failure to answer certain items in the questionnaire, refusal to answer sensitive items related to one's age and/or income, equipment failure or malfunction, attrition of subjects (e.g., the family moved away, the individual no longer wishes to participate, or the subject dies), and so on. In contrast, data may be incomplete by design, a situation in which the researcher is in total control. Two examples suggested by Kline (2005) include the case where (a) a questionnaire is excessively long and the researcher decides to administer only a subset of items to each of several different subsamples, and (b) a relatively inexpensive measure is administered to the entire sample, whereas another more expensive test is administered to a smaller set of randomly selected subjects.

The most popular method for dealing with incomplete data is that of listwise deletion. Such popularity likely got its jumpstart in the 1980s, when numerous articles appeared in the SEM literature detailing various problems that can occur when the analysis of covariance structures is based on incomplete data (Bentler & Chou, 1987). Because SEM models are based on the premise that the covariance matrix follows a Wishart distribution (Brown, 1994; Jöreskog & Long, 1993), complete data are required for the probability density. In meeting this requirement, researchers have therefore sought to modify incomplete data sets, either through removal of cases or the substitution of values for those that are unobserved.

The fact that listwise deletion of missing data is by far the fastest and simplest answer to the problem likely has led to the popularity of its use. In this research the implementation of listwise deletion simply means that all cases having a missing value for any of the variables in the data were excluded from all computation.

### 5.3 The Measurement Model (Confirmatory Factor Analysis)

The statistical procedure for investigating relations between sets of observed and latent variables is that of factor analysis. There are two basic types of factor analyses: exploratory factor analysis<sup>3</sup> (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

(CFA) is appropriately used when the researcher has some knowledge of the underlying latent variable structure. Which means that based on knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both, the researcher postulates relations between the observed measures and the underlying factors a priori and then tests this hypothesized structure statistically (Byrne, 2010).

The measurement model in the next Table defines relations between the observed (16) and unobserved variables (5). In other words, it provides the link between scores on a measuring instrument (i.e. the observed indicator variables) and the underlying constructs they are designed to measure (i.e., the unobserved latent variables) and then represents the CFA model described earlier, in that it specifies the pattern by which each measure loads on a particular factor.

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<sup>3</sup>The use of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was not necessary in this work, since the proposed scales are composed by items that have been developed, tested and adapted with the aim of measuring the respective constructs.



**Table 5.1- Confirmatory Factor Analysis.**

Relationship		Standardized Estimate	S.E.	(r <sup>2</sup> >0.25)	C.R.	P
<b>VS1:</b> To try as many things as possible	←	<b>0.769</b>	0.018	0.591	60.234	***
<b>VS2:</b> To do what most others have not done, and then tell my friends about it	←	<b>Variety Seeking</b>		0.498		-
<b>VS3:</b> To seek Novelty and Change	←	0.632	0.017	0.400	51.768	***
<b>IS1:</b> In economic terms, how do you evaluate your final destination	←	0.965	0.034	0.930	54.293	***
<b>IS2:</b> On average how much did you spend/ intend to spend daily	←	<b>Investment size</b>		0.983	55.293	***
<b>IS3:</b> In total, how many days were / will you be away from home on this trip.	←	0.308	0.019	0.095	24.178	***
<b>IS4:</b> How satisfied are you with the Price	←	0.512		0.262		-
<b>LOY1:</b> Intention to return to Final Destination	←	0.721	0.156	0.519	25.910	***
<b>LOY2:</b> Intention to recommend to friends and relatives the final Destination	←	<b>0.937</b>	0.182	0.877	26.640	***
<b>LOY3:</b> Intention to recommend to friends and relatives Portugal as a tourism destination	←	<b>Composite Loyalty</b>		0.792	26.599	***
<b>LOY4:</b> How do you rate the final destination	←	0.284		0.081		-
<b>LOY5:</b> How many times have you been in your final destination	←	0.113	0.074	0.013	9.218	***
<b>SATPull:</b> Pull Satisfaction	←	<b>Satisfaction</b>		0.718		
<b>SATPush:</b> Push Satisfaction	←	<b>0.908</b>	0.016	0.825	70.523	***
<b>MOTPull:</b> Pull Motivation	←	<b>Motivation</b>		0.605		
<b>MOTPush:</b> Push Motivation	←	<b>0.880</b>	0.014	0.774	83.134	***
<b>Goodness-of-fit (GOF) Measures</b>						
$\chi^2 = 2024.411$ ; $P = 0.000$ ; $X^2 / df = 89$						
Goodness of Fit Index [GFI] = 0.973; Adjust Goodness of Fit Index [AGFI] = 0.959; Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = 0.975; Incremental Fit Index [IFI] = 0.975; Root Mean Square Residual [RMR] = 0.032; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = 0.049						

Source: Own elaboration based on CFA, AMOS output.

Note: Values shown with the hyphen (-) refer to the parameters set at 1.

The goodness-of-fit measures show that the model performed well. Thus, the measurement model shows acceptable fits ensuring that the factor structure is reliable.

As can be seen in the observation of the final model results, the value of the standardized coefficients and all retained indicators have a good power of representation of the construct with which they are associated.

According to the results shown, in Table 5.1, it can be seen that the item with the highest power of representation of the variety-seeking construct is “to try as many things as

possible” (VS1=0.769), followed by the item “to do what most others have not done, and then tell my friends about it” (VS2=0.706). This result suggests that tourists who revisit the destination intend to continue seeking new experiences and activities associated with the intention of maintaining status among their peers (friends).

So, in this research variables used to measure investment size are: “In economic terms, how do you evaluate your final destination” (IS1); “On average how much did you spend/intend to spend daily” (IS2) “In total, how many days were / will you be away from home on this trip” (IS3) “How satisfied are you with the Price” (IS4).

On the other hand it can be observed that the “On average how much did you spend/intend to spend daily” (IS2=0.991) and “In economic terms, how do you evaluate your final destination” (IS1=0.965), associated with the investment size construct, are those with greater power of representation. These items are important to understand how tourism destinations functionally affect tourists’ investment size for visiting the destinations.

The latent variable composite loyalty includes four attitudinal components and one behavioural. The results showed that it is in attitudinal loyalty that presents the higher coefficient, namely “Intention to recommend to friends and relatives the final destination” (LOY2= 0.937) and “Intention to recommend to friends and relatives Portugal as a tourism destination” (LOY3= 0.890). This result suggests that tourist were satisfied with the experience at the destination, and in turn they intend to recommend the final destination to friends and family, and also Portugal as a destination.

Concerning the two dimensions of satisfaction, the observable variable that reveals a strong relation with the construct was the “push satisfaction” (SATPUSH= 0.908), revealing that tourist were satisfied with the experiential side of the destination.

Finally, of the two dimensions pertaining to motivation attributes, the results shows that the intrinsic/push dimension (MOTPUSH= 0.880) was the more important one. This result reveals that the desire to satisfy their intrinsic needs like having fun, relaxing, escaping from daily routine, among others, were the most important motivations in the decision-making process of the tourist.

### 5.3.1 Discriminant Validity of the Measurement Model

The fit of the measurement model is assessed by significant indicator loadings, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). CR and AVE represent the convergent validity of the measures. These values lie between 0 and 1: the closer to 1, the better the variable acts as an indicator of the latent construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Regarding Table 8, the composite reliability (CR) is above 0.730 for all the factors, showing adequate reliability (satisfaction = 0.885, variety seeking = 0.754; investment – size = 0.753; loyalty = 0.677 and motivation = 0.846) (Lei & Wu, 2007).

Convergent validity reflects the existence of a high positive correlation between the chosen set of indicators to measure the same concept. The average variance extracted (AVE) was the most appropriate criterion to evaluate convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Götz *et al.*, 2010). When the average variance extracted (AVE) has a value of 0.5 or higher, this indicates the existence of sufficient convergent validity.

As can be seen the Average Variance Extracted (AVE > 0.50), was 0.50 for the four factors: satisfaction = 0.783; for variety seeking = 0.500; for investment-size = 0.568; for loyalty = 0.558; and for motivation = 0.715, meaning that the latent variable explains, on average, more than half the variance of its indicators (Götz *et al.*, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2011).

The discriminant validity was examined. As reported in Table, this is observed in this model, supporting the reliability and validity of the latent construct.

Finally, the database was randomly split into two samples and the analysis was performed once again. The GOF indexes were equally good, which reveals that the model is valid in other samples as well (see subchapter, 5.3.2, Table 5.3).

**Table 5.2- Discriminant Validity.**

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	SAT	VS	IS	LOY	MOT
<b>SAT</b>	0.876	0.783	0.384	0.182	<b>0.885</b>				
<b>VS</b>	0.746	0.500	0.769	0.248	0.568	<b>0.754</b>			
<b>IS</b>	0.730	0.568	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.013	<b>0.753</b>		
<b>LOY</b>	0.766	0.558	0.020	0.008	0.143	0.032	0.006	<b>0.677</b>	
<b>MOT</b>	0.831	0.715	0.669	0.266	0.620	0.818	0.006	0.107	<b>0.846</b>

The diagonal entries (in bold) represent the average variance extracted by the construct

SAT: Satisfaction; VS: variety-seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations.

CR: composite reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted

Source: Own Elaboration based on AMOS output

### 5.3.2 Cross Validation

The adjusted model in the previous step needs to be validated in a different sample from that which formed the basis of the adjustment process, with cross-validation strategy frequently being used for this purpose (Maroco, 2010). In this way the adjusted model needs to be validated on a sample independent from that on which the model was adjusted (Maroco, 2010). Barring the availability of separate data samples, albeit a sufficiently large sample, one may wish to randomly split the data into two (or more) parts, thereby making it possible to cross-validate the findings (Cudeck & Browne, 1983). As such, Sample A serves as the calibration sample on which the initially hypothesized model is tested, as well as any post hoc analyses conducted in the process of attaining a well-fitting model. Once this final model is determined, the validity of its structure can then be tested based on Sample B (the validation sample). In other words, the final best-fitting model for the calibration sample becomes the hypothesized model under test for the validation sample. In other words, if the adjusted model in the first sample shows a good fit in the second, it can be concluded that the model is invariant (maintains structure) on the two subsamples, and if these are representative of the population, the model is valid for the population which is the object of the study (Maroco, 2010).

For this analysis, the composition of sub-samples was made from the initial sample of 8991 cases. The initial sample was divided randomly into two groups. The first group (subsample 1) includes 4495 cases and the second group (subsample 2) is made up of the last 4496 cases in the database. The following table summarizes the results of the cross validation and compares the measured values for the indices for the original sample and the two subsamples. According to the results obtained, the cross-validation test produces suitable fit statistics. The values for the various fit levels are similar between the two subsamples, confirming the cross-validation criteria and suggesting a good model fit.

**Table 5.3- Cross-Validation.**

<b>GOF Indexes</b>	<b>SubSample 1 (N= 4495)</b>	<b>SubSample 2 (N=4496)</b>	<b>Whole Sample (N=8991)</b>
Root mean square residual ( <b>RMR</b> )	0.031	0.046	0.032
Goodness of fit index ( <b>GFI</b> )	0.973	0.963	0.973
Adjusted goodness of fit index ( <b>AGFI</b> )	0.958	0.943	0.959
Comparative fit index ( <b>CFI</b> )	0.975	0.975	0.975
Incremental fit index ( <b>IFI</b> )	0.975	0.975	0.975
Tucker-Lewis index ( <b>TLI</b> ) /( <b>NNFI</b> )	0.966	0.966	0.966
Normed fit index ( <b>NFI</b> )	0.974	0.964	0.974
Root mean square error of approximation ( <b>RMSEA</b> )	0.049	0.049	0.049
P Close	0.753	0.548	0.762

Source: Own elaboration based on AMOS output.

#### **5.4 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)**

The structural model evaluates the causal or association relations between latent variables. The structural model specification corresponds to the representation, in equations, of the relations defined in the path diagram. This specification is done by designating relations of one construct to another, based on the proposed theoretical model (Hair *et al.*, 2009). “The evaluation phase of model quality aims to evaluate how well the theoretical model is able to reproduce the correlational structure of the manifest variables in the sample under study” (Maroco, 2010: 40).

##### **5.4.1 Assessment of Model Fit**

Different indices are used to assess measurement and structural model fit: the  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit test; incremental fit indices and absolute fit indices as recommended by various researchers (Anderson & Gering, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Hair *et al.*, 2009; among others).

Table 5.4, shows the results achieved to assess measurement and structural model fit. All the coefficients are significant at a 1% significance level. As the chi-square is an adjustment measure which is strongly influenced by sample size, the analysis includes the application of other adjustment measures to evaluate the model. The other goodness-of-fit measures also indicate a good overall model fit (AGFI = 0.965; PNFI = 0.783; IFI = 0.976, RMR= 0.037; PGFI = 0.701; GFI=0.975; CFI=0.976; RMSEA= 0.41). The other indicators closer to 1 indicate a good incremental and parsimonious fit. The empirical model fits the data well and allows us to accept the hypotheses established in accordance

with the literature. The other indicators closer to 1 indicate a good incremental and parsimonious fit. The empirical model fits the data well and allows us to accept the hypotheses established in accordance with the literature.

**Table 5.4- Structural Model Adjustment Measures.**

Measurement Indices		Model Results	Recommended Values
<b>Absolute fit Indexes</b>	Root mean square residual ( <b>RMR</b> )	0.037	< 0.05
	Goodness of fit index ( <b>GFI</b> )	0.975	> 0.90
	Adjusted goodness of fit index ( <b>AGFI</b> )	0.965	≥ 0.80
<b>Incremental Fit Index</b>	Comparative fit index ( <b>CFI</b> )	0.976	> 0.90
	Incremental fit index ( <b>IFI</b> )	0.976	> 0.90
	Tucker-Lewis index ( <b>TLI</b> ) /( <b>NNFI</b> )	0.970	> 0.90
	Normed fit index ( <b>NFI</b> )	0.974	> 0.90
<b>Parsimony Adjusted Measures</b>	Parsimony normed fit index ( <b>PNFI</b> )	0.783	≥ 0.60
	Parsimony goodness of fit index ( <b>PGFI</b> )	0.701	≥ 0.60
	Root mean square error of approximation ( <b>RMSEA</b> )	0.410	< 0.50

Recommended Values adapted from Hair *et al.* (2009)

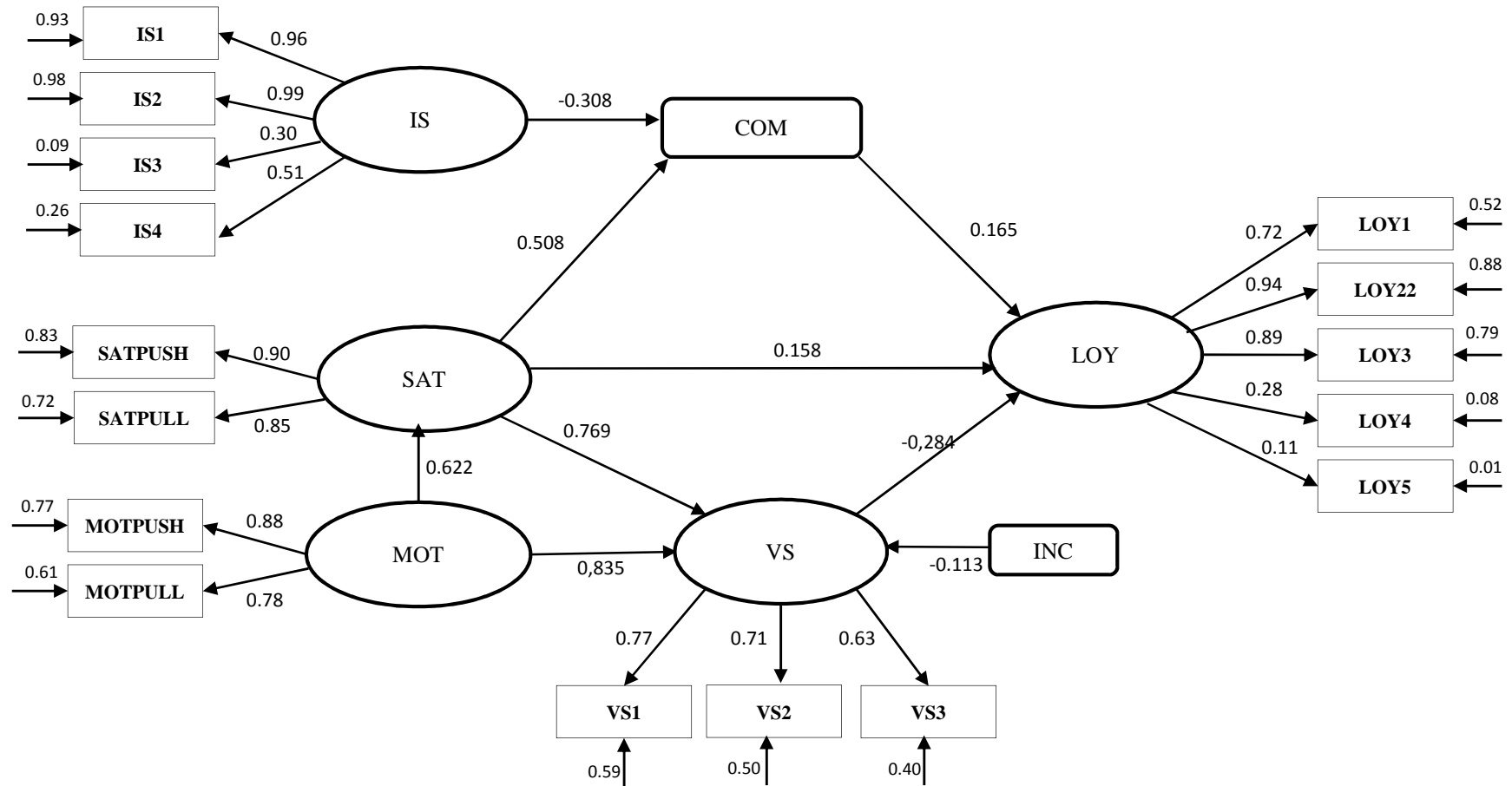
Source: Own elaboration based on AMOS output

#### 5.4.2 Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis testing involves confirming that a theoretical specified model fits sample variance-covariance data, and testing structural coefficients for significance (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The figure 5.1 shows the standardized coefficients and the measurement errors for the full model (measurement and structural model). According with the Standardized Coefficients in the measurement model it is between 0.11 and 0.99, and the measurement errors are among 0.01 and 0.98.

Figure 5.1- Measurement and Structural Model.



Source: Own elaboration

Consequently, the path relationships between the 5 latent variables (satisfaction, motivations, investment size, variety seeking and loyalty) and the commitment and income were examined. Nine hypothesized paths were tested for significance in this research. Table 5.5 shows a summary of the nine hypothesized paths.

**Table 5.5- Path Coefficients in the Hypothesised Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing Results**

Path	Standardized Coefficients	Standardized Error	Critical Ratio (t- value)	p	Result
H1: MOT→SAT	0.622	0.015	56.566	***	Supported
H2: SAT→COM	0.508	0.018	46.198	***	Supported
H3: COM→LOY	0.165	0.002	13.330	***	Supported
H4: SAT→LOY	0.158	0.003	10.028	***	Supported
H5: VS→LOY	-0.284	0.081	-22.294	***	Supported
H6: INC→VS	-0.113	0.074	-9.218	***	Supported
H7: MOT→VS	0.835	0.031	44.806	***	Supported
H8: SAT→VS	0.769	0.018	60.234	***	Supported
H9: IS→COM	-0.308	0.016	-24.178	***	Supported

SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM: Commitment

\*p <0.05

Source: Own elaboration based on AMOS output

### **H1. Tourist Motivations and Satisfaction.**

Hypothesis 1 examined the relationship between motivations and satisfaction. Specifically, H1 states that tourists' pull and push motivations have a positive influence on pull and push satisfaction. The results suggested that, as predicted, tourists' satisfaction level was positively influenced by motivations (0.622;  $t$ - value=56.566;  $p=0.000$ ). This finding indicates that the influence of motivations on satisfaction is remarkable. It is supported by the statement of George (2004), Yoon & Uysal, (2005), Decrop (2006) and Prebensen *et al.* (2013) that tourist intrinsic satisfaction and the level of satisfaction with the services provided at the destination (extrinsic satisfaction) meet their expectations, and therefore indirectly influence their destination loyalty.

This result provides an indication that the interplay between push and pull motivations is also reflected in push satisfaction (emotional) and pull satisfaction (cognitive) (Correia & Pimpão, 2008).



## **H2. Tourist Satisfaction and Commitment.**

The literature and the initial Investment Model proposes satisfaction as a major determinant of commitment. Results revealed that satisfaction has a positive influence on commitment (0.508;  $t$ -value=46.198;  $p=0.001$ ). From this perspective it can be suggested that tourist commitment expressed in terms of buying a house in the destination of Portugal is driven by their level of pull and push satisfaction.

Moreover, this outcome is supported by the literature which indicates that visitors will be committed to a relationship with a service provider when they are satisfied with it (Yen *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, the positive relation between satisfaction and commitment was also supported by drawing on Hennig-Thurau & Klee (1997), who stated that tourist satisfaction positively influences commitment, considering that a high level of satisfaction provides the consumer with repeated positive reinforcement, thus creating commitment-inducing bonds.

Thus, one might postulate that satisfaction influences tourist intention to invest in the destination. It also makes conceptual sense that the more satisfied a tourist is, and the more investments one makes in a destination, the more reluctant the tourist will be to seek alternative destination offerings.

## **H3. Tourist Commitment and Composite Loyalty.**

As mentioned before this research followed the third view of commitment, in which commitment is recognized as being crucial to long-term relationships (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). In the same vein, Pritchard *et al.* (1999) study shows that the tendency to resist changing preference (as evidence of commitment) is a key precursor to loyalty.

The present results showed that commitment positively influenced customer loyalty or more specifically its attitudinal and behavioural components (0.165;  $t$ -value=13.330;  $p=0,000$ ). This is in accordance with the authors Beatty *et al.*, (1988); Dick & Basu (1994); Havitz & Howard (1999); Gustafsson *et al.*, (2005); Evanschitzky *et al.* (2006); among others. That is to say, committed customers are more likely to remain loyal to the service firm as they feel that the service relationship is important. As a result, they have a desire to maintain the relationship while also being willing to put effort into maintaining the relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

**H4. Tourist Satisfaction and Composite Loyalty.**

Satisfaction has been referred to as the most straightforward factor in loyalty (Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2004; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Consistent with this perspective, tourist loyalty was found to be positively influenced by satisfaction (0.158;  $t$ -value=10.028;  $p=0,000$ ). This finding is consistent in literature that demonstrates that satisfaction with a tourist destination contributes positively to loyalty (Pritchard & Howard, 1997; Oppermann, 1999; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008, among others). The findings confirm the literature review that tourist satisfaction is a good indicator of intentions to repeat and recommend to others (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), and more globally, to loyalty (Bowen & Chen, 2001).

In addition, the need for new measurements of loyalty was considered and the nature of its relation with satisfaction (Dimitriadis, 2006), which was measured in two dimensions (pull and push). With this notion it can be said that the relationship is also applicable to the relationship between tourist satisfaction pull and push factors and loyalty.

**H5. Tourist Variety Seeking and Composite Loyalty.**

Having in mind that the relationship between variety-seeking and loyalty is an under-researched topic in the marketing and leisure/tourism literature (Berné *et al.*, 2001), this research tried to give a new impetus to understand and model variety-seeking in the context of tourist loyalty. So, this research stated that tourist variety seeking was a negative predictor of composite loyalty (H5). This hypothesis was supported (-0.284;  $t$ -value -22.294;  $p=0.000$ ).

This outcome is consistent with the outcome of the studies of Opperman (1997), Niininen *et al.* (2004) that tourists' search for variety is a voluntary activity which is directed at breaking with routine in decision-making and can contribute to the repetition of the same type of holidays and/or the same destination. That is to say, that tourists choose alternatives in an alternating way, providing the most enjoyment on a specific consumption occasion (Ratner *et al.*, 1999).

**H6. Income and Variety Seeking.**

Income has been defined as a personal budget restriction that determines the spending capacity of individuals (Crawford & Godbey, 1987) and has been proved to be highly explanatory of tourist behaviour (Mergoupis & Steuer, 2003). According to the findings of different studies (Fallon & Schofield, 2003; Lau & McKercher, 2004), repeat visitors prefer to participate in more social activities such as shopping, dining, and visiting friends and relatives, to be involved in local life-related activities and are destination-aware visitors who are knowledgeable regarding the range of activities available (Li *et al.*, 2006; Wang, 2004), although they also spend more than first-time visitors.

In line with these achievements, the present results revealed that variety seeking is negatively influenced by income (-0.113; *t*-value -9.218; *p*=0.000). This result demonstrated that all changes in behaviour are explained by changes in prices and incomes (Stigler & Becker, 1977), and in fact, medium-high and high-income groups are more likely to take part in different tourist activities (Hay & McConnell, 1979; Walsh *et al.*, 1992) and to spend more on them (Agarwal & Yochum, 1999; Cannon & Ford, 2002), which means that available income is the last driver of tourists' decisions, conditioning tastes, preferences and wishes (Varian, 1990),

**H7. Tourist Motivations and Variety Seeking.**

The present results showed that variety-seeking behaviour is generated through a range of intrinsic and/or extrinsic motivations (0.835; *t*-value=44.806; *p*=0.000), in accordance with the authors McAlister & Pessemier (1982); Van Trijp *et al.* (1996); Decrop & Snelders (2005). Specifically, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors are determinants of variety-seeking behaviour. Suggesting that if there are more brand varieties in the category, the phenomenon will increase consumers' need for stimulation in that product category, even when they are provided with the option of repeat consumption (Kahn, 1995).

**H8. Tourist Satisfaction and Variety Seeking.**

As previously mentioned, recent research on tourist satisfaction focuses on the characteristics of tourism in relation to other services and their influence on the conceptualization and measurement of satisfaction. Following this perception, this research postulates that variety seeking was positively influenced by satisfaction. The present results showed that satisfaction positively influenced variety seeking (0.769;  $t$ -value=60.234;  $p=0.000$ ). This indicates that visitors may satisfy their need for variety, either via the enjoyment of new options or alternating between the same type of holidays and/or the same destination (Niininen *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, it is reasonable to anticipate that if tourists are satisfied with the destination attributes and services, it is expected that satisfaction may influence their level of curiosity (Velázquez *et al.*, 2011).

**H9. Tourist Investment Size and Commitment.**

In the field of loyalty studies there are other significant factors which merit attention. So, this research proposes that travellers' investment size negatively influence tourists' commitment to the destination. This influence (H9) was supported (-0.308;  $t$ -value -24.178;  $p=0.000$ ). This result demonstrated that the larger the value of a customer's equity, the lower is his or her drive to protect the investments; therefore, the more likely he or she is to maintain the relationship with that nature-based tourism provider (Dorsch & Carlson, 1996), which in line reinforces that tourists will revisit more often and spend more with a service provider when they commit to a relation with this service provider (Yen *et al.*, 2009). However, the investment size, i.e., any tangible or intangible resources attached to a relationship may be lost or diminished once the relationship is dissolved. The Investment Model asserts that dependence is also influenced by -investment size. Investment size refers to the magnitude and importance of the resources that are attached to a relationship-resources that would decline in value or be lost if the relationship were to end (Becker, 1960; Rubin & Brockner, 1975; Staw, 1976; Teger, 1980)

## 5.5 Multiple Group Analysis

### 5.5.1 Introduction

Multiple-group analysis in structural equation modelling can be very useful because it allows researchers to compare multiple samples across the same measurement instrument or multiple population groups for any identified structural equation model.

A comparison of the causal relationship across the sample groups or a multiple group analysis have recently received more attention (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The main reason is that the findings of a multiple group analysis offer in-depth insights in both advanced theoretical contribution and managerial insights (Nyaga, Whipple & Lynch, 2010).

The main objective of this part in this research is to test and examine for similarities and differences on the different path relationships of the structure model, among loyalty process and its determinants, in a destination regional perspective, namely between Lisbon and the Algarve; and Madeira and Azores destinations. It is also to test and examine specifically if path relationships of the structure model change overtime (year 2009-2010). This analysis adopted the contrast bias (Herr *et al.*, 1983) concept, which in its essence describes the inclination to overrate or underrate a subject compared with another. In particular, it is assumed that contrast bias is exhibited when the sequence of visiting tourist destinations is changed in different contexts, and that, previous travel experiences of tourists affect their assessment of the satisfaction of their next travel experiences. Implicit in this habit discussion is the important role of time.

In order to carry out the multiple group analysis, the first stage is the determination of groups. In this instance, the tourists were first categorized by their final destination and were clustered in four groups of samples comparing different regions in Portugal and its islands. The first multiple group analysis compares Lisbon and the Algarve region (4996 tourists) and the second one compares the islands of Azores and Madeira (3995 tourists). These four samples represent two dyadic relationships in tourism i.e., two regions in Continental Portugal (Lisbon and Algarve) and the Atlantic archipelagos of Azores and Madeira, which are autonomous regions of Portugal.

Finally, to analyse the most critical challenges within loyalty process over time, the sample was split, based on the year of the first trip to the final destination, namely tourists who visited Portugal in 2009/10 and in 2010/11 (1584 tourists) respecting the IATA seasons, in Lisbon, Faro, Madeira and Azores international airports (Portugal).

The empirical data for the study were collected between 2009 and 2011, at the time of tourists' departure. Hence the sample population consisted of foreign tourists visiting those destinations.

### **5.5.2 Lisbon and the Algarve – Multigroup Analysis**

Lisbon and Algarve are different destinations offering different attractions and facilities for all types of tourists.

Lisbon is an urban tourism/city break destination, with short trips to historical and cultural tourism destinations. In these cases, the destination includes "urban landscapes" as important attractions, namely well-delimited areas within the city that combine a strong historical identity, a solid cultural heritage, and a variety of shops or leisure options for visitors and residents alike (Snepenger, Murphy, O'Connell & Gregg, 2003; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007). This makes the destination amazingly attractive for tourists (Jang & Feng, 2007).

Lisbon can be also characterized as a short-break city-based tourism destination, with the capacity to attract a high proportion of day visitors and also less seasonal tourism than at other destinations, often by design (Law, 2002). Moreover, city tourists have more motivations for travel than tourists at other destinations and take part in a wider range of activities (Ashworth, 1989).

So in this case it should perhaps be noted that there are also significant variations between the sun and sea tourist and other tourists travelling with different purposes.

The Algarve is in this case a sun and sea tourism destination and so tourists are mostly motivated by the sun/warmth and avoiding stress. Moreover, family considerations and hopes for a peaceful stay are also important characteristics of the sun- and sea-seeking tourists (Prebensen & Kleiven, 2006). The most frequent activities taken during their holiday are traditional sun activities, learning about the destination, and having time with the family. According to different studies (Aguiló, Alegre & Sard, 2005; Menezes, Moniz & Vieira, 2008; Gokovali *et al.*, 2007), sun and sea holidays can be thought of one of the

most traditional tourist activities in today's world market, with a high content routine, usually shared with family and occupying an important part of holiday time, improving the length of stay.

With this in mind, the main objective of this part is to test and examine for similarities and differences on the different path relationships of the structure model, among loyalty process and its determinants, in a destination regional perspective, namely between Lisbon and the Algarve.

The first model was a baseline model, in which the structural model was simultaneously estimated for both places – Lisbon and the Algarve. The effects of satisfaction, commitment, motivation, investment size, variety-seeking and socio-demographic (income) on composite loyalty were freely estimated across the groups. The two group models provided a satisfactory fit for the data. The second model constrained all the beta coefficients to be equal across the two groups. The equivalence of all parameters assumed no difference between the two groups. The analysis then compared the constrained model with the baseline, and the difference in chi-square – the likelihood ratio (LR) – testing the null hypothesis that the parameters were invariant/equivalent across the two groups.

Ha:  $B(\text{Lisbon}) = B(\text{Algarve})$

Haa: at least one beta is different between groups.

In this case, the likelihood-ratio test (chi-square difference) present a score of 112.464 (df=20, p=0.000), suggesting that structural factors were different between the two groups (Table 12). Based on the results obtained Ha was rejected, i.e. it was concluded that at least one of the structural coefficients is different between the two groups.

**Table 5.6- The Likelihood Ratio - Lisbon/Algarve**

	Groups Lisbon and Algarve			
	Chi-square	df	<i>p-value</i>	Invariant?
<b>Unconstrained</b>	2938.366	248		
<b>Fully constrained</b>	3050.83	268		
<b>Difference</b>	112.464	20	0,000	No

Source: Own production, from AMOS output.

The next phase of the analysis is the observation of the relationship between the constructs and the verification of relationships which had different structural coefficients between the groups. To evaluate the parameters of the paths where the models differ, we analysed the values of the critical indices (critical ratios) of the differences between all pairs of free parameters. Significant differences may suggest that specific structural paths would be different in the two groups. Parameter tests are used to test the null hypothesis that no statistically significant difference exists between the two non-standardized parameters of the model. The criterion adopted is that absolute values of Z above 0.975=1.96 allow us to reject Ha and conclude that the parameters are significantly different. Table 5.7, shows the structural coefficients, the p-values and the Z-test values (critical ratio). When the Z-score is  $> |2|$  it is assumed that there are statistically significant differences between the two groups (Byrne, 2010).

**Table 5.7- Z Score (Critical Ratios for Differences) – Lisbon and Algarve.**

			Lisbon (L)		Algarve (A)		z-score	
			Standardized Coefficients	<i>P</i>	Standardized Coefficients	<i>P</i>		
Ha1	SAT	←	MOT	0.733	0.000	0,641	0.000	-0.379
Ha2	COM	←	SAT	0.132	0.002	0,118	0.000	1.567
Ha3	LOY	←	COM	0.103	0.021	0,172	0.000	-0.470
Ha4	LOY	←	SAT	-0.071	0.113	-0,093	0.289	-0.244
Ha5	LOY	←	VS	-0.326	0.000	-0,303	0.000	-2.115**
Ha6	VS	←	INC	-0.004	0.921	-0,120	0.000	-5.054**
Ha7	VS	←	MOT	0.728	0.000	0,822	0.000	0.960
Ha8	VS	←	SAT	0.698	0.000	0,695	0.000	1.644
Ha9	COM	←	IS	-0.291	0.000	-0,338	0.000	-2.034**

Notes: SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM: Commitment

\*\*\* p-value < 0.01; \*\* p-value < 0.05; \* p-value < 0.10

Source: Own production, from AMOS output

As illustrated in the previous table, the path from “variety seeking” to “loyalty” ( $z = -2.115$ ) as well as the path from “income” to “variety seeking” ( $z = -5.054$ ), and the path



from “investment size” to “commitment” ( $z=-2.034$ ) are significantly different across the two destinations.

After identifying the paths that differ in the two groups the next step can be carried out. For this, the parameters that had proved invariant in the two groups remained fixed and restrictions on the parameters that had proved different were removed so that they could be freely calculated. In this way it is possible to observe how the paths which are not invariant behave when calculated without any restriction.

After testing the partially restricted model (imposing equivalence on the parameters that showed no differences and with no restrictions on those which proved to be different) the results listed in Table 5.8 were obtained.

**Table 5.8- Differences in Path Coefficients (Lisbon and Algarve).**

			Lisbon (L)				Algarve (A)			
			Standardized Coefficients	SE	CR	p	Standardized Coefficients	SE	CR	p
<b>Ha1</b>	SAT	← MOT	0.587	0.002	11.730	***	0.651	0.002	11.730	***
<b>Ha2</b>	COM	← SAT	0.221	0.037	24.995	***	0.118	0.150	5.435	***
<b>Ha3</b>	LOY	← COM	0.151	0.002	11.730	***	0.077	0.002	11.730	***
<b>Ha4</b>	LOY	← SAT	0.198	0.004	12.609	***	0.224	0.004	12.609	***
<b>Ha5</b>	LOY	← VS	-0.330	0.054	-10.555	***	-0.289	0.076	-4.356	***
<b>Ha6</b>	VS	← INC	-0.117	0.108	-6.836	***	0.003	0.105	0.072	0.942
<b>Ha7</b>	VS	← MOT	0.452	0.002	11.730	***	0.450	0.002	11.730	***
<b>Ha8</b>	VS	← SAT	0.789	0.043	26.682	***	0.729	0.089	10.435	***
<b>Ha9</b>	COM	← IS	-0.338	0.038	-17.369	***	-0.292	0.083	-5.645	***

SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM: Commitment  
Notes: \*\*\* p-value < 0.01; \*\* p-value < 0.05; \* p-value < 0.10 SE: Standard Error; CR: Critical Ratios

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output.

Previous Table shows the values of standardized structural coefficients, standard error, critical ratios and the  $p$ -value. Through the standard error value (equal value) the paths which proved invariant with respect to the two destinations (Lisbon and Algarve) can be identified. It is also possible to observe non-significant relationships, where the  $p$ -value of the standardized paths were higher than 0.05.

The first refers to the influence of variety seeking on loyalty, in which the intensity between the variety seeking and loyalty was significantly different between the two regions. Concerning the influence of variety seeking on loyalty, in Lisbon ( $\beta_{5L}=-0.330$   $p=0.000$ ) and Algarve ( $\beta_{5A}= -0.289$ ,  $p=0.000$ ) the results revealed that these relations are significant for both regions, however in a negative sense. That means that the

motivations for variety-seeking overwhelm the effect on loyalty. This negative relation is in accordance with Niininen *et al.* (2004) in which tourists with a high variety-seeking propensity will show a varied pattern of destination choice. In this sense, the increase of variety searching behaviour ceases their loyalty, reinforcing the authors Howard & Sheth (1969) who postulate that the boredom with a choice is related to purchase frequency. This implies that the more frequently a product/service or related experience is purchased, the more bored the customer becomes with that choice, which stimulates variety seeking behaviour.

Concerning the influence of income on variety seeking, in Lisbon ( $\beta_{a6L} = -0.117$ ,  $p=0.000$ ) and in the Algarve ( $\beta_{a6A} = 0.003$ ,  $p=0.942$ ) it was shown that the socio-demographic concerning income plays a role in determining the level of variety tourist seek in the Lisbon but not in Algarve. In fact, even if Zscores recorded significant differences, the reasoning for this difference relies on a significant effect in Lisbon, even in a negative sense) and a non-significant effect in the Algarve. This result may reinforce the economists Stigler and Becker (1977), who postulate that all changes in behaviour are explained by changes in price and incomes. That is to say that Lisbon as a city destination, as stated previously, has more attractions and places to consume, so the tourists are probably aware that they have the opportunity to have a variety of experiences, but at the same time, they are conscious about the expense it means.

Finally, Zscores recorded significant differences in the relation between the investment size and commitment, in Lisbon ( $\beta_{a9L} = -0.338$ ,  $p=0.000$ ) and the Algarve ( $\beta_{a9A} = -0.292$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). The effect of the investment size on the commitment is negative; however this relation in both regions is not rejected. This result suggested that the investments that tourist made on the destinations were important, however the investment size, i.e., any tangible or intangible resources attached to a relationship may be lost or diminished once the relationship is being dissolved (Rusbult, 1991).

### 5.5.3 Azores and Madeira Islands– Multigroup Analysis

The Azores island destination is described by its Tourism Regional Authority as “nature all around you”. The archipelago offers unmatched conditions for nature tourism by virtue of its unique natural heritage, which influenced the built and cultural heritage that is full of singular features. This heritage has been preserved and classified, and includes marine biodiversity, flora and fauna, volcanic caves and geolandscapes, nature parks and botanical gardens, as well as natural resources exclusive to each island.

Madeira Island enjoys a very favourable geography for tourism practices, particularly in terms of climate and natural heritage. These two elements form the basis of the region’s tourist attraction. The *levadas* and the various nature reserves are assumed as a differentiating factor and, together with the proximity of the mountain to the sea, form the basis of the target value of this tourism destination.

In the same vein, this part of the results aims to test and examine for similarities and differences on the different path relationships of the structure model, among loyalty process and its determinants, from a destination regional perspective; however in this case, comparing the Atlantic archipelagos of the Azores and Madeira, which are autonomous regions of Portugal.

Invariance tests for the Azores and Madeira were carried out following the same steps as those performed to test the invariance between groups who visited Lisbon and the Algarve.

Thus, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H<sub>b</sub>: B(Azores) = B(Madeira)

H<sub>bb</sub>: at least one beta is different between groups

As shown in Table 5.9, the likelihood-ratio test (chi-square difference) scored 195.205 (df = 19, p = 0.000), suggesting that structural factors were different between the two groups. Based on the results obtained, H<sub>b</sub> was rejected, i.e. it can be concluded that at least one of the structural coefficients is different between the two groups. Next, with differences existing between the two groups in question, we proceeded with the next step in order to identify the source and intensity of non-invariance.

To identify the parameters of the paths where the models differ, we analysed the values of the critical indexes (critical ratios) of the differences between all pairs of free

parameters. The criterion is the abovementioned, i.e. the absolute values of the Z-score is  $> |2|$  and allows us to reject  $H_0$  and conclude that the parameters are significantly different.

The Z test enables us to ascertain the degree of proximity or distance that exists between the structural factors in the different groups. Based on this information, it is possible to deepen the analysis, by maintaining the restrictions on relations which are considered equivalent and freeing relations that have proved different from this imposition.

**Table 5.9- The Likelihood Ratio – Azores and Madeira.**

	Groups Azores and Madeira			
	Chi-square	df	<i>p-value</i>	Invariante?
<b>Unconstrained</b>	1859,251	252		
<b>Fully constrained</b>	2054,456	271		
<b>Difference</b>	195,205	19	0,000	No

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output.

The constant data in the following table presented the values of standardized structural coefficients, the p-value and Z-values (critical ratio), indicating the relationships which are shown to be non-invariant between the two groups (marked with an asterisk).

As shown in Table 5.10, six structural paths were significantly different across the two destinations, namely the path from “motivations” to “satisfaction” ( $z= 11.174$ ); the path from “commitment” to “composite loyalty” ( $z= -2.15$ ), as well as the path from “satisfaction” to “composite loyalty” ( $z= -2.377$ ); the path from “income” to “variety seeking” ( $z= -2.744$ ) and “motivations” to “variety seeking” ( $z=8.798$ ) and finally the path from “Satisfaction” to “variety seeking” ( $Z=4.658$ ).

**Table 5.10- Z Score (Critical Ratios for Differences) – Azores and Madeira.**

Notes: SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM:

	Azores (A)				Madeira (M)				z-score
				Standardized Coefficients	P			Standardized Coefficients	
Hb1	SAT	←	MOT	0.487	0.000	0.629	0.000	11.174***	
Hb2	COM	←	SAT	0.132	0.002	0.118	0.000	1.567	
Hb3	LOY	←	COM	0.165	0.000	0.136	0.000	-2.15**	
Hb4	LOY	←	SAT	0.179	0.000	0.141	0.000	-2.377**	
Hb6	VS	←	INC	-0.158	0.000	-0.300	0.000	-2.744***	
Hb7	VS	←	MOT	0.895	0.000	0.832	0.000	8.798***	
Hb8	VS	←	SAT	0.704	0.000	0.722	0.000	4.658***	
Hb9	COM	←	IS	-0.062	0.089	-0.045	0.010	0.417	

Commitment

\*\*\* p-value &lt; 0.01; \*\* p-value &lt; 0.05; \* p-value &lt; 0.10

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output

Having presented the non-invariant relationships, we proceeded to the analysis of the partially restricted model. Based on the restricted model, the non-invariant relationships were freed after checking that there were no significant relationships in both groups simultaneously (Azores and Madeira).

According with the Table 5.11, the first difference lies in the intensity between the motivations and satisfaction whose relation was significantly different between the two islands. This path is more intense in Madeira ( $\beta_{b1M} = 0.629$ ;  $p < 0.00$ ) than in the Azores ( $\beta_{b1A} = 0.490$ ;  $p < 0.00$ ) suggesting that even with slight differences the more highly motivated tourists are, the higher the satisfaction. This finding can be justified referring to some previous studies results (Swan & Combs, 1976; Uysal & Noe, 2003), in which the authors stated that tourist evaluation of the physical products of a destination (instrumental performance) as well as the psychological interpretation of a destination product (expressive attributes) are necessary for human actions. Considering that the authors postulate that the expressive is more related to emotion, whereas instrumental performance is more cognitively oriented, expressive experiences truly motivate and contribute to increasing the level of satisfaction.

**Table 5.11- Differences in Path Coefficients (Azores and Madeira).**

		Azores (A)				Madeira (M)			
		Standardized Coefficients	SE	CR	p	Standardized Coefficients	SE	CR	p
<b>Hb1</b>	SAT ← MOT	0.490	0.032	13.073	***	0.629	0.025	35.287	***
<b>Hb2</b>	COM ← SAT	0.221	0.037	24.995	***	0.118	0.150	5.435	***
<b>Hb3</b>	LOY ← COM	0.305	0.004	6.702	***	0.036	0.002	6.491	***
<b>Hb4</b>	LOY ← SAT	0.174	0.014	4.210	***	0.141	0.004	6.570	***
<b>Hb6</b>	VS ← INC	-0.071	0.032	-1.903	0.05	-0.300	0.025	14.694	***
<b>Hb7</b>	VS ← MOT	0.487	0.061	12.089	***	0.832	0.054	29.785	***
<b>Hb8</b>	VS ← SAT	0.179	0.323	10.528	***	0.722	0.421	12.540	***
<b>Hb9</b>	COM ← IS	0.580	0.037	24.995	***	-0.045	0.023	-2.571	0.01

Notes: Notes: SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM: Commitment; SE: Standard Error; CR: Critical Ratios

\*\*\* p-value < 0.01; \*\* p-value < 0.05; \* p-value < 0.10

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output.

Concerning the influence of commitment on composite loyalty, the results suggested that, as predicted, tourist loyalty was positively influenced by commitment; however this influence is stronger in the Azores ( $\beta_{3A}=0.305$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) than in Madeira ( $\beta_{3M}= 0.036$ ;  $p<0.01$ ). In this context is important to explain that many of the tourists that visit Azores Island are descendants of natives of the islands, so visiting friends and relatives is a potential and emotional motivation for choosing the Azores, which means that the family life cycle influences their choice of holiday destination. Accordingly, their socio demographic and tripographic profile (see Table 4.2 and 4.3, Chapter IV), revealed that tourist travelling to Azores are older (more than 51 year old), they travelled more for visiting family and friends purposes when compared to Madeira (Azores= 18.6% and Madeira = 6.5%) and as a consequence were more likely to stay in family/ friend's house (18,9%). Those travelling to Madeira travelled more for vacation/leisure purposes and as a consequence were more likely to stay in commercial accommodation, notably aparthotels. This results are in line with those achieved by the author Dias, Correia & Martinez (2014) who suggest that the more informal the type of lodging the more comfortable the tourists may feel (away from home but feeling at home).

In this context, it can be considered that the emotional reactions to the tourism experience are fundamental determinants of post-consumption behaviours such as, intention to recommend, attitude judgments and choice, but also that experiential process such as imaging, daydreams, and emotions play an important role in destination choice behaviour (Gnoth, 1997; Goossens, 2000).

In the same vein, satisfaction also influences loyalty at a slow pace. In fact even with significant differences, the coefficients are positive but very low (Azores =  $\beta_{4A}=0.174$ ;  $p<0.01$  and Madeira  $\beta_{4M}= 0.141$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) this suggests that a high degree of satisfaction does not always lead to loyalty, which is in line with the authors Petrick (1999); Hellier *et al.* (2003) and Skogland & Siguaw (2004). Moreover, considering that consumers accumulate domain expertise through encounter-specific consumption experiences as the relationship with the service provider unfolds (Park *et al.*, 1994), the impact of cognition and effect on loyalty are likely to decrease over time. Therefore, the association between perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty may disintegrate over time. Finally, this result are partially in line with those achieved by the authors Correia *et al.* (2015) who states that the expected number of visits decreases with tourists' satisfaction, especially in the case of Nordic tourists visiting Azores.

At a moderate level, the Azores and Madeira islands showed significant differences in the relation between income and variety-seeking. The socio-demographic profile of tourists measured by income is significant in Madeira ( $\beta_{6M}= -0.300$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) moderating variety-seeking in a negative sense, whereas in the Azores the coefficient is not statistically significant ( $\beta_{6A}= -0.071$ ,  $p=0.05$ ). This suggests that medium-high and high-income groups are more likely to take part in different tourist activities (Hay & McConnell, 1979; Walsh *et al.*, 1992) and to spend more on them (Cai *et al.*, 1995; Fish & Waggle, 1996; Cai, 1998; Cannon & Ford, 2002; among others).

However, in a contextual setting, nature is assumed as a vector of essential importance in the configuration of Madeira Island as a territory for recreation and tourism, if one considers the idea of a nuclear mix and hierarchy of attractions stated by Leiper (1990). In the case of Madeira, the nuclei the tourist wishes to experience is nature, as landscape, flora, climate and the *levadas* walks, (Oliveira & Pereira, 2008). In this sense, and considering the context of this destination's tourism offer, the results are in line with Wang (2004) considering that repeat tourists spend their time more intensively, engage in activities related to local culture and life, prefer participating in more social activities such as shopping, dining or visiting friends and relatives, and are destination-aware visitors who are knowledgeable regarding the range of activities available.

Nevertheless in the Azores this is not so relevant since they are mostly motivated to visit family and relatives.

The Azores and Madeira Island showed significant differences in the relation between motivations and variety-seeking. Motivations plays a negative role in explaining variety-seeking, in particular in Madeira ( $\beta_{7M} = -0.832$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) whereas in Azores this effect is positive and lower ( $\beta_{7A} = 0.487$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). This result is in line with the previous argument. That is to say that Madeira in comparison to the Azores is an island with a more favourable geographic area for tourism practices, combining climate with heritage and with the proximity of the mountain to the sea, which forms the basis of the target value of this tourism destination. As a complement, this result is supported by previous research carried out by Kahn (1995) in which variety-seeking behaviour does not occur for all products to the same extent due to various product category-level determinants of variety-seeking behaviour which is generated through intrinsic and and/or extrinsic motivations. Moreover, the average length of stay, in familiar destinations may lead to a wish to stay longer, suggesting an increase of marginal utility or the non-satiation principle of revealed preference. An increasing marginal utility is expected in destinations where innovations and emerging activities feed the optimal level of the novelty tourists seek, even in familiar destinations (Correia, Pimpão & Crouch, 2009).

Finally, the results revealed that satisfaction is influenced by variety seeking. According with the standardized coefficients this path is relatively more intense in Madeira ( $\beta_{8M} = 0.722$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) than in Azores ( $\beta_{8A} = 0.179$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). These results revealed that tourist variety-seeking behaviour is derived by their level of satisfaction in Madeira, meaning that the tourists perceived the island as an attractive place, with different but complementary tourism attractions and experiences. This statement is in line with Kahn (1995) who postulates that if there are more brand varieties in the category, the phenomenon will increase consumers' need for stimulation in that product category, even when they are given the option of repeating consumption.

Lastly, contradictory to the results expected, the relation that posits that composite loyalty is influenced by variety-seeking was not supported for both destinations, suggesting the need to continue researching the intensity relations between these two constructs.



#### 5.5.4 Years: 2009/10 – 2010/11- Multigroup Analysis

In tourism studies it has been postulated that previous experiences with a destination can have a significant impact on present and future tourist behaviour (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chi, 2012; Peña *et al.*, 2013; among others). In line with this statement, the authors Gundlach & Murphy (1993) and Jang & Feng (2007), postulate that time is a critical ingredient of strong, committed relationships, so it is also important to observe tourists' revisits intentions from a time perspective because intention often changes over time.

Bearing in mind the previous perspective, the main objective of the present analysis is to test and examine for similarities and differences in the path relationships of the structure model, and to assess the extent to which the determinants of loyalty vary over time between the loyalty process and its determinants. The time period that embodied the present analysis is the IATA year 2009/10 (year A) and 2010/11 (year B).

The invariance tests for Year A and B for the Year were carried out following the same steps that were performed to test the invariance in the previous analyses.

Thus, the following hypothesis was formulated:

Hc:  $C(2009/10) = C(2010/11)$

Hcc: at least one beta is different between groups.

The likelihood-ratio test (chi-square difference) gave a result of 47.503 ( $df=19$ ;  $p=0.000$ ), suggesting that structural factors were different between the two groups (Table 5.12). Based on the results obtained, Hc was discarded, i.e., it can be concluded that at least one of the structural coefficients is different between the two groups. Then, with differences existing between the two groups in question, we proceeded to the next step in order to identify the source and intensity of non-invariance.

To identify the parameters of the paths where the models differ, we analysed the values of the critical indexes (critical ratios) of the differences between all pairs of free parameters.

**Table 5.12 -The Likelihood Ratio – Years 2009/10 and 2010/11.**

Groups Years 2009/10 and 2010/11				
	Chi-square	df	p-value	Invariant?
<b>Unconstrained</b>	983,197	252		
<b>Fully constrained</b>	1030,7	271		
<b>Difference</b>	47,503	19	0,000	No

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output

The absolute values of Z above  $Z=0.975=1.96$  allow us to reject Hc and conclude that the parameters are significantly different. The following table (non-restricted model) shows the structural coefficients, the p-values and the Z-test values (critical ratios) indicating the relationships that are revealed as non-invariant between the two groups (marked with an asterisk). Based on this information, it is possible to deepen the analysis, maintaining the restrictions on relations considered equivalent and freeing relations that have proved different from this imposition.

As illustrated in Table 5.13 the path from “motivations” to “satisfaction” ( $z=-1.699$ ); the path from “satisfaction” to “commitment” ( $z= -2.15$ ); the path from “satisfaction” to “loyalty” ( $z=2.744$ ); the path from “motivations” to “variety seeking” ( $z=-2.157$ ) as well as the path from “satisfaction” to “variety seeking” ( $z= 3.103$ ), are significantly different between 2009/10 and 2010/11.

**Table 5.13- Z Score (Critical Ratios for Differences) – 2009/10 and 2010/11.**

		2009/10			2010/11			z-score
		Standardized Coefficients	P	Standardized Coefficients	P			
Hc1	SAT	←	MOT	0.608	0.000	0.686	0.000	-1.699*
Hc2	COM	←	SAT	0.165	0.000	0.136	0.000	-2.15**
Hc3	LOY	←	COM	0.044	0.122	0.084	0.237	0.542
Hc4	LOY	←	SAT	0.158	0.000	0.300	0.000	2.744***
Hc5	LOY	←	VS	-0.071	0.113	-0.093	0.289	-0.244
Hc6	VS	←	INC	-0.132	0.002	-0.118	0.000	1.567
Hc7	VS	←	MOT	0.834	0.000	0.790	0.000	-2.157**
Hc8	VS	←	SAT	0.076	0.038	-0.253	0.010	3.103***
Hc9	COM	←	IS	-0.206	0.824	-0.231	0.637	0.275

Notes: SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM: Commitment

\*\*\* p-value < 0.01; \*\* p-value < 0.05; \* p-value < 0.10

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output

After identifying the paths that differ in the two groups, we went on to the next step. For this, the parameters that had proved invariant in both groups remained fixed and restrictions were removed from the parameters that had proved different so that they could be freely calculated. Thus, it is possible to observe how the paths which are not invariant behave when calculated with no restrictions.

Having tested the partially restricted model (imposing equivalence on the parameters that showed no differences and with no restrictions on those which proved to be different) the results listed in Table 5.14 were obtained.

**Table 5.14- Differences in Path Coefficients (2009/10 and 2010/11).**

		Year A (2009/10)				Year B (2010/11)			
		Standardized Coefficients	SE	CR	p	Standardized Coefficients	SE	CR	p
<b>Hc1</b>	SAT ← MOT	0.607	0.052	14.814	***	0.686	0.028	33.583	***
<b>Hc2</b>	COM ← SAT	0.305	0.004	6.702	***	0.136	0.002	6.491	***
<b>Hc3</b>	LOY ← COM	0.207	0.004	12.609	***	0.205	0.004	12.609	***
<b>Hc4</b>	LOY ← SAT	0.071	0.032	1.903	0.05	0.300	0.025	14.694	***
<b>Hc5</b>	LOY ← VS	0.198	0.004	12.609	***	0.224	0.004	12.609	***
<b>Hc6</b>	VS ← INC	-0.221	0.037	-24.995	***	-0.118	0.150	-12.435	***
<b>Hc7</b>	VS ← MOT	0.864	0.035	26.536	***	0.790	0.017	44.962	***
<b>Hc8</b>	VS ← SAT	0.459	0.068	15.396	***	0.215	0.169	3.199	***
<b>Hc9</b>	COM ← IS	-0.205	0.004	-23.185	***	-0.315	0.004	35.626	***

Notes: Notes: SAT: Satisfaction; VS: Variety Seeking; IS: Investment-Size; LOY: Loyalty; MOT: Motivations; INC: Income; COM: Commitment; SE: Standard Error; CR: Critical Ratios

\*\*\* p-value < 0.01; \*\* p-value < 0.05; \* p-value < 0.10

Source: Own elaboration, from AMOS output.

Previous Table shows the values of standardized structural coefficients, standard error critical ratios and the p-value. Through the standard error value (equal value) the paths which proved invariant with respect to the two destinations (2009/10 and 2010/11) can be identified. It is also possible to observe non-significant relationships, where the p-value of the standardized paths were higher than 0.05.

The first refers to the influence of motivations on satisfaction, in which the intensity between the motivations and satisfaction was significantly different between the two years. According to the standardized coefficients this path is relatively more intense in 2010/11 ( $\beta_{c1B} = 0.686$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) than in the year 2009/10 ( $\beta_{c1A} = 0.607$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ), suggesting that even with slight differences the more highly motivated tourists are, the higher the satisfaction. This relation is in accordance with Gitelson & Crompton (1984);

Mohr *et al.* (1993) and Kozak (2000), suggesting that repeat visitors are more satisfied than that first time visitors. Moreover, according with Swan & Combs (1976); Uysal & Noe (2003) the evaluations of the physical products of destination (instrumental performance) as well as the psychological interpretation of a destination product (expressive attributes) are necessary for human actions. Since the expressive is more related to emotion, whereas instrumental performance is more cognitively oriented, expressive experiences truly motivate and contribute to satisfaction. It has been suggested that the instrumental and expressive attributes work in combination to produce overall satisfaction (Uysal & Noe, 2003).

Satisfaction and commitment were significantly different between the years A and B. Specifically, these differences rely on a relatively high significant effect in 2009/10 ( $\beta_{c2A} = 0.305$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) than in 2010/11 ( $\beta_{c2B} = 0.136$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). In this regard, time plays an important role since the effect of customer satisfaction seems to decay over time, and repeaters might have a lower level of satisfaction because of higher expectations in some cases (Anwar & Sohail, 2004; McKercher & Wong, 2004). DubT & Morgan (1998) argued that satisfaction may be stable over time despite the fact that emotional and cognitive aspects could change from one encounter to the next. The role of cognitive evaluation processes degrades with continued repurchase decisions (Gefen, 2003), and satisfaction may not be a core element of loyalty once loyalty has been established (Oliver, 1999). Moreover, according with Correia *et al.* (2015) when tourists have moderate expectations about Portugal and when their intentions to return are not tacitly assumed, the past frequency of revisit is likely to decrease.

In the same vein, satisfaction also influences loyalty for both years: 2009/10 ( $\beta_{c4A} = 0.071$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) and 2010/11 ( $\beta_{c4B} = 0.300$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). These results are in line with the types of tourists suggested by Schmidhauser (1976) that in this case may be considered as continuous switcher's tourists who do not come back even though they are satisfied with the destination in their current visit. Moreover, according with DubT & Morgan (1998) satisfaction may be stable over time; despite the fact that emotional and cognitive aspects could change from one encounter to the next. The role of cognitive evaluation processes degrades with continued repurchase decisions (Gefen, 2003), and satisfaction may not be a core element of loyalty (Oliver, 1999).

The results from 2009/10 and 2010/11 showed significant differences in the relation between motivations and variety-seeking. Motivations plays a role in explaining variety-seeking, in particular in Year A ( $\beta_{7A} = 0.864$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ) where the coefficient is higher than in the Year B ( $\beta_{7B} = 0.790$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). That is to say that in 2009/10 tourists' motivations were higher which in turn influence their variety search behaviour. This behaviour was also confirmed by different authors (Anwar & Sohail, 2004; Lau & McKercher, 2004; among others) revealing that first-timers and repeat visitors have significantly different motives for traveling. For instance, first-time visitors were motivated to explore, while repeat visitors came to consume; first-timers participated in geographically dispersed activities, while repeat visitors tended to shop, dine, and spend time with family and friends. In terms of intended activities, most findings seem to suggest that repeat visitors prefer to participate in more social activities such as shopping, dining, and visiting friends and relatives, while first-time visitors seem to enjoy visiting major iconic attractions that may help satisfy novelty seeking motivations (Fallon & Schofield, 2003; Lau & McKercher, 2004). Wang (2004) also showed that repeat visitors were more likely to stay longer, take part in fewer activities and be involved in local life-related activities than first-time visitors.

Finally, the years 2009/10 and 2010/11 showed significant differences in the relation between satisfaction and variety-seeking. The results suggest that satisfaction plays a role in explaining variety-seeking, in particular in 2009/10 ( $\beta_{8A} = 0.495$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ), where the coefficient is higher than in 2010/11 ( $\beta_{8B} = 0.215$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). In this regard, Lau & McKercher (2004); Li *et al.*, (2006); and Oppermann (1997) and Wang (2004) showed that repeaters spend their time more intensively, engage in activities related to local culture and life, prefer participating in more social activities such as shopping, dining or visiting friends and relatives, and are destination-aware visitors who are knowledgeable regarding the range of activities available. Also, consistent with previous studies (Barroso *et al.*, 2007; Kahn *et al.* 1986; McAlister & Pessemier, 1982; Sánchez-García *et al.* 2012; Tang & Chin, 2007), tourists choose alternatives in a rotational way that provides the most enjoyment on a specific consumption occasion even though the alternatives are familiar. Moreover, an increase in the number of trips to a specific destination can cause an individual to be relatively more involved with that destination compared to a traveller with fewer or no previous trips. However, it is important to consider that in 2010/11,

tourist satisfaction has a weaker impact on variety-seeking, which may be explained in that tourist derived varied behaviours, that is triggered by changes in the external environment rather than internal motivation. This external environment may be a consequence of the global crisis that redefined consumers' priorities, and they have become more cautious regarding their variety choices on holidays.

## **CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS.**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The main purpose of this research was to develop a comprehensive destination loyalty model able to shed light on the most important determinants of tourist loyalty. It investigated the theoretical and empirical evidence on the causal relationships among satisfaction, motivations, variety seeking, commitment, investment size, income and loyalty.

The research also examined whether the destination loyalty model was invariant across different destinations in Portugal (Lisbon and Faro and the Azores and Madeira, as well as over the years 2009/10 and 2010/11). The regional and the yearly analyses reinforce the understanding of loyalty process patterns and validate the determinants that persist under different contexts and over the years.

Having undertaken a thorough literature review on different theoretical and empirical marketing and tourism studies that have been proposed in the conceptualization of loyalty, a conceptual tourist loyalty process model was proposed, based on the perspective of the Investment Model (IM). The conceptual structural model was framed in nine research hypotheses, categorizing two types of precursors to customer loyalty (customer satisfaction, variety seeking and commitment) and service/product-related factors (investment size and motivations). The model was empirically tested with data collected from the study INITIATIVE:pt with a total of 8991 international leisure tourists. Data analysis in terms of data description measurement model, hypothesis testing (SEM) and a comparison of different perspectives (multiple group analysis) was applied to test hypotheses considering the different objectives of the present research.

This chapter reviews the findings reported in Chapter VI. In addition, this chapter also addresses how the research findings contribute to the existing body of knowledge in terms of methodological, theoretical and practical approaches. Limitations of the research are also discussed including future research directions.

## 6.2 Conclusions

The purpose of this research was to gain an understanding of the structure and formation of tourist destination loyalty. Specifically, the mindset that sets off the aim of this research was to examine loyalty as a process where several variables intervene in its formation, that is to say in an integrated perspective, considering that in the loyalty research, different constructs were found to contribute separately to explaining tourists' loyalty, but none used all of them simultaneously.

This dissertation postulated that motivation is the starting point, influencing tourists' assessment of the place visited (satisfaction). Satisfaction determines the level of commitment that depends on the investment tourists need to make, and both explain loyalty whether it be from an attitudinal or behavioural perspective. Loyalty is also explained by the promise of tourists to risk new destinations or to engage in the same ones to avoid surprises (variety seeking). The level of variety seeking in which tourists are willing to engage is also explained by motivations and satisfaction, as well as by their socio-demographic profile.

The analysis of these relationships concludes that, as predicted, tourists' push satisfaction (emotional) and pull satisfaction (cognitive) level was positively influenced by push and pull motivations, indicating that the influence of motivations on satisfaction is remarkable, which means that it meets tourists' expectations. The results also determined that the level of commitment is determined by the level of satisfaction, and that tourist attitudinal and behavioural loyalty is influenced by their level of satisfaction. This relation means that the tourist's high levels of satisfaction provides the tourist with repeated positive reinforcement, thus creating commitment-inducing bonds. However, in line with tourist commitment, the results revealed that there is negative relation between the investment size and the commitment. On this point it is important to highlight that in the history of tourism, the year of 2009/10, was marked by a global financial crisis, which redefined tourists' priorities, and they became more cautious regarding their choices.

The findings also showed that the tourist search for variety negatively influences loyalty. The variety-seeking behaviour is more consistent with the need to break with routine in decision-making and to choose to risk new destinations.



Focusing mainly on the measurement of variety seeking and on the motivations that lead consumers to seek variety in their purchases, it was evident that tourists' motivations have a strong influence on tourist variety seeking behaviour. In line with the results of the latent construct "motivations" on the measurement model (CFA), this reveals that tourists' desire to satisfy their intrinsic needs (push motivation) was the more important one. There is a distinction made in the literature review between derived varied behaviour and direct variety seeking (which depends on whether the switching behaviour is extrinsically or intrinsically motivated), but this study suggested that tourists have a direct variety seeking behaviour (intrinsically motivated) that is influenced by their intrinsic motivations and needs.

It was also possible to conclude that tourists' variety seeking is influenced by their level of satisfaction. This indicates that tourists were satisfied with the destination attributes and services and that satisfaction has an impact on their level of curiosity. Lastly, it was possible to confirm tourist variety seeking is negatively influenced by income, meaning that changes in prices and incomes will have an impact on tourists' decisions, conditioning tastes, preferences and desire to take part in different tourist activities.

Finally, and in line with the proposed objectives, the destination loyalty model was tested across Lisbon and Algarve; the Azores and Madeira as well as over the years 2009/10 and 2010/11, and it was found that some of the model constructs and relations exert differential effects between the various groups mentioned and in some cases the relations between the variables was not supported in a region inside the group. As a summary of this evidence, it was in the group of islands, namely the Azores and Madeira, that most of the differential effects were verified. In sum, the results revealed that the model works differently among the regions, and that these differences rely on the characteristics and attractions available at each destination, which in turn have an impact on tourist loyalty behaviour. Moreover, contradictory to the results expected, the relation that posits that composite loyalty is influenced by variety-seeking was not supported for both destinations, suggesting the need to continue researching the intensity relations between these two constructs.

In a perspective over time, it is possible to conclude that five relations exert differential effects over the years. In fact 2009/10 and 2010/11 were two years in which Portugal and Europe had to deal with the implementation of austerity measures which in turns led to

alterations in consumer spending habits. Facing this change in consumers' habits and spending, Portuguese travel agencies and tourism players were compelled to change their core strategies reviewing their offer in order to fulfil consumers' increasing sensitivity to value for money. Moreover, in the Portuguese travel and tourism industry, 2010/11 was a year of success for city breaks and the year of the affirmation of "escapadinhas" as a popular touristic product. Despite being different concepts, the philosophy of these two offerings is based on the same principal: short trips to historical and cultural tourism destinations.

### **6.3 Theoretical Contributions**

Different models were developed conceptually and validated empirically in different cultures, providing an excellent foundation on which to develop a comprehensive but parsimonious model that can be used in travel and tourism research. There are some theoretical contributions that have been established in this study.

The theoretical significance of the present study was drawn from the Investment Model (Rusbult, 1980a, 1980b, 1983; Li, 2006) to reveal the process underlying loyalty formation in the tourism destination context. The Investment Model in this research also integrated the seemingly segregated findings related to the antecedents of loyalty from the leisure/tourism and marketing literature, namely variety seeking, motivations, and tourist family income.

The findings achieved in this research suggest that the Investment Model might provide useful guidance in unifying the seemingly segregated literature, because the determinants of the interpersonal commitment suggested in the Investment Model worked in the context of this study. The commitment determinants identified in the Investment Model applied in this research are reliable with the extant empirical evidence from marketing and leisure/tourism literature studies (Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Kyle & Mowen, 2005). The initial Investment Model proposes satisfaction as a major determinant of commitment (Chiou, 2004; Yang & Peterson, 2004; Yu *et al.*, 2005; among others), a relation that was supported in this case, that is to say, tourist commitment destination is driven by their level of pull and push satisfaction. Moreover, satisfaction has been referred as the most straightforward factor in loyalty (Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Beerli *et al.* 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2004; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), which was also proved

in the context of this research. The Investment Model posits investment size as a key determinant of commitment. However, in this research, and considering the tourism is an industry highly competitive, it was postulate that the investment size had a negative influence on tourist commitment to the destination. Our results were consistent with the results achieved in the literature (Becker, 1960; Rubin & Brockner, 1975; Staw, 1976; Teger, 1980). Additionally, the results also supported commitment as an antecedent of loyalty, in accordance with the authors Beatty, Homerand Kahle (1988); Dick & Basu (1994); Havitz & Howard (1999); Iwasaki & Havitz (2004); Gustafsson *et al.*, (2005); and Evanschitzky *et al.*, (2006) who argues that commitment is an antecedent to customer loyalty or more specifically to its attitudinal and behavioural components

Nevertheless, as an extension of the Investment Model, the proposed model for this research also posits that variety-seeking, tourist motivation and tourist family income, were also important as determinants of loyalty, based on the extant marketing and leisure/tourism literature.

Having in mind that the relationship between variety-seeking and loyalty is an under-researched topic in marketing and leisure/tourism literature (Berné *et al.*, 2001), this research tried to give a new impulse to understand and model variety-seeking in the context of destination loyalty. So, this research stated that tourist variety seeking was a negative predictor of composite loyalty and also that tourist motivations and satisfaction influence variety-seeking, and finally that tourist family income negatively influences variety seeking. The results supported these statements, and revealed that tourist variety-seeking behaviour is generated through a range of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and motivations, but it is not generated by the tourist family income. Moreover variety-seeking as an individual trait negatively affects tourist composite loyalty. This outcome is consistent with the outcome of the studies of Opperman, (1997), Niininen *et al.*, (2004) that tourists' search for variety is a voluntary activity which is directed at breaking with routine. That is to say, that tourists choose alternatives in an alternating way, providing the most enjoyment on a specific consumption occasion (Ratner *et al.*, 1999).

The relation between tourist motivation and satisfaction with the destinations has been widely studied and emphasized by the tourism literature (Kozak, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Correia & Pimpão, 2008; Prebensen *et al.*, 2013). The results supported and revealed that tourists' pull and push motivations influence tourist pull and push

satisfaction. That is to say that tourist intrinsic satisfaction and the level of satisfaction with the services provided at the destination (extrinsic satisfaction), meet their expectations, and therefore, indirectly influence their destination loyalty (Prebensen *et al.*, 2013; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

Another contribution of this research is that it proposes a conceptual tourist destination loyalty formation model (Chapter III, Figure 2) that extends the loyalty literature including some of the most critical antecedents of loyalty formation and the interrelations among these antecedents in a single model.

In the context of travel and tourism, a review of the literature reveals an abundance of studies on the antecedents of loyalty: satisfaction (Anderson & Srinivasan, 2003; Bloemer & Lemmink, 1992; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), switching costs and investments (Backman & Crompton, 1991a; Beerli *et al.*, 2004; Morais *et al.*, 2004), perceived quality (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Olsen, 2002; Yu *et al.*, 2005), and perceived value (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Chiou, 2004; Lam *et al.*, 2004; Yang & Peterson, 2004). All of them prove that each of these constructs contributes separately to explaining tourists' loyalty, but none used all of them simultaneously. Furthermore, although a number of studies have addressed different concepts and relevant models concerning destination loyalty, no empirical study has developed an integrated model that is capable of investigating the tourism consumers' loyalty towards a particular destination. Which means that the structural relationship among tourism consumers' beliefs and attitudes toward tourism destinations remains unexplored. Aside from the lack of integrative models to explain loyalty, further limitations rely on specificities of the geographical analysis undertaken at a single destination and for a single and very limited period (McKercher & Denizci, 2010).

Based on these statements, another theoretical contribution of this research was to propose an integrated conceptual tourist destination loyalty formation model (Chapter III, Figure 2) that extends the loyalty literature, including some of the most critical antecedents of loyalty formation and the interrelations among these antecedents, but in a single model.

The model proposed embraces two streams of variables that differ in time span, namely pre-trip components (tourist motivations and variety-seeking) and post-trip elements (tourist satisfaction, tourist investment size in destination and tourist commitment). The integrative model assumed that motivation is the starting point, influencing tourists'

satisfaction. Satisfaction determines the level of commitment that depends on the investment tourists need to make, and both explain loyalty whether it be from an attitudinal or behavioural perspective. Loyalty is also explained by the promise of the tourists to risk new destinations (variety seeking). The level of variety seeking which tourists are willing to engage in is also explained by motivations and satisfaction, as well as by their socio-demographic profile.

Moreover, as consensus has been reached that loyalty contains a behavioural and an attitudinal component (Cunningham 1956; Pritchard *et al.*, 1999; Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Morais *et al.*, 2004; Bigné & Andreu, 2005; Chen & Wang, 2009), the research operationalizes loyalty as a two-dimensional loyalty construct (tourist composite loyalty) including four items pertaining to attitudinal loyalty (return to final destination; return to Portugal; recommend the final destination and final destination expectations) and one pertaining to behavioural loyalty (frequency of visits to the final destination) in the formation of destination tourist loyalty. This conceptualization was supported by the data. In sum, this study supported the traditional two-dimensional conceptualization of loyalty, which argues that loyalty has an attitudinal and a behavioural component (Backman & Crompton, 1991b; Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Chestnut; 1978; Petrick, 1999; Pritchard *et al.*, 1999; Selin *et al.*, 1988).

The results obtained from SEM analysis offered support for the statistically significant relationships among the variables included in the integrative model.

Finally, and bearing in mind that previous research has rarely addressed temporal issues related to destination revisit (Oppermann, 2000), that changes over time are rarely accounted for and that time is a critical ingredient of strong, committed relationships (Gundlach & Murphy, 1993), another theoretical contribution of this research was to observe tourists' loyalty determinants from a time perspective. Intention often changes over time, and without a longitudinal research it could be difficult to judge conclusively the long-term effect of the relationship (Jang & Feng, 2007; McKercher *et al.*, 2012). Based on the results achieved from the multigroup analysis that examines the extent to which the determinants of loyalty vary over time between 2009/10 and 2010/11, it was possible to verify that in fact there are some determinants applied in the model that have changed over time. The relations which represented the most remarkable changes over time were the influence of motivations on satisfaction; the influence of satisfaction on

commitment; the influence of satisfaction on loyalty; the impact of variety seeking on motivations and satisfaction. This variations over time may reveal that repetition increased tourists' motivations and in turn their level of satisfaction, however, decrease the commitment. Finally, tourist's motivations impacts on their variety seeking behaviour.

The destination and yearly analysis allows us to account for specificities of tourism at the destination level, reinforcing the understanding of loyalty as a process and validating the determinants that persist under different contexts and over the years.

These theoretical contributions may provide a contribution for new research to be undertaken on destination loyalty models, which in this research contributes to the progress in knowledge of the processes which produce loyalty in tourists.

#### **6.4 Methodological Contributions**

The methodology used in this research provides guidelines for further research in this area of study. This is especially true in the case of Portugal.

This research also made some considerable contributions to methodology in a number of aspects. In research practice, several statistical techniques are employed to analyse tourist loyalty as process. Firstly this research has provided a contribution to methodology through the use of the structural equation model, to analyse loyalty as a process where several variables intervene in its formation. This method gives considerable contributions. Firstly, because SEM has the ability to incorporate latent variables, which are not measured directly in the analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2006) and allows the incorporation of latent constructs, which are constructs that cannot be directly measured (Byrne, 2010). As Ullman (2006) stated, SEM is the only possible analysis when the research of interest is complex and multidimensional. In this research, concepts of interest in the study cannot be observed directly, for example, investment size, satisfaction, motivations, composite loyalty and variety-seeking, and could only be measured indirectly by means of observed variables such as questionnaire items used to elicit responses related to such variables.

Furthermore, SEM has been widely used in a number of disciplines; however in the area of travel and tourism studies, SEM is relatively a new concept (Chi & Qu, 2008) and tourism researchers are faced with a set of interrelated questions. Thus it has become

imminent to apply SEM in tourism in order to promote quality research (Turner and Reisinger, 2001). At the individual level, SEM is particularly appropriate for tourism research because the factors influencing tourism demand are linked to personal determinants of consumer behaviour (Smith, 1983). Indeed, given that personal determinants are latent, the SEM model can be best used to represent the observed dimensions of an unobserved structure (Assaker, Vinzi & O'Connor, 2010).

Secondly, this study uses the multigroup analysis technique in SEM, because it allows researchers to compare multiple samples across the same measurement instrument or multiple population groups for any identified structural equation model. Moreover, comparison of the causal relationship across the sample groups or a multiple group analysis have recently received more attention (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The main reason is that the findings of a multiple group analysis offer an in-depth insight in both advanced theoretical contribution and managerial insights (Nyaga *et al.*, 2010). In fact, the use of multigroup analysis has enabled the researcher to effectively find out if there were significant differences in the path relationships of the structure model (if the structural model was invariant), among loyalty and its determinants, in a destination regional perspective, namely between Lisbon and Algarve; and Madeira and the Azores destinations, but also, in a longitudinal perspective (2009/10 and 2010/11).

Finally, and in line with the use of multigroup analysis technique in SEM, and given the lack of previous studies into the widespread lack of longitudinal data on destination choice by individuals, this research addressed temporal issues related to destination, to observe tourists' revisits intentions from a time perspective, because intention often changes over time, and time is significant in tourist retention and loyalty (Oppermann, 2000). Destination loyalty essentially places the emphasis on a longitudinal perspective, looking at lifelong visitation behaviour of travellers rather than just at a cross-sectional perspective in which today's visitation is completely unrelated to previous visitation or, in a more general perspective, to previous experience per se.

The longitudinal perspective adopted in this research as a method, gives a new perspective about the changes over time, in tourist loyalty, bearing in mind the notion that past experience has an influence on future behaviour in a tourism destination choice context.

### **6.5 Practical Implications**

Nowadays destinations are continuously facing tough competition in the tourism market, and DMO and destinations operators need to have a better understanding when visitors become loyal to a particular destination and what are the determinants of loyalty that help in retaining visitors over long periods and in different regions of a destination. The results provided in this study are a useful tool for destination managers to evaluate the destination performances, and try to monitor their tourists' loyalty, which means that this research also aims to contribute with knowledge that could help DMOs to tackle such a challenge: gaining and retaining destination visitors.

Tourism marketing strategies are broadly directed at maintaining healthy revisitation levels by enhancing destination loyalty, while at the same time stimulating demand through attracting new tourists. These strategies are related to the relationship management perspective, in which marketing strategies attempting to attract more customers are defined as transactional while marketing strategies attempting to get more business from a select number of existing customers are titled relational (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987; Grönroos, 1994). However, contrary to what seems to be happening in destination marketing thought, these two paradigms should not be treated as independent but rather understood as situated at opposite ends of a continuum (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987). In destination marketing, one end of this continuum would have tourists engaging in discrete transactions with the destination, exchanging money for goods and services. The other end of the continuum would have tourists engaged in relationships with the destination, making tangible and intangible investments and expecting equitable retribution over time. In between, there would be tourists engaged in destination choices involving both transactional and relational characteristics.

For tourism destinations attempting to keep their current tourists, this study identifies four areas that they need to focus on, namely satisfaction, motivation, tourist investment size, and tourist income and tourist commitment, as a way to involve transactional and relational strategies.

Strategically improving tourist satisfaction is not a new idea. Therefore, destination managers should focus on establishing a high visitor satisfaction level so as to create positive post-purchase visitor behaviour and improve/sustain destination competitiveness. This research proposes that satisfaction is strongly predicted by tourist



motivations, that is to say that destination attributes have to confirm and exceed the initial tourist's expectations. It is known that tourist satisfaction is subjective in nature, and that it may be influenced by many factors beyond managers' power. Consequently, from a managerial perspective, tourism destinations have to continue to improve tourist satisfaction by enhancing the quality and value of the destinations, but also, of their tourism services, both of which are under management's control (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Petrick, 2004).

However, to improve the destination and service quality, it is essential to understand the benefits sought by their tourists, and move their resources accordingly to improve service attributes that can satisfy such benefits (Petrick, 2004). That is to say that destinations managers should invest resources in tourist profile and behaviour research, in a systematic way, through a destination marketing information system (DMIS). This systematic research about tourist behaviour should incorporate both the attitudinal and behavioural variables of loyalty, as a useful tool for destination managers to evaluate destination performances, and try to monitor their tourists' loyalty, but also as a way to fully understand tourist loyalty. Moreover, understanding why tourist loyalty fluctuates over time, its satisfaction, investment size and also the quality and value, should be analysed using benchmarking metrics, as a way to compare destinations' performance and help to identify where the problem is. This kind of research is increasingly important for an effective marketing mix, and comprehensive DMISs can underpin the promotional efforts of destination marketing organisations (DMOs) and ensure a competitive marketing strategic perspective.

The results achieved from the relation between investment size and commitment, which in this case state a negative relation, supports the idea that destination operators and DMO should consider monetary price and non-monetary price at the destination operations level to improve the performance and competitiveness of the destination in the wider competitive market. They should consider not only so called monetary pricing of products and services but also improve the action on non-monetary pricing. By giving more attention to the components of monetary and non-monetary investments, it becomes a more alluring factor for travellers to visit the destination. It is known that generally, monetary investment has a higher evaluation than non-monetary investments but this might not be true for rich visitors who like to avoid physical and mental hassles.

Portugal as a tourism destination is recognized as a country where the regional diversity is evident as well as the diversity of tourism products. Buhalis (2000) describes tourism destinations as a bundle of tourism products able to offer an integrated experience to consumers and highlights the role that planning and marketing play in its management. Tourist variety-seeking behaviour has been suggested as one of the main driving forces of multi-destination trips, which might lead to visiting different destinations. Investigation of multi-destination trips has been considered as one of the solutions where the linkage between destinations may provide bases for destination bundling or development of collaborative marketing strategies, in order to retain tourists and improve the whole experience (Tideswell & Faulkner, 1999; Tussyadiah, Kono & Morisugi, 2006).

However, bearing in mind that tourism activity is made up of a fragmented structure requiring the coordination of different actors, as well as the development of partnerships, the competitive advantage of the destination can be also highly influenced by the ability to operationalise a complex and integrated final tourist product that satisfies and is capable of capturing and retaining tourists in the destination. Moreover, travellers who are loyal to specific leisure activities or destinations are significantly more likely to select destinations in which they can participate in those activities during their “free time”. Additionally, these loyal individuals are much less sensitive to changes in costs and policies associated with these leisure activities (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006). By identifying the activity loyalties of travellers, city and tourism planners can develop destination activities and adopt appropriate policies and price-points to effectively retain current visitors as well as attracting new visitors.

This variability provides an excellent opportunity for new research to be undertaken on developing a comprehensive destination loyalty model that not only contributes to progress in knowledge on the processes which produce loyalty in tourists, but also to progress in management techniques and marketing strategies aiming at destination loyalty.

## 6.6 Limitations and Future Research Directions

As with all scientific research of this kind, there are limitations to our study that should be explicitly noted, and these limitations point to directions for future research.

This study was an initial attempt to understand the structure and antecedents of the loyalty construct. The results achieved were based on data collected in four of the five most important airports in Portugal (Faro, Lisbon, the Azores and Madeira); so incorporating data from the tourists who arrived at Porto airport may enhance the representativeness of the present results. Thus, further research is necessary in order to determine whether the theoretical relationships identified in this study are generalizable to other geographic regions, and other types of travellers.

The data used in this research followed the repeated routes under the Initiative:pt program, on 2009/10 and 2010/11 namely, Lisbon the European cities: Cork, Helsinki, Moscow and Warsaw; in Faro; Liverpool, Bremen, Dusseldorf (Niederrhein), Frankfurt (Hahn), Knock, Kerry, Derry, Madrid, Stockholm (Skavsta), Paris (Beauvais), Oslo (Rygge), Memmingen (Mun), Maastricht and Billund. In the Islands, the main European cities were for Azores: Copenhagen, Stockholm and Toronto and Madeira International Airport: Bristol, London (Stansted), London (Gatwick), Manchester, Paris (Orly), Copenhagen and Stockholm.

Furthermore, this research examines for similarities and differences in the different path relationships of the structure model, between loyalty process and its determinants, in a destination regional perspective, namely between Lisbon and the Algarve; and Madeira and the Azores destinations.

In with this limitations, as a future research, instead of comparing destination regions, it will be important to compare the main incoming markets of Portugal. Effective marketing considers building a loyal customer importance as the foundation of product or enterprise success, for loyal customers provide a solid base of regular, heavy users who generate a reliable revenue stream. They are also thought to be the most profitable user group, with the costs of retaining them substantially less than those associated with attracting new consumers (Haywood, 1989; Rosenberg & Czepiel, 1984; Oppermann, 2000).

Further, several variables in the socio-demographic context (age and gender, among others) have been referred as determinants or moderators in tourists' propensity to be loyal. Our research only used family income as an antecedent of variety-seeking, so more research is necessary in order to explore the role of other socio-demographic variables in the loyalty process.

The model of this type of research should incorporate additional and necessary variables on the basis of context (destination attributes) that may influence the process of tourism consumer choice decision-making and loyalty judgment. While it may be too difficult to build an inclusive model about the tourism consumer loyalty judgment process, it may be possible to develop an acceptable integrated but parsimonious model gathering knowledge from various disciplines.

Concerning the longitudinal research design, this study only covers two years (2009/10 and 2010/11) in its analysis. Thus, future research is needed to incorporate a longer period with a 5-year time frame, to fully understand how long tourists persist in the same destination, but also, to re-define tourist segmentation based on tourist destination loyalty. On the cross regional analysis, one of the statement that posits that composite loyalty is influenced by variety-seeking was not supported on this research in Azores and Madeira islands suggesting the need to continue researching the intensity relations between these two constructs.

Finally, in this research, loyalty measurement was operationalized using a two-dimensional construct made up of an attitudinal and a behavioural component, referred to as tourist composite loyalty. The theoretical framework proposed comprises these two dimensions and the results performed well. Acknowledging that consumer loyalty is multidimensional, future research should go a step farther and begin to investigate the relation between these two dimensions of the loyalty construct.

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## **APPENDIX QUESTIONNAIRE**

Aeroporto: \_\_\_\_\_

Inquiridor:  Data:    Companhia:  Rota:

Dear Mr. /Miss /Mrs.:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate your trip. To do this we kindly ask you to answer all of the following questions. All information is confidential. Thank you in advance for your contribution.

Part A - TRIP LOGISTICS

► 1. Where is your permanent place of residence? Portugal <sub>1</sub> City: \_\_\_\_\_; Outside of Portugal <sub>2</sub> City: \_\_\_\_\_; Country: \_\_\_\_\_

► 2. During your travelling trip where have you been/are you going to be? In Portugal <sub>1</sub> Outside of Portugal <sub>2</sub> Both in and out of Portugal <sub>3</sub>

► 3. Did you arrive at Portugal through the same route that you are taking to leave?

No <sub>1</sub> Yes <sub>2</sub>



3.1) If not, in which portuguese airport did you enter?

- Lisbon ..... <sub>1</sub>
- Oporto ..... <sub>2</sub>
- Faro ..... <sub>3</sub>
- Madeira ..... <sub>4</sub>
- Porto Santo ..... <sub>5</sub>
- Ponta Delgada (João Paulo II) ..... <sub>6</sub>
- Horta ..... <sub>7</sub>
- Other ..... <sub>8</sub>
- Which? \_\_\_\_\_

3.2) At the airport you stayed/will stay:

\_\_\_\_\_ days; \_\_\_\_\_ hours

3.3) Did you do/are you going to do transit within airports?

No <sub>1</sub> Yes <sub>2</sub>

3.3.1) If yes, what is your situation?

- You stayed/will stay at the airport ..... <sub>1</sub>
- You went/will go out to a sidewalk ..... <sub>2</sub>
- You slept/will sleep close to the airport ..... <sub>3</sub>

3.4) What was/is your destination when you start(ed) your travel?

City: \_\_\_\_\_;

Where did you stay: \_\_\_\_\_ days; \_\_\_\_\_ nights.

3.5) Which mean of transportation did you use/or go to use between the airport and the final destination?

Car <sub>1</sub> Bus <sub>2</sub>

Other <sub>3</sub> Which? \_\_\_\_\_

► 4. At your final destination, which type of accommodation did you choose?

- Hotel ..... <sub>1</sub> → Name of the hotel: \_\_\_\_\_
- Aparthotel ..... <sub>2</sub> → Name of the aparthotel: \_\_\_\_\_
- Rented house ..... <sub>3</sub>
- Family/friends house ..... <sub>4</sub>
- Own house ..... <sub>5</sub>
- Other ..... <sub>6</sub> → Which? \_\_\_\_\_

► 5. Which regime did you reserve?

- No meals ..... <sub>1</sub>
- Breakfast only ..... <sub>2</sub>
- Half board (2 meals) ..... <sub>3</sub>
- Full board (3 meals) ..... <sub>4</sub>
- All inclusive ..... <sub>5</sub>

► 6. What kind of transportation did/will you use more often at your final destination?

- Rented car ..... <sub>1</sub> Taxi ..... <sub>4</sub>
- Public transportation ..... <sub>2</sub> Transfer (private bus/van) ..... <sub>5</sub>
- Private car ..... <sub>3</sub> Other. Which? \_\_\_\_\_ <sub>6</sub>

► 7. During this trip, besides your final destination, did you visit / plan to visit other sites? No <sub>1</sub> Yes <sub>2</sub>

7.1) If yes, where and how long: City: \_\_\_\_\_; nights: \_\_\_\_\_;  
City: \_\_\_\_\_; nights: \_\_\_\_\_;  
City: \_\_\_\_\_; nights: \_\_\_\_\_;  
City: \_\_\_\_\_; nights: \_\_\_\_\_.

► 8. In total, how many days were / will you be away from home on this trip? \_\_\_\_\_ days.

► 9. What is/was the main purpose of your trip?

- Vacation/Leisure <sub>1</sub> Business <sub>2</sub>
- Visiting family & friends <sub>3</sub>

9.1) What type of holidays did you take?

- Sun and sand <sub>1</sub> Golf <sub>2</sub> Sports <sub>3</sub> Honeymoon <sub>4</sub> MICE (e.g. Congress) <sub>5</sub>
- Health and well-being <sub>6</sub> Religion <sub>7</sub> Culture <sub>8</sub> Nature <sub>9</sub>
- Other <sub>10</sub> Which? \_\_\_\_\_

► 10. Whom are/were you travelling with?

- Spouse <sub>1</sub> Family <sub>2</sub> Friends <sub>3</sub> Alone <sub>4</sub> Excursion group <sub>5</sub> Other <sub>6</sub> Which? \_\_\_\_\_

► 11. How many people are/were travelling (including you)?

\_\_\_\_\_ Children (0-12 years)+ \_\_\_\_\_ Teens (13-17 years)+ \_\_\_\_\_ Adults (+18 years) = \_\_\_\_\_ (total).



Part B - TRAVELLING EXPENSES

(The following information will assist us to calculate the tourist economic activity. All information remains confidential and anonymous)

- ▶ 12. Did you buy a travel package? No <sub>1</sub> (If not, please go to question 15) Yes <sub>2</sub> ▶ 13. What was the package cost  €
- ▶ 14. Please indicate which services were included in your vacation package? ▶ 15. What was the cost of each component of the trip?
- |   |  |                              |                       |                            |
|---|--|------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Flight ..... <input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>        | Food and Beverages ..... <input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>     | Total <input type="text"/> € | Flight _____ €        | Food and Beverages _____ € |
| Accommodation ..... <input type="checkbox"/> <sub>3</sub> | Entertainment ..... <input type="checkbox"/> <sub>4</sub>          |                              | Accommodation _____ € | Entertainment _____ €      |
| Transports ..... <input type="checkbox"/> <sub>5</sub>    | Other expenses. Which? _____ <input type="checkbox"/> <sub>6</sub> |                              | Transports _____ €    | Other expenses _____ €     |
- ▶ 16. Did you make purchases at the airport today? No <sub>1</sub> Yes <sub>2</sub> 16.1) If yes, how much did you spend?  € 16.2) What did you buy? \_\_\_\_\_
- ▶ 17. Beyond what was paid for the trip, how much pocket money did you spend/ intend to spend daily?  €
- ▶ 18. In economic terms, how do you evaluate your final destination?
- Very inexpensive <sub>1</sub> Inexpensive <sub>2</sub> Fairly priced <sub>3</sub> Expensive <sub>4</sub> Very expensive <sub>5</sub>

Part C - TRAVEL EXPERIENCE

- ▶ 19. How often do you travel on holidays?
- This is my 1st trip <sub>1</sub> Once a year <sub>2</sub> Twice a year <sub>3</sub> 3 or more times per year <sub>4</sub>
- ▶ 20. Have you ever visited your final destination before? No <sub>1</sub> Yes <sub>2</sub> ▶ 21. If yes, what sort of trip was it?
- ..... <sub>1</sub> I spend holidays there every year .....
- ..... <sub>2</sub> I am a repeat visitor but not on a regular basis .....
- ▶ 22. When was your first trip to the final destination? \_\_\_\_\_ (year) <sub>3</sub> This is a repeat visit but is the last one .....
- And how many times have you been in your final destination? \_\_\_\_\_ <sub>4</sub> I intend to visit other places but return within 5 years .....
- ▶ 23. How do you distribute your vacation time? <sub>5</sub> Other. Which? \_\_\_\_\_
- I always travel to the same destination..... <sub>1</sub>
- I usually choose from 2 or 3 favourite destinations..... <sub>2</sub>
- Half of the time in a new destination and the other half in a known one..... <sub>3</sub>
- I prefer new destinations even if I repeat some..... <sub>4</sub>
- I never repeat the same destination; I always choose a new site..... <sub>5</sub>
- ▶ 24. Where would you like to travel to on your next trip? \_\_\_\_\_

Part D - BUYING/CONSUMPTION PROCEDURES

- ▶ 25. How far in advance did you book your trip? \_\_\_\_\_ (days) I don't remember <sub>0</sub> ▶ 26. How long have you been planning your trip?
- ..... No advance planning ..... <sub>1</sub> More than 3 months..... <sub>4</sub>
- ..... Between 1 week & 1month..... <sub>2</sub> I don't remember..... <sub>5</sub>
- ..... Between 1 month & 3 months <sub>3</sub>
- ▶ 27. How important are the following sources to collect information about your final destination? (Please, tick the option that best describes your attitude)
- |                          | Not important<br>1       | Somewhat important<br>2  | Moderately important<br>3 | Quite important<br>4     | Extremely important<br>5 | Not used<br>1            | Before I left home<br>2  | During my trip<br>3      |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Advertising .....        | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Brochures & guides ..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Promotions .....         | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Internet .....           | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Family & friends .....   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Travel agent.....        | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
- ▶ 28. When did you use it?
- ..... <sub>1</sub> Not used <sub>2</sub> Before I left home <sub>3</sub> During my trip
- ..... <sub>4</sub> Airline website <sub>5</sub> Other website <sub>6</sub> Other <sub>6</sub> Which? \_\_\_\_\_
- ▶ 29. How did you book your flight? (Please, choose just one option)
- Airline ticket desk <sub>1</sub> Call center <sub>2</sub> Travel agent/Tour operator <sub>3</sub> Internet <sub>4</sub> Airline website <sub>4</sub> Other <sub>6</sub> Which? \_\_\_\_\_
- ▶ 30. How did you book your trip? (Please, choose just one option)
- Internet <sub>1</sub> Call center <sub>2</sub> Travel agent/Tour operator <sub>3</sub> Other <sub>4</sub> Which? \_\_\_\_\_

► 31. Travelling to your final destination was your first option?

No  1 Yes  2

► 32. If not, why did you opt for that destination then?

- Due to the flight price .....  1
- Due to the convenience of flight .....  2
- Due to the whole trip costs .....  3
- It was a decision of my travel companion(s) .....  4
- Other. Which? .....  5

► 33. How much did you intend to spend with this trip (flight, hotel, food & beverages, ...?)

- Less than 500€ .....  1
- 501€ - 1000€ .....  2
- 1001€ - 1500€ .....  3
- 1501€ - 2000€ .....  4
- More than 2000€ .....  5

► 34. Why did you choose this period to travel?

- School holidays .....  1
- Work commitments .....  2
- Weather conditions .....  3
- Family commitments .....  4
- Good value for money .....  5
- Other. Which? .....  6

Part E - MOTIVATIONS & EXPECTATIONS

► 35. Before travelling, what was your expectation towards your final destination?

Very low  1 Low  2 No expectations  3 Moderate  4 High  5

► 36. When deciding your travel itinerary, how important were the following aspects:

	Not important 1	Somewhat important 2	Moderately important 3	Quite important 4	Extremely important 5
To do something together with my family.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To get away from the usual demands of life.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To do what most others have not done, and then tell my friends about it.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To try as many things as possible.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To visit places unfamiliar for me.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To learn about cultures where I travel.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To return home with a story to tell that will dazzle my friends.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To re-live good times I have had in the past.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To seek novelty & change.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To have fun.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To have an adventure.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To visit a region where I haven't been before.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To know interesting people.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To be at a place with fame & reputation.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To go to recommended places.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ability to communicate in foreign languages.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cleanliness.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Safety & security.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Landscape & nature.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural & historical resources.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nightlife.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Commerce.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Information available.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sports equipment.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Transportation facilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Closeness to home.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accommodation.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gastronomy.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Price.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Weather.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relaxing environment.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accessibilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Social life.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hospitality.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Originality & Exoticism.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Beaches.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sightseeing & excursions.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Golf facilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hospitals/ Public health services.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hospitals/ Private health services.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Thermal places/ Spa.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

► 37. What is your attitude towards each of the following activities?  
(Please, tick the answer that best describes your attitude)

	I didn't intend to participate and I didn't	I intended to participate but I didn't	I didn't intend to participate but casually I did	I intended to participate and I did it
	1	2	3	4
Going to the beach.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shopping.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Attending cultural activities (museums, theatre, ...)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Visiting historical places & monuments.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Golf.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Practising other sports.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nightlife activities (disco, bars, ...)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Excursions & sightseeing.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Health & well-being facilities (Spa, thermal places, ...)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Events & festivals.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nature expeditions (ecology, trekking, ...)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Wine & gastronomic experiences.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Conferences & seminars.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Travelling to other places. Which?.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

37.1) If you intended to participate or if you participated, tell us the main reason:

- Health reasons.....  1  
 Beauty/aesthetics.....  2  
 Other reason. Wich?.....  3

► 38. How satisfied are you with the following attributes of the destination?

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
	1	2	3	4	5
To do something together with my family.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To get away from the usual demands of life.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To do what most others have not done, and then tell my friends about it.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To try as many things as possible.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To visit places unfamiliar for me.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To learn about cultures where I travel.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To return home with a story to tell that will dazzle my friends.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To re-live good times I have had in the past.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To seek novelty & change.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To have fun.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To have an adventure.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To visit a region where I haven't been before.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To know interesting people.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To be at a place with fame & reputation.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To go to recommended places.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ability to communicate in foreign languages.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cleanliness.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Safety & security.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Landscape & nature.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural & historical resources.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nightlife.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Commerce.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Information available.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sports equipment.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Transportation facilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Closeness to home.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accommodation.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gastronomy.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Price.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Weather.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relaxing environment.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accessibilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Social life.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hospitality.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Originality & Exoticism.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Beaches.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sightseeing & excursions.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Golf facilities.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

► 39. Which is the degree of your overall satisfaction with the destination? Very dissatisfied 1 Dissatisfied 2 Satisfied 3 Very satisfied 4 Extremely satisfied 5

► 40. What did you like the best in your final destination? \_\_\_\_\_

► 41. If you have used health & well-being facilities, what is your level of satisfaction with:

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
Hospitals/ Public health services .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hospitals/ Private health services .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Thermal places/ Spa .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

► 42. How do you rate it: (Please, tick the answer that best describes your attitude)

	Worse than I expected 1	Exactly what I expected 2	Better than I expected 3
Final destination .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Service of the airline .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Service at the airport .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

► 43. Do you intend to: (Please, tick the answer that best describes your attitude)

	No 1	I don't know 2	Probably 3	For sure 4	I live in Portugal 5
Return to your final destination .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Return to Portugal .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Travel with the same airline .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

► 44. Would you recommend to friends and relatives? (Please, tick the answer that best describes your attitude)

	No 1	I don't know 2	Probably 3	Definitely 4	I live in Portugal 5
Final destination .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Portugal as a tourism destination .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The airline used on this trip .....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

► 45. Do you intend to buy a vacation house in Portugal?

No 1 I don't know 2 Probably 3 Definitely 4

I already have one 5 I live in Portugal 6

**Part 6 - PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

► 46. Age:     ► 47. Gender: Female 1 Male 2    ► 48. Nationality: \_\_\_\_\_

► 49. Social status: Single 1 Married / Living together 2 Divorced 3 Widowed 4 With underage children (0-12 years) 5

► 50. Do you speak the language of the country you are visiting? No 1 Yes 2    ► 51. Education:

► 52. Family average monthly income:

Less than 2000€ ..... 1

2001€ - 3500€ ..... 2

3501€ - 5000€ ..... 3

5001€ - 8000€ ..... 4

8001€ and above ..... 5

► 53. Employment situation:

Employed 1 Unemployed 2

Not Active 3 Student 4 Retired 5 Other 6

Which? \_\_\_\_\_

Elementary ..... 1

Secondary ..... 2

University/College ..... 3

Pos/graduate ..... 4

Other. Which? \_\_\_\_ 5

► 54. Job: \_\_\_\_\_

► 55. Are you an emigrant at your place of residence? No 1 Yes 2

Please help us to ensure the reliability of your responses. Give us your e-mail, if you are willing to assist in the validation process of this data collection.  
E-mail: \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for your contribution!