Advancing Tourist Destination Image Theory:
Formation Antecedents and Behavioral Consequences

by

Mohammed Hasan Alwan

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Abstract

Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is three-fold:

(1) To examine the effect of four personal factors (institutional trust (IT), consumer ethnocentrism tendency (CET), consumer cosmopolitanism (COS), and personality type (PT) on the formation of the domestic tourist destination image (DTDI),

(2) To examine the effect of DTDI on the destination brand experience (DBE), tourist satisfaction (TS), behavioral intentions and the relationships among them, and

(3) To assess the potential applicability of relative deprivation theory, the means-end approach, leisure constraints theory, freedom-seeking theory, and prestige-seeking theory on the tourist preference for international versus domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia.

Design/methodology/approach

A sample of 1,564 Saudi citizens was collected through an online questionnaire using established valid and reliable measures for each construct. A theoretical model that included the antecedents and consequences of DTDI was designed based on the latest status of the topic in the literature. The data were analyzed statistically using structural equation modeling (SEM) in order to test the model. The results are then discussed in the light of nine interviews with tourism officials, experts, and professionals.

Findings

Personal factors were found to influence tourists' perceptions of DTDI. In some tourism-related institutions, IT was also found to be influential, as was the "preference for local product" dimension of CET. COS was found to influence only DBE via one dimension only: open-mindedness. One personality type, openness-to-experience, had an influence on DTDI. DTDI

was found to influence DBE, TS, and all behavioral intentions. DBE was found to be a partial mediator in the relationship between DTDI and TS. TS was found to mediate the relationship between DBE and both behavioral intentions.

Research limitation

The context of the study involves only one destination, the Aseer region in Saudi Arabia, and the sample consists only of Saudi citizens. Although this was useful for testing the model, generalizability cannot be claimed with confidence before multiple replications across different cultures. In addition, the scales selected to measure the different constructs in the model, although chosen carefully to provide the most accurate, reliable, and valid results possible, have their own limitations. The study obtained its data via a web-based questionnaire, a method that has been criticized for being less interactive and for generating limited and unrepresentative samples.

Practical implications

This research informs Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) about the existing relationship between IT in their institutions as well as in other relevant institutions and the images of the destinations they are promoting. The results revealed the roles played by CET, COS, and PT on DTDI formation, which should be beneficial for both tourist segmentation and marketing communication. The research also confirms the pivotal importance of DBE for DMOs as an influential construct that affects both tourist satisfaction and loyalty.

Originality/value

This is the first study to examine the effect of IT on TDI research. The relationship was confirmed and has thus advanced our understanding of how TDI is formed and perceived. The study has also examined the role of CET and COS among the citizens of the same country in which the destination is

found, which is a novel pursuit that has added to the knowledge of domestic tourism, CET, and COS.

Keywords

- Domestic tourism
- Tourist destination image (TDI)
- Domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)
- Institutional trust (IT)
- Consumer ethnocentrism tendency (CET)
- Consumer cosmopolitanism (COS)
- Personality type (PT)
- Destination brand experience (DBE)
- Structural equation modeling (SEM)
- Aseer region
- Saudi Arabia

إلى من علمتني حروف الأبجدية

أهدي

رسالة الدكتوراة

إلى أمي

حصّة ناصِر النَّابِت

To who taught me the alphabet

I dedicate

My doctoral thesis

My Mother

Hessah Nasser Alnabit

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1.1 The context

Tourism, as a sociological activity (Urry and Cooper 1991), an economic force (Sharma 2004), an anthropological subject (Nash 1981), a geographical phenomenon (Currin 2002), a psychological disposition (Pinillos 1990), and a policy field (Smith 2010) is one of the most influential activities undertaken by people across the world at present. National economies, entire societies, and multiple industries are dependent on tourism, sometimes almost entirely, to achieve sustainable growth and economic development (Lea 1988). The significant role tourism can play in supporting the lives of individuals and societies has focused global attention on tourism and made it a recipient of considerable support from international organizations, local governments, business entities, non-profit organizations, and industry leaders. It has also experienced thorough investigation by both academics and practitioners in different disciplines who have applied multiple points of view, which has made tourism a multi-faceted phenomenon.

In 2014, around 1.13 billion tourists crossed international borders, generating an average of USD 4 billion per day (1.5 trillion a year) for the world's economy from tourism receipts, export earning, and transport services (UNWTO 2015). These figures are even more impressive when we consider that they have been growing by an average of 5% for the fifth year in a row, despite the variety of challenges ranging from slow global economic recovery, geopolitical

instability in some regions, and the breakout of several disease epidemics. This performance confirms that tourism is one of the strongest and most sustainable industries in the world (Robinson, Heitmann, and Dieke 2011), ranking fourth after fuels, chemicals, and food and, most interestingly, ahead of the automotive industry (UNWTO 2015).

Despite its ranking, tourism is deemed to contribute more to economic development as it generates more employment than any other industry, spreading the earnings across different levels of beneficiaries (UNWTO 2015). Of every eleven individuals in the global work force, one is employed in tourism or tourism-related industries (UNWTO 2014a). Tourism is becoming more inclusive of different socioeconomic classes, allowing middle and even lower classes to engage in it actively (Kozak and Baloglu 2010). It also supports economic development through better infrastructure, education, health, and communication, all of which improve the quality of life for host communities. In a growing trend, tourism also promotes sustainable development through the preservation of natural and cultural heritage (UNEP 2002). Table 1.1 summarizes some of the key facts published in the UNWTO's 2014 edition of its annual tourism highlights.

• Percentage of world GDP	9%
• Contribution to global employment	266 million jobs
• Global exports	USD 1.5 trillion
• Global exports	6%
• Global service export	30%
• Number of International tourist arrivals (Global)	1.087 billion
• Number of domestic tourist arrivals (Global)	5 to 6 billion
Source: (UNWTO 2014a)	

Table 1.1 Key facts about tourism

The rapid growth of the business of tourism and the effect of its activities on economic development and national economies are accompanied by increasing diversification and competition among destinations as more of them enter the tourism market every year (UNWTO 2014a). This occurs as more countries and cities are turning to tourism in order to realize its potential economic rewards (Crouch and Ritchie 1999). In order to respond to this intensifying competition, more destinations have engaged in strategic marketing efforts in order to distinguish themselves from the crowd and to secure a sustainable presence in the market for global tourism. In addition, some abrupt international events that have constrained international travel (e.g. terrorism) have increased the need for systematic marketing on the part of destinations (Papadopoulos 2004). The systematic and strategic marketing of destinations involves, at its core, the creation and management of the tourist destination image (TDI).

The reality of globalization has intensified the impact of TDI to an unprecedented level. In many cases, TDI plays a vital role in the potency of the economic activities upon which the area is dependent to grow and survive. The impact is, of course, also dependent on other factors, but the undisputed fact is that it is becoming more important every day as destinations are becoming highly substitutable (Pike and Ryan 2004). Many governments are fully aware of the significance of TDI in the economic performance of the destination. This awareness has been transformed into strategic plans to manage this image in order to yield the most favorable results. The image portrayed by a destination

constitutes an important part of its “brand”. Consisting of more than just a visual image, TDI was defined by Crompton (1979:18) as “*an attitudinal concept consisting of the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions of a destination that a tourist holds*”¹; Governments try to ensure that places under their governance project images that help them to achieve the goals of economic development. Governments’ efforts that are implemented to create, develop, maintain, and manage such images vary from place to place, mainly according to the difficulties and challenges faced by governments in acquiring and developing the images, and the type of economic activities on which government officials are focusing. A wide spectrum of political, economic, geographical, social, and cultural factors is also involved in the image-management process. However, these images exist regardless of deliberate efforts to create them, and thus their impacts on the places in question are inevitable.

Many governments have established specific organizations commissioned to manage the image of the entire place from all possible angles or specifically to manage particular aspects of it related to defined economic activities. Among these government organizations, some are principally responsible for attracting visitors, and these are commonly known as destination marketing organizations (DMOs). In many cases, DMOs have little actual power to design and develop the industry as a whole (Kozak and Baloglu 2010), and thus their roles become limited to the marketing and provision of visitor services (Gretzel, Yuan, and

¹ More definitions of TDI are found in Section 2.2.

Fesenmaier 2000). At the center of this focused marketing duty is managing the image of the destination.

Besides attracting foreign tourists, DMOs also strive to encourage more domestic tourism. DMOs realize the economic value of convincing citizens to choose a domestic instead of an international destination. Domestic tourism is defined as *“trips taken by a person in the country where he or she lives, regardless of citizenship”* (Smith 2010: 4). Jafari (1986) listed some distinctive economic and social benefits of domestic tourism. From an economic perspective, there is an obvious economic value in retaining tourism expenditure within the local economy and redistributing the national wealth via the tourism industry. Domestic tourism produces a more stable and predictable demand than does international tourism, which is highly influenced by global economic and political scenarios. From a sociocultural perspective, the benefits of domestic tourism include increasing national awareness and reducing racial, religious, and ethnic differences. Seckelmann (2002) argued that domestic tourists contribute to regional income more effectively since they are usually independent of a special infrastructure. They drive their own cars, choose their own activities, and decide where they want to shop and eat themselves. In his study of domestic tourism in Kenya, Sinclair (1990) viewed domestic tourism as a promoter of national unity and integration. The Indonesian government, for instance, included domestic tourism as part of its holistic nation-building strategy (Adams 1998).

One of the countries that strive to realize the benefits of domestic tourism is Saudi Arabia. The Saudi supreme commission for tourism and antiquities (SCTA) has identified the promotion of domestic tourism as its first strategic target (SCTA 2002). In the case of Saudi Arabia, where oil is the main source of national income, the economic incentive of promoting domestic tourism is low, yet the sociocultural incentive is high. The expenditure of Saudi tourists outside the country in 2015 was USD25.6 billion (MAS 2016), equivalent to 3.8% of the total GDP. However, Saudi Arabia's legal and cultural environment has been a challenging barrier to hosting foreign tourists other than religious tourists¹. Laws that ban women from driving cars, dictate their dress codes in public, and restrict their mingling with non-family men are examples of the barriers that prevent Saudi Arabia from welcoming foreign tourists on an extended scale. In theory, these barriers do not exist in the case of domestic tourism since citizens are already accustomed to these laws or are perhaps in agreement with them. In its 1994 development plan, the Saudi Ministry of Economics and Planning mentioned that domestic tourism is an effective way of preserving the unique values, traditions, and identity of Saudi society (Development Plan 1994). Domestic tourism may thus compensate for the revenue that is not derived from foreign tourism (Som and Al-Kassem 2013) without having to alter the legal and social environment in Saudi Arabia to make it more foreigner-friendly.

However, in reality, convincing more Saudis to travel to domestic destinations has proved to be a difficult task. The challenge is more difficult with

¹ Barriers to tourism in Saudi Arabia are explained in Section 4.3

regard to better-educated and wealthier Saudis (Bogari, Crowther and Marr 2004). In 2008, the Tourism Information and Research Center, the official research center of SCTA, listed 43 obstacles that hinder the growth of the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia (MAS 2008), of which all affect both international and domestic tourism equally. These obstacles include the lack of coordination among the major players in the industry, the ambiguity of the tourism regulations decided by various government agencies, and the lack of legal and organizational structure in the tourism sector. These obstacles are thought to be directly and indirectly, fully or partially, responsible for the tremendous number of outbound Saudi departures in 2015, which exceeded 21.5 million trips, or about 8.6% more than the number of outbound departures in 2014 (MAS 2016).

Realizing both the potential of and the challenges to domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia, the SCTA has confirmed the promotion of domestic tourism as its central task and has identified the following three target markets in its long-term strategy:

(1) Domestic tourism,

(2) Religious tourism, and

(3) Specialized foreign niche markets based on the country's social and cultural heritage (SCTA 2002).

SCTA supervises the marketing of 13 destinations scattered across the vast country. Each destination encompasses a different touristic outlook that requires

a distinct brand image of its own. Historically, one of the most attractive destinations has been Aseer (or Asir), a region situated in the south west of the country that is known for its mountainous topography, and cool and mild climate that typically attracts summer vacationers when the rest of the country's climate is extremely hot.

The Aseer region has a set of unique attributes that distinguishes it from other domestic destinations, mainly the cool climate, green scenery, and distinctive architecture. All this makes Aseer one of SCTA's best opportunities to promote domestic tourism. Creating an attractive image of Aseer is one of the tools that the SCTA can use to achieve this goal. Research indicates that the destination image is formed by two forces: (1) stimulus factors and (2) personal factors (Moutinho 1987; Mayo and Jarvis 1981). In the image creation and management process, it is imperative to understand the personal factors that influence the image perception of tourists and how they do this (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). This study contributes to tourism research by increasing our understanding of how a selection of personal factors influences the formation of TDIs in the context of domestic tourism.

To summarize the context of this study, domestic tourism provides a number of economic and social benefits for any country. However, promoting domestic tourism may prove to be a difficult task in many cases. Convincing citizens to choose a domestic destination instead of an international one is difficult, especially when the cost of international travel continues to decrease.

Furthermore, some DMOs are given few resources to promote domestic tourism by governments that have a limited economic incentive to do so. Some countries have a social and legal environment that is deemed inhospitable to a variety of tourism-related activities. Therefore, TDI management is one tool that could be used to foster domestic tourism. The process of forming the TDI should be informed by the personal factors that affect the tourists' perceptions of the destination image. Within this context, a research opportunity arises to examine the personal factors that affect local tourists' perceptions of DTDI. The next section discusses this research opportunity in detail.

1.2 Research opportunity

By analyzing the context of this study and reviewing the academic literature on tourism, an opportunity for research has emerged. This opportunity exists due to three reasons:

(1) The presence of four main gaps in the literature on marketing and tourism,

(2) The presence of several research provisions that make this study useful, not only for filling the highlighted gaps in the literature, but also for exploring some under-researched areas in general, and

(3) The possibility of applying an inter-disciplinary approach in order to conduct the study.

1.2.1 Gaps in the literature

The first gap in the literature is the absence of studies that examine how citizens' perceptions of domestic tourist destination image (DTDI) are affected by the following personal factors:

- (1) Institutional trust,
- (2) Ethnocentrism,
- (3) Cosmopolitanism, and
- (4) Personality type.

Research has shown that tourists' perceptions strongly affect their choices of destinations (LaPage and Cormier 1977). More specifically, many researchers have attempted to test the effect of personal factor(s) on tourists' perceptions of TDI. However, McGuiggan (2001) has argued that no single variable can explain the hedonic complexity of tourism. Therefore, examining more factors with regard to their possible influence on TDI formation presents itself as a research opportunity. Since the management of tourism activities in most destinations is a task often performed by various public and private institutions, the question of

whether a relationship between the image of the institutions and the image they are attempting to create exists. More specifically, the trust component of the tourism-related institution image and its possible effect on the way tourists perceive the TDI is missing in the literature.

Although institutional trust has never been examined in in any context related to tourism research, other factors, such as consumer ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and personality type, have been examined fruitfully in the context of international tourism. However, the literature on domestic tourism is still missing theoretical and empirical insights about the roles these important factors play in the tourist image of domestic destinations. Thus, this study integrates those areas by investigating the relationships between the personal factors mentioned above and the tourists' perceptions of TDI.

The second gap concerns the focus of domestic tourism. Although many studies have examined the personal factors affecting TDI, only a few studies have examined the personal factors affecting DTDI. Most of the studies that have made attempts to measure DTDI have done so by testing the perceptions of foreigners. There is a dearth of studies that have attempted to measure how citizens perceive tourism destinations within their own country to gauge the effects of factors such as their trust in local tourism-related institutions or ethnocentric disposition on their behavior as domestic tourists. Studies that have attempted to investigate perceptions held by citizens about their own countries as tourist destinations have mainly been conducted for the sake of examining the

impact of tourism on the destination and its residents (Brougham and Butler 1981; Lankford and Howard 1994; Brunt and Courtney 1999). These studies have viewed locals as being positively or negatively affected by tourism, and not as potential domestic tourists. Therefore, this line of inquiry does not fill the gap mentioned above.

Generally speaking, domestic tourism has received less attention from academics despite the fact that it is a larger phenomenon than is international tourism (Bigano, Hamilton, Lau, Tol, and Zhou 2007). Researchers have cited the lack of reliable data (Crick 1989; Singh 2009), disagreement on theoretical bases (Ghimire 2001), and DMO emphasis on the attractive market of intentional tourism (Sun, Chi and Xu 2013; Alipour, Kilic and Zamani 2013) as reasons for the dearth of studies on domestic tourism. There are even fewer studies that examine the DTDI within this context. This study aspires to fill this gap by supplementing this deficient area with a deep and comprehensive examination of the effects of personal factors on citizens' perceptions of DTDI.

The third gap is the dearth of studies that have been conducted in the specific context of countries that have a social, cultural, and legal environment deemed unfriendly to the majority of foreign tourists. Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos (2009) stated that the bulk of marketing theory up to date has been generated and tested in western countries. The authors highlighted the importance of testing and applying various constructs of marketing theory in different regions around the globe in order to broaden the horizons of marketing

theories, improve their robustness, and acknowledge the new reality of globalization. The Middle East region in particular suffers from lack of studies that investigate its tourism industry in depth (Sharpley 2002). Therefore, there are several, inter-connected areas of deficiency in the literature that could be supplemented by this study. By testing the personal factors that affect the perceptions of citizens regarding DTDI in Saudi Arabia, this study contributes to tourism studies in several under-researched areas such as Muslim countries, Middle Eastern countries, strict-culture countries, and other groups of countries criteria according to which Saudi Arabia could be classified.

The fourth gap is the absence of studies that examine the theoretical and empirical applicability of destination brand experience (DBE) in the context of domestic tourism and how it is related to tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions. This study will further attempt to investigate the hypothesized differences between visitors and non-visitors (Cherifi, Smith, Maitland, and Stevenson 2014) in terms of how personal factors affect each group's perceptions of DTDI in different ways. A hypothetical mediating effect of the destination brand experience (Barnes, Mattsson, and Sørensen 2014) will be tested to justify these differences, in conjunction with two of their behavioral consequences: intention to revisit and intention to recommend. Furthermore, no study has yet attempted to investigate the effect of the destination brand experience (DBE), tourist satisfaction (TS) and the DTDI within the context of domestic tourism.

1.2.2 Beyond the gaps

Besides filling the existing gaps in the literature, there are also several academic reasons for this research opportunity. First, according to Papadopoulos (2004), there has been little or no cross-pollination of research findings between the focuses of social science disciplines on certain international issues (e.g. Tajfel 1981; Stangor and Lange 1994) and place marketing. There is a growing consensus that tourism is a multifaceted phenomenon that is better understood by combining views from different disciplines such as sociology, economics, management, and psychology. Each discipline contributes partly to the study of tourism, yet none can illuminate the full picture. Scholars of tourism have highlighted the shortcomings of each discipline when attempts are made to conceptualize tourism behavior in isolation from other disciplines. For example, economic models are not sufficiently sophisticated (Witt and Witt 1994), sociological models often lack empirical verification (Cohen 1978), psychological models fail to capture the irrationality of the hedonic nature of tourism behavior (Gnoth 1997) and have not yet been able to address the scale of the phenomena (Crouch, Perdue, Timmermans, and Uysal 2004). Culturally based models are rare (Reisinger 2005). This study aims to respond to this call by cross-pollinating multiple social science disciplines with research into place image. This study will bring together concepts and theories derived from the fields of political science, psychology, international business, sociology, and marketing.

Second, this study takes place in Saudi Arabia, a country with very few studies exploring its tourist scene, despite its considerable presence in the global tourism picture, ranking number one in the Middle East in terms of international tourist arrivals (UNWTO 2014b). Statistics also show that 2% of the world's international departures are from Saudi Arabia (World Bank 2012), while the Saudi population is about 0.4% of the world's population. The findings may be applicable to other Islamic countries in general, expanding the scope of generalizability and further improving our understanding of the topic under investigation. Saudi Arabia presents a suitable environment to conduct this study considering:

- (1) The size and impact of the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia,
- (2) The government's strategic preference for domestic tourism,
- (3) The challenging nature of promoting domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia despite the government's determination, and
- (4) The dearth of marketing and tourism studies about Saudi Arabia.

Third, the study follows an interdisciplinary approach to create an interesting opportunity to test the applicability of some of the existing theories of social science to tourism studies. Theories that have the potential to be relevant to the hypotheses of this study include the relative deprivation theory and the means-end approach. In addition, the study discusses the applicability of concepts that

are not yet framed according to a complete theoretical basis due to their relative recentness in tourism research, particularly the roles of leisure constraints, freedom seeking, and prestige seeking in shaping tourist behavior.

1.2.3 The interdisciplinary approach

This study has followed an interdisciplinary approach, borrowing from various social sciences, in order to present multiple points of view that enhance the resulting model. From political science, this study borrowed the concept of institutional trust, which has never been applied to tourism research previously. The field of international business has provided this study with two popular concepts that have been found highly influential in explaining consumption behavior in general and, to a lesser extent, tourism behavior. Consumer ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism have been rarely applied to the context of domestic tourism in the past, and never in the specific context of DTDI. This study has attempted to be the first to examine how citizens of a country incorporate their ethnocentric and cosmopolitan aspects when forming a DTDI. Psychology has contributed to this research via the personality traits theory, which was found to be a powerful predictor in consumer behavior studies. This study is going to examine the construct of personality in tourism research again, but in the specific context of domestic tourism.

From sociology, this study borrowed the relative deprivation theory (Stouffer 1949), which refers to individuals' tendencies to decide their well-being not according to absolute standards, but by comparing themselves to a reference group. This theory has been applied fruitfully to human mobility studies, although no previous studies have tested its applicability in tourism research. For example, a tourist may choose an international destination due to feeling relatively deprived in reference to those who travel abroad. Relative deprivation can be felt at the personal level, when it called egotistical, and at the group level, when it called fraternal. In the specific case of Saudi Arabia, there was an opportunity for this study to examine the influence of fraternal relative deprivation on two groups: women and military staff. Both groups require permission to travel outside the country. Women regardless of ages and status in Saudi Arabia cannot travel outside the country without the permission of a male guardian. Military staff of all ranks and units cannot travel outside the country without permission from their department. Typically, in the case of military staff, such permission is granted once a year, and only during the staff annual vacation. During times of war or high alert, permission is highly restricted. By collecting data from these two groups, this study had an opportunity to test the effect of fraternal relative deprivation on the decisions to travel internationally. For example, a military staff member may prefer to travel internationally knowing that this might be the only chance to do so since permission is only granted during the annual vacation. With regard to women, travelling domestically might be a way of compensating for their restricted freedom to travel.

From social psychology, this study borrowed the means-end approach (Gutman 1982), which suggests that consumers' selections of choices are based on their beliefs that the specific attributes of a choice will allow them to attain their desired values. Again, it is the case of Saudi Arabia that creates the opportunity. We assume that Saudis have a high level of adherence to religious teachings, which in some specific interpretations tend to discourage international tourism (Rimmawi and Ibrahim 1992) for the purpose of protecting the family from exposure to non-Islamic behavior (such as alcohol consumption, the explicit demonstration of affection between men and women, and so on). Despite the fact that access to religiously-prohibited and socially-frowned upon entertainment represents a pull factor for outbound Saudi travelers (Metwally 2004; Alghamdi 2007), we can still assume that many Saudis would refrain from travelling abroad in order to attain the desired value of feeling virtuous. Religious values thus provide a complex construct in the context of tourism in Saudi Arabia as they serve as both push factors for some Saudis and pull factors for others.

The interdisciplinary theory of leisure constraints (Crawford and Godbey 1987) could be extremely useful in explaining tourist behavior. The theory includes psychological, sociological, and logistical components applied in marketing and tourism research. Hudson and Gilbert (2000: 138) stressed that *"...the study of tourist behavior should not only seek to understand the choice process of tourists, but should endeavor to comprehend the range of constraints preventing non-tourists from becoming tourists."* The authors argued that, instead of trying to understand why millions of people choose to go on vacation

each year, we should try to understand why millions did not. This study has an opportunity to analyze the effect of travel constraints, applied to the two groups, women and military staff, on their tourism behavior. In the case of women, another constraint that presents itself is the lower amount of disposable income earned by Saudi women in comparison to their male counterparts. With regard to the military staff members, who are only allowed to travel abroad during their annual vacation, Wright and Goodale (1991) recognized that constraints can affect the frequency and fulfilment of the desired activity. Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) proposed a model with three levels of constraints:

(1) Intrapersonal constraints, which affect the leisure preference,

(2) Interpersonal constraints, which are related to the tourists' compatibility and coordination, and

(3) Structural constraints, which are those constraints that prevent tourists from engaging in the desired activity.

Previous studies have attempted to investigate the role of constraints on tourism behavior. Constraints such as the social situation (Haukeland 1990), socio-economics (Searle and Jackson 1985), and social strata (Romsa and Hoffman 1980) have been examined as social situation constraints. Some research has found that females are more constrained than are males with regard to their tourism behavior (Raymore, Godbey, and Crawford 1994; Henderson, Bedini, Hecht, and Schuler 1995; Alexandris and Carrol 1997).

Constraints may emerge from a complex interaction of beliefs, motives, and constraint factors (Um and Crompton 1992). Destination choice is found to be facilitated by the TDI at the early stage of the selection process and inhibited by the constraints at the late stage. This suggests that personal factors not only affect how TDI is being perceived, but are also barriers to visiting the destination.

Two more theories that were utilized in discussing the findings of this study are prestige-seeking theory and freedom-seeking theory. Both are social psychological theories that have been used in tourism research previously. Various studies have explored the role of prestige in tourism (Dann 1977; Crompton 1979; Riley 1988; Sørensen 2003; O'Reilly 2006). Tourism was suggested to be a social need that is motivated by prestige and pursued in order to enhance the social status of the tourist (Correia and Kozak 2012). Prestige motivation in tourism is defined as *“the motivational process by which individuals strive to improve their regard or honor through the consumption of tourism experiences that confer and symbolize the prestige both for individuals and surrounding others”* (Eastman, Goldsmith, and Flynn 1999: 310). It is worth noting that researchers have used different terms related to prestige, such as travel bragging (Cha, McCleary, and Uysal 1995; Kim and Jogaratnam 2002; Kim, Noh, and Jogaratnam 2007) or ego-enhancement (Fodness 1994; Mehmetoglu 2005). This study represents a promising opportunity to explore the role of prestige in influencing international and domestic TDIs.

The notion of freedom has been investigated in tourism research. It is presumed that there are differences in the level of freedom experienced by tourists when comparing domestic and international destinations. Regulations constraining women's dress codes, going to movies, and the consumption of alcohol could be examples of what a Saudi tourist is seeking to be free of or to become free to do. According to Caruana and Crane (2011: 3), "...*These twin promises of liberation (freedom from) and license (freedom to) are a common feature of texts produced by the tourism industry, just as their realization (or lack of) is a common refrain in tourist accounts of vacation*". Whatever the tourist is prohibited from doing at home, either by law or by social norms, might be considered a push factor. The freedom to pursue this prohibited activity in a given destination might be considered a pull factor. Both push and pull factors may have an influence on how the tourist perceives the image of the destination. This study examined this effect in the ideal context of Saudi Arabia, given the magnitude of the prohibited activities within its borders.

1.2.4 Concluding remarks

This study intends to fill four gaps in the tourism literature by studying the effects of several factors taken from different disciplines of social sciences on DTDI. The study has tested the applicability of a number of theories and the influence of a number of concepts on domestic tourist behavior. The overall objective of advancing our understanding of tourist behavior has mainly been

achieved by examining the DTDI formation with reference to several antecedent factors and the consequences of the resultant image on behavioral intentions. The detailed objectives of the study are explained in the next section.

1.3 Research objectives

In order to fulfill the areas of investigation mentioned above, this study has the following objectives:

1. To examine the effect of institutional trust, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer cosmopolitanism, and personality type on tourists' perceptions of DTDI. The related questions are:
 - a. How do the personal factors mentioned above influence citizens' perceptions of DTDI?
 - b. What are the roles of these personal factors in influencing the tourists' choice between domestic and international destinations?
2. To examine the effect of DTDI on the non-visitors' intentions to visit the destination and visitors' intentions to re-visit and recommend it.
3. To examine the effect of preconceived DTDI on the destination brand experience (DBE).
4. To examine the effect of a tourist's DBE on tourist satisfaction.
5. To examine the mediating effect of a tourist's DBE on the relationship between the DTDI and tourist satisfaction.

6. To examine the mediating effect of tourist satisfaction on the relationship between the DBE and the tourist's behavioral intentions.
7. To assess the applicability of the theory of relative deprivation in explaining the tourism behavior of all the respondents or of a specific group of respondents (for example, women). The related questions are:
 - a. Can the egotistical relative deprivation theory provide an explanation for a specific tourist behavior?
 - b. Can the fraternal relative deprivation theory provide an explanation for the collective behavior of a specific group?
8. To assess the applicability of the means-end approach for explaining the behavior of tourists.
9. To assess the applicability of tourism constraints for explaining why tourists choose or choose not to engage in domestic tourism. The related question is: Can tourism behavior be influenced by the nature and rigidity of the constraints?
10. To assess the applicability of the prestige-seeking theory in tourism studies. The related question is: Can prestige seeking be a determinant motivation of tourism behavior that potentially influences the tourist's choice between domestic and international destinations?
11. To assess the applicability of freedom seeking in tourism studies. The related question is: Can freedom seeking be a determinant motivation of tourism behavior that potentially influences the tourist's choice between domestic and international destinations?

1.4 The terminology used in this thesis

The focus of this thesis is tourism. According to Hanna and Rowley (2008), tourism literature predominantly uses the term “destination” in reference to geographic entities that are marketed for tourism. Therefore, this study also uses this term in order to be consistent with the literature. This study differentiates between destination marketing and destination branding following Hospers (2007). Accordingly, the term “destination marketing” is used in reference to the demand side, which is related on the image perceived by tourists (the outside-in approach). The term “destination branding” is used in reference to the supply side, which depends on the acts performed by the different actors representing the destination itself (the inside-out approach).

The construct under focus in this study, the destination image, differs from both the “destination brand” and the “destination personality”. In this study, destination image is conceptualized according to the definition suggested by Crompton (1979: 18) as *“the sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions that people associate with a destination”*. According to this definition, it is clear that the destination image is different from other related constructs, such as destination personality, which is defined as *“the set of personality traits associated with a destination”* (Ekinçi and Hosany 2006: 127) or destination brand, which is defined as *“A name, symbol, logo, word or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination;*

it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the allocation of pleasurable memories of destination experience” (Ritchie and Ritchie 1998: 103). For more details about the terminology of place branding, please refer to Appendix A.

1.5 Organization of the thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows. Chapter Two provides a review of the literature concerning all the components of this study, namely tourism research, institutional trust, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, personality types, tourist satisfaction, tourism destination image, and destination brand experience. The review includes the specific presence of these components in marketing, consumer behavior, and tourism research. The conceptual framework of the study is then presented and explained, as is the research hypothesis. This is followed by a review of the study context, Saudi Arabia. The review includes general information about Saudi Arabia, the tourist scene, the tourism authority, and the specific destination under discussion, the Aseer region. Next is the methodology that is proposed to conduct this research, in which section each stage of the study is explained in detail. This is followed by a detailed presentation of both preliminary and confirmatory data analyses. The results of the analysis for each hypothesis are then presented, followed by a discussion of the results that is enriched by comments from tourism experts in Saudi Arabia who were interviewed after the data were analyzed and presented

to them. A presentation of the theoretical and methodological contribution of the study is then followed by the managerial implications thereof. Finally, the limitations of the study are presented, as well as suggestions for future research.

2.1 Tourism research

2.1.1 Tourism in history

In the Merriam-Webster dictionary, tourism is defined as “*the activity of travelling to a place for pleasure*”. The word has been in use in the English language for nearly three hundred years. Several different theories explain the origin of the word; some say that it was derived from the Latin word “tornare” (Theobald 2005), while others have suggested the Greek word “tornos” (Leiper 1983), the Aramaic word “Tur” (Houlot 1961), and the ancient Anglo-Saxon word “Torn” (Korstanje 2007). In Arabic, the word “dur” means “circle or rotate” and is very similar to the word “tour” from the phonologic perspective, although no theory connects the term to an Arabic origin at present. The similarity between the Arabic word “dur” and tourism might be due to the Aramaic origin, since Aramaic is the ancestral language of Arabic. Another theory attributes the origin of the word “tourism” to the last name of a French merchant, Della Tour, who was granted the exclusive right to transport commercial goods between England and continental Europe (Leiper 1983).

Ancient history has witnessed forms of travel that are not for trade, war, or migration, but for recreational reasons. One of the most well-known examples is

Greek tourism during the national games. Historians have highlighted four main festivals that took place between 500 to 300 B.C. in Greece, namely the Olympic Games, the Pythian Games, the Isthmian Games and the Nemean Games. These enormous events attracted tourists from around Greece to attend the games and perform some religious rituals. In addition, Casson (1974) mentioned a few other recreational activities, such as visiting famous buildings and works of art which is, fascinatingly, the same reasons that millions of tourists still flock to Greece every year. Greek tourism flourished around 180 B.C. and started to take the shape of an industry with the creation of several tourism-related jobs, such as tour guides and souvenir makers (Casson 1974). Besides most likely being the first center of tourism in the history of mankind, Greek tourists have traveled around the world, most notably Herodotus, who roamed across most of the ancient Middle East from southern Egypt to southern Russia during the time of the Greek, Persian, and Egyptian empires.

The Romans also engaged in tourism, with many members of the elite class owning several houses in different parts of the country where they spent their holidays (Casson 1974). The ancient Roman citizens' tourism behavior established the seasonal pattern that still marks tourism today, as tourists used to spend their summers at seaside beaches or in famous summer resort cities such as Baiae on the northwest shore of the Gulf of Naples. Tourism became even more popular in medieval times as a result of the increase of the number of travel literature, such as the travel books written by Marco Polo (Polo 1854), Ibn Jubayr (Jubayr 1952), Ibn Battuta (Battuta 2004), and Sir John Mandeville

(Mandeville 1973). Tourism has since become a frequent form of human movement that takes place whenever the political, economic, social, and cultural circumstances permit it. However, despite some historical evidence that tourism existed as social phenomena thousands of years ago (McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie 1995), its mention in academia is relatively recent, as the next section explains.

2.1.2 Tourism in academia

This late academic curiosity about tourism was because tourism was not originally considered to be a field of study (Robinson et al. 2011). Later, academic consensus started to consider tourism as a fragmented field of study, but not as a discipline (Tribe 1997), with some academic opinions claiming that tourism had attracted sufficient academic interest to be considered a distinct discipline (Tribe 2010). Despite different epistemological views about tourism, academic enquiries witnessed a rapid growth in multiple fields such as sociology, economics, psychology, geography, and particularly in business and management research. The multidisciplinary aspect of tourism research generated two fields of study according to Tribe (1997), namely business tourism and non-business tourism.

Scholars and practitioners of tourism and related activities have provided several definitions of tourism, ranging from supply-focused to demand-focused

definitions, or a combination of both (Smith 2010). Table 2.1 includes in chronological order some of the most popular definitions of tourism to show how tourism has been conceptualized in the literature over the years and the different aspects that have been considered when defining the multifaceted phenomenon of tourism.

Of all the definitions of tourism, the UNWTO's definitions are the most commonly accepted definitions, particularly by the DMOs (Smith 2010). UNWTO (1995:1) defines tourism as *"the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes"*. This definition has produced some common terms to comply with the definition and distinguish between different types of travel. For example, same-day visitors are those who take a tourism trip without spending the night.

However, this definition left some room for ambiguity. For example, the phrase "usual environment" has been operationalized using different approaches that attempt to define what is considered "usual". These approaches include self-defined, trip frequency, or national borders. Therefore, this study adopts a modified version of the above definition after eliminating the word "usual". The adopted definition reads *"the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes"*.

Definition	Author(s)
The sum total of operations mainly of an economic nature, which directly relate to the entry, stay, and movement of foreigners inside and outside a certain country, city, or region.	Schullard (1910) (See Gilbert 1990: 49)
Traveling for a period of 24 hours or more in a country other than that in which he usually resides	The league of Nations (1937) (See Mieczkowski 1990: 21)
The sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, insofar as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity	Hunziker and Krapf (1942) (See Vukonic 2012: 12)
A temporary visit for least twenty-four hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey can be classified under one of the following headings: (a) leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, and sport), or (b) business, family, mission, meeting	United nations (1963) (See Bhatia 2006:56).
Any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during their stay at these destinations	Tourism Society (1976) (See Ghimire 2000: 13)
The study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host's socio-cultural, economic and physical environments.	Jafari (1977:6)

The science, art, and business of attracting and transporting visitors, accommodating them, and graciously catering for their needs and wants	McIntosh and Goeldner (1977: ix)
The tourist industry consists of all those firms, organizations, and facilities, which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists.	Leiper (1979: 400)
A particular set of activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home	The International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism – (IASET 1981) (See Singh 2008: 139)
A temporary movement to destinations outside the normal home and workplace as well as the activities undertaken during the stay including the facilities created to cater for the needs of tourists.	Mathieson and Wall (1982: 1)
The amalgam of industries that directly supply goods and services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from the home environment.	Canadian National Task Force on Tourism Data (1989: 31)
Tourism is the temporary, short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work and their activities during the stay at each destination. It includes movements for all purposes.	Tourism Society of England; (See Robinson et al. 2011: xxviii)

Table 2.1 Some definitions of tourism

Tourism has been classified according to different groups, such as domestic tourism, international tourism, national tourism, inbound tourism, and outbound tourism. Table 2.2 provides a description of each category. Of these classifications, this study has adopted “domestic tourism” as the focus of analysis.

Class	Definition
Inbound tourism	Tourism trips to a country by nonresidents.
Outbound tourism	Tourism trips by residents of a country to another country.
International tourism	The process of crossing borders both inbound and outbound.
Internal tourism	Tourism trips in a given country made by either residents or nonresidents.
Domestic tourism	Tourism trips taken by residents in the country where they live.
National tourism	Tourism trips made by the residents of a given country whether to the same country or another one.
Source: (Smith 2010; McIntosh 1995)	

Table 2.2 Classifications of tourism

According to McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie (1995), tourism has been studied via several approaches. The institutional approach considers the various intermediaries and institutions that perform tourism activities. The product approach considers the tourism products and how they are being produced, marketed, and consumed. The managerial approach considers the micro-economic, firm-focused operations necessary to manage a tourism enterprise. The economic approach considers the economic impact of tourism on the country's and the world's economy. The sociological approach considers the behaviors of the individuals and groups engaged in and affected by tourism

activities. The geographical approach considers the spatial aspect of tourism, focusing on areas such as location, environment, climate, and landscape. The historical approach considers the evolutionary process of tourism. The system approach considers a comprehensive method to study tourism from both macro and micro perspectives. Finally, the interdisciplinary approach, which this study adopts, considers multiple approaches to study tourism based on the multifaceted nature of tourism as a vast phenomenon. A combination of three approaches, institutional, geographical, and sociological, is followed in this study.

Due to the perceived similarities between consumers' behaviors in product and tourism contexts (Crouch, Louviere, Mazanec, Brent Ritchie, and Woodside 2001; Dimanche and Samdahl 1994), tourist behavior models were mainly derived from the product consumers' behavior models (Hudson and Gilbert 2000). However, some differences were cited in the literature. For example, tourism buying decision is considered a high-involvement decision (Laws 2004), which involves the three components of attitude: cognitive, affective, and conative (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). Tourism often involves a complex choice of destinations, the intangibility of the purchased vacation in the tourism domain, tourism choices that extend in time from pre-consumption to the consumption phase, and the highly emotional component in tourism consumption (Swarbrooke and Horner 2007). The general consensus is that tourism is an extremely complex decision-making exercise for consumers (Crouch et al. 2004). However, until 2004, Crouch and others (2004) complained that the consumer

psychology of tourism was not yet commensurate with the size of the phenomenon.

One of the earliest models of tourism destination preferences was introduced by Plog (1972), who developed the psychocentric-allocentric model based on data acquired in the US. According to the author, psychocentrics are people whose nervousness and self-inhibition discourage them from travelling. By contrast, allocentric people are outgoing, self-confident, and are thus more motivated to travel. Figure 2.1 shows the psychocentric-allocentric model according to Plog (1972).

Figure 2.1 Psychographic positions of destinations

Wahab, Crampon, and Rothfield (1976) proposed that the tourist decision-making process has nine stages. The process starts with the initial stimulus

framework and moves to conceptual alternatives, fact gathering, the definition of assumptions, the design of the stimulus, the forecast of consequences, the cost/benefit analysis of alternatives, the decision, and ends with the outcomes. Mathieson and Wall (1982) reduced these stages to five stages, which are felt need, information collection, travel decision, travel preparation, and travel satisfaction. In the same area of tourist decision-making procedures, Schmoll (1977) included socioeconomic factors, personality features, social aspirations, and attitudes and values as the main influential variables when making the decision. Dann (1977) modeled tourism motivations in the form of push-pull factors, and suggested seven categories of tourism motivation ranging from fantasy to experience. Crompton (1979) presented a model similar to that by Dann (1977), although he identified nine different motivations that he classified as socio-psychological and cultural. The nine motivations identified by Crompton are: escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, facilitation of social interaction, novelty, and education.

The 1980s witnessed a growing interest on the part of consumer behaviorists in tourism research. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) proposed a model that demonstrated both the personal and the social impact on the tourism decision-making process. Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested a model of tourist motivation that was based on the tourist's desire to escape the personal/inter-personal environment and to seek a personal/interpersonal intrinsic reward. Moutinho's (1987) model of a tourist's behavior included three phases, namely pre-decision

and decision, post-purchase evaluation, and future decision making. Krippendorf (1987) attempted to summarize all the motives for tourism into eight explanations, namely recuperation and regeneration, compensation and social integration, escape, communication, freedom and self-determination, self-realization, happiness, and travel broadening the mind. Middleton (1988) produced a model that consisted of four components, which were stimulus input, communication channels, buyer characteristics and decision making, and purchase output. Pearce (1988) introduced the travel career ladder theory, which specified five hierarchical needs influencing tourist behavior: physiological needs, safety needs, relationship needs, self-esteem needs, and fulfillment needs (See Figure 2.2). According to the theory, people tend to ascend the ladder of these needs as they become more experienced tourists. The lower level needs have to be satisfied before the higher ones are activated.

Attempts to model a tourist's behavior were generally focused on the determinants of the tourist's behavior. At the center of those studies, tourists' motivations dominated this body of research. Consumer behavior research in tourism has focused on the cognitive component (Gnoth et al. 2000) and, subsequently, has modeled the tourist as a problem solver (Hyde, Woodside, Crouch, Mazanec, Oppermann, and Sakai 1999), without much attention being paid to the affective aspects of the tourist. However, the affective dimension has started to generate more interest among researchers. Both cognitive and affective variables are typically captured in recent models (San Martin and Del Bosque 2008).

Figure 2.2 The travel career ladder according to Pearce (1988)

Motivation within tourist behavior has been analyzed in the light of many related concepts and constructs such as needs and wants (Mill and Morrison 1985), push-pull factors (Dann 1977), personal values (Muller 1991), perceptions (Shih 1986), and attitudes (Um and Crompton 1990). Gnoth, Zins, Lengmueller, and Boshoff (2000) explored the relationship between the mood prior to a holiday and the underlying emotions. Klenosky, Gengler, and Mulvey (1993) used the means-end approach developed by Gutman (1982) to analyze destination

choices. However, there is no widely accepted theory of motivation that can be applied to tourism (Pearce 1991; Frew, Shaw, Woodside, Crouch, Mazanec, Oppermann, and Sakai 1999). In order to enhance the motivation theory of tourism, Pearce (1995) emphasized the importance of expanding our knowledge of TDI, which is what this study is attempting to do.

The following sections will review all the constructs, concepts, and theories that are included in this study. First, at the core of the model is tourism destination image (TDI). The second is tourist satisfaction. Third is the destination brand experience (DBE), followed by two of the tourists' behavioral intentions, which are the intention to visit and the intention to recommend. These intentions are followed by a review of four determinants of TDI, namely institutional trust (IT), ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and personality type. Thereafter, five concepts and theories related to the model presented in this study will be discussed, namely relative deprivation, the means-end approach, the leisure constraints theory, prestige seeking, and freedom seeking.

2.2 Tourism destination image (TDI)

To borrow the words of Brown (2006: 12), the promotion of places is “...as *old as commodification itself*”. Historians have found evidence that the practice of promoting places dates back many centuries, as far as the Viking age and Medieval Europe (Harvey 1989; Ashworth and Voogd 1994). More recent

examples from the seventeenth to the twentieth century have been cited, and are mainly characterized by the availability of vast lands for settlement due to the consecutive waves of colonization, urbanization, and industrialization (Ward 1998). However, most of the practices documented above were intuitive and simple (Kavaratzis 2005). Places were simply promoted to satisfy various political, economic, and socio-psychological goals. It was not until the last few decades of the twentieth century that the focus shifted to selling particular aspects of places (Barke 1999). This shift has been attributed to a combination of local and global changes in the economic development of places that encouraged more competitive thinking and public-private partnerships (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2008). For example, in response to the decline of traditional industries and the growing importance of the service economy, places started to adopt a more market-oriented approach (Buncle 2006).

In the marketing literature, systematic branding research was initially focused on tangible products. After extensive research on product branding, researchers started to apply the concepts of branding to intangible products (Dobree and Page 1990). The next step was expanding the theory of branding to include geographic entities (Kotler, Haider, and Rein 1993). The application of branding theory that was initially developed for products has come with various exceptions and differences, as the branding of products was found to be different from the branding of places (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2008). The latter is deemed to be more complex (Hankinson 2001; Pike 2005).

However, this did not stop either researchers or practitioners from continuing their efforts to explore the paradigm of place branding. Multiple elements of branding theory have been transformed from the product to the place in various studies. For example, brand identity was proposed in the 1990s (Aaker 1996) and applied to places in the 2000s (Cai 2002). Furthermore, brand equity was proposed in the 1980s (Farquhar 1989) and applied to places in the 2000s (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002). Product brand personality was proposed by Aaker (1997) and was eventually applied to place branding as place brand personality (Ekinici and Hosany 2006). The self-congruity model (Sirgy 1985), which suggests that the product image interacts with the consumer's self-concept to create congruity between the product image and the self-image, has also been applied to destination image research (Chon 1992; Sirgy and Su 2000; Beerli, Meneses, and Gil 2007; Rojas-Méndez, Papadopoulos, and Alwan 2015).

In line with this focus, practices of place image creation and correction became common in order to attract tourists, investors, and highly skilled immigrants. Gunn (1988) differentiated between organic image, which is formed over time and draws on multiple sources of information, and induced image, which is formed by being exposed to marketing communications. Such practices have evolved into more coherent activities of place branding that aim to meet the needs of local businesses and residents, and to utilize more sophisticated tools of marketing to manage emotional and psychological associations with a given place. According to Kavaratzis (2005), two trends have encouraged these efforts to evolve from "promotion" into "marketing". The first is the academic trend to

broaden the theory of marketing to include non-traditional products such as places (Ashworth and Voogd 1990). The second is the unprecedented pressure on governments to revive and re-structure the economies of places under their administration (Hannigan 2003) in response to the competition among places on both a local and on a global scale (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2008). In general, the practice of place branding has occurred more quickly than has academic investigation since the focus was mainly on implementation (Jacobsen 2010).

As a result of these two trends, some scholars have ignored the practice of promoting places before the second half of the twentieth century on the basis that it is difficult to find a connection between the strategies and techniques used today that are rooted back in those old attempts mentioned above. Thus, it is possible to consider them as place promotion activities, differentiating them from those that are more sophisticated and more deeply rooted in marketing theory, which are place marketing (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2008). Therefore, many scholars have suggested a connection between the origins of place branding to the country-of-origin (COO) studies that can be traced back to decades ago (Gould and Skinner 2007) when researchers started to identify COO as a source of bias among consumers (Schooler 1965). The underlying assumption in these early studies was that products and services consisted of an array of information cues that included COO (Bilkey and Nes 1982). Testing the effect of COO in many studies has made the construct's effect on consumers' evaluations of products and services indisputable. Over the years, the COO construct has

evolved in terms of the conceptual level from “how” the product is being evaluated by consumers based on its origin to a more complex construct that involves the question of “why” a particular country has acquired such an image (Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009). Associating a geographical place with a product has evolved from being a mere identification of the brand to a co-marketing process of both the product and place, to an actual branding of the place itself (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2008).

In various studies, scholars have suggested that every place has a brand (Loo and Davies 2006) or an image (Hunt 1975), whether this has been developed deliberately or unintentionally. When places do not attempt to manage their global image, this image emerges spontaneously based on stereotypes and myths (Viosca, Bergiel, and Balsmeier 2004; Endzina and Luneva 2004). Intensified global competition has required governments to develop coordinated country-branding campaigns (Papadopoulos 2004) that try to avoid the unintentional creation of an image. Various factors have contributed to intensifying global competition among places, such as the extended reach of international media, the falling cost of international travel, the increase in consumer spending power, the threat of place parity, a limited pool of international investors, competition for skilled and professional immigrants, growing consumer demand for a diverse cultural diet stimulated by low-cost global communication media (Hanna and Rowley 2008), and the increased mobility of skills and capital (Mommas 2003). In addition, changes in a country’s reality (such as political changes, terrorist attacks, and so on) often require a re-

branding project (Pitt, Opoku, Hultman, Abratt, and Spyropoulou 2007). Some scholars have taken the approach of comparing countries to firms, thus borrowing from the micro-economic ideas that were originally used to explain business organizations. Rojas-Méndez (2013) discussed the applicability of resource-advantage theory (Hunt 1995) to the context of countries. His rationale was that, just as firms do, countries try to improve their financial performance by managing their resources competitively. One of these resources is the country's brand, which is an intangible resource that can help a country maintain a distinctive image that eventually turns into a competitive advantage.

All the above have further contributed to the growing interest in place branding by various stakeholders who are trying to reap the benefits of deliberate branding or to avoid the disadvantages of unintentional branding. With regard to economic development, a strong place brand helps to promote exports, attract direct foreign investments, and to lure tourists, immigrants, and students. With regard to political influence and international diplomacy, there is a growing consensus regarding the strategic role of place branding in gaining political attention and a reputation that contributes to a state's strategic equity (Van Ham 2001). Strong brands have helped places to overcome financial crises and economic downturns when these places became harbors for panicked and risk-averse investors (Melewar and Dennis 2010). Although more crucial to smaller and developing countries (Endzina and Luneva 2004), the benefits of a strong place brand are acknowledged by both those groups of

countries that have a powerful and established commercial and political presence on the world stage and the countries that have a smaller presence and are trying to gain global attention (Quelch and Jocz 2005). All the above have contributed to the exponential increase in the number of countries that are heavily engaged in systematic place branding (Rojas-Méndez 2013). As Olins (2002:7) puts it “...*the nation that makes itself the most attractive wins the prizes - others suffer.*”

As is the case with products, services and corporations, places can also be branded (Rainisto 2003; Henderson 2000). They have identities, differentiations (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2005), and images (Papadopoulos 1993), which are the three requirements for branded products (Aaker 1996). Place identity represents the conscious attempt of governments to shape a specifically designed image of a place and promote it to identified markets (Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2005), while the place image is how the place is perceived by those markets in reality. The smaller the gap between the intended identity and the perceived image, the greater the success of the place-branding efforts.

However, the process of branding a place differs from that of branding a product or a service (Hankinson 2001). Place images are highly subjective, difficult to measure (Echtner and Ritchie 1991), multi-faceted, and fluid (Henderson 2007). The complexity of the place image and the multiple determinants thereof create a challenge to design and execute a place branding

strategy (O'Shaughnessy and Jackson 2000). It is thus difficult for a single authority to control the place brand, as it involves multiple stakeholders who may have conflicting interests (Frost 2004). Some authors have suggested that DMOs should differentiate among stakeholders based on their potential cooperation with or threat to the DMOs' efforts (Sheehan and Ritchie 2005). In addition, place brand is subject to change whenever and wherever changes in places occur (Song and Sung 2013). Unexpected events such as terrorism can hurt a country's image severely (Horner and Swarbrooke 2004). Moreover, considering the increasing number of countries that participate in this exercise, the task becomes more challenging due to overcrowding in the industry (Rojas-Méndez 2013).

Various studies have explored the key factors that affect a place brand. For example, products produced by the country play a role in shaping its brand (Chisik 2003), as do tourism (Jaffe and Nebenzahl 2001; Gnoth 2002), sport (Brown, Chalip, Jago, and Mules 2001; Gilmore 2002; Motion, Leitch and Brodie 2003), cultural products and media (Martine 2002; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002; Dinnie 2004), a cooperative mindset among all the inhabitants of the place (Lodge 2002), and marketing activities and promotions (Henderson 2007). When different brands compete with each other in the same market, differences in performance attributes eventually tend to become similar, making it more difficult for the brand to be differentiated based on performance alone. Scholars of branding have argued that, in such circumstances, brand personality might be the differentiating factor on which to rely because a positive brand personality

leads to higher evaluations and associations on the part of consumers (Haigood 1999). This is because it communicates a more personal meaning to consumers than do physical attributes (Siguaw, Mattila, and Austin 1999), thus increasing brand engagement and brand attachment (Gertner 2010).

Destination branding has been noted in tourism research since the early 1970s (Hunt 1971; Mayo 1973). Early studies started discussing the concept of “destination image” before it evolved to cover the wider concept of “destination branding”. A “destination” has been defined as *“an amalgams of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to consumers”* (Buhalis 2000: 97). The term “brand” has many definitions in the marketing literature¹. Image is considered to be part of the brand (Keller 1993; Tasci and Kozak 2006). The American Marketing Association’s definition of a brand is one of the most popular definitions: *“A name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors”* (AMA 2016).

The definition of TDI has evolved since the 1970s in an attempt to capture the dimensions of brand and image as applied to destinations. The evolution process yielded many definitions with various levels of inclusivity. To give an example of how the definition of TDI has evolved, Table 2.3 includes in chronological order some of the definitions of TDI cited in the literature.

¹ See Hankinson and Cowking (1995) for a review of brand definitions.

Definition	Author(s)
Perceptions held by potential visitors about an area	Hunt (1975)
The expression of all objective knowledge, prejudices, imagination and emotional thoughts of an individual or group about a particular location	Lawson and Baud Bovy (1977) (See Jenkins 1999)
The sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions that people associate with a destination	Crompton (1979)
An individual's attitude toward the destination attributes based on their knowledge and feelings	Moutinho (1987)
Total perception of the destination that is formed by processing information from various sources over time	Assael (1987) (See Fakeye and Crompton 1991)
Ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination under investigation	Embacher and Buttle (1989)
Result of the interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination	Chon (1990)
The perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination	Echtner and Ritchie (1991)
A composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression	MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997)
An attitudinal construct consisting of an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings, and global impression about an object or destination.	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)
Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefit or consumption values	Tapachai and Waryszak (2000)
The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations	Coshall (2000)
A sum of associations and pieces of information connected to a destination, which would include multiple components of the destination and personal perception.	Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith (2000)
The subjective interpretation of reality by the tourist	Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez (2001)
Perceptions about a place as reflected by the associations held in tourist memory	Cai (2002)
Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time	Kim and Richardson (2003)

Table 2.3 Some definitions of TDI.

In this study, destination image is conceptualized according to the definition suggested by Crompton (1979: 18): “*the sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions that people associate with a destination*”. The reason this particular definition is adopted is because it is inclusive of all the aspects of image that other definitions have tried to capture, such as perception, imagination, beliefs, interpretation of reality, impression, and the like. In the past few decades, TDI has received extensive research attention (Cherifi et al. 2014). Researchers have linked TDI to various tourist behaviors such as intention to visit (Gallarza, Saura, and García 2002; Goodrich 1978; Jenkins 1999), destination loyalty (San Martín and Del Bosque 2008), tourist satisfaction (O’Leary and Deegan 2005; and Pikkemaat 2004), and competitive positioning (Day, Skidmore, and ve Koller 2002; Morgan and Pritchard 2004).

The image of any destination has multiple components. Some studies have allocated these components into two categories: (1) perceptual/ cognitive/ denotative/ designative, which refers to the beliefs and knowledge about the destination, and (2) affective/connotative/appraisive, which refers to the feelings about the destination (Burgess 1978; Walmsley and Lewis 1984). These components of destination image are interrelated. The affective component is a function of cognitive evaluation (Reibstein 1978), since minimal knowledge is required to form an affect (Gartner 1993; Woodside and Lysonski 1989). Other studies, such as those by Nadeau, Heslop, O’Reilly, and Luk (2008), have suggested that destination image has three components, which are cognitive, evaluative, and conative. Elliot and Papadopoulos (2016) argued that the

affective country image has the greatest influence on destination evaluations. In domestic tourism, the affective component of the TDI was found to have a far greater impact than did the cognitive one (Stylidis, Belhassen, and Shani 2015). TDI is mainly measured using a structured and quantifiable approach. In this approach, Likert scales are often used to measure some of the cognitive or affective aspects of the TDI (Stepchenkova and Li 2014). The other approach is unstructured and typically uses open-ended questions to explore how the TDI is being perceived by tourists. The TDI was found to affect tourist satisfaction (Chi and Qu 2008), which takes us to the next section of this literature review in which we discuss the important concept of tourist satisfaction.

2.3 Tourist satisfaction (TS)

Tourist satisfaction studies are considered to be extensions of consumer satisfaction studies (Chen, Zhang, and Qiu 2013). Therefore, tourist satisfaction studies have inherited their theoretical basis and conceptual development from consumer satisfaction studies. Consumer satisfaction has received extensive attention in marketing and consumer behavior research (Kozak 2000). Many definitions of consumer satisfaction, as presented in Table 2.4, revolve around the evaluative aspect, regardless of whether this is a cognitive or an affective evaluation. The definition suggested by Kotler (1991) is popular because it is accurate and concise. It highlights the main act by the consumer, namely

evaluation, and when it occurs, which is post-purchase. It covers both products and services. The only shortcoming of this definition is that it singles out “expectations” as the only criterion on which consumers are supposed to base their evaluation. Some scholars have argued that the state of satisfaction is attained through a more complex process than that of a simple comparison between pre-purchase expectation and post-purchase evaluation (Mason and Simmons 2012).

Definition	Author(s)
A conscious evaluation or cognitive judgment that the product has performed relatively well or poorly or that the product was suitable or unsuitable for its use/purpose.	Swan, Trawick, and Carroll (1982)
A post choice evaluative judgment concerning a specific purchase selection	Day (1984)
The customer's subjective evaluation of a consumption experience based on some relationship between the customer's perceptions and objective attributes of the product	Klaus (1985)
The consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption.	Tse and Wilton (1988)
The post-purchase evaluation of products or services given expectations before purchase.	Kotler (1991)
A transaction- specific effective response resulting from the customer's comparison of product performance to some pre-purchase standard.	Haistead, Hartman, and Schmidt (1994)
The accumulated experience of a customer's purchase and consumption experiences	Andreassen (1995)

Table 2.4 Some definitions of consumer satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is often perceived as a cognitive process (Bloemer and Poiesz 1989; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1993). Recently, the cognitive-affective nature thereof has been recognized in literature (Bowen and Clarke 2002; Jun, Hyun, Gentry, and Song 2001), as emotions were found to play an important role in satisfaction formation (Oliver 1993; Wirtz, Mattila, and Tan 2000; Yu and Dean 2001). In line with to the most recent view, satisfaction is defined in this research as an individual's cognitive-affective state derived from a tourist experience. Satisfaction was found to be related to a customer's future attitude (Assael 1987), as it leads to attitude change (Mayo and Jarvis 1981).

The most popular approaches to measure consumer satisfaction include the expectation-performance approach (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1991), which suggests that consumers should have prior knowledge of the product/service in order to form an expectation. Consumers will eventually compare their expectations with the actual perceived performance and will base their satisfaction/dissatisfaction on this comparison. This approach has been supplemented by the disconfirmation approach (Thibaut and Kelley 1959), which considers the customer's satisfaction with the outcome of a purchase determined by the discrepancy between the outcome and a standard of comparison called the comparison level. Another approach is the importance-performance approach (Olshavsky and Miller 1972), which measures which attributes the consumer considers most important and then links them with the perceived performance of each attribute. Another approach is performance-only (Grönroos 1984), which depends on the actual quality of the performance as perceived by the consumer.

All the approaches mentioned above have been applied to tourism research. For example, Duke and Persia (1996) followed the expectation-performance approach. Fallon and Schofield (2006) followed the importance-performance approach, while Pizam and Milman (1993) used the disconfirmation approach and Pizam, Neumann, and Reichel (1978) followed the performance-only approach. The self-congruity model (Sirgy 1985) was adopted by Chon and Olsen (1991), who found that tourists' satisfaction is related to the symbolic congruity between the tourists' self-concepts and the destination's personality image.

Tourist satisfaction has several definitions in the literature, which reflects its importance in the study of tourism. Some of these definitions, presented in Table 2.5, show how scholars in the field of tourism conceptualize this important construct on which all the effort of marketing a tourist destination hinges. Of those definitions, the definition suggested by Lee and colleagues (2013) is the most inclusive. It emphasizes the "overall" pleasure or contentment as an aggregated feeling that stems from the collective consumption experience. During their visit, tourists consume a verity of products and services and may feel differently about them. Thus, their satisfaction with the entire visit should be based on the overall experience that summarizes every single experience with each product and service consumed in the destination. Thus, the post-visit evaluation is not based on just previous expectations, but also on needs and desires. The next section discusses a construct that is found to be related to tourist satisfaction, which is destination brand experience.

Definition	Author(s)
The result of the interaction between a tourist's experience at a destination area and his/her prior expectation.	Pizam et al. (1978)
The fit between expectations and perceived outcomes of the experience.	Chon (1989)
A post-consumption evaluation concerning a specific product or service.	Westbrook and Oliver (1991)
The degree to which a tourist's assessment of the attributes of that destination exceeds his or her expectations for those attributes.	Tribe and Snaith (1998)
The real experience of tourist after experiencing the event, which originated from psychological feeling generated from individual experience in the travel destination.	Baker and Crompton (2000)
An integrated affective response after purchase, which might occur when tourists have a concern or consent on the service provided by the competitors upon different intentions of tourists.	Caruana (2002)
A positive perception or feeling that tourists develop or acquire by engaging in recreational activities and is expressed as the degree of pleasure derived from such experiences.	Lee (2009)
The degree of positive feelings' activated from the experience at the destination.	Jamaludin, Johari, Aziz, Kayat, and Yusof (2012)
The level of overall pleasure or contentment perceived by a tourist, resulting from the quality of the tour service to fulfill the tourist's expectations, desires, and needs.	Lee, Chang, and Chen (2013)

Table 2.5 Some definitions of tourist satisfaction

2.4 Destination brand experience (DBE)

Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello (2009) proposed the concept of brand experience utilizing the previous conceptualization of experience in the literature on marketing and consumer behavior (Pine and Gilmore 1999; Schmitt 1999; Dubé and LeBel 2003). The authors claimed that this construct is more comprehensive than are other brand constructs, such as brand personality, brand attitude, and brand attachment. They also developed a scale to measure brand experience that covers four aspects of the brand: sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioral. They claim that this scale is the first unified model that combines all the previously mentioned aspects (see Section 5.6.6).

Barnes et al. (2014) attempted to test the applicability of the brand experience scale to destinations. They proposed a model that includes the four aspects of brand experience suggested by Brakus et al. (2009). The model was tested in three different regions in Denmark and Sweden. The findings of the study suggest that DBE is a significant determinant of tourist satisfaction, the intention to revisit, and the intention to recommend. The authors found that the sensory dimension is more influential, highlighting the importance of fulfilling hedonic needs as a motivation for tourism. The affective dimension was also proven to be influential, although both behavioral and intellectual dimensions showed little influence in this particular study. See Figure 2.3. The next section discusses these behavioral intentions in detail.

Figure 2.3 Destination brand experience model by Barnes et al. (2014)

2.5 Tourists' behavioral intentions

The Committee on Communication for Behavior Change in the 21st Century defined behavioral intention as a person's perceived likelihood or subjective probability to engage in a given behavior. Behavioral intentions have been differentiated from similar concepts such as desire and self-prediction (Armitage and Conner 2001). Several theories have attempted to predict the relationship between attitude and behavior, including the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991), Triandis' model

of choice behavior (Triandis 1982), and the integrated behavior model (Fishbein 2000).

The theory of reasoned actions argues that behavioral intentions are determined by two main factors, namely attitudes that reflect a person's opinion about the intended behavior, and subjective norms, which reflect the perceived social pressure. Madden, Ellen, and Ajzen (1992) suggested three conditions that control the transition of behavior from the intention level to the actual level, which are the specificity of the intention, the temporal stability of the intention, and the perceived degree of the person's ability to carry out the intended behavior. This theory, called the theory of planned behavior, has been further advanced by Ajzen (1991) to improve its predictive power with regard to behavioral intentions. The new theory of planned behavior includes a third factor, control beliefs, which indicates the individual's beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede the performance of the behavior (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4 Theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991)

Triandis' model of choice behavior attempts to predict the likelihood of performing a given behavior as a function of three variables, namely the habitual performance of the behavior, the intention to perform the behavior, and the facilitating conditions. The model suggests that the probability of an act is a function of habits and behavioral intentions, modified by facilitating conditions. The habit and behavioral intention depend on the kind of person, the nature of the act, and the previous history of performing the act. Behavioral intentions are a function of a person's conception of what he or she should do, what he or she would enjoy doing, and the perceived consequences of the act. Fishbein (2000) presented the integrated model of behavioral prediction, which is illustrated in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 The integrative behavioral model (Fishbein 2000)

In marketing, behavioral intentions have been widely studied in the form of intention to purchase, re-purchase, and recommend. Predicting these important intentions accurately is vital in almost every aspect of most businesses. Similarly, the intention to visit, re-visit, and recommend any tourist destination is extremely important for stakeholders in both the public and in the private sector. Therefore, predicting the behavioral intentions of tourists has become the goal of various models and studies conducted by academics and practitioners.

In the next section, the first personal factor, which is institutional trust, is reviewed.

2.6 Institutional trust (IT)

Institutional trust is a branch of the general topic of trust. Trust is one of the topics that are most difficult to trace in the literature produced by the disciplines that have studied it due to definitional differences (Hosmer 1995; Taylor 1989), conceptual confusion (Barber 1983; Lewis and Weigert 1985a), overlapping typologies (Shapiro, Sheppard, Cheraskin 1992; Zucker 1986), terminological abundance (McKnight and Chervany 2001), and differences in the levels of analyses (Lewis and Weigert 1985a). Efforts to integrate the study of trust have proved to be complicated (Doney, Cannon, and Mullen 1998). McKnight and

Chervany (2001) found 65 cited articles containing definitions of trust in the fields of psychology, management, communication, sociology, economics, and political science. Each of these disciplines has approached the construct differently. Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998:393) summarized these multiple approaches as follows:

“.. Economists tend to view trust as either calculative or institutional. Psychologists commonly frame their assessments of trust in terms of attributes of trustors and trustees and focus upon a host of internal cognitions that personal attributes yield. Sociologists often find trust in socially embedded properties of relationships among people or institutions.”

Despite differences in the definitions of trust, the definitions share the general theme of accepting vulnerability in situations in which the trustee is going to care for the trustor (Hall, Dugan, Zheng, and Mishra 2001). A few attempts to compose a unified definition of trust across disciplines have been compiled by Rousseau (1998) and McKnight and Chervany (2001). Rousseau (1998:395) defined trust as *“a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another”*. McKnight and Chervany’s (2001) definition was presented in tabular form, as shown in Table 2.6.

Trust:	Dispositional	Structural	Interpersonal		
			Perceptual	Intentional	Behavioral
Conceptual Level	Disposition to trust	Institution-based trust	Trusting beliefs	Trusting intentions	Trust-related behavior
Operational Level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Faith in humanity • Trusting stance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structural assurance • Situational normality 	Trusting beliefs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competence • Benevolence • Integrity • Predictability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Willingness to depend • Subjective probability of depending 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cooperation • Information sharing • Informal agreement • Decreasing control • Accepting influence • Granting autonomy • Transacting business
Source: (McKnight and Chervany 2001)					

Table 2.6 Trust construct definitions

Trust has been conceptualized as a cause, and has accordingly been modeled as an independent variable (Evans 2012), as an effect and thus modelled as a dependent variable (Peters, Covello, and McCallum 1997), and as a moderating construct, therefore being modeled as an intervening variable (Lau and Tan 2006). It has also been analyzed as a personality construct (Rotter 1980), a rational choice (Coleman 1990), an interpersonal relationship (Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna 1985), and as a social structure (Lewis and Weigert 1985b). Multiple aspects of trust have been studied, such as multilevel trust (Currall and Inkpen 2002), organizational trust (Bromiley and Cummings 1995), multidisciplinary trust (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy 2000), trust as impacted by organizational change (Morgan and Zeffane 2003), and the conditions of trust (Butler 1991). Scholars have attempted to investigate whether trust is static (for example, trust or distrust) or more dynamic, whether it changes over time by developing, building, declining, and even resurfacing in long-standing relationships, and whether there is evidence from comparative and historical research on trust in organizations (Miles and Creed 1995) and in the broader society (Fukuyama 1995).

This study sheds light on institutional trust, which is an ancient field of study. The Greek Philosopher Anonymous Iamblichus stated that trust was the first result of lawfulness as cited in Hardin (1998). The French political thinker, Alexis de Tocqueville (1835), highlighted institutional trust as the main driver of citizens' engagement. More recently, psychological studies have suggested a psychological antecedent to institutional trust, referring to the early stages of

psychological development (Erikson 1950; Rosenberg 1956). Some political scientists have incorporated this psychological view of trust into an explanation of the political behavior of people, classifying them as trusting/distrusting personalities (Gamson 1968), regardless of the actual performance of the institutions in question (Gabriel 1995). This view has opponents who think that social trust and institutional trust are not the same things, despite being related (Kaase 1999; Hudson 2006).

Sociologists have proposed another model of institutional trust that links it directly to social experiences and modes of socialization (Almond and Verba 1963). However, some recent studies have highlighted the growing separation of social activities and the political scene, which obstructs the transformation from social engagement to institutional trust (Eliasoph 1998). From an economic perspective, Inglehart (1999) suggested that institutional trust is positively related to the wealth of the nation. From a sociological perspective, Knack and Keefer (1997) suggested that ethnic diversity is negatively related to institutional trust. Another view derived from institutional theories focuses solely on the actual performance of the institution (Hetherington 1998; North 1990) and rational calculations of personal gains (Easton 1965; Mishler and Rose 1997). La Porta, Lopez-De-Silanes, Shleifer and Vishny (1997) stated that corruption reduces trust in institutions. Other variables are also found to affect levels of institutional trust. For example, Doring (1992) indicated that higher education increases institutional trust by creating a society of civic mindedness and social cooperation.

Institutional trust is a multidisciplinary phenomenon. It has been studied by scholars of political science, economics, sociology, psychology, business, law, anthropology and more. This diverse interest has resulted in many attempts to define and conceptualize the construct from different perspectives, to link it to various concepts, and to apply it to a wide range of social studies. Academic research on trust has continued to branch out and attract more disciplines, such as computer science and media studies. A strong and long-lasting commitment to trust research reflects the centrality of trust in civic societies (Metlay 1999). However, the multidisciplinary nature of trust studies has led to a lack of consensus on a unified theory of trust. A content analysis of trust studies from 1968 to 1999 resulted in 72 different definitions of trust (Castaldo 2002). Such a lack of consensus and on-going debate are attributed to the fact that studies on institutional trust have emerged independently and in isolation from other efforts of social scientists who disagree fundamentally about the roles of institutions (Knight 1998). As a result, most attempts to measure institutional trust have been focused on specific types of institutions (financial, medical, and so on). Some scholars have distinguished between general trust in institutions and issue-specific trust (Peters, Lang, Sawicka, and Hallman 2007). Some attempts to measure institutional trust are summarized in Table 2.7 to give an example of how the concept of institutional trust has been studied extensively with regard to different types of institutions, yet has produced little consensus regarding a unified theme or approach. There are no specific criteria applied in selecting the studies mentioned in Table 2.7 as they only serve as examples.

Sector	Author(s)
Financial institutions	Barber (1983) Govier (1997)
Medical institutions	Blendon, Brodie, and Benson (1998) Kao et al. (1998) Lake (1999) Zheng, Hall, Dugan, Kidd, and Levine (2002)
Government institutions	SEAP (1993) Braithwaite and Levi (1998) Christensen and Lægreid (2005)
Brands	Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2001) Elliott and Yannopoulou (2007)
Educational institutions	Bryk and Schneider (2002) Trow (1996)
Media	Stamm and Dube (1994) Kiouisis (2001)
Business institutions	Morgan and Hunt (1994) Kramer (1999) Kramer and Tyler (1996)
Tourism and travel institutions	Macintosh (2002) Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy (2012)
E-commerce and online institutions	Bhattacharjee (2002) Corbitt, Thanasankit, and Yi (2003)

Table 2.7 Some measures of institutional trust

In marketing, researchers have shown little interest in institutional trust. A few studies have attempted to explore the role of IT in various contexts, such as

e-commerce (Patnasingam, Gefen, and Pavlou 2005; Wingreen and Baglione 2005; McKnight and Chervany 2002), new ventures (Ali and Birley 1998), and participation in mobile marketing (Jayawardhena, Kuckertz, Karjaluoto, and Kautonen 2009). The construct has received even less attention in tourism research. Bramwell and Lane (2011) linked trust in government institutions to the sustainability of tourism, noting that governments usually have a primary influence on governance and on policy making for tourism. Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy (2012) argued that trust in tourism institutions is a good predictor of residents' support for tourism activities. Macintosh (2002) examined the relationship between trust in travel agents and tourist satisfaction. Wang and Jia (2012) found IT to be a significant predictor of tourists' willingness to pay higher entrance fees to contribute to the protection of biodiversity conservation at the destination. However, no study has attempted to examine the direct relationship between IT and TDI. The second factor influencing TDI in the model is ethnocentrism, which is reviewed in the next section.

2.7 Ethnocentrism

In social sciences, ethnocentrism has generally been viewed as a social phenomenon that distinguishes between in-groups and out-groups. The behavioral aspects of ethnocentrism, whether conscious or unconscious, are deeply rooted in the history of mankind. Anthropologists regard ethnocentrism as

the law that prevented human groups from killing each other (Tylor 1871), as well as the central cause of most primitive wars in which different groups of humans did actually kill each other (van der Dennen 1987). In his book, *The Principles of Ethics*, Spencer (1892) concluded that the human community, regardless of its level of civilization, has always engaged in external antagonism and internal friendship. As Bodley (2011) explained, it is a social instinct that has characterized the evolution of human societies.

The American sociologist, William G. Sumner (1906:13), coined the term ethnocentrism in his book *Folkways*, in which he defined it as “...*the technical name for this view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it.*” Early discussions about ethnocentrism from a social science perspective also appeared in works of Freud (1921), who regarded ethnocentrism as a form of narcissism at the group level. Davie (1929) and Hoijer (1929) both echoed the views of Sumner (1906), with a specific focus on ethnocentrism as a determinant of primitive conflicts in human societies. However, none of these anthropological inquiries attempted to limit ethnocentrism to primitive people. According to van der Dennen (1987), it is a common theme in the history of civilization.

The theoretical framework for studying ethnocentrism started to emerge when extensive inquiry began to take place within different social sciences, such as anthropology (Holloway 1968; Bigelow 1969), psychology (Levinson 1949; Block and Block 1951; Rogers 1951; Brewer 1999), and sociology (Rokeach

1948; Vinacke 1949). Levinson (1949: 150) defined ethnocentrism as *“...An ideological system regarding in-groups and out-groups and their interactions that is based on a pervasive and rigid ingroup-outgroup distinction that involves stereotyped negative imagery and hostile attitudes regarding out-groups, stereotyped positive imagery and submissive attitudes regarding in-groups, and a hierarchical, authoritarian view of group interaction in which in-groups are rightly dominant, out-groups subordinate.”*

Ethnocentrism was assumed to be a synonym for related constructs such as patriotism, nationalism, prejudice, and conservatism. However, several studies have distinguished between these concepts, providing different definitions for each. Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) argued that patriotism and ethnocentrism are distinct constructs, since love for one's country does not necessarily imply the belief that it is the best country. Some scholars have considered ethnocentrism as an element of patriotism (Catton 1960). Rosenblatt (1964) and van der Dennen (1987) argued that nationalism and ethnocentrism might be similar in some aspects, although they do not overlap completely. Thomas (1974) studied the relationship among ethnocentrism, conservatism and ethnic prejudice, and confirmed an existing relationship that is moderated by the level of authoritarianism in the country. Roudometof (2005) posited that attachment to the nation does not necessarily imply an ethnocentric attitude. Ethnocentrism has arbitrarily been considered as the opposite of cosmopolitanism (see the next section). However, several scholars have pointed out that this is not necessarily true (Hett 1993). This opinion is supported by

other scholars (Barnes and Curlette 1985; Doob 1964; Kosterman and Feshbach 1989). The opposite concept to ethnocentrism is called “xenocentrism”, which is defined by Kent and Burnight (1951: 256) as “*the individual’s preference of a society other than their own and who rate and scale everything in reference to it and not to their own.*” Xenocentrism is characterized by a bias against the domestic (Lawrence 2012).

Ethnocentrism was studied from a consumer behavior perspective in the 1970s. Early inclusions of ethnocentrism in models of consumer behavior have appeared in the works of Markin (1974) and Berkman and Gilson (1978). Shimp and Sharma (1987: 280) defined consumer ethnocentrism as “*the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products*”. Many studies have attempted to explore the behavior of ethnocentric customers in different consumption contexts. Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos (2009) stated that a given society’s acceptance of foreign products is impeded by certain values and attitudes, of which ethnocentrism is one. The effect of country-of-origin stereotypes tends to be more influential among ethnocentric consumers (Kaynak and Kara 2002).

Some studies have linked ethnocentrism to demographic factors and found it to be positively correlated with age (Shimp and Sharma 1987) and negatively correlated with education and income (Keillor, D’Amico, and Horton 2001). Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001) investigated the effect of ethnocentrism when foreign products were clearly superior to domestic products. The result of their

investigation showed that ethnocentric consumers understood the superiority of foreign brands, yet emphasized the positive aspects of domestic products at the same time.

In tourism research, ethnocentrism has been studied from both locals' and tourists' points of view. Locals' and tourists' perceptions of each other have vital consequences on the tourism processes occurring between them. Tourists' ethnocentric tendencies may encourage or discourage their flow to certain destinations. Similarly, locals' ethnocentric tendencies may influence their behavior towards tourists and thus affect their TDI (Hudson 2008). Generally speaking, tourism generates unlimited cross-cultural encounters in which ethnocentrism becomes present. Despite this, tourism researchers have not studied the role of ethnocentrism in tourism to the same degree that sociologists have studied the role of tourism in reinforcing (Laxson 1991) or reducing (Matthews and Richter 1991) ethnocentrism. A few studies in the literature on tourism have addressed ethnocentrism and have investigated the effect of ethnocentric tendencies on tourists' acculturation strategies (Rasmi, Ng, Lee, and Soutar 2014), attendance at art exhibitions (Camarero, Garrido, and Vicente 2010), intercultural interactions between tourists and locals (Yu and Lee 2014), and tourists' dining behaviors (Lord, Putrevu, and Parsa 2004). However, the effect of ethnocentrism has not yet been examined within the context of domestic tourism.

The third factor influencing TDI in the model is cosmopolitanism, which is reviewed in the next section.

2.8 Cosmopolitanism

Historically, cosmopolitanism theory is about 2500 years old, dating back to the Cynicism and Stoicism schools of ancient Greek philosophy, which discussed the concept of a “citizen of the world” as a way of expressing skepticism about traditions (Gupta and Padmanabhan 2015). The Cynics, who coined the term, used it to challenge the conventional affiliation to the country that was enjoyed by a few and granted the privilege of citizenship to everyone (Piering 2006). The concept was further discussed by the Stoics, who developed it into a comprehensive concept of belonging, size and types of communities, and equality (Nussbaum 1997). Ancient Chinese literature provides evidence of cosmopolitanism being addressed and discussed in Chinese mythology from political, economic, and ethical perspectives in around 2000 BC (Chun 2012).

The concept continued to take the form of a philosophical inquiry during the 18th century, when it was often used to indicate an attitude of open-mindedness and impartiality (Kleingeld and Brown 2014). It captured the attention of prominent philosophers such as Voltaire (1759), Rousseau (1762), Christoph Martin Wieland (1788), and Immanuel Kant (1795). In the 19th century, debate about cosmopolitanism moved from moral philosophy towards both

political and economic fields. Decolonization and economic globalization has placed the concept under the lens of political scholars and economists. According to various views, cosmopolitanism has been cast as a humanist counterpart to globalization (Yeoh 2004). Cosmopolitanism has eventually become, as Beck (2002) described it, a large, ancient, rich and controversial set of political ideas, philosophies and ideologies.

In the 20th century, the concept spread across different disciplines, which created various versions thereof. Early efforts by Merton (1957) and Gouldner (1957) have contributed significantly to the current conceptualization of cosmopolitanism. The concept has since been subject to extended lines of inquiry in the social sciences. In the field of political science, political cosmopolitanism refers to a group of concepts that revolves around the theory of justice and global institutions (Bernstein 2011). Sociological inquiries into cosmopolitanism have discussed its presence within the contexts of identity, culture, and social mobility (Kivisto 2011). Psychologists have linked cosmopolitan behavior to several psychological concepts such as collective unconsciousness (Lazarenko 2012), connectionism (Popkewitz 2012), and cognitive science (Bracher 2013). Cultural cosmopolitanism has become an active line of research in anthropology (Kuper 1994; Kahn 2003; Werbner 2008) and in geography (Yeoh 2004).

Although participation by different fields is always seen as enriching any area of inquiry, the drawbacks often involve conceptual confusion. The study of

cosmopolitanism has suffered from such confusion (Colhoun 2008), since the concepts unpacks in it various forms: political force, social conditions, and cultural orientation (Johnson 2014) to name a few. Various studies differ in their conceptualization of cosmopolitanism in terms of it being an attitude, a value, nature, or a regime of governance (Woodward, Skrbis, and Bean 2008). Robbins (1998) stated that cosmopolitanism, as easy it is to define in the dictionary, is somewhat difficult to conceptualize in academia. Consensus among scholars about what cosmopolitanism really means has not yet been reached. However, attitudinal conceptualizations have become popular in recent studies (Cleveland et al. 2014). Several definitions of cosmopolitanism and cosmopolitan people are provided in Table 2.8 to indicate the lack of a universally accepted definition of cosmopolitanism (Beck and Grande 2007).

Definition	Author(s)
The personal tendency to orient oneself beyond the boundaries of the local community.	Merton (1957)
The attitude of mind centered on the unity of humanity	Baldry (1965)
The willingness to engage with the other, an intellectual and aesthetic stance of openness toward divergent cultural experiences.	Hannerz (1996)
A moral frame of reference for specifying principles that can be universally shared.	McGrew (2000)
A value orientation illustrating a person's unbiasedness when processing foreign experiences.	Cannon and Yaprak (2002)
A conscious openness to the world and its cultural differences	Skrbis, Kendall, and Woodward (2004)
A human perspective that entails relationships to a plurality of cultures understood as permissive entities.	Beck (2004)

Table 2.8 Some definitions of cosmopolitanism

Some scholars have justified this problem based on the diversity of research fields that have investigated the concept (Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma, 2003). Therefore, it is important for this study to select a definition from literature on marketing. Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw (2012) defined consumer cosmopolitanism as a three-dimensional construct that captured the extent to which a consumer exhibits open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures, appreciates the diversity created by the availability of products from different national and cultural origins, and is positively disposed towards consuming products from foreign countries.

In marketing, researchers have been intrigued by studies that found the concept of cosmopolitanism to influence one's life style and attitude towards other communities (Hannerz 1990; Holt 1997), to make consumers more responsive to global consumption positioning strategies (Alden et al. 1999), and make them more likely to consume products from other countries (Cleveland et al. 2009). Thus, marketing researchers have aspired to discover a relationship between consumer cosmopolitanism and purchasing behaviors (Roth 2006; Parts and Vida 2011). These efforts led to the concept of consumer cosmopolitanism (Cannon, McGowan, and Yaprak 1994; Yoon, Cannon, and Yaprak 1996; Thompson and Tambyah 1999; Beckmann, Douglas, Botschen, Botschen, Friese, and Nijssen 2001; Vida, Dmitrovic, and Reardon 2005). Consumer cosmopolitanism is based on consumption behavior that transcends particular cultures and settings for the sake of the best offer (Cannon and Yaprak 2002). Parts and Vida (2011) found that cosmopolitan consumers have a

stronger tendency to buy foreign products. Lim and Park (2013) found some evidence of a relationship between consumer cosmopolitanism and innovation adoption behavior with some variations across different cultures.

In tourism research, cosmopolitanism has been found to be strongly relevant; for example, Bruner (1991) described tourism as leading to increased cosmopolitan perspectives. With cosmopolitanism being introduced to the field as an antecedent of tourism (Urry 1995), as well as an outcome of tourism (Molz 2006), the relationship between the two has been shown to be mutually perpetual and academically fruitful. Johnson (2014) found tourism to be an ideal environment in which to study cosmopolitanism. Cleveland and colleagues (2015) stated that the distinction between “the tourist” and “the cosmopolitan” lies in their depth of extra-cultural participation. This concept has been studied in tourism research from different perspectives, mainly focusing on its effect on tourists’ behavior (Johnson 2014) and on locals (Scarangella 2010), as well as for its role in facilitating the mediating effect of tourism between people, cultures, and places (Hollinshead 2009). According to Johnson (2014), cosmopolitanism in the tourism contexts embodies the tourists themselves, as well as tourism workers.

The fourth factor influencing TDI in the model is personality type, which is reviewed in the next section.

2.9 Personality types

Different disciplines, such as philosophy, politics, and sociology have contributed to the study of personality throughout history. However, it is the psychological inquiries into personality that have developed the concept and advanced its theoretical basis. According to Caprara and Cervone (2000), personality can be defined as a complex, dynamic system of psychological elements that interact reciprocally with one another and contribute to unity and continuity in an individual's conduct and experience, both as it is expressed and as it is perceived by the individual and by others.

In the early stages of the discipline, psychologists viewed personality through the lens of abnormal psychology (Barenbaum and Winter 1999). In the 1930s, several studies signaled the emergence of personality studies as a subfield of psychology (Allport 1937; Stagner 1937; Murray 1983). These early attempts to study personality were performed by several psychologists who tried to extract human personality traits directly from the abridged English dictionary (Klages 1926; Baumgarten 1933) and then from the unabridged dictionary (Allport and Odbert 1936).

The enormous number of traits that resulted from such extractions necessitated a reliable taxonomy. Allport and Odbert (1936) identified four main categories, namely personality traits, temporary states, highly evaluative

judgments of personal conduct, and physical characteristics. This classification dominated the field until the late 1960s, when Norman (1967) reclassified the traits according to seven categories. Occasional debates took place with regard to the boundaries of each category and whether the traits included in each were distinct and mutually exclusive.

However, simple categorization failed to tackle the huge number of traits Adequately. This remained the primary challenge facing both researchers and practitioners until Cattell (1943, 1945a, 1945b) reduced the number of identifiable traits from 4500 traits to 35 variables, from which he was able to extract a further 16 distinct personality factors. Several different studies were designed in an attempt to reduce the number of identifiable traits to a manageable level. The most successful study introduced the five factors widely used today (Tupes and Christal 1961), which were later termed the “Big Five” (Goldberg 1981). These “Big Five” were subject to further analysis and investigation in order to test their generalizability, stability, and comprehensiveness. Several cross-language and cross-cultural studies were conducted to identify any concerns related to translation and applicability in different cultures (John 1990).

Table 2.9 presents the Big Five personality traits.

Factor	Facets/Correlated traits	
Openness to experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ideas • Fantasy • Aesthetics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actions • Feelings • Values
Conscientiousness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competence • Order • Dutifulness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement striving • Self-discipline • Deliberation
Extraversion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gregariousness • Assertiveness • Activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excitement-seeking • Positive emotions • Warmth
Agreeableness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust • Straightforwardness • Altruism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Compliance • Modesty • Tender-mindedness
Neuroticism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anxiety • Angry-hostility • Depression 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-consciousness • Impulsiveness • Vulnerability
Source: John (1990)		

Table 2.9 The Big Five personality traits

Allport (1937: 48) defined personality as “*the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his/her unique adjustments to his/her environment.*” In general, there are five different perspectives of personality theory, which are psycho- and neo-analytic, trait,

cognitive, humanistic/existential, and socio-behavioristic perspectives (Madrigal 1995).

As consumer behaviorists acknowledged that personality traits serve as driving forces that predispose consumers to behave in certain ways regarding brands, the doors to marketing research were thrown wide open to personality theories and concepts. Starting as early as 1959, Evans (1959) attempted to profile the personality traits of Chevrolet owners versus Ford owners given the fact that there were no major mechanical or design differences between the two brands. A similar attempt was conducted by Westfall (1962), who found evidence of personality trait influence on the choice of the car design (convertible versus compact). However, both those early attempts, together with other studies that were conducted during the 1960s and 1970s, failed to establish a strong association between personality traits and brand choice, although they did provide evidence that such an association exists (Foxall, Goldsmith, and Brown 1998). Despite a considerable amount of effort devoted to the cross-fertilization of the two disciplines, the results – until the 1980s – did not satisfy many scholars (Plummer 1984). Personality research was not able to have a significant influence on the major models and theories of consumer behavior.

The use of personality type in marketing studies was extensive. Notable examples are the association between personality type and product brands (Zentes, Morschett, and Schramm-Klein 2008), nation-brand personality (Rojas-Méndez, Papadopoulos, and Alwan 2015), and the prediction of general

consumption behavior (Chen and Lee 2005). From the beginning, most of these studies utilized the trait theory of personality (Villani and Wind 1975). Among the early measures used in consumer research were Edward's personal preference schedule (Koponen 1960), Thurstone's temperament schedule (Westfall 1962), and the California psychological inventory (Robertson and Myers 1969). However, some scholars have remained skeptical about their predictive power in consumer behavior research since they were designed for other purposes (Villani and Wind 1975). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) suggested that personality studies performed poorly in predicting consumer behavior, yet were considered an influential factor in experiential products such as tourism. Iso-Ahola and Dowd (1984) stated that the personality type may predispose a consumer to certain behavior, although it is insufficient to explain the reason. This criticism has also been extended to tourism research. Nias (1985) reported that the relationship between personality and tourism is not particularly robust. More recent studies have found the influence of personality to be evident in destination choices and travel-related decisions (Yoo and Gretzel 2010).

In tourism studies, Plog (1972) was the first researcher to attempt to link personality types to tourists' behavior by introducing his psychocentric-allocentric model. His study received little support from other scholars, who rejected the theory (Hoxter and Lester 1988; Nickerson 1989; Smith 1991; McDonnell 1995). However, this rejection did not discourage more attempts to utilize personality traits in tourism research. Examples of these attempts include linking the sensation-seeking personality to adventure traveling (Gilchrist, Povey, Dickinson,

and Povey 1995). Holbrook and Olney (1995) attempted to link romantic and wanderlust personalities to specific vacation preferences such as places with warm climates. Frew and Show (1999) attempted to use Holland's personality scale to explain tourist attractions. Jani and Han (2014) examined the role of personality type on satisfaction among hotel guests. Tan and Tang (2013) used personality type to predict the pre-trip search behavior of tourists. Other studies have also noted that the relationship between personality and tourism is strongly evident? (Furnham and Heaven 1999).

In general, most of the early studies that examined the relationship between personality and leisure behavior utilized trait theory extensively (Madrigal 1995). Other attempts to link personality types to tourism behavior include those by Nickerson and Ellis (1991), Frew et al. (1999), Yiannakis and Gibson (1992), Lepp and Gibson (2008), and Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992). This study has considered the recommendations made by McGuiggan (2004) when using personality traits to understand tourism choices, namely that tourist destinations should be measured in terms of attributes and that personality should be modeled as a predictor of tourist preference. Personality traits are seen as important determinants of individuals' behavior because personality traits tend to determine personal values, attitudes, and behaviors (Landers and Lounsbury 2006). However, this study places the construct of personality on the same level as attitudinal constructs such as ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism, since the focus of this thesis is not the relationship between personality and attitude, but rather the direct influence of personality type on DTDI formation.

After reviewing the main constructs of the model proposed in this thesis, the next sections review some of the concepts and theories that are relevant to the model.

2.10 Related concepts and theories

In addition to examining the relationship between the constructs explained above, this study explores the potential applicability of various concepts and theories to the field of destination image research. These concepts are relative deprivation theory, the means-end approach, leisure constraints theory, freedom-seeking theory, and prestige-seeking theory.

2.10.1 Relative deprivation

Relative deprivation is a sociological construct introduced by Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star, and Williams (1949). It states that subjective assessment of one's wellbeing is relative to that of one's reference group. The construct has gained considerable attention from scholars in the social sciences. The development of this concept and its overarching theories are considered by some scholars to be one of the most important advancements in social science theory (Tylor and Lind 2002). Researchers have distinguished between feeling deprived as a unique individual or as a representative of a certain group. The

first is called “egoistic relative deprivation”, while the second is called “fraternal relative deprivation”. Egoistic relative deprivation is caused by an individual’s negative perception of her or his social position within the same group. In this case, egoistic relative deprivation may provoke an action aimed at improving the individual’s position. Fraternal relative deprivation, on the other hand, has greater ramifications than does egoistic relative deprivation as the actions taken are aimed at larger social changes that affect not only the individual but also the group to which he or she belongs (Tylor 2002). Some views suggest that those who feel both egoistic and fraternal relative deprivation are more likely to turn their feelings into actions (Foster and Matheson 1995).

Egoistic relative deprivation was found to be an important factor in determining subjective quality of life (Olson 1996; Clark and Oswald 1996). More psychologists and economists have begun to employ the measure of relative deprivation (RD) to assess the quality of life beyond the baseline measures such as income and life style (Camfield and Skevington 2008). In a study of unemployment, egoistic relative deprivation was found to be a more accurate predictor of stress among unemployed individuals than was fraternal relative deprivation (Walker and Mann 1987).

Fraternal relative deprivation has appeared in the works of Runciman (1966) and Pettigrew (1967). Runciman (1966) stated that an individual may be subject to fraternal relative deprivation if four conditions exist in the situation:

(1) The individual does not have a particular object, whether this is a material object, social status, or any sort of privilege,

(2) The individual wants this object,

(3) The individual feels a sense of entitlement to have this object, and

(4) Some or all members of the reference group of this particular individual have this object.

Fraternal relative deprivation involves a degree psychological affiliation with the group, and a sense of kinship that provokes solidarity (Runciman 1966).

The concept of relative deprivation has appeared very rarely in the literature on marketing. The few examples that are available show that the concept has not received as much attention in marketing as it has in other social sciences. For example, van Raaij and Wandwossen (1978) suggested that consumption is influenced by relative deprivation because it triggers the dominance of the desire "to keep up" with the reference group. Goodwin and Ross (1990) used relative deprivation theory to explain consumers' evaluations of responses to complaints. Their study suggested that consumers' main criterion for evaluating how fairly their complaints have been managed is a direct comparison with how other, similar complaints have been managed. Chang and Arkin (2002) argued that people who grew up in relative deprivation were most motivated to acquire those things they could not afford early in life. Feinberg, Krishna, and Zhang (2002)

suggested that relative deprivation influences consumers' loyalty to a certain company in cases in which it failed to reward their loyalty or when another firm succeeded in doing so. Chipp, Kleyn, and Manzi (2011) investigated the relationship between relative deprivation and conspicuous consumption, and found that egoistic relative deprivation played a role in "catch up" consumption to the more privileged group. Sharma and Alter (2012) suggested that financial deprivation prompts consumers to seek scarce in order to offset their sense of resource disparity and therefore mitigates their sense of relative deprivation.

Relative deprivation has been found to be a strong motivator behind various forms of human migration (Stark 1991). In tourism, it has been studied both as a threat to the host communities and, to a lesser extent, as a motivation for tourism. With regard to the first point, Seaton (1997) listed three types of relative deprivation that could result from tourism:

(1) Relative deprivation that is felt by host communities when coming into direct contact with foreign tourists,

(2) Relative deprivation that is felt by host communities when countries with low general standards of living make special provision to meet the higher standards of rich tourists, and

(3) Relative deprivation that exists in those societies in which employment in the tourism industry is to be seen as better compensated than is work in other occupations.

With regard to the second point, Dann (2002) hypothesized that relative deprivation might motivate senior tourists as they, in some communities, may feel relatively deprived in terms of quality of life in comparison to other age groups. This hypothesis has never been tested. Thus, tourism literature has clearly not yet adopted relative deprivation as a motivational factor.

2.10.2 Means-end approach

The means-end approach was introduced by Gutman and Reynolds (1979). It assumes that consumption-relevant cognition is organized in the minds of consumers as mental/associative links between means (products/product attributes) and ends (goals). Accordingly, means-end models attempt to explain how a product or service selection facilitates the achievement of desired end states. Before Gutman and Reynolds (1979), few researchers, such as Young and Feigin (1975), Myers (1976), Geistfeld, Sproles, and Badenhop (1977), Cohen (1979), and Hirschman (1980), had presented several ideas related to the approach, albeit not in the form of a coherent model. The approach has benefited from previous theoretical bases, each contributing to a specific aspect thereof. An example is the personal construct theory by Kelly (1955), which suggests that individuals use their previous experiences to construct their personal psychology. Another example is that of consumers' values (ends), which was developed in the works of scholars such as Rokeach (1973), who defined the "value" as an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-

state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. Another example is the concept of benefit segmentation, introduced by Haley (1968), which suggests that market segments could be identified by causal factors instead of by descriptive factors. Simply put, the benefits that the consumers seek when buying a certain product is the basis on which the market should be segmented, not according to the product itself. All these concepts and theories have contributed to the means-end approach that was first compiled by Gutman and Reynolds (1979).

The means-end approach has been utilized in marketing research and has been found to be a feasible way of understanding the consumers' decision-making processes. Zeithaml (1988) used the means-end approach to construct a model in which three main concepts, price, quality, and value, are linked. Pieters, Baumgartner, and Allen (1995) found the means-end approach useful when determining the degree of marketing standardization that could be applied to marketing communication in specific nations. The approach became popular in marketing research and has been applied to many categories of products and services, such as food (Grunert 1995; Zanolli and Naspetti 2002), ethical consumption (Bagozzi and Dabholkar 1994; Jägel, Keeling, Reppel, and Gruber 2012), financial services (Laukkanen 2006), student recruitment (Klenosky and Troutman 2001), medicine (Doucette and Wiederholt 1992), retail stores (Lee, Chang, and Liu 2010), and sporting events (Chen 2006).

In the area of tourism research, many researchers have advocated understanding tourist behavior by using this approach (McDonald, Thyne, and McMorland 2008), linking specific service attributes to personal values (McIntosh and Thyne 2005). Klenosky (2002) suggested a framework for examining the relationship between the pull attributes (means) and the higher-level motivational forces that are important for the individual traveler (ends). Following the same approach, tourists' values were linked to destination choice (Klenosky, Gengler, and Mulvey 1999; Hallett 2005), travel motivation (Jiang, Scott and Ding 2014; Ho, Lin, and Huang 2014), and tourist experience (Cheng, Chen, and Chang 2004; Gao, Scott, Ding and Cooper 2012). The approach has been used to examine the extended services involved in tourism, such as hotels (Mattila 1999) and recreational activities (Robinson, Trail, and Kwon 2004; Yeh, Wu, and Jeng 2015). Using the means-end approach to investigate the tourism values of specific cultures has also been considered (Watkins and Gnoth 2010). The ethics of tourism have been subject to analysis using the means-end approach by Freudenthaler (2011).

2.10.3 Leisure constraint theory

Leisure constraint theory emerged from the collective research in leisure studies since the 1980s (Hinch, Jackson, Hudson and Walker 2005). The theory is based on two main assumptions, namely that the absence or presence of constraints would explain why a person does or does not participate in a leisure

activity, and that leisure constraints are immovable (Jackson 1988). A seminal paper by Crawford and Godbey (1987), elaborated on by others (Crawford et al. 1991), contributed significantly to the development of the theory by introducing a sequential hierarchy of constraints. Researchers have classified tourism constraints according to three main categories, which are intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints (Crawford et al. 1991). Intrapersonal constraints include individual psychological states and attributes (stress, depression, religiosity, anxiety, and the like). Interpersonal constraints include the interactions and relationships among individuals (ability to find a partner, compatibility of preferences with others, and so on). Structural constraints include external factors, such as financial resources, accessibility, and logistical issues. The model has been empirically tested and supported by several studies in different contexts (Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, and von Eye 1993; Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh and Eklund 1999; Gilbert and Hudson 2000).

Past research findings suggest that constraints do not always prevent or reduce participation (Kay and Jackson 1991; Scott 1991; Shaw, Bonen, and McCabe 1991). Accordingly, Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) extended the hierarchical leisure constraint model (Crawford et al. 1991) by developing propositions concerning the role of negotiation and motivational processes. In a qualitative study, Scott (1991) suggested that people often take innovative steps to negotiate constraints. Shaw, Bonen and McCabe (1991), having identified the counter-intuitive finding that it is often the more constrained people who

participate more frequently than do the less constrained, questioned the assumption that more constraints mean less leisure.

With regard to tourism research, Nyaupane and Andereck (2007) complained that tourism research has not investigated the theoretical concept of constraints in depth. Most of the focus, according to Nyaupane and Andereck (2007), was on the narrowly defined supply-side and sociodemographic constraints such as logistical constraints (Edgell 1988), distance to the destination (McKercher and Lew 2003), climate and seasonality (Baum and Hagen 1999; Gomez-Martin 2005), lack of transportation and accommodation, and safety and security (George 2003; Thapa 2003). However, some attempts to include the leisure constraint theory in tourism studies do exist, and several studies have confirmed a negative relationship between leisure constraints and satisfaction (Chiu 2008).

2.10.4 Prestige-seeking theory

The notion of prestige seeking has appeared in the literature on marketing as part of different lines of inquiries taking multiple forms, such as luxury brands (Vigneron and Johnson 1999; Dubois and Czellar 2002), and social honor consumption (Mukerji 1983). However, a shared theoretical basis for prestige seeking remained absent. The notion was incorporated in several models, but was not specifically examined from a theoretical perspective because most of the relevant studies were empirical. However, research on prestige seeking did not

have a unified theoretical basis and there was thus no consensus on how to define prestige seeking (Andrus, Silver, and Johnson 1986). Crompton and McKay (1997) defined prestige as a desire to have high standing in the eyes of surrounding people. In their effort to build a model for prestige-seeking consumer behavior, Vigneron and Johnson (1999) identified five types of prestige seekers influenced by five perceived prestige values, which are conspicuous value, unique value, social value, hedonic value, and quality value.

In the context of tourism research, Dann (1977) suggested that tourism can be motivated psychologically by the desire for ego-esteem. Crompton (1979) identified prestige as one of the socio-psychological motivations for tourism. Urry (1990) stated that prestige-seeking tourism stems from the division between the ordinary and the extraordinary. Riley (1995) identified two underlying dimensions of prestige-seeking tourism, namely relative exclusivity and personal/empathetic desirability.

2.10.5 Freedom-seeking theory

The meaning of human freedom has been a philosophical question since the dawn of civilization. However, psychology has typically focused on two specific notions of freedom that have behavioral symptoms, which are “freedom from” and “freedom to” (Mills 2013). A notable behavioral reaction to the threat of lack of freedom is the basis of the psychological theory of reactance, which states that humans are psychologically motivated to react to offers, persons,

rules, or regulations that threaten or eliminate specific behavioral freedoms (Brehm 1966). Both notions of “freedom to” and “freedom from” are strongly tied to tourism (Caruana and Crane 2011), mainly via the assumption that tourism is the behavioral application of reactance to the lack of freedom. Therefore, in tourism research, freedom has been addressed based on three different categories, which are freedom as a tourism motivation (Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987; Wickens 2002), freedom as a tourism narrative (Crang 2004), and freedom as a power conflict (Cheong and Miller 2000). Using a panel of people from 80 countries, Gholipour, Tajaddini, and Al-Mulali (2014) found that lack of personal freedom in the home country increases outbound tourism, especially for developing countries. Exercising higher personal freedom was cited in many studies that investigated the determinants of tourism. For example, seeking personal freedom was found to play a role in attracting Singaporeans to Canada (Karwacki, Deng, and Chapdelaine 1997), Saudis to Dubai (Gholipour et al. 2014), youth tourists to Amsterdam (Have 1974), and Japanese to Hawaii (Turner and Reisinger 1999).

2.11 Concluding remarks

This chapter provided a literature review of the main components of this study. The review covered the main constructs in the study, which are institutional trust, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, personality type, tourist destination image, destination brand experience, intentional behaviors, and

tourist satisfaction. Each of these constructs has been reviewed briefly to explain the origin thereof, the conceptual development, various definitions, popular models, existing measures, and applications within marketing, consumer behavior, and tourism research. This review also aimed to show the relevance of these constructs for tourism studies. The chapter has also briefly presented the concepts and theories that are relevant to tourism behavior, namely relative deprivation, the means-end approach, leisure constraint theory, prestige seeking, and freedom seeking. Each of these concepts presents a possible theoretical explanation of the subject of this study. The path is now paved to discuss the conceptual model of this study, followed by the research hypotheses.

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the main constructs relevant to the study were reviewed to reflect on our current knowledge about them with regard to marketing and tourism research. Based on this review, a set of hypotheses and propositions will be presented with the aim of exploiting the research opportunity and filling the current gaps in the literature. Research propositions represent an initial step towards producing complete research hypotheses that are testable and accurate (Hamlin 2000). The main proposition of this study is that the selected set of personal factors has an effect on how citizens form DTDIs, perceive DBE, attain satisfaction, and adopt behavioral intentions. Another proposition is that DBE is affected by pre-perceived DTDI and, subsequently, affects tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions. The mediating effect of both DBE and TS within the model will be discussed next.

3.2 Conceptual model

This study will bring together seven different constructs to test their hypothesized relationships, as well as three behavioral intentions. The seven constructs (institutional trust, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, personality type,

DTDI, DBE, and tourist satisfaction) will form the most comprehensive model in the literature and is designed to examine the personal factors that influence tourists' perceptions of the DTDI and consequent behavioral intentions. The model will also examine the relationship between the new concept of DBE and tourist satisfaction. All the above will be studied within the context of domestic tourism, a field that has received little empirical investigation in comparison to international tourism.

Many studies in the tourism literature have attempted to study the cognitive factors that influence TDI empirically, yet few studies have attempted to study the affective factors empirically. No study in the literature has ever incorporated the constructs mentioned above in one model, despite intermittent studies that have highlighted a relationship between these constructs and various aspects of marketing and consumer behavior. This study attempts to broaden our understanding of the DTDI formation process by testing hypothesized relationships that have never been tested empirically before. Some of them, such as institutional trust, have never been even conceptually considered a factor that has an influence on DTDI.

Table 3.1 summarizes some of the studies in the literature that have examined the factors that influence tourist perceptions of TDI empirically. The goal of presenting these studies is to show the absence of studies that have considered the factors included in this study.

	Information sources	Travel experience	Needs and motivations	Demographic factors	Human values	Institutional trust	Ethnocentrism	Cosmopolitanism	Personality type	Product-country image
Nolan (1976)	x									
Pearce (1982)		x								
MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997)				x						
Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	x		x	x	x				x	
Baloglu (2001)		x								
Beerli and Martin (2004a)	x	x	x	x						
Beerli and Martín (2004b)		x	x	x						
Prebensen (2007)	x	x								
Frias, Rodriguez, and Castañeda (2008)	x									
San Martin and Rodríguez del Bosque (2008)			x		x					
Gibson, Qi, and Zhang (2008)		x		x						
Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim (2011)										x
This study				x		x	x	x		

Table 3.1 Studies that have examined factors that affect TDI.

Factors included in this study originated in different disciplines. Institutional trust, for instance, has been studied extensively by political scientists with regard to public trust in government institutions since the 1950s (Cook and Gronke 2001). The interest in this construct on the part of political scientists has led to various lines of inquiry, such as the antecedents of declining trust in government (Lipset and Schneider 1987; Chanley, Rudolph, and Rahn, 2000; Mansbridge 1997), and the relationship of trust in government institutions, civic trust and

social capital (Brehm and Rahn 1997). Organizational behaviorists have also been interested in the role of institutional trust within (Ellonen, Blomqvist and Puumalainen 2008) and among organizations (Zucker 1986). Within these disciplines, psychological, sociological, and economic perspectives have been deployed in the study of institutional trust. Therefore, institutional trust is a multidisciplinary field of study that is more popular in political sciences and with regard to organizational behavior. These two fields, political sciences and organizational behavior, in particular, meet the needs of this study to include the construct in the conceptual model since the institutions related to the promotion and delivery of domestic tourism, as well as the organizations that influence the tourists' experiences indirectly, are mainly government, semi-government, and private institutions.

Ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism were originally sociological constructs, but have also been studied and applied in various disciplines, particularly with regard to international business (Zeira, Harari and Nundi 1975; Malnight 1995; de Ruyter, van Birgelen, and Wetzels 1998; Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009). Personality type is mainly a psychological construct. The rest of the constructs in our model are DTDI, DBE, and tourist satisfaction, which belong to the fields of marketing and tourism studies.

The model proposed in this study, with reference to the origins of the constructs included, is presented in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 The conceptual model and related disciplines

3.3 Research hypotheses

3.3.1 Institutional trust

Promoting and delivering domestic tourism to citizens is a collective task carried out by government and semi-government institutions, as well as by major players in related industries. Tourists will ultimately consume a destination in which several local institutions have participated to engineer its final condition. For example, tourists will fly to the destination via domestic airlines or drive on roads that have been built by the transportation authority. Accommodation is offered by the hospitality industry, which is co-supervised by both the tourism authority and the trade authority. Local municipalities manage the attractions in cooperation with local businesses and non-profit organizations. In general, tourists are likely to be aware that they will be in constant contact with local institutions during their vacation. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that the tourists' level of institutional trust in tourism-related institutions influences their perception of DTDI. This premise has never been investigated in the tourism literature before.

Six tourism-related institutions in Saudi Arabia have been selected to test the hypothesis. These are:

- (1) The supreme commission for tourism and antiquities (SCTA),
- (2) The ministry of trade,

(3) The ministry of transportation,

(4) The committee for the promotion of virtue and the prevention of vice (CPVPV),

(5) The municipality of Aseer, and

(6) The ministry of culture.

The six institutions are presented in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2 Tourism-related institutions in Saudi Arabia

With regard to the relationship between institutional trust and DTDI, this study hypothesizes the following:

- **Hypothesis 1:** Institutional trust in each tourism-related institution is positively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTDl).

3.3.2 Consumer ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism has been incorporated in many models of international marketing. Despite an evident influence of ethnocentrism on consumer behavior and the consumption of products (Shimp and Sharma 1987), services (De Ruyter et al. 1998), or destinations (Hollinshead 1993), no studies have attempted to investigate its influence on DTDI.

Since image is one of the important factors that influences tourist behavior (Crompton 1979; Moutinho 1987), and since ethnocentrism has been found to influence tourism behavior (Mohsin 2005; Chang and Cheng 2011; Rasmi et al. 2014), we hypothesized that the two constructs, DTDI and consumer ethnocentrism, are not strangers to each other. The relationship between them is hypothetically negative in the international tourism context and positive in the domestic tourism context. This study hypothesizes the following:

- **Hypothesis 2:** Consumer ethnocentric tendency (CET) is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI).

3.3.3 Consumer cosmopolitanism

Tourists' cosmopolitan attitudes have been considered frequently in tourism research (Bruner 1991; Urry 1995; Molz 2006). The effects of cosmopolitanism on tourists (Johnson 2014) and on locals have been investigated and incorporated in several marketing and sociological models. Although cosmopolitanism has been conceptualized differently across disciplines, most of these conceptualizations revolved around the relationship between in-groups and out-groups. Subsequently, tourism research has mainly incorporated this construct with regard to international tourism. The construct has not been researched in the context of domestic tourism before. This study attempts to examine the relationship between cosmopolitanism and DTDI formation. This study hypothesizes that the following:

- **Hypothesis 3:** Consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI).

3.3.4 Personality type

Various attempts to investigate the role of personality in tourism have been made in tourism research. However, most of these attempts focused on the supply-side of tourism. Significant relationships between personality types and the behavior of hospitality and leisure employees have been found (Teng 2008; Lundberg, Gudmundson and Andersson 2009; Kim, Shin, and Swanger 2009). On the demand side, the efforts have been less intense. Tok (2011) used the Big Five personality traits inventory (McCrae and Costa 1997) to measure participation in risky and adventures activities, and found significantly higher levels of extraversion and openness to experience and lower levels of conscientiousness and neuroticism. Yoo and Gretzel (2011) found that tourists who exhibited more extroversion and openness to experiences were more likely to create online word-of-mouth about their tourist experience, while neurotic tourists were less likely to do so. Ariffin, Ahmad, and Ishak (2008) found managers' personalities the second most important factor involved in decision making when choosing a destination for corporate meetings. Faullant, Matzler, and Mooradian (2011) found that two basic consumption-related emotions, fear and joy, are influenced by neuroticism and extraversion, respectively, and in turn influence tourist satisfaction. With regard to the hotel industry, Jani and Han (2014) found that extraversion and agreeableness affected satisfaction positively, while neuroticism affected it negatively. Although personality types have been analyzed in many studies in the tourism literature (Frew and Shaw 1999; Gretzel et al. 2004; Barnett 2006; Ariffin et al. 2008), no study has analyzed how

personality type influences people's perceptions of DTDI at image formation level. This study hypothesizes the following:

- **Hypothesis 4:** The open-to-experience personality type is positively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTDl).
- **Hypothesis 5:** The conscientious personality type is negatively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTDl).
- **Hypothesis 6:** The extrovert personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDl).
- **Hypothesis 7:** The agreeable personality type is positively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTDl).
- **Hypothesis 8:** The neurotic personality type is negatively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTDl).

3.3.5 Domestic tourist destination image (DTDl)

Del Bosque and San Martin (2008) found that a preconceived TDI influenced expectations and mediated the relationship between the TDI and

tourist satisfaction via the confirmation/disconfirmation experience. This study hypothesizes a similar mediating effect of experience but uses a more complex construct to describe it, namely “destination brand experience” (DBE). This relationship has never been tested in the context of domestic tourism before. Thus, this study attempts to examine the relationship(s) that brings together DTDI, DBE and TS. This study hypothesizes the following:

- **Hypothesis 9a:** Domestic tourist destination image (DTD) is positively related to the destination brand experience (DBE).
- **Hypothesis 9b:** Domestic tourist destination image (DTD) is positively related to the intention to visit (IV) for the first time.
- **Hypothesis 10a:** Destination brand experience (DBE) mediates the relationship between DTD and tourist satisfaction.
- **Hypothesis 10b:** Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to tourist satisfaction (TS).

3.3.6 Behavioral intentions

The behavioral intentions of tourists have received extensive coverage in the field of tourism. Most of these studies have attempted to examine the factors

that affect three main behavioral intentions, namely the intention to visit, the intention to re-visit, and the intention to recommend. Factors that have been examined in the literature include, but are not limited to, cultural distance (Ng, Lee, and Soutar 2007), TDI (Gibson et al. 2008), travel experience (Rodríguez-Molina, Frías-Jamilena, and Castañeda-García 2013), perceived risk (Sönmez and Graefe 1998), constraints (Huang and Hsu 2009), social influence (Lam and Hsu 2006), promotional materials (Lee, Rodriguez, and Sar 2012), destination personality (Ekinici and Hosany 2006), and mega-events (Armenakyan, Heslop, Nadeau, O'Reilly and Lu 2012). This study aims to contribute to our understanding of tourists' behavioral intentions by retesting some of the previous findings within the context of domestic tourism, particularly the specific factors TDI and DBE. Barnes et al. (2014) suggested that tourist satisfaction mediated the relationship between DBE and intentions to re-visit and recommend. To replicate those findings in the context of domestic tourism, this study hypothesizes the following:

- **Hypothesis 10c:** For visitors, Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to the intention to re-visit (IRV).
- **Hypothesis 10d:** For visitors, Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC).

3.3.7 Tourist satisfaction (TS)

Tourist satisfaction is one of the most important determinants of loyalty and future attitude. Understanding the antecedents and consequences of TS is vital for any tourism strategy. This study aims to examine TS within the context of domestic tourism in order to test some previous findings in the literature. This study hypothesizes:

- **Hypothesis 11a:** For visitors, Tourist satisfaction (TS) is positively related to the intention to re-visit (IRV).
- **Hypothesis 11b:** For visitors, Tourist satisfaction (TS) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC).
- **Hypothesis 11c:** Tourist satisfaction (TS) mediates the relationship between destination brand experience (DBE) and intention to re-visit (IRV).
- **Hypothesis 11d:** Tourist's satisfaction (TS) mediates the relationship between destination brand experience (DBE) and intention to recommend (IRC).

Figure 3.3 shows the hypotheses within the conceptual model.

Figure 3.3 The conceptual model showing the hypotheses

3.4 Concluding remarks

This chapter explained the conceptual model for this study in detail. The model attempts to fill a number of gaps in the literature by hypothesizing multiple relationships among different constructs: institutional trust, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, personality, domestic tourist destination image, destination brand experience, tourist satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. The hypothesized relationships have been selected and discussed in consideration of the current state of the literature. The next chapter will address the context of this study, which is the tourist scene in Saudi Arabia.

4.1 Background

In 2015, around 19.3 million visitors arrived in Saudi Arabia and 50 million domestic visitors made overnight trips within the country (MAS 2016). Inbound visitors spent about USD 21.33 billion, while their domestic counterparts spent USD 12.64 billion (MAS 2016). These statistics place Saudi Arabia 19th globally in terms of the number of arrivals and 17th in terms of tourism expenditure. Conversely, in the same year, 21.5 million Saudis traveled abroad, spending approximately USD 25.65 billion. This makes the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia, in relative terms, one of the most active across the globe, comprising 6.4% of the total employment and contributing 8% to the total GDP (WTTC 2016). However, the numbers suggest that the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia still contains untapped resources and unexploited opportunities. The equal number of inbound and outbound tourists is far from being regarded as a balanced trade of tourism for two reasons. First, most of the inbound arrivals are religious tourists who strive to perform their religious duties regardless of any marketing efforts on the part of Saudi Arabia. However, little has been done to benefit from the millions of tourists who are already standing on Saudi soil yet who mainly stay in the two holy cities, Mecca and Madinah. Second, the outbound Saudi travelers outspend their domestic counterparts and the inbound tourists. Hence, the industry has been unable to earn more dollars per tourist. A combination of pull and push factors is thought to be responsible for these statistics.

4.2 Pull factors

Besides the two holy mosques in Mecca and Madinah, Islam's most sacred places, Saudi Arabia offers diverse tourist attractions in its area of two million square kilometers (see Figure 4.1). Although most of this area is desert, the geography also includes mountains, islands, oases, plateaus, beaches, and world-class diving sites.

Figure 4.1 Map of Saudi Arabia

The country is home to three world-heritage sites designated by UNESCO, which are the Al-Hijr Archaeological Site, located in Madâin Sâlih

(see Figure 4.2), the At-Turaif District located in ad-Dir'iyah, and historic Jeddah, located in Jeddah. Another site containing ancient rock drawings remains on UNESCO's tentative list (UNESCO 2014). In addition, there are many archeological sites spread across the country, reflecting its long history from the Old Stone Age to the early and late Islamic eras.

Figure 4.2 Mada'in Saleh, Saudi Arabia (Source: saudi-archaeology.com)

The climate of Saudi Arabia is as diverse as its geography, with average summer temperatures ranging between 28° and 42° Celsius, dropping to between 8° and 22° Celsius in winter. The southern region has a moderate climate throughout the year due to its mountainous topology, which makes it a popular destination to escape high temperatures in other regions in

summer. The warm and humid climate of the low plains in the southwest, Jazan, makes it popular for winter resorts. Snow, a recent climatic change in the country, falls in the northern region.

Except for religious tourism, which accounts for the majority of tourists arriving in Saudi Arabia, there is no single tourist activity that stands out as the most famous. For sport and adventure tourists, the country offers many activities such as coral reef diving, mountain climbing, sand skiing, Arabian horse racing, parachuting, cave exploration and more. For nature lovers, tourists can enjoy desert camps, island resorts, seasonal springs, animal sanctuaries, and mountain hikes. Shoppers enjoy glamorous, modern shopping malls and traditional, local bazaars, as no sales taxes are imposed on goods and services in Saudi Arabia (Deloitte 2014).

4.3 Push factors

Tourism in Saudi Arabia has traditionally suffered from various barriers, such as the lack of quality infrastructure in some regions, tourism visa restrictions, and conservative social norms and traditions. A few incidents of terrorist attacks targeting foreigners in Saudi Arabia in 2003 and 2004 sent negative signals to potential international leisure travelers. However, it is difficult to measure the direct effect of these barriers. Traditionally, Saudi Arabia did not welcome international tourism apart from religious tourism due to various political and security issues. It was not until 1987 that Saudi Arabia attended the International Tourism Exchange in Berlin for the first time,

showing how little interest the country has had in attracting foreign tourists (Schliephake 1989). Nonetheless, millions of Muslims arrive in Saudi Arabia to perform Hajj¹ and Umra² each year, with no effort on the part Saudi Arabia to attract them. In fact, Saudi Arabia restricts the number of arrivals from each country to maintain a manageable number of people. It is feasible to say that, no matter how many arrivals the tourism authorities in Saudi Arabia strive to attract, the number will easily be reached by maintaining the status quo. With the global Muslim population expected to reach 2.2 billion in 2030 (Pew Research 2011), there should be no concern regarding the demand for religious tourism in Saudi Arabia (see Figure 4.3). This leaves little incentive to attract more tourists, particularly when oil prices are high enough for the government not to consider exploiting other sources of national revenue. This lack of incentive justifies the visa restrictions that have long been used in the system to discourage non-business arrivals from coming to Saudi Arabia.

The overall atmosphere of conservatism in Saudi Arabia plays an opposing role for potential foreign and local tourists. Those who prefer travelling to conservative destinations may find Saudi Arabia ideal for their needs; thus, conservatism becomes a pull factor. Others may find this atmosphere somewhat restrictive and uncomfortable; for example, considering women's dress codes and the fact that alcohol is forbidden. Thus, conservatism is seen as a push factor. However, this simple categorization is far from being an accurate indication of travel behavior as

¹ Hajj is a mandatory Islamic pilgrimage to Mecca that takes place only during five specific days in the Islamic calendar. Performing Hajj at least once in a lifetime is mandatory for all adult Muslims who are physically and financially able to perform the ritual.

² Umra is a voluntary pilgrimage to Mecca that, in contrast to the Hajj, can be undertaken at any time of the year.

several other factors are also important. First, religious tourism, which involves performing a pilgrimage or visiting the two holy mosques, is responsible for attracting millions of Muslims from all corners of the globe regardless of their preferences and reactions regarding conservatism. Second, the state of tourist destinations in Saudi Arabia, although conservative, might be seen as unsatisfactory by conservative tourists due to the quality of service and the value for money compared to alternative options in the region. Third, the difficulties involved in issuing tourist visas for foreign tourists may be off-putting for potential tourists.

Figure 4.3 More than 2 million Muslims the Holy Mosque in Makkah.

Some barriers to tourism in Saudi Arabia are directly related to the DMO. DMOs around the globe are often politically weak, lack visibility, and

are extremely fragmented (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2004). DMOs in various countries vary in their ability to influence the tourism scene for many reasons. A stronger focus on administrative efficiency than on actual marketing might be one (Kerr 2006). Other issues that hinder DMOs' effectiveness, as cited in the literature, are related to budgeting, lack of product control, and political pressure (Morgan, Pritchard, and Piggott 2002).

In a society that is highly compliant with Islamic law, such as that in Saudi Arabia, travel, among other activities, is affected by the teachings of Islam either directly or indirectly, affecting both the host and the guest (Zamani-Farahani and Henderson 2010; Bogari et al. 2004). This effect extends to the industry, influencing strategies, policymaking, and the place-branding process. However, the government's outlook on tourism is shifting for several reasons. First, calls to diversify the economy via non-oil revenue have spread across the entire Gulf area to avoid problems caused by instability in the oil prices, such as those that occurred in the 1980s and 1990s. These calls have been repeated even more loudly after the recent collapse of oil prices in 2015. Second, unemployment among the youth compels the government to explore the potential of untapped industries to create jobs. In many other countries, the tourist industry has proved to be an important source of employment (UNWTO 2014a). Official statistics show that tourism had created permanent jobs for 750,000 Saudi citizens by 2014 (Arab News 2014).

The high contribution and potential of the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia led to the establishment of the Supreme Commission for Tourism in

2000, which changed its name in 2008 to become the Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA) after the governments' decision to integrate the antiquity and museum sectors into the Supreme Commission for Tourism. Both the foundation and the expansion of SCTA reflect a growing interest in emphasizing tourism as one of the productive sectors in the Saudi economy that has the potential to increase investment opportunities, develop local human resources, and create new jobs for citizens (SCTA 2013). Since its inception, SCTA has strived to re-structure the industry and consolidate the related authorities under its umbrella. Carrying out these demanding administrative tasks has dominated the checklist of the SCTA, with marketing tasks being overlooked. However, it would be impossible to accomplish the latter before establishing the general strategy of the commission and fostering cooperation with other tourism-related institutions in Saudi Arabia.

The general strategy of the commission has specifically prioritized three markets for tourism, namely the domestic tourism market, the international Hajj and Umra market, and specialized foreign niche markets for tourists interested in the country's social and cultural heritage. The institutions that have the greatest impact on the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia are the Supreme Commission for Tourism, the Ministry of Trade, the Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice, the Ministry of Culture, the Ministry of Transportation, and the municipality in each region. In the context of this study, the municipality in question is the Municipality of Aseer.

4.4 The Aseer region

The Aseer region is located in the southwest of Saudi Arabia (see Figure 4.4). It has an area of 81,000 square kilometers and an estimated population of 2,190,000 inhabitants. Major cities in the regions are Abha, Khamis Mushait, and Alnamas.

Figure 4.4 Map of Saudi Arabia with the Aseer region highlighted

The region is situated on the high plateau and receives more rainfall than does the rest of the country, resulting in more green scenery than in any other

part of Saudi Arabia. In summer, the climate of the region is moderate, with temperatures ranging from 20 to 25 degrees Celsius. The winter is usually cold in the mountain area, yet warm on the coastal plains called the Tihamah. This creates two tourism seasons with different lengths. Summer vacationers arrive from other parts of Saudi Arabia to enjoy the moderate climate. Winter vacationers arrive at Tihamah from the other parts of the region for short trips, usually weekends, to enjoy the warm climate. The Aseer region is home to the first national park in Saudi Arabia, which opened in 1980 and has an area of around 1,600 square kilometers. The park is one of the greatest unspoiled wildernesses in the country and is home to hundreds of different species of trees and birds. The park contains the highest mountain in the country, Soodah Mountain, which has a height of 10,522 feet above sea level.

The Aseer tourist scene has been developing for the last five decades. Currently, the region enjoys high profile tourism projects, as evidenced by accommodation, recreation, and sporting activities. In 2013, the municipality of Abha, Aseer's main city, announced 23 tourism projects in the region in cooperation with SCTA (Al-Thumali 2013). These projects were said to be part of the effort to make Aseer the number one tourist destination in the country by 2020 (Al-Suraie'e 2013).

The last statistical report regarding Aseer was issued by the tourism research and information center in Saudi Arabia (MAS) in 2012. The report indicated that 1.2 million trips were made to the Aseer region during the year. These trips are shown in Table 4.1 and are categorized by duration.

Duration	Number to trips	Percentage
From 1 to 3 nights	479,994	39.61%
From 4 to 7 nights	280,637	23.16%
From 8 to 14 nights	194,932	16.09%
From 15 to 28 nights	109,889	9.07%
From 29 to 91 nights	146,226	12.08%
Total	1,211,718	100.00%
Source : (MAS 2012)		

Table 4.1 Trips made to the Aseer region in 2012 with the durations thereof

4.5 The culture of Saudi Arabia

According to Hofstede (2011), culture is defined as the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others. Culturally, Saudi Arabia is a conservative society that adheres largely to the teachings of Islam. The society is deeply religious, conservative, traditional, and family oriented (Tripp and North 2003). Social interaction is marked by strong gender segregation and respect for older people. However, its culture has also been affected by rapid change and its young population that is constantly pushing the boundaries of social norms. Hofstede's cultural dimensions are the most suitable to describe the culture of Saudi Arabia. Based on the analysis of more than 100,000 questionnaires answered by IBM employees across 50 countries, Hofstede (1980) was able to identify systematic differences in national cultures across four cultural dimensions. Fifth and sixth dimensions were added later based on the work of Hofstede and Bond (1988) and Minkov (2007), respectively. These six dimensions are listed in Table 4.2.

	Dimension	Definition
1	Power Distance	The degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally.
2	Uncertainty Avoidance	The degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity.
3	Individualism versus Collectivism	Individualism: a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families. Collectivism: a preference for a tightly-knit framework in society in which individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.
4	Masculinity versus Femininity	Masculinity: a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for success. Femininity: a preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life.
5	Long Term versus Short Term Orientation	Long-term orientation: a preference to maintain time-honored traditions and norms while viewing societal change with suspicion. Short-term orientation: a preference to take a more pragmatic approach, encourage thrift and efforts in modern education as a way to prepare for the future.
6	Indulgence versus Restraint	Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms.
Source: Hofstede (2011)		

Table 4.2 Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Hofstede's official website, which presents the scores of 102 countries based on the six cultural dimensions, shows the score for Saudi Arabia (presented in Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5 Scores of Saudi Arabia based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions

The explanation for the scores in Figure 4.5 is also mentioned on Hofstede's official website. The explanation is as follows. With regard to power distance, Saudi Arabia scores very highly. This means that people accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. Hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralization is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do, and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat. Saudi Arabia is also considered to be a collectivistic society. This is manifest in the close, long-term commitment to the members' 'group', which could be a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount,

and over-rides most other societal rules and regulations. The society fosters strong relationships whereby everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of the group. In collectivist societies, offence leads to shame and loss of face.

With regard to masculinity/femininity, Saudi Arabia scores 60 for this dimension and is thus a masculine society. In masculine societies, people “live in order to work”, managers are expected to be decisive and assertive, the emphasis is on equity, competition and performance, and conflicts are resolved by dispute. Saudis also do not like uncertainty in general and hence tend to avoid it. Countries exhibiting high degrees of uncertainty avoidance maintain rigid codes of beliefs and behavior and are intolerant of unorthodox behavior and ideas. In these cultures, there is an emotional need for rules (even if the rules never seem to work), time is money, people have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, and security is an important element in individual motivation.

Saudi Arabian society has a low score of 36 for the long-term orientation dimension. People have a strong concern with establishing the absolute truth; thus, they are normative in their thinking. They have great respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results. With regard to the last dimension, indulgence versus restraint, Saudi Arabia's intermediate score of 52 does not point to a clear preference in this dimension. This dimension is defined as the extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses, based on the way they were raised. Relatively weak control is called “indulgence” and relatively strong

control is called “restraint”. Cultures can, therefore, be described as indulgent or restrained.

4.6 Concluding remarks

Saudi Arabia presents a unique case with regard to tourism for several reasons. First, it receives millions of inbound religious tourists every year despite little effort being made to attract them, yet fails to capitalize on their regular arrival and growing numbers. Second, approximately half of Saudi Arabian citizens are international tourists, mainly to destinations that are perceived by Saudis as conservative, Islamic, and family-friendly, such as Malaysia, UAE, and Bahrain. It is ironic that Saudi Arabia itself has not been able to retain a considerable portion of Saudi tourists who hold such values. Third, conservatism seems to play opposing roles of encouraging and discouraging international tourism to Saudi Arabia. The country might be perceived as unfriendly to foreign tourists due to its conservative nature, yet this fact has not played a significant role in attracting Saudis or culturally similar tourists (for example, citizens of the Gulf states).

The reasons mentioned above are indicators of problematic and unsatisfying conditions for the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia. These conditions increase academic curiosity in investigating the tourist scene more closely. This study attempts to contribute to this interesting academic investigation by examining the personal factors that influence how the citizens of Saudi Arabia perceive the DTDI. The study hypothesizes that some of the

hurdles to the growth and success of domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia could be addressed by determining the roles that institutional trust, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and personality type can play in enhancing or distorting the image of one of Saudi Arabia's most vibrant domestic destinations, the Aseer region.

The next chapter will describe the methodology followed in this study.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodological approach for the research design. The instruments used to conduct both quantitative and qualitative investigations are explained followed by the customization of these instruments to suit the targeted sample, the sampling procedure, the data collection and the operationalization of the key constructs. Linguistic and cultural considerations were applied in different steps of the methodology design to ensure the best compatibility with the Saudi sample.

5.2 Instrumentation

This study used a quantitative approach to test the hypotheses explained in Chapter 3, as well as a qualitative approach to complement the quantitative analysis by explaining some underlying issues related to the national strategy of promoting domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia. With regard to the quantitative approach, a survey was designed and was distributed among citizens of Saudi Arabia to collect the required data. The survey consisted of 18 sections, as outlined in Table 5.1.

Section	Content
1	A filtering question about the respondent's preferred language in which to answer the questionnaire. Languages offered were Arabic and English.
2	A letter from the researcher explaining the general purpose of the survey and assuring the respondents about the anonymity of their profiles (see Appendices I and K).
3	Two filtering questions about the respondent's nationality and country of residence. Only respondents whose answers were "Saudi Arabia" to either of the two filtering questions were allowed to continue answering the questionnaire. If this were not the case, the questionnaire showed a message informing the respondent that she or he did not match the targeted sample.
4	A filtering question about the region of residence in Saudi Arabia. If the answer was "Aseer region", the survey advised the respondent that her or his participation in the survey was not needed because his or her region of residence was outside of the scope of the study. Residents of other regions were automatically transferred to the next section.
5	Six questions aimed to measure the respondent's level of trust in and beliefs about six tourism-related institutions in Saudi Arabia.
6	One question to measure the cosmopolitanism of the respondent.
7	One question to measure the ethnocentric tendencies of the respondent.
8	One question to measure the personality type of the respondent.
9	One question to measure the image of Aseer region in the mind of the respondent.
10	A filtering question that asked the respondent whether she or he had visited the Aseer region previously. If the answer was "no", the respondent was transferred to Section 13.
11	One question to measure the destination brand experience of the respondent with regard to Aseer region.
12	One question to measure the respondent's satisfaction regarding the Aseer region and future behavioral intentions.
13	One question to measure the respondent's intention to visit Aseer in the future.
14	Two questions aimed female and military staff respondents only about travel constraints.
15	One question about tourism preference.
16	One question to determine reasons for international tourism preference.
17	One question to determine reasons for domestic tourism preference.
18	Three demographic questions (age, income, educational level).

Table 5.1 Questionnaire sections

Sections were presented to the respondents in a sequence that was determined by filtering questions and conditional paths, as illustrated in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Questionnaire flow chart

With regard to the qualitative approach, a series of interviews were conducted with selected key players in the Saudi tourism industry. The

selected interviewees represent the Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA), marketing and media experts from Saudi Arabia, and two people heavily involved in the tourism industry in Saudi Arabia: a festival organizer and an airline agent. All comments were sought in the light of the findings of the quantitative study (see Appendix L for the interview protocol). The selected interviewees are:

1. Mr. Hamad Al Sheikh, vice president for marketing and programs, Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA).
2. Dr. Waleed AlHemaidi, vice president for the regions' Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA).
3. Mr. Mohammad Alnashmi, general manager for planning and monitoring, Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA).
4. Mr. Majed AlSheddi, general director of media and public relations, Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA).
5. Mr. Mammoun Alrefai, manager of Kingdom Travel Agency.
6. Mr. Khaled Al Dughaim, festival organizer and author of the book *Tourism media and national tourism development*.

5.3 Translation

The initial design of the survey was done in English since all of the measures adopted in the survey were originally developed in this language. However, the survey was offered to respondents in two languages: Arabic and

English. To ensure the correct and accurate translation of the survey from English to Arabic, a multi-step translation process was followed, which consists of three stages, which are translation, validation, and correction (Sperber, Devellis, and Boehlecke 1994).

The first stage was undertaken by the researcher, a native speaker of Arabic with extensive knowledge of English. After this stage was complete, two bilingual individuals with a strong command of both languages were asked to validate the preliminary translation (Prince and Mamboour 1967). Both individuals were provided with a copy of the original text in English and were asked to translate it into Arabic. Following this, the three translations were submitted to the researcher and the two selected validators. A group validation session was held to discuss the results of the independent validation. There were only a few discrepancies, which were then highlighted and debated thoroughly. Finally, all disagreements were resolved by voting. After the validated version of the translation was finalized, a fourth individual with a strong command of both languages was asked to back-translate the survey from Arabic to English. The back translation contained some minor discrepancies when compared to the original English version. A group decision by the researcher, two validators, and the corrector was made to resolve each discrepancy, either by supporting the initial translation or by applying the agreed upon modifications. The final version obtained the support of all participants in the translation process as being an accurate translation of the original text.

5.4 Sampling

An online survey was chosen to approach respondents from different age groups, professions, socioeconomic classes, and with different tourist experiences. The decision to use an online survey was justified by it having several advantages over the traditional paper-based questionnaire. First, online questionnaires help to overcome the difficulties of accessing a diverse group of respondents in Saudi Arabia, a country that occupies an area of approximately 2,149,690 square kilometers. Second, the use of an online questionnaire helps to overcome the hurdle of accessing Saudi female respondents. In a gender-segregated country such as Saudi Arabia, male researchers often find it difficult to conduct face-to-face interviews or to physically distribute to and collect paper questionnaires from the female population and vice versa. Even if they succeed in doing so, the risk of having an unrepresentative sample would increase based on the assumption that only female respondents who were willing to deal with male researchers would be chosen. In addition to the segregation issue, accessing respondents in general in a face-to-face manner is not generally acceptable in Saudi Arabia. A researcher who goes from door to door in Saudi Arabia, urging potential respondents to participate, may be considered invasive and will be looked at with suspicion.

Das, Ester, and Kaczmirck (2011) listed several distinct advantages of using online questionnaires, such as saving time and avoiding errors. These advantages are particularly relevant to this study because of the length of the questionnaire, which takes an average of 50 minutes to complete, thus

increasing the chances of response fatigue and coding errors if presented on paper. In addition, the use of online questionnaires eliminates the cases of missing data since the respondents are not allowed to move to the next part of the questionnaire nor to submit it without providing a response to every item. Other practical considerations that could be mentioned are the ease of transforming the collected data into analyzable forms, the ability to design the questionnaire to behave according to preset filtering conditions, and the availability of data cleaning tools that can be used to highlight any potential issues with the quality of the collected data.

Recent statistics shows that there are 20,813,695 Internet users in Saudi Arabia (ILS 2016), representing 46% of the population. Internet users are defined as those individuals who can access the Internet at home via any device type and any type of connection. This puts Saudi Arabia within the top ten countries with regard to Internet penetration in the Middle Eastern and North African (MENA) region, far above the average for the MENA region, which is 38% (World Bank 2016). Ultimately, the decision to use an online questionnaire was made to collect a gender and geographically balanced sample that would be much more representative than could be expected using traditional methods (Rojas-Méndez, Papadopoulos, and Alwan 2015), as well as delivering several functional and practical advantages that are highly necessary in a study as complex as this.

5.5 Data collection

The online questionnaire was initially delivered via two main channels, namely direct email and social networks (see Appendix I). First, an email that contained the link to access the questionnaire online was sent directly to more than 2,000 email addresses of Saudi nationals, urging recipients to answer the questionnaire and forward the link to other applicable respondents. The multiplied forwards were expected to extend the sampling pool beyond the initial 2,000 contacts. Many recipients replied, confirming they had answered the questionnaire and had forwarded it to their contacts.

Second, the researcher shared the link to the online questionnaire using his social media accounts, which were mainly Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, and WhatsApp. Each of these channels collectively delivered the link accompanied by a short message requesting assistance in completing the questionnaire to the timelines and phones of many thousands of potential respondents. Each of these social media channels allows viewers of the message to share it with their lists of followers and friends. For example, when using Twitter, the initial tweet asking applicable followers to participate was re-tweeted hundreds of times and was viewed by thousands of people, a far greater number than the amount of direct Twitter followers of the researcher as reported by the application. This indicated that the message was viewed by a broader spectrum of followers-of-followers. In addition, the use of general hash-tags, a function in Twitter that is used to mark certain topics for an interested audience, allowed the tweets to be visible to anyone who viewed the hash-tag "#Saudi", "#tourism", "#Aseer" or "#travel", even if

they were not following any of the people who had re-tweeted the questionnaire. The next section discusses the operationalization of the different constructs included in the model.

5.6 Measures

In order to achieve the required level of accuracy in measuring the constructs included in the model, only established measures that had been theoretically designed and empirically tested were used. Measures with the highest possible levels of reliability and validity among other similar measures were carefully selected from the literature. Seven different measures were selected to measure the seven main constructs in the model. The total number of items in all measures was 146. Table 5.2 shows a summary of all measures used in this study.

Construct	Scale	Source	# of items
Institutional trust	Institutional trust	See Table 5.4	6 items x 6 institutions = 36
Consumer ethnocentrism	CETSCALE	Shimp and Sharma (1996)	17 items
Consumer cosmopolitanism	C-COSMO	Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw (2012)	12 items
Personality type	Big Five Inventory (BFI)	John, Donahue, and Kentle (1991)	44 items
Tourist destination image	Tourist destination image	Heslop, Nadeau, and O'Reilly (2009) Armenakyan (2012)	21 items
Destination brand experience		Barnes et al. (2014)	12 items
Tourist satisfaction		Armenakyan (2012)	4 items

Table 5.2 Summary of the measures used in this study

5.6.1 Institutional trust

Measures of institutional trust are very scarce. Items are more likely to be specifically tailored for specific types of institutions, mainly for political institutions in democratic countries. It was thus difficult to locate items related to institutional trust that were applicable (McKnight, Choudhury, and Kacmar 2002). Various attempts to identify factors that influence institutional trust are scattered across the literature about political science, management, psychology, communication, public policy, and sociology. However, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, there is no measure of institutional trust that has been theoretically proposed and empirically tested. Therefore, and since the purpose of this study is not to develop a model of institutional trust, it was decided to adopt several factors that had been theoretically proposed by many scholars of institutional trust and use them as items to measure the level of trust held by the respondents with regard to six tourism-related institutions in Saudi Arabia. Only the four most common factors of the many factors that have been suggested to be influential in many contexts were selected. Table 5.3 lists the adopted items.

After analyzing these four factors in depth within the context of the study, it was decided to divide the "credible commitment" factor into two separate factors, credibility and commitment. The reason for this modification was to ensure clearer understanding on the part of the respondents and a more relevant measurement of the construct. It was also decided to use the word "kindness" instead of "benevolence" in order to prevent translational confusion. The Merriam Webster dictionary defines "benevolence" as an act

of kindness. Therefore, the replacement is not expected to indicate a major difference in the meaning.

Item	Definition	Authors
Honesty	The truthfulness, integrity, and authenticity of a person or group (Hoy and Tarter 2004)	Alvarez and Brehm (1998) Barns and Prior (1996) Berman (1996) Cummings and Bromiley (1996) Hoy and Tarter (2004) Jennings (1998) Levi (1998) Miller (1974) Wuthnow (1998)
Benevolence	The extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good for the trustor, apart from any profit motives (Mayer et al. 1995)	Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) Kim (2005) Tyler (1998) Wicks, Berman, and Johns (1999) Shaw (1997) Berman (1996) Lewicki and Bunker (1996)
Credibly committed	Credibility: the degree to which the [institution] is believed and can be relied upon (Graf, Roberts, and Guiot 2011) Commitment: an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship (Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande 1992)	Daunton (1998) Gamson (1968) Graf, Roberts and Guiot (2011) Kass (1990) La Porte and Metlay (1996) Levi (1998) Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande (1992) Metlay (1999) Wuthnow (1998)
Fairness	The extent to which good faith efforts are made to treat everyone even-handedly. (Metlay 1999)	Alvarez and Brehm (1998) Berman (1996) Butler (1999) Daunton (1998) Carnevale (1995) La Porte and Metlay (1996) Lee (1995) Levi (1998) Metlay (1999) Tyler (1998)

Table 5.3 Adopted items to measure institutional trust (with sources)

Another modification was the researcher's addition of the item "importance". Since the researcher selected the tourism-related institutions based on his own knowledge, the additional item "importance" was added to confirm the relevance of his selection. The objective of adding this item was to justify the elimination any of the selected institutions in case it was voted unimportant by the majority of the respondents. The final list of items adopted to measure institutional trust was honesty, kindness, credibility, commitment, fairness, and importance. Thus, the respondents will be asked to rate each selected tourism-related institution based on the six factors above. See Appendix B.

5.6.2 Consumer ethnocentric tendencies

Several attempts have been made to measure ethnocentrism. Each attempt reflects a different purpose, scope, and focus based on the field of study. Some attempts to measure ethnocentrism are illustrated in Table 5.4.

Scale	Author(s)
The E scale	Levinson (1949)
The Australian ethnocentrism scale	Beswick and Hill (1969)
The British Ethnocentrism Scale	Warr, Faust, and Harrison (1967)
The F scale	Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, and Sanford (1950)
The black ethnocentrism scale	Chang and Ritter (1976)
The GENE scale	Neuliep and McCroskey (1997)

Table 5.4 Examples of scales to measure ethnocentrism

Of the available measures, the consumer ethnocentric tendencies scale (CETSCALE) developed by Shimp and Sharma (1996) is considered one of the most popular measures of ethnocentrism. The measure was specifically developed to measure consumer ethnocentrism, which makes it more relevant to this study. Table 5.5 shows the CETSCALE original items.

	Statement
1	American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports.
2	Only those products that are unavailable in U.S. should be imported.
3	Buy American-made products. Keep America working.
4	American products, first, last, and foremost.
5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American.
6	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Americans out of jobs.
7	A real American should always buy American-made products.
8	We should purchase products manufactured in the U.S. instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
9	It is always best to purchase American products.
10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.
11	Americans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.
12	Curbs should be put on all imports.
13	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support American products.
14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.
15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the U.S.
16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.
17	American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.

Table 5.5 CETSCALE original items

The CET scale has been used widely and cited repeatedly in the marketing literature. The original scale consisted of 17 items measured using a seven-point Likert scale (see Appendix D). The authors reported a

Cronbach's alpha that ranged between 0.94 and 0.96 in the four studies based on a sample of 322, 323, 315, and 575 respondents, respectively. The five-week stability of the scale was estimated to be 0.77 with a sample size of 138. Table 5.5 shows the original items on the CETSCALE by Shimp and Sharma (1996). It was decided to use the original scale of 17 items with a scale modified from seven points to five points to achieve consistency with other scales used in this study. Dawes (2008) suggested that both five-point and seven-point Likert scales are readily transferrable to each other with equivalent results. Colman, Norris, and Preston (1997) compared both scales and found them to be equivalent, with a high degree of correlation between them.

5.6.3 Consumer cosmopolitanism

Several attempts have been made to construct a measure of cosmopolitan attitude. The early attempts were not focused on marketing. Dye (1963) developed a scale to measure cosmopolitanism in terms of involvement in the local community. Jennings (1967) attempted to create a scale that was mainly focused on political attitudes. The first scale that came close to marketing was the one developed by Jain and Etgar (1977), which included cosmopolitanism as one of several key characteristics of retail innovation. Following this, Yoon and colleagues (1996) developed the first scale that was specifically designed to measure cosmopolitanism from a marketing perspective, although it was criticized by Riefler and

Diamantopoulos (2009) on the basis of validity and reliability. Robinson and Zill's (1997) scale was focused on broad cultural issues, and Earle and Cvetkovich's (1997) scale was focused on risk management; both were criticized for lacking content validity and generalizability (Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009). Vida and colleagues (2005) attempted to create another scale that was found not to be directly linked to purchasing behavior (Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009). Nijssen and Douglas (2008) proposed a scale of world-mindedness, which they equated with cosmopolitanism, although it was mainly focused on food consumption. Cleveland and Laroche (2007) developed a scale of six items as part of a general scale to measure three main constructs' effect on consumption behavior, namely cosmopolitanism, materialism, and ethnocentrism. The scale was later validated in eight countries (Cleveland et al. 2009). The scale has been criticized for not being specifically designed to measure consumer cosmopolitanism, but rather cosmopolitanism in general (Lawrence 2012). Therefore, Lawrence (2012) created a six-item scale that specifically measured consumer cosmopolitanism. In the same year, Saran and Kalliny (2012) proposed a six-item scale, but reported a limitation of homogeneity in the respondents' cultural background. Altıntaş, Kurtulmuşoğlu, Kaufmann, Harcar, and Gundogan (2013) developed a 15-item scale as well.

In this study, it was decided to measure the consumer cosmopolitanism construct using the consumer cosmopolitanism scale (C-COSMO) developed by Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw (2012). The reason for this choice is that C-COSMO scale is based on a construct conceptualization that incorporates all known dimensions for consumer research purposes and was

subject to rigorous reliability and validity testing using several consumer samples from Austria. The multidimensionality of the scale makes it inclusive of different manifestations of the same construct (Wong, Law, and Huang, 2008). The scale consists of 12 items that aim to capture three dimensions of cosmopolitanism, namely open-mindedness, diversity appreciations, and consumption transcending borders (see Appendix C). The authors reported Cronbach's alphas of 0.87, 0.78, and 0.84 for each dimension, respectively. Table 5.6 shows the psychometric properties of the C-COSMO scale.

No.	Dimension	Statement
C1-O	Open-mindedness	When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.
C2-O		I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.
C3-O		I like to have contact with people from different cultures.
C4-O		I have got a real interest in other countries.
C5-D	Diversity appreciation	Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.
C6-D		The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.
C7-D		I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.
C8-D		Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.
C9-C	Consumption transcending borders	I like watching movies from different countries.
C10-C		I like listening to music of other cultures.
C11-C		I like trying original dishes from other countries.
C12-C		I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.
Source: Riefler et al. (2012)		

Table 5.6 C-COSMO items

5.6.4 Personality type

Personality research has produced hundreds of personality instruments over the years, all of which differ in terms of accuracy, usefulness, and objectives. Several scales have been developed to measure personality types. Table 5.7 shows a few measures of personality.

Scale	Author(s)
Inkblot test	Rorschach (1927)
The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)	Hathaway and McKinley (1940)
The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)	Cattell (1946)
Vocational preference inventory (VPI)	Holland (1958; 1973)
Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI)	Briggs (1976)
Self-directed search	Holland (1977; 1985b)
The Big Five Personality Test	Costa and McCrae (1992)
Personality Assessment Inventory (PAI)	Morey (2007)

Table 5.7 Some measures of personality types

The most popular measures of personality are the NEO personality inventory developed by Costa and McCrae (1985), the trait descriptive adjective (TDA) developed by Goldberg (1992), and the Big Five Inventory (BFI) developed by John and colleagues (1991). All these popular scales have reported acceptable validity, reliability, and temporal stability. However, it was found that some of them measured certain types of personality differently by emphasizing one facet at the expense of others. All three scales have been replicated extensively in much of the research in various fields. The NEO personality inventory has multiple versions. The first, the NEO PI-R, consists of 240 items that measure not only the Big Five personality types,

but also the subordinate facets of each type. A shortened version called NEO-FFI with only 60 items was released later to facilitate the application in research when time is critical. The measure was criticized for being based on the Big Five theory, which is a phenomenologically - rather than psychologically based - concept (Juni 1995) and for its lack of control of social desirability (Ben-Porath and Waller 1992; Widiger 1995).

The BFI scale includes 44 items. Table 5.8 shows the 44-item BFI scale by John and Srivastava (1999).

I see myself as someone who...			
EP1	Is talkative	CP23R	Tends to be lazy
AP2R	Tends to find fault with others	NP24R	Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
CP3	Does a thorough job	OP25	Is inventive
NP4	Is depressed, blue	EP26	Has an assertive personality
OP5	Is original, comes up with new ideas	AP27R	Can be cold and aloof
EP6R	Is reserved	CP28	Perseveres until the task is finished
AP7	Is helpful and unselfish with others	NP29	Can be moody
CP8R	Can be somewhat careless	OP30	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
NP9R	Is relaxed, handles stress well	EP31R	Is sometimes shy, inhibited
OP10	Is curious about many different things	AP32	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
EP11	Is full of energy	CP33	Does things efficiently
AP12R	Starts quarrels with others	NP34R	Remains calm in tense situations
CP13	Is a reliable worker	OP35R	Prefers work that is routine
NP14	Can be tense	EP36	Is outgoing, sociable
OP15	Is ingenious, a deep thinker	AP37R	Is sometimes rude to others
EP16	Generates a lot of enthusiasm	CP38	Makes plans and follows through with them
AP17	Has a forgiving nature	NP39	Gets nervous easily
CP18R	Tends to be disorganized	OP40	Likes to reflect, play with ideas
NP19	Worries a lot	OP41R	Has few artistic interests
OP20	Has an active imagination	AP42	Likes to cooperate with others
EP21R	Tends to be quiet	CP43R	Is easily distracted
AP22	Is generally trusting	OP44	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

Table 5.8 The 44-item BFI scale.

Unlike most of the other adjective-based scales, BFI does not use single adjectives but includes some elaborations to ensure accuracy and consistency. This scale was praised for its brevity, simplicity, high reliability, and stability, as well as for its convergent and discriminant validity. The measure was found to be robust across cultures (Schmitt, Allik, McCrae, and Benet-Martínez 2007). The third scale, TDA, consists of 100 items based on single adjectives, which was considered a source of potential ambiguity (John et al. 2008). Other less popular scales are also available, such as Wiggins' (1995) interpersonal adjective scale (IAS), Digman's (1989) children's personality test, and the ten-item personality inventory (TIPI) developed by Gosling and colleagues (2003). This study used BFI scale because it is the shortest of the three major scales, is highly replicated, and is valid across different cultures (see Appendix H). It uses a one to five Likert scale.

5.6.5 Tourist destination image (TDI)

To measure tourist destination image, a collection of items was derived by Heslop (2009) and Armenakyan (2012) from various studies to construct a customized measure of TDI. The measure was found by the researcher to be the most suited to the tourist nature of the Aseer region. The selected items were meant to cover the beliefs about both the man-made and natural environment of the destination according to the classification presented by Echtner and Ritchie (1993). Armenakyan (2012) reported satisfactory levels of validity and reliability for all measures. The Cronbach alpha was high overall. Table 5.9 shows the selected items from the respective studies.

Dimension	Item		Author(s)
Built environment	1	Quality of service	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	2	Value of money	Baloglu and McCleary 1999
	3	Variety of activities	Nadeau et al. (2008)
	4	Entertainment	Baloglu and McCleary 1999
	5	Shopping facilities	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	6	Sport facilities	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	7	Ease of getting around	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	8	Ease of finding place of interest	Nadeau et al. (2008)
	9	Accommodation	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	10	Selection of restaurants	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	11	For the whole family	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	12	Safety	Baloglu and McCleary (1999)
	13	Tourist attractions	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
Natural environment	14	Attractive scenery	Baloglu and McCleary 1999
	15	Amount of wilderness	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	16	Climate	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	17	Peaceful	Nadeau et al. (2008)
Uniqueness of the experience	18	Originality of experience	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	19	Culturally interesting	Nadeau et al. (2008)
	20	Memorability of experience	Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
	21	Your knowledge of the destination	Heslop, Papadopoulos, Dowdles, Wall, and Compeau (2004)

Table 5.9 Selected items of TDI

The TDI measure used a seven Likert scale and has three dimensions, which are the built environment, which encompasses the belief system of the destination's built environment, such as accommodation and various facilities, the natural environment, which encompasses the belief system of the destination's natural environment, such as scenery and wilderness, and the uniqueness of the experience, which encompasses the extent to which the destination creates a unique tourist experience that can be described; for example, as being original, interesting, and memorable (see Appendix F). Due to the pivotal importance of this construct, it was decided not to transform it into a five Likert scale to avoid any possible measurement issues.

5.6.6 Destination brand experience (DBE)

The destination brand experience was measured using the scale originally developed by Brakus et al. (2009) and further modified by Barnes et al. (2014) to reflect the specific domain of tourism. The survey consisted of 12 items that measure the four dimensions of DBE, which are sensory, affective, behavioral, and intellectual (see Appendix G).

Barnes et al. (2014) reported a composite reliability ranging from 0.791 to 0.851 for a sample size of 360 respondents and a convergent validity ranging from 0.580 to 0.669. The items for the measure are shown in Table 5.10.

Dimension		Item
Sensory	1	[...] makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways
	2	I find [...] interesting in a sensory way
	3	[...] does not appeal to my senses
Affection	4	[...] induces feelings and sentiments
	5	I do not have strong emotions for [...]
	6	[...]is an emotional area
Behavioral	7	I engage in physical activities and behaviors when I am in [...]
	8	[...] gives me bodily experiences
	9	[...]is not activity oriented
Intellectual	10	I engage in a lot of thinking when I am in [...]
	11	[...] does not make me think
	12	[...] stimulates my curiosity and problem solving
Source : Barnes et al. (2014)		

Table 5.10 Items of destination brand experience measure

5.6.7 Tourist satisfaction (TS)

A collection of items was derived from various studies to construct an accustomed measure of tourist satisfaction that is most suited to the tourist nature of the Aseer region. The measures have been used in this combination by Armenakyan (2012), who reported the satisfactory levels of validity and reliability of all measures (see Appendix E). Cronbach's alpha was high overall. Table 5.11 shows the selected items from the respective studies.

	Item	Author(s)
1	Overall satisfaction	Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994)
2	Proud to visit	Heslop et al. (2004)
3	Overall rating of Aseer as a tourist destination	Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994)
4	Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations	Heslop et al. (2004)

Table 5.11 Selected items of tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

5.7 Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis in this study was performed using structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM denotes a large set of techniques based on the general linear model (Ullman and Bentler 2003), such as an analysis of variance and covariance, multiple regression, factor analysis, path analysis and many more. It is often viewed as an umbrella term for multivariate statistical approaches to examine empirical data (Bowen and Guo 2011). This family of statistical methods has been combined via the merging of three streams of methodological developments that were taking place independently throughout the 20th century, which are systems of equation regression methods developed mainly at the Cowles Commission for Research in Economics (Christ 1994), iterative canonical correlation fit algorithms for path analysis developed by Wold (1975), and iterative maximum likelihood algorithms for path analysis mainly developed by Jöreskog (1969). It was possible to unite these independent efforts due to the technological advancement of computers and data storage (Boker et al. 2011).

SEM has acquired a wide acceptance by social scientists as a sophisticated statistical tool that provides researchers with a comprehensive means of assessing and modifying theoretical models (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). It has been praised for several qualities that have rendered it preferable and growing in popularity in social research, such as:

(1) Its confirmatory, instead of exploratory, approach of factor analysis (Byrne 2013) that attends directly to the specific interests of social scientists in measurement and measurement techniques (Kelloway 1996),

(2) Its ability to isolate observational error from the measurement of the variables of the phenomena under study (Hancock 2003),

(3) Its ability to predict complex models that accompany the growing complexity of social theories (Kelloway 1998), and

(4) Its ability to explain, not only how well the factors explain a particular criterion, but also the specific factors that are most important in predicting a particular behavior (Maruyama 1998).

SEM has been widely used in marketing research since the early 1980s when it first appeared in the marketing literature (Eggert 2007). The trend has only increased since then, as two-thirds of all marketing articles between 1995 and 2007 applied some version of SEM (Hair et al. 2011). More specifically, SEM has appeared extensively in international marketing research (Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics 2009) and tourism research (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, and Gursoy 2013). Some researchers have argued that SEM has become a customary requirement for validating instruments and testing relationships between constructs (Gefen, Straub, and Boudreau 2000; Hair et al. 2011), as well as a popular choice to reflect a theoretical network of unobserved and observed variables simultaneously (Chin, Peterson, and Brown 2008).

There are two major approaches to SEM, which are covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and partial least square (PLS). The first aims at reproducing the theoretical covariance matrix without focusing on the explained variance. The second is a causal modeling approach that is aimed at maximizing the explained variance of the observed construct. The approaches differ in terms of estimation procedure, basic assumptions, and output (Shook, Ketchen, Hult, and Kacmar 2004). The choice between them usually depends on the objectives of the research. Theory testing and confirmation is usually done using CB-SEM, while theory prediction and development is more likely to be done using PLS (Hair et al. 2011).

In this thesis, the theoretical model is fully specified prior to the statistical analysis. Variables are defined and the relationships among them are stated in terms of direction. The measurement of the model is specified in advance using validated and reliable scales. Therefore, the objective of the statistical analysis is to test and confirm the proposed theoretical model, which suggests the use of CB-SEM. In addition, the requirements of CB-SEM in terms of a large sample size (Haenlein and Kaplan 2004), normal distribution (Goodhue, Lewis, and Thompson 2012), and the specification of the scales used (Bentler and Chou 1987) are met sufficiently in this thesis. Therefore, it was decided that the CB-SEM approach for the statistical analysis was the most appropriate for this thesis.

Several software packages are available for CB-SEM, most notably Amos, EQS, and LISREL. Packages are usually equivalent in terms of results and all are highly capable of performing the required tasks. Differences are

mainly subjective and revolve around input methods, output style, tables, and documentation (Pugese, Tomer, and von Eye 2003). Amos, provided by IBM-SPSS, was chosen to conduct this analysis, for familiarity reasons.

After all measures were selected and the tools for statistical analysis were presented, a pilot study was conducted to identify any potential problems and eliminate them accordingly.

5.8 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted on a small scale to ensure that all elements of the study were working properly. Several scholars have emphasized the advantages of pilot studies to improve the quality of the data (Churchill 1991; Bolton 1991; van Teijlingen and Hundley 2001). The main objectives of the pilot study were:

(1) To ensure that the online questionnaire was technically sound and ran correctly on different computer platforms,

(2) To ensure that all adopted measures were working appropriately and delivering the expected outcomes,

(3) To highlight any design issues in the questionnaire, such as the filtering questions and conditional paths, to ensure each segment of the sample was presented with the appropriate questions, and

(4) To receive direct feedback from the selected respondent about his or her experience when answering each question.

When conducting the pilot study, 32 respondents were invited to answer the questionnaire. The choice of this sample size was made following multiple recommendations in the literature. Isaac and Michael (1995) and Hill (1998) suggested a sample size of between 10 and 30. Van Belle (2002) and Julious (2005) suggested at least 12 cases. Each respondent received a link to the online questionnaire designed using the platform of <www.surveymoz.com> and was asked to respond to it and provide feedback to the researcher. All 32 respondents completed the questionnaire, and some of them highlighted a few technical issues relating to the design of the questionnaire such as font size and type.

After all responses had been received, a few linguistic corrections were made. Several improvements to the layout of the questionnaire were made to reduce visual clutter. The collected data were subject to some preliminary analyses (for example, outliers and frequencies) that revealed there were no statistical problems with the measures.

Table 5.12 shows the demographic profiles of the pilot study participants.

Citizenship		
Saudi	28	90.63%
Non-Saudi	4	9.37%
Total	32	100.00%
Gender		
Male	20	62.50%
Female	12	37.50%
Total	32	100.00%
Profession		
Civilian	15	46.90%
Military	2	6.30%
Not applicable	15	46.90%
Total	32	100.00%
Age		
Less than 18	0	0
18 – 25	1	3.13%
26 – 35	10	31.25%
36 – 45	15	46.88%
46 – 55	5	15.63%
56 - 65	1	3.13%
66 – 75	0	0
Older than 76	0	0
Total	32	100.00%

Educational level		
Elementary school	0	0
Middle school	0	0
High school	3	9.36%
Diploma (post high school)	0	0
University	16	50.00%
Masters/PhD	13	40.63%
Total	32	100.00%
Income (converted to USD)		
Less than 26,666	2	6.25%
26,666 – 53,333	5	15.63%
53,334 - 79,999	5	15.63%
80,000 - 106,666	4	12.50%
106,667 – 133,333	4	12.50%
133,334 - 159,999	3	9.38%
160,000 - 186,666	1	3.16%
186,667 - 213,333	3	9.38%
213,334 - 239,999	2	6.25%
240,000 and more	3	9.38%
Total	32	100.00%

Table 5.12 Demographic profile of the pilot study

5.9 Concluding remarks

This chapter has provided a detailed review of the methodology used to conduct this research. The chapter outlined the instruments used to test the model and the steps taken to translate the questionnaire, identify the sample, and collect the data. The chapter has also covered the selected measures for each construct in detail, as well as the rationale behind the selection process. A description of the pilot study was also given in this chapter, outlining its outcomes and the resulting adjustments to the questionnaire.

6.1 Introduction

The objectives of preliminary data analysis are to prepare the data for further analysis by describing their key features and summarizing the results. The data need to be inspected carefully in order to ensure their suitability for further analysis. The following sections will explain how these preliminary steps were carried out. First, the characteristics of the sample are presented and discussed. This includes the results of the collection procedure and the demographic profile of the sample. Second, the required editing of the data is explained. This includes data screening and cleaning. Third, the data are described using statistical data description tools such as the test of normal distributions and the calculation of means and standard deviations. Finally, the exploratory data analysis is explained together with the underlying structure of the measures that it reveals.

6.2 Sample characteristics

6.2.1 Response characteristics

The questionnaire was launched on May 31st, 2015 and was closed on August 2nd, 2015. In 64 days, the questionnaire generated more than 4602 responses, of which 1754 were considered complete, 2348 were partially complete, and 500 responses were disqualified. Disqualification is

conditioned by two characteristics of the respondents, which being neither a citizen nor a resident of Saudi Arabia, since this makes them irrelevant to domestic tourism, and being a resident of the Aseer region, which violates the definition of a domestic tourist.

Most of the responses were received during the period between June 20th and July 5th after extensive activity on social media and the email campaign that was used to distribute the questionnaire. Figure 6.1 shows the response timeline.

Figure 6.1 The response timeline for the questionnaire

The response rate could not be calculated due to the nature of online questionnaires, which does not allow for the counting of the targeted audience in order to calculate the cooperation rate. However, the dropout rate, those who started answering the questionnaire but did not complete it, was determined accurately.

Table 6.1 shows the response numbers.

	Number	Percentage
Complete responses	1754	38.11%
Disqualified responses	500	10.86%
Partial responses	2348	51.02%
Total responses	4602	100.00%

Table 6.1 Response numbers and percentages

Notably, most of the respondents who chose not to complete the questionnaire (around 31%) dropped out while answering the fifth page. Page one was the introduction. Pages two through four asked some qualifying questions that, based on the answers, may not have allowed the respondent to continue. Page five was the first page on which a series of core questions were asked. Questions about institutional trust were included on page five. The nature and number of these questions may have discouraged some respondents from continuing to answer. It was decided not to make any changes to the design of the questionnaire since it was already generating more responses. There was no guarantee that a change in the design would decrease the dropout rate. To ensure the consistency of all responses, the questionnaire remained as it was.

6.2.2 Demographic profile

In general, the survey attempted to collect a balanced sample with regard to gender, age, income, profession and level of education. However, a perfect balance was difficult to achieve. The final sample is shown in Table 6.2. When comparing the sample to the population of Saudi Arabia, some deviations were found. According to the latest census conducted in Saudi

Arabia in 2014, the total population was 30,770,375, of which 32.72% were non-citizens (GAS 2016). However, only 93 non-citizens (5.3% of the total sample) participated in the survey. Since non-Saudis make up around 32.72% of the total population, the percentage in the sample does not reflect this population. Based on this deviation from the actual population, it was decided to eliminate all non-citizens of Saudi Arabia from the sample because of the low participation rate. It was also decided to remove 34 respondents who were below the age of 18 from the sample.

Citizenship		
Saudi	1661	94.70%
Non-Saudi	93	5.30%
Total	1754	100.00%
Gender		
Male	692	39.50%
Female	1062	60.60%
Total	1754	
Profession		
Civilian	591	33.70%
Military	63	3.59%
Not applicable	1100	62.71%
Total	1754	100.00%
Age		
Less than 18	34	1.94%
18 – 25	576	32.84%
26 – 35	655	37.34%
36 – 45	283	16.13%
46 – 55	108	6.15%
56 - 65	31	1.77%
66 – 75	4	0.23%
Older than 76	2	0.11%
Undisclosed	61	3.50%
Total	1754	100.00%

Educational level		
Elementary school	6	0.34%
Middle school	7	0.34%
High school	139	7.92%
Diploma (post high school)	80	4.56%
University	1066	60.77%
Masters/PhD	389	22.18%
Undisclosed	67	3.82%
Total	1754	100.00%
Income (converted to USD)		
Less than 26,666	755	43.04%
26,666 – 53,333	372	21.21%
53,334 - 79,999	206	11.74%
80,000 - 106,666	112	6.39%
106,667 – 133,333	61	3.48%
133,334 - 159,999	44	2.51%
160,000 - 186,666	33	1.88%
186,667 - 213,333	23	1.31%
213,334 - 239,999	23	1.31%
240,000 and more	58	3.31%
Undisclosed	67	3.82%
Total	1754	100.00%

Table 6.2 Demographic profile of the main study

In total, 127 responses were eliminated. The remaining sample was 1,627 responses and consisted of Saudis aged 18 and above. The remaining responses showed a tolerable bias towards female respondents. The actual percentage of Saudi females in the population is 49.10% (GAS 2016), yet their representation in the sample was 60.60%. Only 63 military staff completed the questionnaire despite concerted attempts to collect more. Saudi Arabian military forces number approximately 233,500 in total (Global Fire Power 2015), which represents only 1% of the total population. Therefore, military staff is actually over-represented in the sample, although this percentage may be deemed slightly low for statistical inferences.

Age, income, and education level were optional questions on the questionnaire. Around 3.5% chose not to report their age and 3.82% chose not to report their income or education level. Based on the age structure of the Saudi population, the sample is biased towards younger respondents. Around 70.18% of the respondents were aged between 18 and 35. This age group represents less than 40% of the Saudi population (GAS 2016). With regard to the income level, the largest group, around 43%, reported an income level equal to or less than USD 26,665. The Saudi GDP per capita is USD 20,813. This might indicate a bias towards a slightly higher income level than that of the general population. The same bias affects education level, with the majority of the respondents holding a university degree.

6.2.3 Data screening

6.2.3.1 Response non-differentiation

Response non-differentiation refers to the repetitive pattern of answers that occur when the respondents respond to the questionnaire in a habitual manner without sufficient consideration (Krosnick 1991). The software used to design and manage the online questionnaire provided tools to detect such occurrences via two main indicators of response non-differentiation. The first is speeding through the answers, which indicates a respondent is not reading and answering attentively. The second is providing patterned answers in option grids such as straight lines or tree-shaped answers. In addition to these two tools provided by the software, a visual inspection of the data was conducted. After applying all indicators, 63 responses were eliminated on the grounds of clearly being non-differentiating. The remaining sample count was then 1,564 responses. Table 6.3 show the final sample after all the eliminations.

6.2.3.2 Missing data

The online questionnaire was designed to prevent the respondent from leaving any question unanswered. Since respondents were not allowed to skip a question, the collected data were complete and did not have missing answers. It was possible that mandatory questions would incline some respondents to abort the questionnaire entirely, but the nature of the study did not tolerate missing answers. The only section that was optional was the demographic section. Respondents could choose whether to provide their

age, income, and educational level or not, and 36, 27, and 13 respondents did not report their ages, education level, or income, respectively.

Citizenship		
Saudi	1564	100.00%
Non-Saudi	0	0.00%
Total	1564	100.00%
Gender		
Male	625	39.96%
Female	939	60.04%
Total	1564	100.00%
Profession		
Civilian	563	36.00%
Military	62	3.96%
Not applicable	939	60.04%
Total	1654	100.00%
Age		
Less than 18	0	0
18 – 25	538	34.40%
26 – 35	608	38.87%
36 – 45	254	16.24%
46 – 55	99	6.33%
56 - 65	23	1.47%
66 – 75	4	0.26%
Older than 76	2	0.13%
Undisclosed	36	2.30%
Total	1654	100.00%

Educational level		
Elementary school	5	0.32%
Middle school	3	0.19%
High school	96	5.80%
Diploma (post high school)	67	4.05%
University	1003	60.64%
Masters/PhD	363	21.95%
Undisclosed	27	1.63
Total	1564	100.00%
Income (converted to USD)		
Less than 26,666	604	38.62%
26,666 – 53,333	427	27.43%
53,334 - 79,999	201	12.60%
80,000 - 106,666	106	6.78%
106,667 – 133,333	56	3.45%
133,334 - 159,999	42	2.37%
160,000 - 186,666	29	1.85%
186,667 - 213,333	20	1.21%
213,334 - 239,999	37	2.37%
240,000 and more	41	2.49%
Undisclosed	13	0.83%
Total	1654	100.00%

Table 6.3 The final sample after all the eliminations

6.2.4 Descriptive analysis

6.2.4.1 Normal distribution

Classical multivariate analysis assumes that the data are normally distributed. Statistical screening aims to ensure that the sample is normally

distributed by examining skewness and kurtosis values following the recommendations of Kline (2011). Kline recommended that skewness absolute values below 3.0 and kurtosis absolute values below 10 were acceptable as a conservative rule of thumb. Based on these recommendations, no variables in the dataset showed signs of skewness and kurtosis above the recommended levels, except for one variable. This was the one measuring the respondents' institutional trust in the importance dimension of the Ministry of Trade in Saudi Arabia (see Figure 6.2). The variable showed a slightly high skewness ($=-3.11$) and a kurtosis that was slightly higher than the recommended level ($=11.44$). The result indicated that 79.8% of the respondents ($n=1248$) rated the Ministry of Trade in Saudi Arabia as “very important” as opposed to only 0.09% ($n=14$) who rated it as “not important at all”. The results, although extreme, are expected given the relevance of trade in the daily life of all citizens. The exact values for the skewness and kurtosis of all variables are presented in Appendix J.

Figure 6.2 Frequency distribution of the variable IT: Imp: Trade

6.2.4.2 Means and standard deviations

The mean score of each variable was calculated, as well as its standard deviation. Based on the standard deviation values, the sample exhibits an expected variability that does not raise any concerns. Low variability was indicated in “touristic preference”, where around 90% of the sample answered “international tourism”, resulting in an $SD=0.294$. With regard to the mean scores, Table 6.4 shows the range of mean scores for each construct including the items that scored highest and lowest (see Appendix J for a full mean and standard deviation score analysis of all items).

Scores could indicate some early inferences about the sample. For the six sub-constructs of institutional trust, “kindness” scored highest while “honesty” scored lowest. This indicates a degree of skepticism regarding the promises that these institutions make. However, it does not indicate hostility towards these institutions, as the high score for “kindness” reveals. These general inferences are stronger in the cases of the SCTA and the Ministry of Culture, where the difference between the highest and the lowest scores is relatively large. The Ministry of Trade seems to be the most popular institution, rated highly in terms of both kindness and honesty. A charismatic minister, Dr. Tawfiq Al-Rabiah, might have played a role in improving the image of his ministry since his appointment in 2011 (Zeigler 2012; Dosari 2015).

Construct	No. of items	Mean scores range	Highest mean item	Lowest mean item
IT on SCTA	6	2.2 to 3.18	Do you think SCTA is kind?	Do you think SCTA is honest?
IT on Trade	6	3.44 to 3.79	Do you think the ministry of trade is kind?	Do you think the ministry of trade is honest?
IT on Transpo	6	2.08 to 2.82	Do you think the ministry of transportation is kind?	Do you think the ministry of transportation is honest?
IT on Muni	6	2.65 to 2.80	Do you think the municipality of Aseer is kind?	Do you think the municipality of Aseer is honest?
IT on CPVPV	6	2.68 to 3.04	Do you think The Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice is kind?	Do you think The Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice is honest?
IT on Culture	6	2.07 to 2.71	Do you think the ministry of culture is kind?	Do you think the ministry of culture is honest?
CET	17	1.65 to 3.64	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Saudi.
COS	12	3.33 to 4.30	I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	Always buying the same local product becomes boring over time.
Extroversion	8	2.15 to 3.70	Is full of energy	Tends to be quiet
Agreeableness	9	2.9 to 4.22	Is helpful and unselfish with others	Can be cold and aloof
Conscientious	9	2.80 to 4.30	Is a reliable worker	Can be somewhat careless
Neuroticism	8	2.44 to 3.80	Can be tense	Is depressed, blue
Openness to experiences	10	3.15 to 4.25	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature.
TDI	21	2.08 to 5.50	Climate	Sport facilities
DBE	12	2.20 to 3.60	I find the Aseer region interesting in a sensory way	The Aseer region is not activity-oriented
TS	4	2.43 to 3.06	Proud to visit	Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations

Table 6.4 Mean scores analysis

Mean scores for CET ranged from 1.65 to 3.64, with the highest score associated with the item "Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working", indicate a general belief in national solidarity with Saudi products. The lowest mean score was associated with the item "Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Saudi", indicating a general rejection of this association. In a country such as Saudi Arabia in which most consumer products are imported, disagreement with this association is highly anticipated. With regard to cosmopolitanism, the mean scores ranged from 3.33 to 4.30, indicating a generally cosmopolitan sample. The highest mean score was given to the item "I like to have contact with people from different cultures", while the lowest score was given to the item "always buying the same local product becomes boring over time". This indicates that Saudi cosmopolitanism regards diversity highly, while not considering local consumption to be in conflict with a global outlook.

The types of personality scored comparable ranges with the exception of "openness to experience", for which the range of scores tended to be smaller. Regarding this particular personality type, respondents gave the highest mean score to the item "Values artistic, aesthetic experiences" and the lowest to the item "Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature", perhaps indicating a general appreciation of art on the part of non-artists. The highest mean score in Aseer's TDI was given to its "climate", while the lowest was for its "sporting facility". This result was expected, given the fact that the Aseer region has the mildest climate in the entire country. However, the respondents seemed to be slightly dissatisfied with the lack of sporting facilities. This is understandable given the mean age (30 years) of the respondents. Those

who visited the Aseer region gave the highest mean score when describing their experience to the item “I find the Aseer region interesting in a sensory way” and the lowest to the item “The Aseer region is not activity-oriented”. With regard to tourist satisfaction, the highest score was related feeling proud to visit the region, while the lowest was related to the rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations. One might assume that, no matter how much one may like the region, it still needs more efforts to become internationally competitive.

6.3 Exploratory factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to assess the suitability of the data for the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). It evaluates the measures used in the study by revealing the underlying structure of the variables and the relationships among them. The EFA is conducted in several steps, as explained in the following section.

6.3.1 Sample adequacy

The sample was divided into several sub-samples based on gender, profession, and previous visits to the Aseer region. The sample size across all sub-groups, except military staff, was more than 200, which is considered adequate for a CFA according to Worthington and Whittaker (2006). Another test to ensure sample adequacy is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of

sampling adequacy, which tests the partial correlations among variables. The recommended KMO is above 0.6 (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001). The sample had a KMO greater than 0.7 across all sub-groups. Table 6.5 presents the sample size and KMO results for the sample across the sub-samples.

		All	Male	Female	Civilian	Military
Visitors	Sample size	815	403	412	768	47
	KMO	0.86	0.81	0.82	0.80	
Non-visitors	Sample size	749	222	527	734	15
	KMO	0.87	0.70	0.84	0.87	

Table 6.5 Sample size and KMO results of the sample across the sub-samples

Unfortunately, only 63 military staff completed the questionnaire despite concerted attempts to collect more. However, data about the military staff were collected in this study for the purpose of testing the applicability of the leisure constraints theory, which is not part of the model. Therefore, the inadequacy of this particular sub-group will not affect the statistical analysis of the hypothesized model.

6.3.2 Sample reliability

Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach 1951) was calculated to test the internal consistency and to estimate the reliability of the sample. Table 6.6 shows the values of Cronbach's alpha for all measures. Most of the measures scored higher than 0.7, which is the minimum value recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). However, some measures scored less than 0.7. In certain situations, a low Cronbach's alpha is justified. Churchill and Peter (1984) found that the relationship between the alpha coefficient and the sample size

is negative. In the case of this study, the sample size is considered large across all sub-groups except for military staff. In addition, heterogeneous samples obtained from the general population with different backgrounds, educational level, and more formed attitudes as opposed to, for example, student samples, are more likely to be low in terms of Cronbach's alphas (Peter 1984; Sears 1986; Peterson 1994). Another justification is the number of items, which was low for some of the factors, resulting in low reliability (Nunnally 1978; Cortina 1993). Given the exploratory nature of this study, Cronbach's alphas of around 0.6 are acceptable (Shay and Back 2004). It is possible that a trade-off between validity and reliability (Churchill and Peter 1984) has occurred in one or more of the measures, such as Agreeableness and Distinctiveness. The low reliability of these two construct prevents any meaningful inferences. It is possible that the measures were not completely applicable to the sample for cultural reasons, as both measures were established and tested in Western societies.

6.3.3 Validity

Validity is the extent to which a particular measure corresponds accurately to the concept that it is supposed to measure (Manheim, Rich, and Bahry 1991). As opposed to reliability, which only assesses the consistency of the measure, validity testing ensures that the measure is actually assessing that which it is designed to measure. Several types of validity testing have been used in this study, namely face validity, content validity, construct validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and external validity.

6.3.3.1 Face validity

Face validity is a subjective assessment of the extent to which the measure addresses the concept that is supposed to measure (Holden 2010). Meeting the requirement for face validity entails a subjective analysis by an ordinary person who is able to confirm that a certain measure appears to be a logical measure of a certain construct. Since all the measures incorporated in this study are established measures that have been replicated in peer-reviewed studies, they are considered to have achieved the required level of face validity.

6.3.3.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is the degree to which a test measures what it claims, or purports, to be measuring (Cronbach and Meehl 1955). It is concerned with the appropriateness of inferences made on the basis of observations or measurements. According to Messick (1989), construct validity judges whether empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores. Generally speaking, construct validity cannot be confirmed by one study. Instead, according to Peter (1981), it is a continuous process of evaluation, reevaluation, refinement, and development. There are two main types of construct validity according to Campbell (1960), which are trait validity and nomological validity.

Construct	Dimension	All	Male	Female	Civilian	Military	Visitors	Non-visitors
Institutional trust	SCTA	.861	.877	.845	.878	.864	.863	.860
	Trade	.942	.939	.940	.937	.950	.941	.943
	Transpo	.895	.905	.887	.904	.915	.895	.895
	Muni	.908	.917	.899	.916	.925	.913	.894
	CPVPV	.941	.943	.939	.941	.947	.941	.940
	Culture	.883	.892	.877	.888	.911	.886	.880
	Importance	.664	.702	.632	.712	.585	.673	.659
Cosmopolitanism	Open-mindedness	.718	.748	.693	.755	.682	.733	.702
	Diversity	.721	.707	.729	.688	.825	.729	.713
	Consumption	.633	.630	.635	.622	.699	.635	.632
Ethnocentrism		.919	.926	.913	.925	.936	.921	.916
Personality type	Extroversion	.642	.665	.629	.677	.510	.627	.657
	Agreeableness	.569	.544	.581	.555	.428	.546	.584
	Conscientiousness	.773	.785	.766	.786	.775	.798	.739
	Neuroticism	.744	.743	.740	.749	.677	.748	.735
	Openness	.757	.744	.764	.751	.633	.771	.742
Destination image	Built	.914	.908	.917	.907	.919	.902	.925
	Natural	.813	.805	.817	.805	.811	.782	.844
	Distinctiveness	.590	.567	.601	.572	.544	.549	.660
Destination brand experience	Sensory	.853	.859	.848	.868	.786	.853	--
	Affective	.799	.785	.814	.776	.846	.799	--
	Behavioral	.625	.612	.636	.622	.435	.625	--
	Intellectual	.736	.703	.757	.695	.767	.736	--
Satisfaction		.846	.850	.843	.855	.804	.846	--
Touristic preference	Int'l preference	.686	.682	.688	.692	.604	.676	.694
	Domestic preference	.782	.784	.777	.795	.657	.759	.831

Table 6.6 Cronbach's alpha for all measures

Trait validity is a component of two types of validity: convergent validity and discriminant validity. It primarily examines the adequacy of the measurement of a concept, but not the theoretical meaning of the concept itself (Lastovicka and Bonfield 1980). Convergent validity is the extent to which two or more measurement attempts of the same construct result in similar scores (Campbell and Fiske 1959). All measures used in this study have been borrowed from previous peer-reviewed studies that have reported an acceptable convergent validity. In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) has been calculated for all measures. AVE states how much of the variance captured by the latent variable in a structural equation model is shared among other variables. An AVE greater than 0.5 is acceptable according to Fornell and Larcker (1981). However, an AVE greater than 0.4 is also acceptable if the composite reliability (CR) is greater than 0.7 (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Table 6.7 presents the values for CR, AVE, ASV, and MSV.

Discriminant validity tests the extent to which the measures that are not supposed to be related are unrelated (Campbell and Fiske 1959). To test a measure for discriminant validity, the average shared variance (ASV) and the maximum shared variance (MSV) are calculated and compared to the average variance extracted (AVE). ASV and MSV, respectively, are the average and maximum variances shared by two variables. The AVE must be greater than both the ASV and the MSV for each measure in order for the discriminant validity to be acceptable (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Accordingly, convergent validity is achieved for all dimensions included in this study with the exception of consumptions transcending borders,

extroversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experiences, and intellectual dimensions. Discriminant validity was achieved for all dimensions included in this study except for animosity towards foreign goods, preference for foreign goods, extroversion, neuroticism, natural, distinctiveness, and affective dimensions.

Nomological validity is a form of construct validity that requires a comparison of at least two constructs that have a possible correlation. The validity is determined by the extent to which the measure fits lawfully into a network of relationships called nomological networks (Cronbach and Meehl 1955). It examines the adequacy of the concept itself as determined by the confirmation of theoretically predicted relationships affecting the measure of the concept in question and the measures of other concepts (Lastovicka and Bonfield 1980). All the measures used in this study are established measures that, during the development phase, were subject to comparisons to similar constructs and measures. The comparisons focus on similarities in the antecedent causes, consequential effects, or modifying conditions (Tian, Bearden, and Hunter 2001).

Construct	Dimension	CR	AVE	ASV	MSV
Institutional trust	SCTA	0.822	0.564	0.340	0.034
	Ministry of Trade	0.943	0.769	0.078	0.008
	Ministry of Transportation	0.897	0.636	0.338	0.031
	Municipality of Aseer	0.880	0.703	0.205	0.019
	CPVPV	0.942	0.800	0.093	0.012
	Ministry of Culture	0.881	0.616	0.340	0.029
Cosmopolitanism	Open-mindedness	0.774	0.559	0.181	0.033
	Diversity appreciation	0.788	0.566	0.197	0.036
	Consumption transcending borders	0.632	0.387	0.197	0.054
Ethnocentrism	National solidarity	0.843	0.643	0.476	0.129
	Animosity to foreign goods	0.769	0.530	0.726	0.165
	Preference of local goods	0.721	0.463	0.726	0.172
Personality type	Extroversion	0.441	0.228	0.411	0.021
	Agreeableness	0.584	0.285	0.210	0.023
	Conscientiousness	0.778	0.475	0.355	0.030
	Neuroticism	0.664	0.286	0.411	0.030
	Openness	0.757	0.359	0.355	0.028
Destination image	Built	0.866	0.618	0.543	0.108
	Natural	0.793	0.570	0.596	0.115
	Distinctiveness	0.753	0.504	0.596	0.163
Destination brand experience	Sensory	0.868	0.768	0.746	0.091
	Affective	0.821	0.698	0.746	0.105
	Behavioral	0.888	0.798	0.235	0.043
	Intellectual	0.658	0.492	0.387	0.057

Table 6.7 Validity indices for all constructs

6.4 Concluding remarks

This section has explained the steps taken to analyze the data at a preliminary stage. It described how the participants responded to the questionnaire, their demographic profiles, and the normality aspects of their responses. Several cases were eliminated from the sample based on the theoretical and methodological considerations explained above (such as being non-citizens, minors, or providing non-differentiating responses). The remaining cases meet Kline's (1998) recommendations with regard to sample size. The section also analyzed the sample in terms of sample adequacy, reliability and validity and found it ready for the next level of statistical analysis, which is confirmatory data analysis.

7.1 Introduction

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a form of factor analysis used to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a theoretical understanding of the underlying concept (Brown 2015). According to Harrington (2008), CFA can be used to examine whether established measures borrowed from other studies are applicable and appropriate to new populations. In this study, the CFA was conducted using structural equation modeling (SEM) provided by AMOS. CFA is used to assess the proposed measurement model following the two-step approach of structural equation modeling (SEM) is explained in the next section.

7.2 The two-step approach of structural equation modeling

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) posited that model building is the analysis of two distinct models: the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model specifies the relationship of the observed measures to their posited underlying constructs with the constructs allowed to inter-correlate freely. The structural model specifies the causal relationship of the constructs with one another as posited by a given theory. In another paper, the same authors emphasized the benefits of a two-step approach, arguing that it provides multiple advantages over the one-step approach, such

as focusing attention on the trade-off between goodness of fit and strength of causal inference (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). This trade-off is implicit in a one-step approach and is difficult to detect. In addition, a two-step approach avoids having the good fit of one model compensate for the poor fit of the other, which can occur when following a one-step approach. Such advantages are gained by first testing the validity of the measurement model before making any attempt to evaluate the structural model (Byrne 2013).

Due to the size of the sample and the large number of constructs incorporated to measure unobserved variables, it was decided to model each construct independently before merging them in a combined measurement model. This approach for complex models is supported by Raykov, Tomer, and Nesselroade (1991). A partial measurement model was built for each construct. Modifications to improve the partial measurement models were applied following the generally accepted rules for modifications, such as adding or deleting one item at a time (Long 1983), considering the deletion of items prior to the addition of them for safer analysis (Bentler and Chou 1987), and applying only those modifications that make theoretical sense (Schreiber, Amaury, Stage, Barlow, and King 2006).

After all partial measurement models became acceptable both theoretically and statistically, the combined measurement model was built and tested. Once the measurement model was acceptable, the structural model was built and analyzed accordingly.

7.3 Model-fit assessment

Model fit is the term used to indicate the extent to which the model that represents the data reflects the underlying theory (Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen 2008). Assessing the model fit is a critical task that requires taking into consideration multiple theoretical and statistical factors. There is no absolute agreement concerning how a given model is considered fit. Several fit indices were designed to help scholars to understand their proposed models better and to assess them accordingly. However, fit indices do not give a final answer to whether the model has the best fit. The researchers' interpretations of and modifications to the model are vital to the process of developing the best possible fit for any model. The three categories of model fit indices are absolute, incremental, and parsimonious. The first assesses how well a given model fits the sample data (McDonald and Ho 2002). Indices in this category presume that the best fitting model has a fit that is closer to one. The second category assesses the extent to which all variables were posited to be mutually correlated (Bentler and Bonett 1980). As opposed to the first category, incremental fit indices presume that a value close to zero indicates the worst possible model and a value close to one indicates the best possible model. The third category includes fit indices that are more concerned with the cost-benefit trade of the fit and the degree of freedom. Parsimonious fit indices are adjustments to the other fit indices. For example, PGFI and PNFI are two parsimonious indices based on GFI and NFI, respectively (Mulaik, James, van Alstine, Bennett, Lind and Stilwell 1989). The most popular fit indices that have the most consensus in the literature were selected to assess the model in this study.

7.3.1 Chi-square

The chi-square is an absolute fit index that assesses the difference between the sample and fitted covariance (Hu and Bentler 1999). The lower the value of the chi-square, the better the model fit (Kline 1998), given that the value is significant (p value > 0.05). There are two conditions in the chi-square that some scholars tend to consider shortcomings, which are the assumption of normality (Steiger, Shapiro, and Browne 1985), and sensitivity to sample size (Bearden, Sharma, and Teel 1982). Since the data in this study are generally normal for a large sample size, the use of the chi-square is justified. Some attempts to avoid the chi-square's sensitivity to sample size resulted in the consideration of the relative chi-square, which is the chi-square divided by the degree of freedom (df) (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, and Summers 1977). The value of (χ^2/df) is recommended to be less than three (Carmines and McIver 1981; Bollen 1989).

7.3.2 Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)

The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is an absolute fit index developed by Steiger (1980) to indicate how well the model estimates would fit the population covariance matrix. A confidence interval can be calculated around the value of the RMSEA. The recommended value for RMSEA is less than 0.08 (MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996).

7.3.3 Goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI)

Goodness-of-Fit statistic (GFI) is an absolute fit index developed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1986) to calculate the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance. This index ranges from 0 to 1 with larger samples increasing its value. The recommended value for GFI is greater than 0.9 (Shevlin and Miles 1998). An adjusted GFI based on the degrees of freedom was developed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1986) and termed AGFI. It also ranges between 0 and 1, and it is generally accepted that values of 0.90 or greater indicate well-fitting models. Given the often detrimental effect of sample size on these two fit indices, they are not relied upon as stand-alone indices; however, given their historical importance, they are often reported in covariance structure analyses.

7.3.4 Hoelter's critical N

Hoelter's critical N is an absolute model fit index developed by Hoelter (1983) that indicates the sample size that would render the chi-square not significant. The index should only be computed if the chi square is statistically significant. The recommended value for Hoelter's critical N is greater than 200 assuming a p value >0.05 (Hoelter 1983).

7.3.5 Comparative fit index (CFI)

The comparative fit index (CFI) is an incremental model fit index developed by Bentler (1990). This index is a revised version of another incremental index called the normed fit index (NFI), which did not take the sample size into account (Byrne 2013). The CFI assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated (null model) and compares the sample covariance matrix to this null model. Values for CFI range between 0.0 and 1.0, with values closer to 1.0 indicating a good fit. The recommended value for CFI is greater than 0.9 (Hu and Bentler 1999).

Table 7.1 summarizes all the model-fit indices used in this study together with their recommended values.

Index	Recommended value
Chi-square	The lower the value of Chi-square the better the model fit given (p value > 0.05) (Kline 1998)
(χ^2/df)	Less than three (Carmines and McIver 1981; Bollen 1989).
GFI	Greater than 0.9 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1986)
AGFI	Greater than 0.9 (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1986)
CFI	Greater than 0.9 (Hu and Bentler 1999)
Hoelter critical N	Greater than 200 given (p value >0.05) (Hoelter 1983)

Table 7.1 Model-fit indices used in this study and recommended values

7.4 Partial measurement models

Partial measurement models were built for each construct in the hypothesized model. The partial measurement models included six models to

measure the institutional trust in six tourism-related institutions, two models to measure the cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism tendencies of the respondents, and five models to measure the Big Five personality types. The partial measurement models will be assessed using three different datasets for each sub-group, namely visitors, non-visitors, and all. The remaining three partial measurement models for measuring the tourist destination image, the destination brand experience, and tourist satisfaction will be assessed using only the dataset from the visitors' sub-group.

Since most of these constructs represent established measures in the literature, most of their respective partial measurement models have behaved as expected in terms of the dimensionality of the constructs. Decisions to drop items were guided by the relevant statistical indices, as well as theoretical considerations with regard to the content validity. Non-significant factor loading supports dropping of the item involved (Hatcher and Stepanski 1994).

7.4.1 Institutional trust partial measurement models

In the partial measurement models of IT, the item "importance" was not found to be loading in any partial measurement model. Instead, the five items of "importance" from each partial measurement model were found to form a separate dimension. Since this dimension made little theoretical contribution to the model, it was decided to drop the item entirely from the six partial measurement models for IT. Unlike the rest of the items, the item "importance" was not derived from the literature on IT. It was added by the

researcher at a later stage in an experimental manner. Since the researcher selected the tourism-related institutions independently, the additional item of “importance” was added to confirm the relevance of his selection. The final items adopted to measure institutional trust were honesty, kindness, credibility, commitment, and fairness. In four of six of the institutions selected, the five items loaded acceptably.

In the partial measurement models of IT in SCTA, all model fit indices across the sub-groups have values that indicate a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square of the sub-group (All). The RMSEA values are under 0.08, which indicates a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Please see Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1 The partial measurement model of IT in SCTA

Since all other indices are indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for IT in SCTA has a good fit despite the slightly higher-than-recommended value of the relative chi-square.

In the partial measurement models of IT in the Ministry of Trade, all model fit indices across the sub-groups have values that indicate a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square of the sub-group (All). The RMSEA values are under 0.08, which indicates a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Please see Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.2 The partial measurement model of IT in the Ministry of Trade

Since all other indices are indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for IT in the Ministry of Trade has

a good fit despite the slightly higher-than-recommended value of the relative chi-square.

In the partial measurement models of IT in the Ministry of Transportation, all model fit indices across the sub-groups have values that indicate a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square of the sub-group (All). The RMSEA values are under 0.08, which indicates a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Please see Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.3 The partial measurement model of IT in the Ministry of Transportation

Since all other indices are indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for IT in the Ministry of Transportation has a good fit despite the slightly higher-than-recommended value of the relative chi-square.

In the partial measurement models of IT in the Ministry of Culture, all model fit indices across the sub-groups have values that indicate a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square of the sub-group (All). The RMSEA values are under 0.08, which indicates a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Please see Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.4 The partial measurement model of IT in the Ministry of Culture

Since all other indices are indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for IT in the Ministry of Culture has a good fit despite the slightly higher-than-recommended value of the relative chi-square.

In the partial measurement models for IT in the Municipality of Aseer, the item “kindness” failed to load. The partial measurement model fit indices were found to improve by dropping this item, and thus the decision was made to drop it. After dropping the item, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values that indicated a good fit based on the recommendations. Therefore, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for IT in the Municipality of Aseer has a good fit. Please see Figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5 The partial measurement model of IT in the municipality of Aseer

In the partial measurement models for IT in the CPVPV, the item “commitment” failed to load. The partial measurement model fit indices were found to improve by dropping this item, and hence the decision was made to

drop it. After dropping the item, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values that indicated a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square across the three groups. The RMSEA values were under 0.08, indicating a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for IT in CPVPV was a good fit despite the slightly higher-than-recommended value for the relative chi-square. Please see Figure 7.6.

Figure 7.6 The partial measurement model of IT in the CPVPV.

After the IT model of each institution was assessed independently, a combined model of IT was created. Please see Figure 7.7.

Figure 7.7 The measurement model of institutional trust

7.4.2 Ethnocentrism partial measurement model

The only construct that was subject to modification with regard to the underlying factors was CET. The preliminary validation of EFA converged in a “three factors” solution. The original scale employed in the hypothesized model developed by Shimp and Sharma (1996) was unidimensional. Although some applications of the scale have supported its unidimensionality (Netemeyer et al. 1991; Durvasula et al. 1997; Orth and Firbasova 2003; Yoo and Donthu 2005), other studies have questioned it, claiming that between two and four factors compose the construct (Marcoux et al. 1997; Chryssochoidis, Krystallis, and Perreas 2007; Khan and Rizvi 2008; Jiménez-Guerrero 2014). More interestingly, some studies that have been conducted simultaneously in different countries found the construct to be unidimensional in one country and multidimensional in another (Saffu and Walker 2005), suggesting the dimensionality of the scale might be culturally specific.

Table 7.2 lists a collection of studies that have supported the multidimensionality of the scale with the respective factors. Douglas and Nijssen (2003) argued that the salience of the CETSCALE differs between large industrialized countries in which beliefs that domestic products are superior are widespread and small market economies with a high proportion of foreign trade. Consequently, attitudes towards foreign products are influenced by incomparability between local and foreign products in terms of availability and quality. Saudi Arabia belongs to the second category, as most of its consumer goods are imported. Therefore, the multidimensionality of the scale should not be surprising.

Author(s)	Country	Factors
Marcoux et al. (1997)	Poland	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Protectionism 2. Socio-economic conservatism 3. Patriotism
Mavondo and Tan (1999)	Malaysia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Animosity 2. Economic rationality 3. Morality
Acharaya and Elliott (2003)	Australia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Emotional 2. Rational
Jakubanečs, Supphellen, and Thorbjørnsen (2005)	Ukraine	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Domestic favoritism 2. Foreign discrimination 3. Political protectionism
Saffu and Walker (2005)	Russia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Hard ethnocentrism 2. Soft ethnocentrism
Upadhyay and Singh (2006)	India	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Nationalism 2. Socio-economic conservatism 3. Ultra-nationalism 4. Protectionism
Hsu and Nien (2008)	Taiwan and China	<p>In Taipei:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Protectionism 2. Confidence in domestic products <p>In Shanghai:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Conservative patriotism 2. Defensive patriotism
Teo, Mohamad, Ramayah (2011)	Malaysia	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Hard ethnocentrism 2. Soft ethnocentrism

Table 7.2 Studies that support the multidimensionality of CETSCALE

As shown in Table 7.3, the three factors that have emerged from this study are:

(1) A preference for local products, which includes items that reflect a genuine preference for goods produced locally over imported goods,

(2) National solidarity, which includes items that reflect an association between consuming local goods and supporting national industries, and

(3) Animosity, which includes items that reflect an ideological position that opposes foreign goods.

Eight items were deleted in order to improve the fit indices of the partial measurement model involved. Theoretically, the deleted items generally seem to be the most extreme items on the scale, which may explain their failure to load adequately and the negative effect on the overall model fit. After this was achieved, the remaining items had Cronbach's alpha coefficients above 0.7, which is the minimum recommended level (Nunnally 1978).

After dropping the eight items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values that indicated a good fit based on the recommendations, with the exception of the relative chi-square for the "all" group. Furthermore, values for RMSEA were under 0.08 and are thus considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for consumer ethnocentrism has a good fit. Please see Figure 7.8. (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 7.3).

	Items	Factors		
		Preference of local products	National solidarity	Animosity to foreign products
ETH 1	Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.	0.737		
ETH 9	It is always best to purchase Saudi products.	0.596		
ETH 13	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Saudi products.	0.576		
ETH 3	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.	0.913		
ETH 4	Saudi products first, last, and foremost.	0.708		
ETH 2	Only those products that are unavailable in Saudi Arabia should be imported.	0.522		
ETH 7	A real Saudi should always buy Saudi-made products.		0.851	
ETH 6	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Saudis out of jobs.		0.847	
ETH 5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Saudi.		0.889	
ETH 11	Saudis should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.		0.527	
ETH 17	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudis out of work.		0.613	
ETH 8	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi Arabia instead of letting other countries get rich from us.	Cross-loading (Deleted)		
ETH 16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.			0.689
ETH 10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.			0.522
ETH 15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Saudi Arabia.			0.794
ETH 12	Barriers should be put on all imports.			0.793
ETH 14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	Cross-loading (Deleted)		
	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient	0.824	0.868	0.783
	Percentage of variance explained	%44.96	%8.30	%7
	Total variance explained	7.64	1.41	1.19
Note: Extraction method: Principle component, Eigenvalue>1, Promax rotation, loadings only >0.3, n=1654				

Table 7.3 Exploratory factor analysis for the ethnocentrism scale.

Figure 7.8 The partial measurement model of Ethnocentrism

7.4.3 Cosmopolitanism partial measurement model

A trade-off between reliability and validity occurred in the partial measurement models for COS. This trade-off has been highlighted by Rojas-Méndez, Davies,

Omer, Chetthamrongchai, and Madran (2002) as a methodological issue that needs to be addressed by scholars. One item from each dimension was deleted in order to improve the validity of the partial measurement model involved. After this was achieved, the remaining items had Cronbach's alpha coefficients above 0.7, which is the minimum recommended level (Nunnally 1978).

A possible theoretical explanation might be the nature of the questions asked, which might be interpreted differently across cultures. For example, an item that is associated with the factor 'consumption transcends borders' reads, "*I like listening to music from other cultures*", which could trigger different meanings in the minds of Saudis due to some restrictions regarding music in Islamic teachings (Shiloah 2013). Therefore, the item might measure adherence to this interpretation of Islam with regard to listening to music, and not consumption transcending borders. This ambiguity might be responsible for the low reliability of the factor involved.

After dropping the three items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values that indicated a good fit based on the recommendations except for the relative chi-square for "all" group. Moreover, values for RMSEA were still under 0.08 and thus considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for consumer ethnocentrism had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.9. (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 5.6).

Figure 7.9 The partial measurement model of cosmopolitanism

7.4.4 Personality type partial measurement models

A partial measurement model for each personality type was built. First, item deletion was applied to one item at a time until best possible model fit was achieved.

With regard to extroversion, four items were deleted in order to achieve the best possible model fit. After dropping the four items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square across the three groups. Furthermore, values for RMSEA were under 0.08 and thus considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for extroversion had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.10. (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 5.8).

Figure 7.10 The partial measurement model for extroversion

With regard to agreeableness, five items were deleted in order to achieve the best possible model fit. After dropping the five items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations except for the relative chi-square across the three groups. Values for RMSEA that are still under 0.08 are considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996).

Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for extroversion had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.11. (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 5.8).

Figure 7.11 The partial measurement model of Agreeableness

With regard to conscientiousness, five items were deleted in order to achieve the best possible model fit. After dropping the five items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations except for the relative chi-square of the “All” group. Values for RMSEA that are under 0.08 are considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for conscientiousness had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.12. (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 5.8).

Figure 7.12 The partial measurement model of conscientiousness

With regard to neuroticism, three items were deleted in order to achieve the best possible model fit. After dropping the three items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations except for the relative chi-square across the three groups. Values for RMSEA that are still under 0.08 are considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for neuroticism had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.13 (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 5.8).

Figure 7.13 The partial measurement model of Neuroticism

With regard to openness-to-experiences, four items were deleted in order to achieve the best possible model fit. After dropping the four items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations except for the relative chi-square for the “All” group. All values for RMSEA across the three groups are under 0.08, which is considered an indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for openness-to-experiences had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.14. (To check the specific item corresponding to each code, please see Table 5.8).

Figure 7.14 The partial measurement model of Openness to experiences

7.4.5 DTDI partial measurement model

With regard to DTDI, eleven items were deleted in order to achieve the best possible model fit. Figure 7.15 shows the final partial measurement model for TDI. After dropping the 12 items, all model fit indices across the sub-groups had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations except for the relative chi-square across the three groups. Moreover, values for RMSEA that are still under 0.08 are considered indicative of a reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all

other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for DTDI had a good fit.

Cronbach's alpha	Built environment	Natural environment	Distinctiveness
All	0.879	0.802	0.738
Visited only	0.857	0.778	0.748
Non-visitors	0.738	0.831	0.743
AVE			
All	0.663	0.603	0.501
Visited only	0.618	0.570	0.504
Non-visitors	0.708	0.647	0.507

Figure 7.15 The partial measurement model for DTDI

7.4.6 DBE partial measurement model

One item was deleted from each dimension of DBE in order to achieve the best possible model fit. Figure 7.16 shows the final partial measurement model for DBE.

Figure 7.16 The partial measurement model for destination brand experience (DBE)

After dropping the four items, all model fit indices had values indicating a good fit based on the recommendations with the exception of the relative chi-square. Furthermore, values for RMSEA that are still under 0.08 are considered indicative of a

reasonable fit (MacCallum et al. 1996). Since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for DBE had a good fit.

7.4.7 Tourist satisfaction partial measurement model

No item deletion took place in the TS construct, as keeping all items resulted in the best possible model fit. The value of the relative chi-square was higher than the recommended levels. However, since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the partial measurement model for TS had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.17.

Figure 7.17 The partial measurement model for tourist satisfaction

7.4.8 Combined measurement models

After re-specifying each partial measurement model independently, all partial measurement models were combined to form two comprehensive measurement models, the visitors' measurement model and the non-visitors' measurement model. The first includes all 25 constructs, while the second includes only 20 constructs. With regard to the visitor's measurement model, all model fit indices had values that indicated a good fit based on the recommendations except for GFI and AGFI, for which the values were slightly less than the recommended threshold of 0.9. However, since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the measurement model for visitors had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.18.

	χ^2	χ^2 / df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	Hoelter	AVE
Visited only	7285.019	1.967	0.828	0.805	0.908	0.034	430	0.548

Figure 7.18 Visitors' measurement model

With regard to the non-visitor's measurement model, all model fit indices had values that indicated a good fit based on the recommendations except for GFI and AGFI, for which the values were slightly less than the recommended threshold of 0.9. However, since all other indices were indicative of a good fit, it is acceptable to assume that the measurement model for visitors had a good fit. Please see Figure 7.19.

Figure 7.19 Non-visitors' measurement model

7.5 Structural models

Building a structural model is not a straightforward process. Even if the measurement models achieve a good fit, linking the constructs to build a structural model may cause unacceptable fit indices. There is an agreed-

upon procedure for the re-specification process as it depends on the theoretical basis of the model as well as on the researchers' experience. In this study, two structural models were required, namely the visitors' structural model, and the non-visitors' structural model.

To build the structural model, it was decided to build a series of independent structural models for each group of relevant factors. The independent models would be modified to achieve the best fit before grouping them into one comprehensive model. Therefore, four independent structural models were built; each links a group of factors to the three constructs of TDI, DBE, and intentions to behave. The four models were labeled institutional trust, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and personality type. The first model contained the six factors representing institutional trust. Three of these factors were deleted, one after another, until an acceptable fit was reached. The reduction process was systematic and followed the item-reduction guidelines established in the literature on structural equation modeling (Benson and Bandalos 1989; Clark and Goldsmith 2006; Larwin and Harvey 2012). The deleted factors were the institutional trust in the Ministry of Trade, the Ministry of Transportation, and the CPVPV. The modified independent structural model for institutional trust resulted in the following fit indices: (χ^2 / df) = 3.96, GFI=.833, AGFI=.810, CFI=.899, and RMSEA=.06.

The second model contained the three factors representing ethnocentrism. Two of these factors were deleted, one after another, until an acceptable fit was reached. The deleted factors were national solidarity, and animosity towards foreign products. After these deletions, it was decided to

re-introduce the items that had previously been deleted in the measurement model phase. Two items were re-introduced with no negative effect on the quality of the model. Therefore, it was decided to retain them. The modified independent structural model of consumer ethnocentrism resulted in the following fit indices: $(\chi^2 / df) = 3.516$, GFI= .887, AGFI=.866, CFI=.930, and RMSEA=.056.

The third model contained the three factors representing cosmopolitanism. Two of these factors were deleted, one after another, until an acceptable fit was reached. The deleted factors were diversity, and consumption transcending borders. After these deletions, it was decided to re-introduce the item that had previously been deleted in the measurement model phase. The introduction of this item had no negative effect on the quality of the model. Therefore, it was decided to keep it. The modified independent structural model for consumer cosmopolitanism resulted in the following fit indices: $(\chi^2 / df) = 3.701$, GFI= .883, AGFI=.860, CFI=.929, and RMSEA=.058.

The fourth model contained the five factors representing personality types. Four of these factors were deleted, one after another, until an acceptable fit was reached. The deleted factors were conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. The modified independent structural model for personality resulted in the following fit indices: $(\chi^2 / df) = 3.525$, GFI= .868, AGFI=.847, CFI=.905, and RMSEA=.056.

Once four independent structural models had been built, the next step was an attempt to merge them. The initial version of the combined structural model produced the following indices: $(\chi^2 / df) = 2.926$, GFI=.837, AGFI=.821, CFI=.897, and RMSEA=.049. In order to improve GFI, AGFI, and CFI, two main decisions were made at this stage. First, the institutional trust in the Minister of Culture was deleted from the model for both analytical and theoretical reasons. Analytically, trust in the Ministry of Culture was weakly affecting the DTDI. Theoretically, the Ministry of Culture was the only one of the remaining three institutions that did not specifically serve the Aseer region, nor does it have a specific department or program that is focused on the region. By contrast, both the SCTA and the municipality of Aseer are directly responsible for the Aseer region. The SCTA considers Aseer to be the region with the highest tourism weight due to its tourism potential and qualities. Therefore, entire departments are dedicated to serve the region, and branches of the SCTA are spread across the region. Having two remaining institutions that were directly relevant to the Aseer region, the second decision was made to create a composite factor for IT that reflected the institutional trust in both the SCTA and in the municipality of the Aseer region.

When running the model, it was found that the standardized estimates for distinctiveness, one of the three facets of TDI, was higher than one. This does not necessarily indicate a problem (Joreskog 1999), but it should be addressed. It was decided to fix the variance of the error associated with distinctiveness as a value of 0.05 (Loehlin 1998; Hair, Joseph, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1998). By doing so, the standardized estimate became less than one and the resultant model had the following fit indices: $(\chi^2 / df) =$

2.521, GFI= .868, AGFI=.855, CFI=.919, and RMSEA=.043. The next step was to test the structural model using the data of various groups based on gender and profession to ensure the stability of the model across all partial measurement groups. The results are shown in Table 7.4.

	(χ^2 / df)	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA
Females only	1.944	0.816	0.798	0.902	0.048
Males only	1.765	0.834	0.817	0.918	0.044
Military staff	Not possible. Small sample size.				
Civilians	1.709	0.822	0.804	0.916	0.045

Table 7.4 Test of the structural model using the data from various groups

This was the best structural model that could be designed. It resulted in acceptable model fit indices across various groups while including the greatest number of factors that had theoretical significance. Figure 7.20 shows the final structural model for visitors. Some of the items included in the model have been abbreviated. These items are:

- ETH-1: Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.
- ETH-3: Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.
- ETH-4: Saudi products first, last, and foremost.
- ETH-9: It is always best to purchase Saudi products.
- ETH-13: It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Saudi products.
- C1: When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.
- C2: I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.

- C3: I like to have contact with people from different cultures.
- C4: I have real interest in other countries.
- OP-5: Is original, comes up with new ideas.
- OP-15: Is ingenious, a deep thinker.
- OP-20: Has an active imagination.
- OP-25: Is inventive.
- OP-40: Likes to reflect, play with ideas.
- OP-41: Has few artistic interests.
- DI-8: Entertainment.
- DI-9: Shopping facilities.
- DI-10: Sport facilities.
- DI-14: Accommodation.
- DI-3: Attractive scenery.
- DI-4: Amount of wilderness.
- DI-16: Climate.
- DI-6: Originality of experience.
- DI-7: Culturally interesting.
- DI-11: Memorability of experience.
- SDBE-1: The Aseer region makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways.
- SDBE2: I find the Aseer region interesting in a sensory way.
- IDBE-10: I engage in a lot of thinking when I am in the Aseer region.
- IDBE-12: The Aseer region stimulates my curiosity and problem solving.
- ADBE-4: The Aseer region induces feelings and sentiments.
- ADBE-6: The Aseer region is an emotional area.

- BDBE-7: I engage in physical activities and behaviors when I am in the Aseer region.
- BDBE-8: The Aseer region gives me bodily experiences.
- TS1: Overall satisfaction.
- TS2: Proud to visit.
- TS3: Overall rating of Aseer as a tourist destination.
- TS4: Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations.

Figure 7.20 Final visitors' structural model

For non-visitors, the structural model was an altered version of the visitors' structural model. Constructs that were irrelevant to non-visitors were removed, namely DBE, TS, and behavioral intentions, while a first-time intention to visit was added. The resultant model achieved the following model fit indices: (χ^2 / df) = 2.280, GFI= .909, AGFI=.896, CFI=.941, and RMSEA=.041. Figure 7.21 shows the final structural models for non-visitors. Some of the items included in the model are abbreviated. These items are:

- ETH-1: Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.
- ETH-3: Buy Saudi-made products. Keeps Saudi Arabia working.
- ETH-4: Saudi products first, last, and foremost.
- ETH-9: It is always best to purchase Saudi products.
- ETH-13: It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Saudi products.
- C1: When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.
- C2: I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.
- C3: I like to have contact with people from different cultures.
- C4: I have real interest in other countries.
- OP-5: Is original, comes up with new ideas.
- OP-15: Is ingenious, a deep thinker.
- OP-20: Has an active imagination.
- OP-25: Is inventive.

- OP-40: Likes to reflect, play with ideas.
- OP-41: Has few artistic interests.
- DI-8: Entertainment.
- DI-9: Shopping facilities.
- DI-10: Sport facilities.
- DI-14: Accommodation.
- DI-3: Attractive scenery.
- DI-4: Amount of wilderness.
- DI-16: Climate.
- DI-6: Originality of experience.
- DI-7: Culturally interesting.
- DI-11: Memorability of experience.

Figure 7.21 Final non-visitors' structural model

Having specified the best possible structural model for visitors, the parameter estimates were assessed. The results of the parameter assessment of the visitors are summarized in Table 7.5.

Path			Standardized Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P Value
Destination Image	<---	Openness	0.171	0.057	3.919	***
Destination Image	<---	Trust	0.425	0.096	6.518	***
Destination Image	<---	Open-mindedness	0.098	0.069	2.386	0.017
Destination Image	<---	Local-pref	0.097	0.036	2.384	0.017
DBE	<---	Destination Image	0.761	0.071	13.315	***
Satisfaction	<---	DBE	0.742	0.041	16.221	***
Intention to revisit	<---	DBE	0.162	0.041	6.785	***
Intention to recommend	<---	DBE	0.115	0.035	5.228	***
Intention to revisit	<---	Satisfaction	0.718	0.055	25.376	***
Intention to recommend	<---	Satisfaction	0.795	0.055	25.376	***
(***)=P<0.001)						

Table 7.5 Parameter assessment of the visitors' structural model

Having specified the best possible structural model for visitors, the parameter estimates were assessed. The results of the parameter assessment of the non-visitors are summarized in Table 7.6.

Path			Standardized estimates	Standard error	Critical ratio	P value
Destination Image	<---	Openness	0.105	0.075	2.563	0.010
Destination Image	<---	Trust	0.478	0.159	7.086	***
Destination Image	<---	Open-mindedness	0.010	0.113	0.260	0.795
Destination Image	<---	Local-pref	0.143	0.053	3.556	***
Intention to visit	<---	Destination Image	0.937	0.037	22.933	***
(***)=P<0.001)						

Table 7.6 Parameter assessment of the non-visitors' structural model

The two structural models also show the variance explained in terms of the three dependent variables, which are the intention to visit for the first time, the intention to re-visit, and the intention to recommend. Please see Table 7.7.

Dependent variable	Variance explained
Intention to visit	88%
Intention to re-visit	71%
Intention to recommend	78%

Table 7.7 Variance explained for each dependent variable

7.6 The mediation effect

In order to test the possible mediating effect of DBE on TDI and TS for the visitors' sub-group, two versions of the structural model were created for the purpose of conducting the mediation test. In the first version, the DBE construct was deleted and the TDI was linked directly to the TS. In the second version, a direct link between TDI and TS was added while keeping the DBE's link to the TS. There were no notable changes in the model fit indices in either version. Since the effect of TDI on TS was reduced from 0.767 to 0.552 in the second version with all relationships being significant, it was concluded that there was a partially mediating effect of DBE on the relationship between TDI and TS. The process was repeated to test the mediation effect of DBE on the relationships of TD, IRV, and IRC. Since the effect of TDI on IRV was reduced from 0.235 to 0.124 in the second version with all relationships being significant, it was concluded that there was a partially mediating effect of DBE on the relationship between TDI and IRV. Similarly, since the effect of TDI on IRC was reduced from 0.251 to 0.142 in

the second version with all relationships being significant, it was concluded that there was a partially mediating effect of DBE on the relationship between TDI and IRC. Table 7.8 shows the regression results of the mediation tests.

		TDI to TS		SE	CR	P-Value
TDI (DBE) TS	Version one	TDI to TS	0.767	0.056	14.264	***
	Version two	TDI to TS	0.552	0.060	9.905	***
		TDI to DBE	0.680	0.064	12.327	***
		DBE to TS	0.299	0.042	6.509	***
TDI (DBE) IRV	Version one	TDI to IRV	0.235	0.035	13.409	***
	Version two	TDI to IRV	0.124	0.042	7.320	***
		TDI to DBE	0.503	0.038	12.138	***
		DBE to IRV	0.211	0.038	12.138	***
TDI (DBE) IRC	Version one	TDI to IRC	0.251	0.035	13.409	***
	Version two	TDI to IRC	0.142	0.042	7.320	***
		TDI to DBE	0.720	0.038	12.138	***
		DBE to IRC	0.239	0.038	12.138	***

Table 7.8 The regression results of the DBE mediation tests

7.7 Tourism constraints

The questions that aimed to investigate the possible effect of tourism constraints were only presented to two groups in the sample: females and military staff. For the female group, the result showed that 70.86% of Saudi females believed that being female affected their tourism choices, of which 78% (55% of the total female sample) stated that this effect is related to the fact that they need a guardian's approval to travel outside the kingdom. Table 7.9 summarizes the results of the tourism constraint question addressed to female respondents.

Number of females in the sample	939	
Number of females who believe that being a female has a special effect on the touristic behavior and preference	664	70.71%
Number of females who believe that requiring a guardian's approval to travel is the reason why being a female affects their touristic behavior and preference	518	55.16%
Number of females who don't think that requiring a guardian's approval to travel is affecting their touristic behavior and preference	146	15.55%

Table 7.9 Tourism constraints: females

Those who did not state that a guardian's approval was the main influence on their tourism behavior and preferences were asked to state the reason via an open comment, and 216 comments were provided. These can be divided into two main categories, which are values that a Saudi female holds on a personal, social, and cultural level, and challenges in the forms of obstacles, constraints, and discrimination that Saudi females face. The categories have been broken down into partial measurement categories, as shown in Table 7.10.

The main reason that being female influences my tourist behavior and preference is:			
Values		Challenges	
My values, nature, and taste distinguish me from males when it comes to tourism choices.	46 (21%)	The conservative and religious constraints on the female by the society and family	26 (12%)
I demand a respect for Islamic values in the destination I choose.	5 (2%)	Females demand more safety and security.	22 (10%)
I demand a respect for women in the destination I choose.	4 (2%)	Lack of activities or facilities tailored to females in Saudi Arabia	21 (10%)
As a female, I am more attentive to cleanliness when I make tourism choices.	4 (2%)	Transportation issues at domestic destinations	18 (8%)
My religious beliefs play a significant role when making a tourism choice.	3 (1%)	Having to consider family needs and choices more than do males (e.g. children)	17 (8%)
I avoid destinations that are unsuitable for females because of nudity or unacceptable scenes.	2 (1%)	The laws preventing the Hijab or places hostile to women wearing the Hijab.	15 (7%)
It is important to me when I choose a destination that it allows me to not depend on a male.	2 (1%)	Lack of social freedom in Saudi Arabia	7 (3%)
I demand shopping facilities with high-end brands.	1 (0%)	The religious requirement of having a male travelling companion (mahram)	6 (3%)
		Having no say in the family tourism decision-making process.	4 (2%)
		The law enforcing the wearing of the Hijab in Saudi Arabia	3 (1%)
		Harassment at domestic destinations	3 (1%)

Table 7.10 Open comment answers – female's constraints

For the military staff group, the result shows that 37.10% of Saudi military staff believes that being a military staff member affects their tourism choices, of which 78.26% stated that this effect is related to the fact that they need administration's approval to travel outside the kingdom. Table 7.11 summarizes the results of the tourism constraints question addressed to military staff respondents.

Number of military staff in the sample	63	
Number of military staff who believe that being a military staff member has a specific effect on tourism behavior and preference	23	37.10%
Number of military staff who believe that requiring the administration's approval to travel is the reason that being a military staff member affects their tourism behavior and preference	18	29.00%
Number of military staff who do not think that requiring a guardian's approval to travel is affecting their tourism behavior and preference	5	8.10%

Table 7.11 Open comment answers - military constraints

Those who did not state that the administration's approval was the main influence on their tourist behavior and preference were asked to state the reason via an open comment. Only four comments were provided. The four comments stated four reasons that being a military staff member had an influence on tourist behavior and preferences, namely that the nature of being a military staff member includes a desire to be challenged and to explore, because military work is very stressful, because military staff members are more patriotic, and because military work is boring.

7.8 Tourism preference

Questions that aimed to explore the tourist preferences of Saudis were addressed to the entire sample. When choosing between international versus domestic tourism, the results are shown in Table 7.12.

Travel preference	International	Domestic
All	89.57%	10.42%
Male	86.10%	13.90%
Female	91.90%	8.10%

Table 7.12 Tourism preference results

A proportion analysis was conducted to analyze these results. The analysis resulted in a z-score of 3.6721, and a p-value of 0.00024 (significant at $p < 0.05$). Based on these results, females and males cannot be compared equally in terms of tourism preferences. After answering the above questions, the respondents were asked to evaluate the weight of several factors on their preferences. The results are specified in Table 7.13.

	Female	Male	All
Reasons to prefer international tourism:			
• Enjoy more personal freedom	50.20%	54.80%	52%
• Freedom from social constraints	42.60%	43.80%	43%
• Social prestige	15.20%	17.20%	16%
• Ease of transportation	49.40%	47.10%	49%
• Because international destinations are simply better	73.60%	71.20%	73%
• Meeting the people I like	43.10%	34.10%	52%
Reasons to prefer domestic tourism:			
• Your religious beliefs	35.70%	34.40%	35%
• Safety	64.30%	57.00%	60%
• Avoiding what contradicts my principles	45.20%	38.70%	42%
• Supporting domestic destinations	29.80%	32.30%	31%
• Because domestic destinations are simply better	9.50%	11.80%	11%
• Meeting the people I like	51.20%	26.90%	38%
• Saving money	21.40%	10.80%	35%

Table 7.13 Tourism preferences – reasons

7.9 Concluding remarks

In this section, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using the three sub-groups in the sample, namely all, visitors only, and non-visitors only. A two-step approach was followed in which the measurement model was created and assessed before the structural model was built (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The partial and final models were assessed using a set of model fit indices that have been recommended in the literature. The re-specification process was conducted in order to achieve a model with the best possible fit. Guidelines for the systematic reduction of items were followed (Benson and Bandalos 1989; Clark and Goldsmith 2006; Larwin and Harvey 2012).

This chapter shows the results of the analysis and indicates whether each hypothesis is supported or rejected.

8.1 Result of Hypothesis 1 test

Hypothesis 1 is based on the institutional trust construct and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. Hypothesis 1 reads, “Institutional trust (IT) in tourism-related institutions is positively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTD).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had never been to the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.478, SE=0.159. CR=7.086, $p \leq 0.001$. Next, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.425, SE=0.096. CR=6.518, $p \leq 0.001$. Therefore, the results partially support Hypothesis 1 since only two institutions of the six selected previously remained in the model.

Two research propositions regarding institutional trust were tested. The first proposition reads, “Institutional trust (IT) in tourism-related institutions is positively related to the destination brand experience (DBE).” To test this

proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI construct and adding a direct link from IT to DBE. Following this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.201$, $\text{SE} = 0.102$, $\text{CR} = 3.258$, $p \leq 0.001$, which supports the proposition. The second proposition reads, “Institutional trust (IT) in tourism-related institutions is positively related to tourist satisfaction (TS).” To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI and DBE constructs and adding a direct link from IT to TS. After this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.430$, $\text{SE} = 0.104$, $\text{CR} = 7.388$, $p \leq 0.001$, which supports the proposition.

8.2 Result of Hypothesis 2 test

Hypothesis 2 is based on the construct of consumer ethnocentrism and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. Hypothesis 2 reads “Consumer ethnocentric tendency (CET) is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTD).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had never been to the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.143$,

SE=0.053, CR=3.556, $p \leq 0.001$. Next, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.097, SE=0.036, CR=2.384, $p \leq 0.017$. Therefore, the results support Hypothesis 2.

Two research propositions regarding consumer ethnocentrism were tested. The first reads, "For visitors, consumer ethnocentric tendency (CET) is positively related to destination brand experience (DBE)." To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI construct and adding a direct link from CET to DBE. Following this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta=0.101, SE=0.044, CR=2.462, $p = 0.014$, which supports the proposition. The second proposition reads "For visitors, consumer ethnocentric tendency (CET) is positively related to tourist's satisfaction (TS)." To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI and DBE constructs and adding a direct link from CET to TS. After this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.107, SE=0.038, CR=2.75, $p = 0.006$, which supports the proposition.

8.3 Result of Hypothesis 3 test

Hypothesis 3 is based on the construct of cosmopolitanism and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. Hypothesis 3 reads, "Consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTD)." To test this hypothesis, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had never been to the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.010$, $\text{SE} = 0.113$, $\text{CR} = 2.60$, $p = 0.795$. Next, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.098$, $\text{SE} = 0.069$, $\text{CR} = 2.386$, $p = 0.017$. Since the relationship is only significant in the case of visitors, the results partially support Hypothesis 3.

Two research propositions regarding consumer cosmopolitanism were tested. The first reads, "For visitors, consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) is positively related to destination brand experience (DBE)." To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI construct and adding a direct link from COS to DBE. Following this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.25$, $\text{SE} = 0.086$, $\text{CR} = 2.936$, $p = 0.003$, which supports the proposition. The second proposition reads, "For visitors, cosmopolitanism (COS) is positively related to tourist's

satisfaction (TS).” To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the TDI and DBE constructs and adding a direct link from COS to TS. After that modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.017$, $\text{SE} = 0.074$, $\text{CR} = 0.431$, $p = 0.677$. Since the relationship is not significant, this result does not support the proposition.

8.4 Result of Hypothesis 4 test

Hypothesis 4 is based on the openness-to-experiences personality type and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. Hypothesis 4 reads, “The open-to-experiences personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTD).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had never been to the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.105$, $\text{SE} = 0.075$, $\text{CR} = 2.563$, $p \leq 0.010$. Next, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.171$, $\text{SE} = 0.057$, $\text{CR} = 3.919$, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationships are significant, this results support Hypothesis 4.

Two research propositions regarding openness to experiences were tested. The first reads, "The open-to-experiences personality type is positively related to destination brand experience (DBE)." To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI construct and adding a direct link from openness-to-experience to DBE. After this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. The test indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.189$, $\text{SE} = 0.069$, $\text{CR} = 4.314$, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports the proposition. The second proposition reads, "The openness-to-experiences personality type is positively related to tourist satisfaction (TS)." To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors was run after deleting the DTDI construct and adding a direct link from openness-to-experience to TS. After this modification, the model was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited Aseer. The test indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.103$, $\text{SE} = 0.060$, $\text{CR} = 2.54$, $p \leq 0.011$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports the proposition.

8.5 Result of Hypothesis 5 test

Hypothesis 5 is based on the conscientious personality type and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. In the re-specification process of the structural model, the conscientious personality type was not sufficiently

statistically significant to remain in the model. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was not supported.

8.6 Result of Hypothesis 6 test

Hypothesis 6 is based on the extroversion personality type and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. In the re-specification process of the structural model, the extroversion personality type was not sufficiently statistically significant to remain in the model. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was not supported.

8.7 Result of Hypothesis 7 test

Hypothesis 7 is based on the agreeableness personality type and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. In the re-specification process of the structural model, the agreeableness personality type was not sufficiently statistically significant to remain in the model. Therefore, hypothesis 7 was not supported.

8.8 Result of Hypothesis 8 test

Hypothesis 8 is based on the neuroticism personality type and its hypothetical effect on the DTDI. In the re-specification process of the structural model, the neuroticism personality type was not sufficiently statistically significant to remain in the model. Therefore, hypothesis 8 was not supported.

8.9 Result of Hypothesis 9 test

Hypothesis 9a reads, “Domestic tourist destination image (DTDl) is positively related to destination brand experience (DBE).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.761$, $\text{SE} = 0.071$, $\text{CR} = 13.315$, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 9a.

Hypothesis 9b reads, “Domestic tourist destination image (DTDl) is positively related to intention to visit (IV) for the first time.” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of non-visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had never been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta} = 0.937$, $\text{SE} = 0.037$, $\text{CR} = 22.933$, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 9b.

Three research proposition about DTDI and its behavioral consequences as well as tourist satisfaction were tested. The first reads “Domestic tourist destination image (DTDl) is positively related to intention to re-visit (IRV).” To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region and after deleting the DBE construct. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.074, SE=0.050, CR=2.851, $p \leq 0.004$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports the proposition. The second proposition reads, “Domestic tourist destination image (DTDl) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC) positively.” To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.055, SE=0.041, CR=2.370, $p \leq 0.018$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports the proposition. The third proposition reads, “Domestic tourist destination image (DTDl) is positively related to the tourist satisfaction (TS).” To test this proposition, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had been to the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.767, SE=0.056, CR=14.264, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports the proposition.

8.10 Result of Hypothesis 10 test

Hypothesis 10 is based on destination brand experience (DBE). Hypothesis 10a reads, “Destination brand experience (DBE) mediates the relationship between DTDI and TS”. In order to test this hypothesis, an additional version of the structural model was created for the purpose of conducting the mediation test with the DBE construct deleted entirely from the model. There were no notable changes to the model fit indices in either version. The regression results are shown in Table 8.1. Since the effect of DTDI on TS was reduced from 0.767 to 0.552 in the second version with all relationships being significant, it was concluded that there was a partial mediation effect of DBE on the relationship between DTDI and TS.

TDI (DBE) TS		TDI to TS		SE	CR	P-Value
	Version one	TDI to TS	0.767	0.056	14.264	***
	Version two	TDI to TS	0.552	0.060	9.905	***
		TDI to DBE	0.680	0.064	12.327	***
		DBE to TS	0.299	0.042	6.509	***

Table 8.1 Mediation effect of DBE

Hypothesis 10b reads, “Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to tourist satisfaction (TS).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. When running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta=0.742, SE=0.041, CR=16.221, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 10b.

Hypothesis 10c reads, “Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to the intention to re-visit (IRV).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta= 0.162, SE=0.041, CR=6.785, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 10c.

Hypothesis 10d reads, “Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of Beta=0.115, SE=0.035, CR=5.228, $p \leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 10d.

8.11 Result of Hypothesis 11 test

Hypothesis 11 is based on the construct of TS and its hypothetical effect on the intentional behavior.

Hypothesis 11a reads, “Tourist satisfaction (TS) is positively related to the intention to re-visit (IRV).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. When running the

model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta}=0.718$, $\text{SE}=0.055$, $\text{CR}=25.376$, $p\leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 11a.

Hypothesis 11b reads, “Tourist satisfaction (TS) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC).” To test this hypothesis, the structural model of visitors presented in Chapter 7 was run using the dataset that contained only the group of respondents that had visited the Aseer region. After running the model, the result indicated a regression weight of $\text{Beta}=0.795$, $\text{SE}=0.055$, $\text{CR}=25.376$, $p\leq 0.001$. Since the relationship is significant, this result supports Hypothesis 11b.

Hypothesis 11c reads, “Tourist’s satisfaction (TS) mediates the relationship by destination brand experience (DBE) and intention to re-visit (IRV).” In order to test this hypothesis, two versions of the structural model were created for the purpose of conducting the mediation test. In the first version, the TS construct was deleted from the model. In the second version, the link between DBE and IRV was deleted so they are only linked together through TS. There were no notable changes in the model fit indices in both versions. The regression results are shown in Table 8.2.

DBE (TS) IRV		TDI to TS		SE	CR	P-Value
		DBE to IRV	0.827	0.089	17.699	***
		DBE to IRV	0.162	0.041	6.785	***
		DBE to TS	0.742	0.041	16.221	***
		TS to IRV	0.718	0.055	25.376	***

Table 8.2 Mediation effect of TS between DBE and IRV

Since the effect of DBE on IRV was reduced from 0.827 to 0.162 in the second version with all relationships significant, it is concluded that there is a partial mediation effect of TS on the relationship between DBE and IRV. This result supports Hypothesis 11c.

Hypothesis 11d reads, “Tourist’s satisfaction (TS) mediates the relationship by destination brand experience (DBE) and intention to recommend (IRC).” In order to test this hypothesis, two versions of the structural model were created for the purpose of conducting the mediation test. In the first version, the TS construct was deleted entirely from the model. In the second version, the link between DBE and IRC was deleted so they are only linked together through TS. There were no notable changes in the model fit indices in both versions. The regression results are shown in Table 8.2.

DBE (TS) IRC		TDI to TS		SE	CR	P-Value
		DBE to IRC	0.818	0.083	17.450	***
		DBE to IRC	0.115	0.035	5.228	***
		DBE to TS	0.742	0.041	16.221	***
		TS to IRC	0.795	0.055	25.376	***

Table 8.3 Mediation effect of TS between DBE and IRC

Since the effect of DBE on IRC was reduced from 0.818 to 0.115 in the second version with all relationships significant, it is concluded that there is a partial mediation effect of TS on the relationship between DBE and IRC. This result supports Hypothesis 11d.

8.12 Summary of Hypothesis testing results

Here is a summary of the research hypotheses presented in Table 8.4

Hypothesis		Result
H1	Institutional trust (IT) in each tourism-related institution is positively related to the domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Supported
H2	Consumer ethnocentric tendency (CET) is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Supported
H3	Consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Partially supported
H4	Open-to-experiences personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Supported
H5	Conscientious personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Not supported
H6	Extroversion personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Not supported
H7	Agreeableness personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Not supported
H8	Neurotic personality type is positively related to domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)	Not supported
H9a	Domestic tourist destination image (DTDI) is positively related to destination brand experience (DBE)	Supported
H9b	Domestic tourist destination image (DTDI) is positively related to intention to visit (IV) for the first time	Supported
H10a	Destination brand experience (DBE) mediates the relationship between domestic tourist destination image (DTDI) and tourist satisfaction (TS)	Supported
H10b	Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to tourist's satisfaction (TS)	Supported
H10c	Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to the intention to re-visit (IRV)	Supported
H10d	Destination brand experience (DBE) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC)	Supported
H11a	Tourist's satisfaction (TS) is positively related to the intention to re-visit (IRV)	Supported
H11b	Tourist's satisfaction (TS) is positively related to the intention to recommend (IRC)	Supported
H11c	Tourist's satisfaction (TS) mediates the relationship by destination brand experience (DBE) and intention to re-visit (IRV)	Supported
H11d	Tourist's satisfaction (TS) mediates the relationship by destination brand experience (DBE) and intention to recommend (IRC)	Supported

Table 8.4 Summary of the testing of the hypotheses

This chapter discusses the results of the analysis and highlights how each objective in this research has been achieved.

9.1 Personal factors

Some of the research objectives were to examine the effect of selected personal factors on tourists' perceptions of DTDI. The four personal factors were institutional trust, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer cosmopolitanism, and personality type. The effect of each of these factors on the formation of DTDI was analyzed. The following sections discuss the results of the study with regard to each personal factor.

9.1.1 Institutional trust

Institutional trust was found to influence the tourists' perceptions of DTDI. However, not every institution was found to be relevant in this relationship. The research selected six different institutions that were thought to be relevant, only to use only two of them, the SCTA, and the municipality of Aseer. The results indicated that institutional trust in these two institutions influences the tourists' perceptions of DTDI, both for those who had not visited the region before, as well as for those who had. The effect of intuition trust

on DTDI was stronger among non-visitors, which may suggest that actual visitation allows the tourists to judge for themselves instead of using indirect cues such as trust in the tourism-related institutions.

This is the first study to incorporate institutional trust in tourism research. The concept of institutional trust, which has mainly emerged from the field of political science, proved to be significantly influential in domestic tourism. The results imply that people perceive DTDI through multiple lenses, one of which is the trustworthiness of tourism-related institutions. Based on this, it is recommended that institutional trust be incorporated into any model that attempts to examine the formation of DTDI. The tourism literature has not yet recognized this influence and its potential for advancing our understanding of TDI formation. The closest attempt examined the relationship between the images of higher education institutions and the overall country image (Srikatanyoo and Gnoth 2002), although this did not involve the element of trust.

Viewing tourism as an investment in time and money (Sirakaya and Woodside 2005) makes the presence of trust as important as its presence in any other form of financial investment. The money invested in a vacation is usually not refundable once travel commences. The time tourists allocate for their vacations cannot be reapportioned. Therefore, it is highly likely that making decisions regarding tourism includes a great deal of risk taking that is being moderated by the degree of trust in the ability of the destination to provide a satisfying return on investment. One version of this trust is trust in the institutions that manage, either fully or partially, the tourism industry.

Similar to the way that the study of trust has extended to many areas of inquiry in the social sciences, this study opens the door for it in tourism research.

Despite these findings, the vice president of marketing at the SCTA, Hamad Al Shaikh, does not find the relationship important. As he said, “*We have never incorporated IT in SCTA in any of our strategic plans as we don’t see it as a key factor in influencing the tourists’ behavior*”. However, he believes that IT in some actors in the tourism industry other than SCTA might be influential, such as in airlines. In order for IT to play a significant role in tourists’ decision-making processes, Al Shaikh added, the institution involved has to have a direct interaction with tourists; examples are the national airline company, SAUDIA, and the tourism facilities.

The general director of media and public relations at SCTA, Majed Al Sheddi, stated that the SCTA attempted to measure the public perception of its performance in 2004. This attempt was meant to provide feedback for internal use only. However, this attempt did not incorporate the element of institutional trust and was mainly focused on measuring the communication effectiveness of the SCTA. Two other officials from the SCTA, who were interviewed independently, were not convinced that the SCTA should consider improving its IT as a means of promoting domestic tourism. Dr. Waleed Alhemaidi, vice president for the regions, believed that the SCTA should not be the focal player in the industry, and thus the focus should not be on it. Mohammed Alnashmi, the general manager for planning and monitoring, was skeptical about the relationship between IT and DTDI. He stated that the

general public seldom thinks of the SCTA when evaluating their tourist experiences. Therefore, Alnashmi said, the sample may have included too many highly educated individuals who are able to see beyond their direct experiences.

The interviews clearly revealed that institutional trust is not considered in the SCTA's strategy to promote domestic tourism. Since this study proved the IT plays a role in the formation of DTDI, it is possible to say that overlooking this role may have contributed to the difficulty that the SCTA is facing in its mission to promote domestic tourism.

9.1.2 Consumer ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism was found to influence the tourists' perceptions of DTDI through only one of its dimensions, which is the preference for local products. The other two dimensions, national solidarity and animosity towards foreign products, had no significant effect on the tourists' perceptions of DTDI. An important question to be asked here, based on the results, is why ethnocentric tourists prefer domestic tourism based only on a general preference for local products?

There are several explanations for why national solidarity and animosity were not found influential here. With regard to national solidarity, one explanation might be that tourist solidarity extends beyond the national to the regional, ideological, cultural, and religious areas. The concept of

nationhood for some Saudis could mean Saudi Arabia, the Gulf countries, the Arab world, or the Islamic world. Therefore, spending a vacation in Dubai, Cairo, or Istanbul is still considered a form of solidarity by some tourists as they engage in supporting Gulf, Arab, and Islamic economies. On the other hand, national solidarity may actually be limited to the regional level. Saudi Arabia is a vast country that was only united 85 years ago and includes different tribes, regions, and religious sectors. Some tourists may find that travelling to other regions within Saudi Arabia is not considered a form of solidarity, simply because they do not feel a sense of affinity with a region despite belonging to the same country in a political sense. The notion of domestic, therefore, is reduced to the borders of the region instead of the country. However, this explanation requires a close examination of how Saudis define “domestic” tourism and “nationhood” in the light of national solidarity.

Another explanation would benefit from previous research into consumption behavior, which has shown that a long-term preference for foreign products may exist (Heslop and Papadopoulos 1993), which makes the effect of ethnocentrism on consumption behavior in developing countries different from the way it is experienced in developed ones (Klein, Ettenson, and Krishnan 2006). In the product marketing literature, some marketing scholars have argued that ethnocentric consumers may perceive foreign products positively if the quality thereof is very high (Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, and Ramachander 2000) and may refrain from buying domestic products if they perceive them as being of low quality (Wang and Chen 2004). There is also evidence that ethnocentrism is less effective in

developing countries than it is in developed ones (Jin et al. 2015). Borrowing from these findings, Saudi tourists may perceive a tremendous gap in the quality of domestic and international destinations, which in turn reduces the effect of ethnocentrism on their decision-making processes to the extent that only one dimension prevails, which is “preference for domestic products”. The Saudi tourist scene is still less competitive than is that of other countries that Saudis enjoy visiting regularly, such as the UAE, the UK, France, Malaysia, Turkey, and the US. However, domestic destinations still have some unique advantages that interest only those who have high a preference for domestic products, such as cultural affinity, a conservative environment, and local food. In other words, unless Saudi tourists have a strong preference for local products, they are less likely to forgo the more attractive international touristic choices for the sake of national solidarity because the difference in quality is perceived as being too great to justify based on ethnocentric tendencies alone. Again, this explanation requires further investigation.

With regard to consumer animosity, one explanation would be that, if animosity toward other countries exists in Saudi Arabia, it is more likely to be directed at a limited number of countries in which ideological, political, and economic conflicts are in place. Considering the wide range of international destinations to which Saudis travel, their animosity towards some of them may make them refrain from visiting, although they still travel intentionally to other destinations. For example, tourists who refrain from visiting the US for political reasons may still visit Europe. Others who refrain from visiting non-Muslim countries can still visit the UAE, Turkey, or Malaysia. Therefore,

animosity towards other countries will not necessarily make Saudis consider domestic destinations as an alternative.

In 2002, Jung and his colleagues classified animosity according to two types:

(1) War animosity, which results from acts of aggression or warlike behavior by a country, and

(2) Economic animosity, which arises from a feeling of economic dominance or aggression (Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Porpitakpan, and Kau 2002).

Sohail and Opoku (2016) investigated the effect of both types of animosity on Saudis' behavior regarding American products. Their study revealed that war animosity affects product evaluation negatively. However, there was no effect caused by economic animosity. Saudi consumers appear not to be concerned about the US' economic dominance. Since no recent wars have taken place between Saudi Arabia and any country that Saudis deem as popular for tourism, the only type of animosity that could be present is economic animosity. If economic animosity were found to be irrelevant to how Saudis evaluate foreign products (Sohail and Opoku 2016), the irrelevant role of animosity, as a factor of ethnocentrism, in increasing domestic tourism as an alternative to international tourism seems plausible.

9.1.3 Consumer cosmopolitanism

Consumer cosmopolitanism was found to have a significant influence on the visitors' perceptions of DTDI. For non-visitors, however, this relationship is not significant. This effect is created by only one of its dimensions, which is open-mindedness. The study found that the more open-minded the tourists were, the more likely it was that they would have a positive perception of DTDI. This result might be considered surprising, considering the outward focus of cosmopolitan tourists. However, there are reasons to find this plausible. First, the questionnaire showed that around 90% of Saudi tourists prefer international destinations to domestic ones, which means that domestic tourism has become the exception for the mainstream. Therefore, opting for the exception rather than for the default might be considered an exercise of cosmopolitan behavior or, more specifically, of open-minded behavior. Second, several studies have shown that cosmopolitanism is not at odds with local attachment. Caldwell, Blackwell, and Tulloch (2006) argued that cosmopolitans can still maintain a strong connection to their local communities while having an international outlook. Thompson and Tambyah (1999) showed that Singaporean expats were trying to acquire a cosmopolitan identity while continuing their ties with national traditions. Craig and Douglas (2006) argued that individuals can identify with multiple cultures with different identities suitable to the situation. Other research shows that cosmopolitans do not neglect their local ties (Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Riefler et al. 2012). All these views contradict other views that see cosmopolitanism as the opposite of localism (Beck 2002; Yegenoglu 2005). However, the results do not suggest that cosmopolitanism

may directly encourage tourists to choose domestic destinations. Cosmopolitans, although they open-mindedly perceive DTDI positively, may still have a stronger preference for foreign destinations. The product-marketing literature shows that the relationship between cosmopolitanism and foreign products is stronger in developing countries than it is in developed ones (Jin et al. 2015).

When presenting these findings to the general director of media and public relations, Majed Al Sheddi, he immediately responded, “The president of SCTA would be thrilled to hear that!” Al Sheddi recalled a previous interview with the president of SCTA, Prince Sultan bin Salman Al Saud, when he was asked about the SCTA’s effort to discourage Saudis from traveling abroad. He replied, “We should actually do the opposite”. The president believed that the more Saudis engage in international tourism, the more they become what he called “professional tourists”. Professional tourists, according to the president of the SCTA, tend to appreciate the hidden gems in domestic tourism. Apparently, Mr. Al Sheddi believed that the cosmopolitan element of open-mindedness is enhanced by increased exposure to international travel. Consequently, this exposure increases tourists’ appreciation of local destinations. Despite the fact that international exposure and cosmopolitanism are not necessarily the same thing, it seems that the SCTA does not view domestic tourism as being in direct competition with international tourism. Instead, the SCTA’s strategy is to get a piece of the pie and has never aimed at getting the whole pie. Al Sheddi confirmed this by stating clearly, “*there is only one summer vacation every year when it*

is difficult to keep tourists within the borders, yet there are 52 weekends in the year that present a lucrative market for domestic tourism”.

9.1.4 Personality type

Only one personality type was found to affect the tourists' perceptions of DTDI, DBE, and TS, namely openness to experience. Other types of personalities showed no significant effect on DTDI. The insignificance of the remaining four personality types may be due to low reliability, low validity, or both. Although the measure is well established in the literature, its performance might be affected by culture. The tourism literature has examined openness to experience in multiple settings and found it to be most prominent in types of tourism that are deemed dangerous, risky, and sporty (Scott and Mowen 2007; Tok 2011; Ong and Musa 2012). These previous findings could be relevant to this study considering the nature of the Aseer region, which is mainly mountainous with vast national parks and conservation areas. Tourists often engage in physical activities such as camping, hiking, paragliding, climbing, mountain biking, and zip lining. Therefore, there is a possibility that open-to-experience respondents were thinking about such activities when answering the questionnaire, which resulted in a positive perception of Aseer's TDI.

9.2 Domestic tourist destination image (DTDI)

This study has examined some of the DTDI antecedents and consequences. It found that institutional trust in some of the tourism-related institutions, preference for local products, open-mindedness, and the open-to-experience personality type are all positively correlated with the DTDI. The results also indicated a very strong effect of DTDI on the DBE. These findings confirm some of the previous findings in the literature on TDI, as well as adding a new antecedent, institutional trust, and a new consequence, DBE, to advance our understanding of how TDIs are formed and how they influence behavioral intentions.

The effect of DTDI on intentional behavior was a point of agreement among all the interviewees. However, there were some differing opinions concerning how it is formed in the context of domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia. Hamad Al Shaikh, vice president of marketing at SCTA, blamed the media for reflecting a negative TDI by broadcasting only negative news such as crime and malfunctions. In order to alter this image, the SCTA has embarked on a long-term strategy to improve the image of all the regions in Saudi Arabia by focusing mainly on multimedia. It launched a photography contest to implement this strategy. Photographers from across Saudi Arabia were asked to submit their photos and videos to an online photo library established and managed by the SCTA (www.SeeSaudi.sa). Winners could take home prizes up to as much as 1.5 million riyals (USD 400,000). The SCTA also operates as a mediator between the photographer and any other party that wishes to buy or lease the rights to the photographs. This initiative

has been continuing for three years to date. More than 9000 photographers have submitted more than 24,000 pictures of Saudi Arabia so far.

9.3 Destination brand experience (DBE)

One of the goals of this study was to examine the theoretical and empirical applicability of destination brand experience (DBE) in the context of domestic tourism, and how it is related to tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions. The examination resulted in a successful application of the DBE scale to the Saudi sample. The potential of this scale in tourism research is promising due to its influential role within the model. DBE was found to be strongly affected by the pre-conceived DTDI.

Hamad Al Shaikh, vice president of marketing at the SCTA, confirmed the importance of DBE in domestic tourism. He cited one of the SCTA's initiatives that has been implemented this year, and which aims to encourage Saudis to immerse themselves in a domestic tourism experience. The initiative targets the younger generation and attempts to organize short trips to various destinations in Saudi Arabia. In cooperation with the Ministry of Education, the initiative plans to take one million students, approximately a sixth of all students in Saudi Arabia, on these trips. Schools that wish to participate in the initiative need to register with the SCTA. The trip is planned, funded, and organized by various partners of the SCTA, such as local municipalities and government institutions. Al Shaikh explained, the "*students pay nothing. They are offered the opportunity to spend a few days in a*

domestic destination with their colleagues. They take pictures, buy souvenirs, go sightseeing, try local food and then go back to their families with stories to share and memories to keep”.

This initiative shows that tourists’ experiences and their role in influencing intentional behaviors are considered within the strategic plan of the SCTA to promote domestic tourism. However, this initiative, as described by the vice president of marketing at the SCTA, is not based on a deep analysis of exactly how the experience will influence the perceptions of those students with regard to domestic tourism. It seems that the entire initiative is exploratory in nature, yet there was no indication that any plans for follow-up studies were in place. The initiative thus appears to be an attempt to create word-of-mouth at the grassroots level. Given the large amount of resources to be employed in this initiative, it is highly recommended that as many insights are extracted as possible to inform the future strategies of the SCTA more appropriately. Allowing one million students to experience various domestic destinations is an ambitious initiative that ought to yield a wealth of information if it is accompanied by research.

9.4 Tourist preferences

The analysis indicates that females and males are not comparable in terms of tourist preference. Despite a general preference for international tourism across the sample, females have shown a greater preference for international destinations than did their male counterparts. The differences

extend to the reasons for such a preference. To explain this preference, theories were borrowed from other social sciences. The first is relative deprivation theory, which refers to individuals' tendencies to decide their well-being not based on absolute standards but by comparing themselves to a reference group. The analysis showed that 70.71% of the female sample believed that being female affected their tourist behavior. Of those who believed this, 78 % believed that this effect is due to the requirement for a guardian's approval to travel internationally. Therefore, we calculate that more than half of our female sample (55.15%) found this requirement to have an influence on their choices and preferences with regard to tourism. Males, by contrast, are free to travel without any sort of approval as long as they are adults and civilians. This case of gender discrimination has its roots in the cultural traditions of Saudi Arabia, which often demand a supervisory role of the male over females. According to this perspective, a possible case of fraternal relative deprivation exists. Fraternal relative deprivation refers to the relative deprivation that is felt on the group level. Several studies have examined the occurrence of fraternal relative deprivation felt by a host community when instigated by interaction with tourists (Hall 1999), although no study has yet explored its applicability to the tourists themselves. However, some studies have found a relationship between relative deprivation and conspicuous consumption (Chipp et al. 2011), which encourages the search for a similar relationship in tourism. Females in Saudi Arabia seldom have the freedom to travel alone. Domestic traveling, although not restricted for females, still requires some sort of family permission. The applicability of the fraternal relative deprivation theory has two possible applications in the

case of Saudi females. The first is that a female is simply not allowed to travel internationally without her male guardian's consent, and may therefore engage in domestic tourism since she has no other choice. The second is that, once she is allowed to travel, she would prefer an international destination since domestic destinations are already available.

The relative deprivation theory focuses on the psychological effect of deprivation felt by direct comparison with the reference group. Therefore, it intersects with the second theory in this particular component. The leisure constraints theory has three dimensions, which are psychological, social, and logistical. Researchers have classified tourism constraints according to three main categories, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints (Crawford et al. 1991).

Intrapersonal constraints include individual psychological states and attributes (such as stress, depression, religiosity, anxiety, and so on). Interpersonal constraints include the interactions and relationships among individuals (for example, the ability to find a partner, compatibility of preferences with others, and so forth). Structural constraints include external factors (such as financial resources, accessibility, logistical issues, and the like). With regard to tourism preferences, the interpersonal constraints interfere directly within the process of creating this preference (Jackson et al. 1993). Therefore, we can say that this study has confirmed that interpersonal constraints influence leisure preferences. Please see Figure 9.1.

Figure 9.1 The hierarchical model of leisure constraints (Jackson et al. 1993)

This study has confirmed the role of intrapersonal constraints by showing that a preference for domestic tourism is influenced by factors such as “religious belief” and a “female’s specific need to feel safe”. Crawford and colleagues (1991) stated that concern about the appropriateness of certain tourist activities is an interpersonal constraint that could prevent participation. However, according to Raymore and colleagues (1993), intrapersonal constraints prevent the creation of the preference. This would raise the question of whether the preference for domestic tourism is genuine or exists because the individuals are “constrained” by their religious beliefs from developing a preference for international tourism. Similarly, some females might opt for the domestic decision because they simply feel unsafe beyond the country’s borders.

In addition, this study has shown how interpersonal constraints play a role in determining the actual behavior after the preference has been developed. Female respondents have stated several reasons that influence their tourist behavior that can be classified as interpersonal constraints, such

as “Having to consider family needs and choices more than males do (for example, children)”, which highlights not only the interaction between the female’s preferences and her children, but also the required level of coordination with other caregivers when planning a trip. Females also stated several reasons involving social and cultural constraints that are enforced for females only, and which demand social negotiations with the family to determine an acceptable form of behavior while traveling. This is more understandable when we see that Saudi women differ in their adherence to the dress code while traveling. It indicates that such adherence does not necessarily stem from personal beliefs only, but also from some sort of negotiation within the family, which is essentially what Raymore and others (1993) would refer to as a necessary negotiation that determines the possibility of participation in the tourist activity.

Moreover, this study has shown how structural constraints play a role in determining the actual behavior after the interpersonal constraints have been negotiated successfully. Both female and male respondents have highlighted several structural constraints that determine their actual participation in domestic tourism. Transportation, for instance, was the reason why about half of the sample has chosen international instead of domestic transportation. Understandably, females have shown more sensitivity towards transportation as the difficulty of obtaining it in a country that bans women from driving affects them directly. In addition, female respondents highlighted the lack of activities or facilities tailored to females in Saudi Arabia as a reason for refraining from engaging in domestic tourism, which we can consider a structural constraint that prevents actual participation.

The third theory that could be useful for explaining Saudis' travel preferences is the means-end approach, which suggests that consumers' selections of choices are based on their beliefs that the specific attributes of a choice will allow them to attain desired values. This theory was thought to be useful in understanding tourists' behavior in general (Gnoth 1999; McIntosh and Thyne 2005). This study has shown that 10.42% of Saudis prefer domestic to international tourism. When asked about the reasons for this preference, 35.7% of females and 34.4% of males stated the strongest reason was "religious beliefs". Another popular reason was "avoiding that which contradicts my principles", which was selected by 45.2% of females and 38.7% of males. This is consistent with a previous study conducted by Bogari and colleagues (2004), which found that "cultural values" and "religious beliefs" were the two most important push and pull factors that influenced Saudis' tourist decisions.

Although the means-end approach appears more relevant to the choice of domestic destinations, we can argue that it also has the potential to explain why Saudis choose international destinations. This study showed a strong preference for international tourism among Saudis. Although the respondents cited an objective reason for their preference, which was "because international destinations are simply better", other strong reasons were value-based. For example, 50.2% of females and 54.8% of males stated that the strongest reason was "enjoying more personal freedom". Another popular reason was "freedom from social constraints", which was selected by 42.6% of females and 43.8% of males. Attaining personal freedom might be considered a value that tourists aspire to achieve by opting for international

tourism. To borrow from Jamal and Lee's (2003) theory regarding tourism motivations, the "need to escape" is an internal micro factor that is caused by an external macro factor of "social constraints".

Discussing freedom seeking as a motivation for tourism led us to two overlapping theories that have been applied to tourism research previously, albeit with different emphasis. These are personal escape theory and freedom-seeking theory. The first was introduced by Iso-Ahola (1980) as part of a comprehensive model of leisure motivation that included four dimensions, namely personal seeking, personal escape, interpersonal seeking, and interpersonal escape. The interplay of seeking and escaping, on both personal and interpersonal levels, creates the psychological benefits of tourism (Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991). When Saudis cite "escaping social constraints" to justify their preference for international tourism, they are being motivated by the "interpersonal escape" dimension. Similarly, when 38% of Saudis who prefer international tourism cite the reason "being with the people I like", they are being motivated by the "interpersonal seeking" dimension. Segmenting tourists based on their motivations, seekers and escapers, proved to be possible when replicating studies (Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal 2006). The second theory is the freedom-seeking theory, which focuses on the particular value of freedom sought in tourism. This theory has been collectively built by including the element of freedom seeking in different models of motivational psychology. In the tourism context, Iso-Ahola (1979) stated that perceived freedom is the critical regulator of what becomes leisure in people's minds and what does not. It is possible that the subjective "sense

of freedom” that Saudi tourists perceive in international tourism leaves insufficient room for an objective evaluation of domestic destinations.

The study found that 16% of respondents preferred international tourism, citing “social prestige” as the reason for their preference. This calls for prestige-seeking theory to explain the antecedent, contextual, and behavioral consequences of this preference. There is a possibility that more respondents refrained from stating prestige seeking for social desirability. Crompton (1979) reported that his respondents did not admit prestige as a motive for their tourism practices, yet they identified other people who sought prestige.

The study has also found “safety” to play a strong role in destination choice. Overall, 60% of respondents who preferred domestic tourism cited “safety” as the reason for this preference, with more female respondents citing this reason. This confirms previous findings in the tourism literature, which highlighted the tourist behavior of female travelers with regard to risk and fear (Valentine 1989; Bialeschki 2005; Wilson and Little 2008; Berdychevsky and Gibson 2015a; Berdychevsky and Gibson 2015b). In the specific case of Saudi tourists, Bogari et al. (2004) found that “safety” is the second most important pull factor for Saudi domestic tourists. However, without further research, we cannot confirm whether there is a direct relationship between safety and TDI, although we can hypothesize it with regard to risk-taking behavior (Sheng-Hsiung, Gwo-Hsiung, and Kuo-Ching 1997) and the level of familiarity with the place (JingRu, YingZhen, Chi, Bihu, and Morrison 2015) playing a moderating role.

Chapter 10 : Theoretical and methodological contributions

10.1 Theoretical contributions

This study has contributed to marketing and tourism research by introducing the relationship between institutional trust and DTDI, which has previously been a gap in the literature on destination image. The construct represents an interdisciplinary contribution from political science to marketing that aims to explain how DTDIs form and evolve in more detail. This study has advanced the tourist destination image theory by including a new influential factor, institutional trust, which proved to play a significant role in forming the DTDI. Five characteristics of the institutions measure IT (honesty, kindness, credibility, commitment, and fairness). Each characteristic may be used to highlight the specific aspect that can be trusted. For example, honesty highlights that information provided by a specific institution can be trusted. Specific aspects of institutional trust can be tested in subsequent studies.

In addition, this study has re-examined two of international business' popular constructs, CET and COS, within the specific context of domestic tourism. The study identified the particular dimension of each construct that is most relevant in the context of domestic tourism. Preference for local products was the factor that influenced ethnocentric tourists' decisions and caused them to choose a domestic destination. Open-mindedness was the factor that caused cosmopolitan tourists to be interested in domestic destinations and to view them favorably.

Personality research has once again contributed to tourism research via this study, as it proves a positive relationship between openness-to-experience and DTDI. The study has proved the irrelevance of the other four personality types regarding how DTDI forms and evolves within this specific context. However, this irrelevance might be due to the low reliability of the five types. Another measure of personality type may perform differently and thus allow for more reliable inferences.

Consumer psychology has traditionally been conceptualized by analyzing the three stages of consumption, pre-purchase, purchase, and acquisition, and the post-purchase stage (Arnould, Price, and Zinkhan 2002). In tourism contexts, scholars have highlighted differences in these three stages, mainly the increased complexity of the decision involved, which requires the consumer to invest more time in each stage (Crouch et al. 2004). This study has followed this tradition by including constructs that are linked to each stage. Examining the personal factors contributes to our understanding of the pre-purchase stage in the tourism context. The study has shown how institutional trust, CET, COS, and personality affect perceptions of TDI, which subsequently influences the pre-purchase decision-making process.

Similarly, examining the DBE, the TS, and the intention to re-visit/recommend contributes to our understanding of purchase and acquisition and post-purchase behaviors, respectively. The study has shown how DBE affects TS and how both affect the behavioral intentions to re-visit and recommend. These specific contributions are thought to be new to the field of tourism research and should further advance our understanding of how

domestic tourists behave during the three stages of consumption in the specific context of the study.

10.2 Methodological contributions

This study's contribution to the advancement of research methodology is threefold. First, the study has introduced a "three-factor" solution for consumer ethnocentrism. The original CETSCALE employed in the hypothesized model developed by Shimp and Sharma (1996) was unidimensional. Although some applications of the scale have supported its unidimensionality (Netemeyer et al. 1991; Durvasula et al. 1997; Orth and Firbasova 2003; Yoo and Donthu 2005), other studies have questioned it, claiming that between two and four factors constitute the construct (Marcoux et al. 1997; Chryssochoidis 2007; Khan and Rizvi 2008; Jiménez-Guerrero 2014). Table 10.1 lists a collection of studies that supported the multidimensionality of the scale with their respective factors.

More interestingly, some studies that have been conducted simultaneously in different countries found the construct to be unidimensional in one country and multidimensional in another (Saffu and Walker 2005), suggesting that the dimensionality of the scale is culturally specific. Second, Douglas and Nijssen (2003) argued that the salience of the CETSCALE differs between large industrialized countries in which beliefs that domestic products are superior are widespread and small market economies with a high proportion of foreign trade. Consequently, attitudes towards foreign

products are influenced by incomparability between local and foreign products in terms of availability and quality. Saudi Arabia belongs to the second category, as most of its consumer goods are imported. Saudi Arabia imports around 3,774 products from 167 countries (WITS 2013). Therefore, the multidimensionality of the scale should not be surprising.

Author(s)	Country	Factors
Marcoux et al. (1997)	Poland	1. Protectionism 2. Socio-economic conservatism 3. Patriotism
Mavondo and Tan (1999)	Malaysia	1. Animosity 2. Economic rationality 3. Morality
Acharaya and Elliott (2003)	Australia	1. Emotional 2. Rational
Saffu and Walker (2005)	Russia	1. Hard ethnocentrism 2. Soft ethnocentrism
Jakubanečs et al. (2005)	Ukraine	1. Domestic favoritism 2. Foreign discrimination 3. Political protectionism
Upadhyay and Singh (2006)	India	1. Nationalism 2. Socio-economic conservatism 3. Ultra-nationalism 4. Protectionism
Hsu and Nien (2008)	Taiwan and China	In Taipei: 1. Protectionism 2. Confidence in domestic products In Shanghai: 1. Conservative patriotism 2. Defensive patriotism
Ramayah et al. (2011)	Malaysia	1. Hard ethnocentrism 2. Soft ethnocentrism

Table 10.1 Studies that have supported the multidimensionality of CETSCALE

Second, the study highlights a shortcoming in the consumer cosmopolitanism scale C-COSMO. Two items in the scale could be

interpreted differently by some Muslim respondents, leading to low reliability and, possibly, to low validity of the items. These two items are “*I like listening to music from other cultures*”, and “*I like watching movies from different countries*”. Some strict interpretations of the Islamic teachings forbid Muslims from listening to music (Shiloah 2013). They also forbid people from watching anything that contradicts Islamic values, such as movie scenes that include different degrees of sexuality and intimacy, people who are dressed improperly according to the strict Islamic dress codes, and various other scenes that are deemed at odds with these strict interpretations of Islam. Most of the movies produced around the world contain such unacceptable scenes, which has caused foreign movies in general to earn the reputation of being indecent and “un-Islamic”. Accordingly, some Muslims refrain from watching foreign movies entirely. Therefore, the two items might be measuring adherence to this interpretation of Islam with regard to listening to music and watching foreign movies, and not to consumption transcending borders.

Third, the online questionnaire was found to be very useful for collecting data. The mail system in Saudi Arabia is not sufficiently reliable to deliver questionnaires to targeted audiences. Moreover, canvassing people door to door is considered intrusive and is not acceptable in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the online questionnaire helped to overcome such obstacles. More importantly, the online questionnaire helped to increase female participation, which is a hurdle facing male researchers in Saudi Arabia as the society is segregated by gender. The use of social media to distribute the link was also found to be helpful, convenient, and cost-effective. However, it is important to

use online questionnaires with caution as it, as do other data collection methods, creates its own limitations as discussed in Chapter 12.

Chapter 11 : Managerial implications

This study has several managerial implications that might be informative for DMOs across the world in their efforts to promote domestic tourism. More specifically, this might apply to countries that are deemed culturally similar to Saudi Arabia, sharing the same characteristics that made domestic tourism a less-preferred option. From the findings of this study, a common thread among the different constructs incorporated in the model has emerged. The managerial implications are summarized as follows: “People who have an open-to-experience personality, are deemed open-minded, and prefer local products, are more likely to be the best candidates for domestic tourism as they perceive a positive image of domestic destination. If the SCTA and the Aseer municipality manage to get these people trust their efforts to revive domestic tourism and improve the Aseer region as a tourist destination, they will be more likely to travel to Aseer and enjoy a positive DBE while there, which will have a positive influence on the possibility that they might re-visit and recommend the destination to others.”

It is understood that the challenges that face DMOs in general are the need to reconcile national interests in the public and private sectors (Kotler et al. 1993), the difficulty of aligning the short-termism of politicians and private sector partners with the long-termism needed to establish a strong place brand (Curtis 2001), insufficient budgets to create global brands (Morgan, Pritchard, and Piggott 2003), and the difficulty of aligning how the location is perceived by its own residents with what the DMO is trying to promote

(Zouganeli, Trihas, Antonaki, and Kladou 2012). Other challenges cited in the literature include the sensitive role of language as a conveyer of destination image (Dann 1996), the various independent sources of information such as the news media (Tasci and Kozak 2006), the inadequacy of channels of promotion to capture the complexity of the place, and the lack of agreement in shaping the place brands between DMOs and residents (Henderson 2002).

With regard to the challenges above, this study contributes to the first challenge, the need to reconcile national interests in the public and private sectors (Kotler et al. 1993), by highlighting the importance of institutional trust. A highly trusted DMO is more likely to be successful in reconciling national interests. Moreover, by bringing the private and public sectors together and gaining their trust, the challenge of insufficient budget (Morgan et al. 2003) might become easier to resolve assuming that highly trusted institutions are worthy of investing in because of the promise of positive return on investment for both the country and the private investors.

These efforts, if successful, will please many players in the tourism industry, such as Khalid Al Dughaim, an entrepreneur who specializes in organizing seasonal festivals in Saudi Arabia. Mr. Al Dughaim was interviewed in order to shed some light on his experience as he represents a significant category in the industry. His major problem was the overwhelming bureaucracy that dictates creating and running a tourist festival. He explained, *“in order to organize a festival during a specific season, I need to bid among other organizers for a festival license. The authorized party to issue such a license is a council working at the regional level and called “the*

council of tourism development". The head of the council is typically the governor of the region, with members representing various government institutions such as SCTA, civil defense, police, CPVPV, etc. Once the license is granted, a series of other licenses need to be obtained as well in order to launch the festival. The organizer needs to lease the site from the municipality, apply for electrical power supply from the power company, a food safety certificate from the ministry of trade, and travel visas for performers from outside Saudi Arabia". Mr. Al Dughaim complained that, although each of these institutions is represented by a member or two in the council for tourism development, he still needs to obtain a separate license from each.

This study has also examined the role of CET, COS, and personality type in the context of domestic tourism. These roles further advance our understanding of tourists' perceptions and behaviors, which in turn inform the marketing communications of the DMOs, helping them to create more appealing images of domestic destinations. For example, this study emphasized that ethnocentric tendencies influence positive perceptions of TDI solely through the dimension of "preference for local products". The Saudi DMO, SCTA, may utilize this by creating a message that speaks to this specific preference. The message is supposed to be more coherent and direct since it does not have to carry other partial measurement messages that speak to "national solidarity" or "animosity towards foreign products". The openness-to-experience personality type is often interested dangerous, risky, and sporty activities (Scott and Mowen 2007; Tok 2011; Ong and Musa 2012). The Aseer region is mainly mountainous with vast national parks and

conservation areas that provide excellent venues for physical activities such as camping, hiking, paragliding, climbing, mountain biking and zip lining. Such associations should be emphasized in advertisements for the region.

This study has also explored the notion of tourism constraints in the specific case of domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia. With regard to these constraints, the SCTA can infuse its marketing communications with messages that help to enhance the negotiation of constraints. Jackson and others (1993) stated that people actively negotiate their constraints; thus, their participation is dependent on how this negotiation develops. The SCTA does not have the means to remove all the constraints that stand in the way of potential domestic tourists, particularly intra- and inter-personal constraints, but it can craft marketing messages that help undecided tourists to strengthen their negotiation position. This can be done by creating a strong motivation to engage in domestic tourism which, according to Jackson et al. (1993), determines the willingness to negotiate.

As several studies have found that domestic tourists do not consider themselves to be “tourists” in their home country, although they do accept this label in international settings (Singh and Krakover 2015), this study may help the various players in domestic tourism to increase participation by creating more appealing tourism products and services. For example, bundled vacation packages, which are notably almost entirely absent from the market, can be a powerful way to convince the citizens of Saudi Arabia that domestic travel is actually “tourism”. Rewtrakunphaiboon and Oppewal (2003) showed that bundled holiday packages encourage destinations to enter the

consideration set, and hence increase the intention to visit. Another example is adventure tourism. Openness-to-experience is the personality type most likely to perceive DTDI positively and to have a positive DBE and TS. Since this particular personality type has been related to risky and sporty kinds of tourism previously, it is important that the SCTA and related institutions make this kind of tourism more available.

This study involves multiple variables in an attempt to examine causal relationships that have not been examined previously. Despite this novelty, the results should be interpreted with caution due to several reasons. First, the context of the study involves only one destination and the sample consists of citizens of one country, Saudi Arabia. The selection of this context was made for the purpose of testing the theoretical model, although there is always room to add more variables and to integrate more relationships that might affect the causality of the relationships existing within the boundaries of this model. The findings of this study cannot be claimed to be universally valid when replicated in other countries. However, the findings would be more likely to resemble other countries in the region that have a similar cultural and social environment to that of Saudi Arabia.

Second, the scales selected to measure the different constructs in the model were carefully chosen to provide the most accurate, reliable, and valid results possible. However, each scale has limitations, as discussed in earlier chapters. The items in the institutional trust scale have been adopted from different studies. Moreover, the Big Five personality type construct has been criticized for having a “cloudy” measurement and a non-theoretical nature (Block 2010). In this study, several dimensions of personality failed to achieve acceptable levels of reliability and validity, which limits the possibility to infer any evident insights from them.

Third, the study obtained its data via an online questionnaire. Despite being a very helpful data collection tool from a methodological point of view as explained in Chapter 10, this method has been criticized for being less interactive and for generating limited and unrepresentative samples (Singleton and Straits 2010). Although the nature of this particular study is not heavily dependent on interaction with the respondents, the study does not ignore the fact that such interaction could have provided better communication with respondents and thus a higher quality of the data. This method also ignores those respondents who have no access to the Internet and disallows the calculation of the response rate.

Fourth, there is a risk of bias in this study. More females answered the questionnaire than did males. Furthermore, some respondents might have ancestral ties to the Aseer region, but do not live there. Their feelings of association with the region may compel them to perceive the destination positively, resulting in biased results that are not affected by any of the personal factors included in this study. In addition, there is an age bias towards younger respondents in the sample. The issue of the youth bias has a particular implication in consumer behavior research since many do not consider them tourism decision makers. Furthermore, younger consumers tend to be less ethnocentric (Shankarmahesh 2006).

Fifth, the measure of institutional trust reported Cronbach's alphas that were higher than 0.9 for most of the items. According to Boyle (1991), scales that exhibit very high alpha coefficients may imply item redundancy, not scale reliability. Items such as "kindness", "honesty", and "credibility" may confuse

the respondents when trying to apply them to institutions. It is further considered a limitation in this study that the items on the institutional trust scale might be redundant.

Similar to the way the study of trust has extended to many areas of inquiry in social science, this study opens the door for it in tourism research. This study has shown that institutional trust plays a significant role in the formation of DTDI. Investigating the nature, limits, and potential of this role in tourism decision making is a promising line of research. Further research may examine whether this relationship is reciprocal. For example, does the high trustworthiness of a certain destination reflect the degree to which people trust the tourism-related institutions there? In addition, this study included six institutions based on the specific case of the Aseer region, of which only two institutions were found to be relevant. Theoretically, four of the six institutions that did not specifically serve the Aseer region, nor does it have it a specific department or program that is focused on the region. By contrast, both the SCTA and the municipality of Aseer are directly responsible for the Aseer region. The SCTA considers Aseer to be the region with the highest tourism weight due to its tourism potential and qualities. Therefore, entire departments are dedicated to serve the region, and branches of the SCTA are spread across the region. Having two remaining institutions that were directly relevant to the Aseer region, the second decision was made to create a composite factor for IT that reflected the institutional trust in both the SCTA and in the municipality of the Aseer region.

Different types of institutions could also be investigated, particularly those that are closely related to the tourists' experiences such as airlines, tour

guides, and security. It is also interesting to investigate how trust is being formed and activated during the decision-making process, in which phase it prevails, and how it correlates with other factors that have been found to be influential. This study has also produced two research propositions that link institutional trust with both DBE and TS. A modified model has indicated that institutional trust in tourism-related institutions is positively related to the DBE and tourist satisfaction (TS).

Ethnocentrism was found to influence the DTDI via one dimension only, namely preference for local products. Further studies may be required to investigate the reasons that the other two dimensions, national solidarity and animosity towards foreign products, were not significant. Possible explanations, such as the notion and boundaries of nationhood in Saudi Arabia, or the perceived size of the gap between domestic and international destination borders, can be subject to investigations that are more focused. The findings will further advance our understanding of how ethnocentrism affects tourists differently based on several situational circumstances. It will also be beneficial to the specific context of domestic tourism, which is more closely related to ethnocentrism than is international tourism. The results of these suggested research studies might complement the study by Vida and Reardon (2008), who found that domestic consumption is more heavily influenced by affective and normative constructs than by cognitive ones. However, their study was based on a European sample. Contrasting these results with a sample from developing countries with products deemed less competitive in the international market would be a necessary addition to our understanding of domestic consumption behavior. This study has also

produced two research propositions that link consumer ethnocentrism with both DBE and TS. A modified model has indicated that consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to the DBE and TS.

Similarly, consumer cosmopolitanism was found to have a positive influencing on both DBE and TS. This result suggests that cosmopolitanism not only affects the formation of DTDI but also, once engaged in domestic tourism, cosmopolitans are more likely to report a positive brand experience. This positive experience will mainly be supported by the open-mindedness of the tourists rather than by their appreciation of diversity or consumption transcending borders. Zeugner-Roth and colleagues (2015) argued that a positive relationship between cosmopolitanism and domestic tourism preference may indicate an objective judgment regarding domestic tourism. However, this result needs further investigation.

The relationship between TDI and tourist satisfaction has been previously examined from both sides. TDI affects tourist satisfaction (Del Bosque and San Martin 2008) and tourist satisfaction re-modifies the pre-conceived TDI (Fakeye and Crompton 1991). The overall position in the literature conveys a strong relationship between the two constructs via different mediators, contexts, and conditions. For example, Chon (1992) studied this relationship within the self-congruity model and found that tourist satisfaction is tied to the level of congruity the tourist perceives between a destination's image and his or her actual self-image or ideal self-image. Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (1996) postulated that TDI affected tourists' perceptions of quality, which in turn affected their overall satisfaction. Chi and

Qu (2008) retested this relationship while differentiating between attribute-satisfaction and overall satisfaction. They found that TDI influences attribute-satisfaction, and both TDI and attribute-satisfaction influence the overall satisfaction. However, the relationship between DTDI and tourist satisfaction has never been examined in the light of a possible mediating effect of DBE. A modified model has indicated that DBE mediates the relationship between DTDI and TS.

Differences between visitors and non-visitors to the Aseer region were noticed in the study. The effect of intuitional trust on DTDI was stronger among non-visitors, which may suggest that actual visitation allows tourists to judge for themselves instead of using indirect cues such as trust in the tourism-related institutions. However, it is not possible to confirm this explanation without further research that focuses on measuring changes in TDI before and after the visit. Similarly, the effect of preference for local products on TDI was stronger in non-visitors, suggesting that actual visitation may somehow reduce this preference, perhaps due to disappointment. This possibility is in contrast to another that indicates that the effect of open-mindedness on TDI was stronger for visitors, almost as if the actual visitation allowed open-mindedness to play a bigger role, perhaps due to a positive tourist experience.

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15.1 Appendix A: The terminology used in place branding

15.1.1 Introduction

Conducting research within the domain of place branding raises questions about the different terminology used to refer to the same or to related constructs. The absence of consensus regarding most of the place-branding constructs, both terminologically and conceptually, is a result of the developmental process in the field. Place branding has been developed independently for a long time within different disciplines and has been practiced independently by different players such as private firms, trade associations, government agencies, and the like (Papadopoulos 2004). Therefore, the field has been a shared space for both academics and practitioners to theorize and define the emerging concepts of place with little synergy between them, partly due to the international focus of the literature (Skinner 2008). Not surprisingly, place branding has followed various theoretical paths and has used diverse vocabulary to serve the direct objectives of each study (Skinner 2008). Until the 2000s, few efforts, if any, had been made to integrate the terminology or to provide a framework to resolve the terminological confusion. As a result, there is still little consensus in the literature with regard to the type of marketing or branding that applies to places, and the differences between branding specifics places and entire nations (Skinner 2008).

There are three main axes in which the concept of place branding could be confused with other concepts or applied in a different context due to differences in the vocabulary. The **first axis** is the geographical entity under discussion (town, city, country, region, nation, destination, and so on). The **second axis** is the process of marketing based on the level of sophistication (promotion, marketing, branding, brand management, and the like). The **third axis** is the marketing element or construct used in the specific marketing or branding process (image, identity, personality, and so forth).

15.1.2 Confusion 1: The geographical entity

With regard to the first axis, it is very easy to identify an arbitrary use of terms referring to geographical entities in the literature. The large number of studies with a focus on a single geographical entity has contributed to this phenomenon to a great extent. The confusion of terminology has continued with little effort by scholars to delineate the boundaries and clarify the theoretical territory of each realm of inquiry. Hanna and Rowley (2008) conducted a content analysis of 59 papers from 11 journals that were published after 2000 and which contained case studies of various geographical entities (town, city, region, country, destination, and so on). The authors chose to omit papers published before 2000 as they believed the discipline was not clearly established before that and that it suffered from conflict with place image and marketing, which is the sort of confusion that concerns the third axis. They found that the three dominant terms were

“place”, “nation”, and “location”. The use of the terms “place” and “location” signified various geographical entities such as towns, cities, countries, and nations (regions were only been signified by “place” and not by “location”). The use of the term “nation” only signified countries. The term “destination” was used predominantly in the tourism literature, while “place” and “location” were the most dominant terms used in branding and business. However, the term “place”, among all other terms, is considered the most recent as it was not until the 1990s that a shift from the use of the term “destination” to the use of the term “place” became noticeable (Hospers 2007). Figure 15.1 summarizes the findings of Hanna and Rowley (2008).

Figure 15.1 Place and associated vocabulary (Hanna and Rowley 2008).

The study by Hanna and Rowley (2008) was initiated after much acknowledgment that such confusion exists among academics and practitioners (Tasci and Kozak 2006). Calls were made by scholars to provide a clear distinction between the two specific terms “destination” and “location” (Kerr 2006). Anholt (2002) suggested using the former when referring to a product or service brand and the latter when referring to a corporate brand. However, the interdisciplinary nature of the field has hindered consensus regarding the terminology. Each discipline has continued to use the common term that serves its purpose, populates its literature, or links easily to its theoretical basis and other areas of inquiry. As a result, Kavatzis (2005) noted that the term “destination” is used more frequently in tourism literature, “nation” is commonly used when the goal is attract both tourists and investors, “country” is still predominantly used in country-of-origin studies, and “place” is commonly used within the areas of place management. Aronczyk (2013) argued that national branding is different from the branding of other geographical entities. She accused some place-branding consultants of attempting to extend their area of practice and obtain more clients by claiming there was little difference between the branding of various geographical entities.

15.1.3 Confusion 2: Marketing rigor

With regard to the second axis, Kavatzis (2005) differentiated three historical trends based on the level of sophistication applied in the promotional

activity. Accordingly, he defined these trends as place promotion, place marketing, and place branding. The first trend, place promotion, encompasses intuitive and random activities undertaken by various stakeholders who have an interest in promoting the place. Such activities lack the strategic element and are not integrated. The second trend, place marketing, is characterized by the implementation of a more advanced marketing strategy that goes beyond simple promotional activities. This advancement is made possible by both theoretical and practical factors. The domain of marketing was broadened to include non-traditional products such as places. In practice, the wave of city marketing in the 1980s has contributed to developing the thinking of city planners in response to the pressure of de-industrialization (Hannigan 2003). The third trend, place branding, became more popular after the success of product branding and corporate branding. Academics and practitioners realized the long-term advantage of branding places just like products, yet they have also pointed out that the multiple dimensions that places encompass make it difficult to apply the techniques used for traditional products (Parkerson 2007). Various scholars have suggested that place branding has more in common with corporate branding than it has with product branding. Places and large corporations share similar conflicts of interest and political agendas, and a diversity of industries and cultures, while still having to manage their brands effectively (Kerr 2006). Place brands were argued to resemble corporate umbrella brands (Rainisto 2003). Rojas-Méndez (2013: 462) viewed the parallels between corporations and countries as being evident, since *“...corporations have logos, jargons, culture, and employees, while countries*

have flags, languages, culture, and citizens, respectively". A fourth trend, place-brand management, is still in its infancy with studies that are mainly exploratory in nature (García, Gómez and Molina 2012).

Although the trends mentioned above could be easily distinguished from each other when analyzing the supply side, this is not the case for the demand side. Branding activities could be enthusiastically developed yet poorly delivered in a manner that would achieve only as much as simple promotional activities could have achieved. This happens when DMOs do what Hankinson (2005) warned of, which is confusing the activity of branding a place with that of promoting a product (for example, tourism). This also occurs when DMOs apply only part of the marketing mix with little attention being paid to the other components of marketing (Ryan 1991). Therefore, practitioners play a role in further confusing the terminology by referring to mere promoting as marketing or tactical marketing as branding. Academics, on the other hand, amplify this confusion when analyzing the DMOs' projects from the supply side, but without a fully-rounded view. They have also been accused of deliberately using the terminology that is more likely to help them to target specific journals (Skinner 2008). However, some efforts were made by academics to untangle the knot. For example, Hospers (2007:3) referred to the etymology of the words "marketing" and "branding" in order to define their functionality, saying:

"Marketing comes from 'market getting' and has the market as its starting point, while branding literally means 'burning' or 'marking' something. Thus, place marketing starts from the image outsiders have of a place (outside-in approach). In turn, place

branding is an act by the place itself and tells the outside world what it is or how it wants to be seen (inside-out-approach)."

15.1.4 Confusion 3: The interchangeability of the constructs

With regard to the third axis, some researchers have noticed multiple cases of using different constructs interchangeably, such as brand and image (Tasci and Kozak 2006), and brand image and brand personality (Pereire 2012). This interchangeability occurs in the specific field of place branding as well as in the branding field in general with consequences for the place-branding studies, such as confusing brand identity and brand image (Nandan 2005), brand and reputation (Ettenson and Knowles 2008), and corporate identity and corporate branding (Balmer 2001). This type of confusion has accompanied the conceptual development of the respective constructs since the early appearance of these constructs in marketing research. However, the definitional boundaries have remained unclear up to now despite the relative degree of maturity of the field.

For example, Martineau (1958), who was among the first academics to discuss the concept of personality in marketing, mentioned that the force that grants a specific store a competitive edge is store personality or image, without differentiating between the two. Multiple concerns about the lack of academic effort to distinguish between destination images and destination brands have been cited by Ekinici (2003), Cai (2002), and Konecnik (2004). For example, there is an on-going debate with regard to whether one should consider brands and images to refer to the same thing (Pritchard and Morgan

2001) or to completely different things (Jensen and Korneliussen 2002). In this context, Cai (2002) suggested that image formation is not branding, although it constitutes the core thereof. Building on this, Ekinçi (2003) suggested that destination branding constitutes the core of destination image. Chen and Phou (2013) suggested that destination image is the main antecedent of destination personality.

15.2 Appendix B: Institutional trust

Do you trust that the [institution] is:

1. Honest
2. Kind
3. Credible
4. Committed
5. Fair
6. Important

Institution	Trust greatly	Tend to trust	Tend to distrust	Distrust greatly	Not sure or I don't know
Supreme Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (SCTA)					
The Ministry of Trade					
The Ministry of Transportation					
Aseer Municipality					
The Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice					
The Ministry of Culture and Information					

15.3 Appendix C: Consumer cosmopolitanism

First-order dimension	γ	Item	λ	Corrected item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's α	Construct reliability	AVE
Open-mindedness	0.79	When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	0.75	0.51	0.87	0.87	0.63
		I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	0.85	0.55			
		I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	0.76	0.67			
		I have got a real interest in other countries.	0.83	0.60			
Diversity appreciation	0.70	Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	0.88	0.67	0.78	0.86	0.62
		The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	0.80	0.59			
		I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	0.90	0.72			
		Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	0.50	0.43			
Consumption transcending borders	0.95	I like watching movies from different countries.	0.61	0.61	0.84	0.77	0.47
		I like listening to music of other cultures.	0.64	0.69			
		I like trying original dishes from other countries.	0.81	0.60			
		I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	0.69	0.69			

γ =standardized second-order loading; λ =standardized first-order loading; AVE=average variance extracted.

15.4 Appendix D: Consumer ethnocentric tendencies

Adopted from: (Shimp and Sharma 1987)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree not disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.					
2	Only those products that are unavailable in Saudi Arabia should be imported.					
3	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.					
4	Saudi products, first, last, and foremost.					
5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un- Saudi .					
6	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Saudis out of jobs.					
7	A real Saudi should always buy Saudi-made products.					
8	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi Arabia instead of letting other countries get rich off us.					
9	It is always best to purchase Saudi products.					
10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.					
11	Saudis should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.					
12	Curbs should be put on all imports.					
13	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Saudi products.					
14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.					
15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Saudi Arabia .					
16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.					
17	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudis out of work.					

15.5 Appendix E: Tourist satisfaction

Adopted from:

- Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994)
- Heslop et al. (2004)
- Lee and Ganesh (1999)

We would be interested in your opinions about Aseer as a vacation destination? We are interested in your general impressions. Please circle the number on each of the 1 to 7 scales that most closely resembles your opinion.

		Low						High
1	Overall satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Proud to visit							
3	Willingness to travel to Aseer again							
4	Willingness to recommend Aseer to friends							
5	Overall rating of Aseer as a tourist destination							
6	Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations							

15.6 Appendix F: Destination image

Adopted from:

- Echtner and Ritchie (1993)
- Baloglu and McCleary 1999
- Nadeau et al. (2008)

We would be interested in your opinions about Aseer as a vacation destination? We are interested in your general impressions. Please circle the number on each of the 1 to 7 scales that most closely resembles your opinion.

		Low						High
1	Quality of service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Value of money							
3	Attractive scenery							
4	Amount of wilderness							
5	Variety of activities							
6	Originality of experience							
7	Culturally interesting							
8	Entertainment							
9	Shopping facilities							
10	Sport facilities							
11	Memorability of experience							
12	Ease of getting around							
13	Ease of finding place of interest							
14	Accommodation							
15	Selection of restaurants							
16	Climate							
17	Peaceful							
18	For the whole family							
19	Safety							
20	Your knowledge of the destination							
21	Tourist attractions							

15.7 Appendix G: Destination brand experience

Adopted from:
Barnes et al. (2014)

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Aseer region makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways							
2	I find Aseer region interesting in a sensory way							
3	Aseer region does not appeal to my senses							
4	Aseer region induces feelings and sentiments							
5	I do not have strong emotions for Aseer region							
6	Aseer region is an emotional area							
7	I engage in physical activities and behaviors when I am in Aseer region							
8	Aseer region gives me bodily experiences							
9	Aseer region is not activity oriented							
10	I engage in a lot of thinking when I am in Aseer region							
11	Aseer region does not make me think							
12	Aseer region stimulates my curiosity and problem solving							

15.8 Appendix H: Personality type

Adopted from: John and Srivastava (1999)

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

I see myself as someone who...

1	Is talkative	27	Can be cold and aloof
2	Tends to find fault with others	28	Perseveres until the task is finished
3	Does a thorough job	29	Can be moody
4	Is depressed, blue	30	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
5	Is original, comes up with new ideas	31	Is sometimes shy, inhibited
6	Is reserved	32	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
7	Is helpful and unselfish with others	33	Does things efficiently
8	Can be somewhat careless	34	Remains calm in tense situations
9	Is relaxed, handles stress well	35	Prefers work that is routine
10	Is curious about many different things	36	Is outgoing, sociable
11	Is full of energy	37	Is sometimes rude to others
12	Starts quarrels with others	38	Makes plans and follows through with them
13	Is a reliable worker	39	Gets nervous easily
14	Can be tense	40	Likes to reflect, play with ideas
15	Is ingenious, a deep thinker	41	Has few artistic interests
16	Generates a lot of enthusiasm	42	Likes to cooperate with others
17	Has a forgiving nature	43	Is easily distracted
18	Tends to be disorganized	44	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature
19	Worries a lot		
20	Has an active imagination		
21	Tends to be quiet		
22	Is generally trusting		
23	Tends to be lazy		
24	Is emotionally stable, not easily upset		
25	Is inventive		
26	Has an assertive personality		

15.9 Appendix I: Questionnaire

Language

1.
فضلاً، اختر اللغة التي تفضل الإجابة بها
Kindely, choose your preferred language

- ☐ العربية
- ☐ English

Submit

0%

Survey

Dear respondent,

My name is Mohammed Alwan, a PhD candidate at the Eric Sprott School of Business at Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada. I am conducting a study to examine personal factors that affect tourists' perceptions of domestic destination image, which is the sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions that people associate with a destination.

Your participation would be greatly appreciated. If you agree to participate, you can respond to a 20-25 min web questionnaire by clicking "Next".

By starting to answer the questionnaire, you acknowledge viewing and submitting your consent that you have volunteered to participate in the research project mentioned above and you understand that the project is designed to gather information about academic work on campus. You will be one of approximately 1000 people being asked to answer this questionnaire. You also understand that:

1. This is an anonymous survey. Your personal identifiers, including the URL, are not collected. The data you provide as well as your identity will be completely anonymous.
2. You may stop the survey and not submit it at any time but you cannot withdraw after it is submitted. The anonymity of the data does not allow the researcher to track your entry after it was submit it in order to delete it.
3. Your participation in this survey is voluntary and not paid.
4. You have the right to decline to answer any question. If that question was mandatory, you can simply withdraw from the survey. If you decline to participate or withdraw from the study, no one will know.
5. The data you provide will be possibly used in related future studies.
6. The data collected through the online version of this questionnaire will be hosted in the United States and, therefore, subject to the U.S. Patriot Act.
7. If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me at my e-mail address malwan@connect.carleton.ca. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact the Research Ethics Board at Carleton University by phone at (613)-520-2517, or by e-mail (ethics@carleton.ca).

Without the help of people like you, this important research could not be conducted.

Sincerely,

Mohammed H. Alwan
PhD Candidate
Eric Sprott School of Business
Carleton University

Dr. José Rojas-Méndez
Thesis Supervisor
Associate Professor
Eric Sprott School of Business
Carleton University

استبيان لبحث الدكتوراة
PhD Thesis Survey

Survey

Nationality? *

- ☐ Saudi
☐ Non-saudi

Do you currently reside in Saudi Arabia? *

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

1. Do you currently reside in Aseer region? *

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

(untitled)

What is your nationality? *

Egypt
Palestine
Algeria
Syria
Bahrain
Oman
Sudan
Iraq
United Arab Emirates

Morocco	
Kuwait	
Libya	
South Sudan	
Tunisia	
Lebanon	
Yemen	
Qatar	
Somalia	
Jordan	
Mauritania	
Djibouti	
Eritrea	
Ethiopia	
Pakistan	
India	
Afghanistan	
United States of America	
United Kingdom	
Canada	
Australia	
France	
Albania	
Argentina	
Armenia	
Austria	
Azerbaijan	
Bangladesh	
Belgium	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	
Brazil	
Bulgaria	
Chad	
Chile	
China	
Colombia	
Croatia	
Cyprus	
Czech Republic	
Denmark	
Finland	
Germany	
Greece	
Guatemala	
Hong Kong	
Hungary	
Iceland	
Indonesia	
Iran	
Ireland	
Italy	
Japan	

Japan
Kazakhstan
Kenya
Malawi
Mali
Malta
Mexico
Netherlands
New Zealand
Nicaragua
Niger
Nigeria
Norway
Paraguay
Peru
Philippines
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Russia
Senegal
Singapore
South Africa
South Korea
Spain
Sri Lanka
Sweden
Switzerland
Taiwan
Tajikistan
Tanzania
Thailand
Turkey
Turkmenistan
Uganda
Ukraine
Uruguay
Uzbekistan
Venezuela
Vietnam
Other

2. Gender? *

- ☐ Male
☐ Female

3. Profession type? *

- ☐ Civilian
- ☐ Military

Institutional trust

4. Do you think that the following institutions are **honest**? *

	Very dishonest	Dishonest	Neutral	Honest	Very honest
Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer Municipality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Culture and Information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. Do you think that the following institutions are **kind**? *

	Very unkind	Unkind	Neutral	Kind	Very kind
Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer Municipality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Culture and Information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Do you think that the following institutions are **credible**? *

	Very uncredible	Uncredible	Neutral	Credible	Very credible
Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer Municipality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Culture and Information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. Do you think that the following institutions are **committed**? *

	Very uncommitted	Uncommitted	Neutral	Committed	Very committed
Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer Municipality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Culture and Information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Do you think that the following institutions are **fair**? *

	Very unfair	Unfair	Neutral	Fair	Very fair
Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer Municipality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Culture and Information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Do you think that the following institutions are **important**? *

	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important
Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Commerce and Industry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer Municipality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Committee for the Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ministry of Culture and Information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Please choose the answer that shows how much you agree or disagree with each one of the following statements: *

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have got a real interest in other countries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like watching movies from different countries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like listening to music of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like trying original dishes from other countries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Please choose the answer that shows how much you agree or disagree with each one of the following statements: *

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Only those products that are unavailable in Saudi Arabia should be imported.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saudi products, first, last, and foremost.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Saudi.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Saudis out of jobs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A real Saudi should always buy Saudi-made products.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi Arabia instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is always best to purchase Saudi products.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saudis should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Curbs should be put on all imports.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Saudi products.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Saudi Arabia.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudis out of work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Personality

12. Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

I see myself as some who .. *

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Is talkative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tends to find fault with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Does a thorough job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is depressed, blue	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is original, comes up with new ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Is reserved	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is helpful and unselfish with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Can be somewhat careless	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is relaxed, handles stress well	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is curious about many different things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Is full of energy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Starts quarrels with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is a reliable worker	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Can be tense	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is ingenious, a deep thinker	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Generates a lot of enthusiasm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has a forgiving nature	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tends to be disorganized	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Worries a lot	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has an active imagination	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Tends to be quiet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is generally trusting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tends to be lazy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Is inventive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Has an assertive personality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Can be cold and aloof	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Perseveres until the task is finished	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Can be moody	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Values artistic, aesthetic experiences					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Is sometimes shy, inhibited					
Is considerate and kind to almost everyone					
Does things efficiently					
Remains calm in tense situations					
Prefers work that is routine					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Is outgoing, sociable					
Is sometimes rude to others					
Makes plans and follows through with them					
Gets nervous easily					
Likes to reflect, play with ideas					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Has few artistic interests					
Likes to cooperate with others					
Is easily distracted					
Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature					

13. I am interested in your opinions about Aseer region as a vacation destination, **even if you have never been there before**. I am interested in your general impressions. Please choose the number on each of the 1 to 7 scales that most closely resembles your opinion. *

	Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	High 7
Quality of service	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Value for money	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Attractive scenery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Amount of wilderness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Variety of activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Originality of experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	High 7
Culturally interesting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Entertainment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shopping facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sport facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Memorability of experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ease of getting around	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	High 7
Ease of finding place of interest	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Accommodation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Selection of restaurants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Climate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Peaceful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
For the whole family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	High 7
Safety	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourist attractions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Your knowledge of the destination	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Have you been to Aseer region before? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

15. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following items: *

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Aseer region makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find Aseer region interesting in a sensory way	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region does not appeal to my senses	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region induces feelings and sentiments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not have strong emotions for Aseer region	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region is an emotional area	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I engage in physical activities and behaviours when I am in Aseer region	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region gives me bodily experiences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region is not activity oriented	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I engage in a lot of thinking when I am in Aseer region	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region does not make me think	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aseer region stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. I would be interested in your experience in Aseer. Please rate each of the following items according to your opinion. *

	Low 1	2	3	4	5	6	High 7
Overall satisfaction	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Proud to visit	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to travel to Aseer again	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to recommend Aseer to friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Overall rating of Aseer as a tourist destination	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. Generally speaking, do you think that being a female affects your tourism choices? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

18. Is this effect related to the requirement of a guardian approval to travel outside Saudi Arabia? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

19. If not, then how is being a female affects your tourism choices?

20. Generally speaking, do you prefer domestic or international tourism? *

- ☐ Domestic tourism
- ☐ International tourism

21. Being a female, what is the effect of each item mentioned below on your preference of international tourism? *

	Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	High	7
Enjoy more personal freedom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Freedom from social constraints	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social prestige	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ease of transportation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Because international destinations are simply better	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Meeting the people I like	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. Being a female, what is the effect of each item mentioned below on your preference of domestic tourism? *

	Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	High	7
Your religious beliefs	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Safety	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Avoiding what contradicts my principles	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Supporting domestic destinations	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Because domestic destinations are simply better	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Meeting the people I like	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Saving money	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐

For military staff

23. Generally speaking, do you think that being a military staff affects your tourism choices? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

24. Is this effect related to the requirement of your administration approval for traveling? *

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

25. If not, why do believe that being a military staff affects your tourism choices?

26. Generally speaking, do you prefer domestic or international tourism? *

- ☐ Domestic tourism
- ☐ International tourism

27. Please rate the effect of each of the following items on your preference of international tourism: *

	Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	High	7
Enjoying more personal freedom	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Freedom from social constraints	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Social prestige	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Ease of transportation	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Because international destinations are simply better	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Meeting the people I like	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

28. Please rate the effect of each of the following items on your preference of domestic tourism: *

	Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	High	7
Your religious beliefs	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Safety	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
To avoid what contradicts my principles	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Supporting domestic tourism	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Because domestic destinations are simply better	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Meeting the people I like	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Saving money	☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

Demographical information

29. Please specify your age on the scale below *

30. Please specify your income on the scale below in Saudi Riyals: *

31. What is your educational level? *

A dropdown menu with a white background and a grey border. It contains six options listed vertically: 'Elementary school', 'Middle school', 'High school', 'Diploma (Post High School)', 'University', and 'Masters/PhD'. To the right of the text is a vertical scrollbar with a grey track and a white handle.

- Elementary school
- Middle school
- High school
- Diploma (Post High School)
- University
- Masters/PhD

15.10 Appendix J: Mean and Standard Deviation scores of all items

Construct	No.	Item	Mean	Standard deviation
IT on SCTA	1	Honest	2.20	0.39
	2	Kind	3.18	0.97
	3	Credible	2.58	0.99
	4	Committed	2.36	1.04
	5	Fair	2.65	0.92
	6	Important	4.08	1.19
IT on The Ministry of Trade	1	Honest	3.44	1.20
	2	Kind	3.79	1.09
	3	Credible	3.64	1.15
	4	Committed	3.58	1.17
	5	Fair	3.55	1.11
	6	Important	4.72	0.65
IT on The Ministry of Transportation	1	Honest	2.08	0.91
	2	Kind	2.82	1.00
	3	Credible	2.44	0.98
	4	Committed	2.31	1.03
	5	Fair	2.44	0.94
	6	Important	4.58	0.82
IT on Municipality of Aseer	1	Honest	2.65	0.76
	2	Kind	2.97	0.74
	3	Credible	2.78	0.74
	4	Committed	2.73	0.77

	5	Fair	2.80	0.67
	6	Important	3.97	0.99
IT on CPVPV	1	Honest	2.68	1.26
	2	Kind	3.04	1.37
	3	Credible	2.77	1.28
	4	Committed	2.91	1.27
	5	Fair	2.69	1.19
	6	Important	3.29	1.57
IT on The Ministry of Culture	1	Honest	2.07	0.92
	2	Kind	2.71	0.98
	3	Credible	2.41	0.97
	4	Committed	2.39	1.01
	5	Fair	2.48	0.90
	6	Important	4.12	1.18
Ethnocentrism	1	Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.	2.80	1.13
	2	Only those products that are unavailable in Saudi Arabia should be imported.	3.02	1.26
	3	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.	3.64	1.03
	4	Saudi products, first, last, and foremost.	2.62	1.09
	5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un- Saudi .	1.65	0.76
	6	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Saudis out of jobs.	1.89	0.87
	7	A real Saudi should always buy Saudi-made products.	1.77	0.83
	8	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi Arabia instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	2.33	1.11
	9	It is always best to purchase Saudi products.	2.67	1.14
	10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	2.70	1.14
	11	Saudis should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.	2.11	0.90
	12	Curbs should be put on all imports.	2.81	1.20

	13	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Saudi products.	3.20	1.07
	14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	1.88	0.82
	15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Saudi Arabia .	2.31	1.07
	16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	2.60	1.21
	17	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudis out of work.	1.81	0.79
Cosmopolitanism	1	When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	3.62	1.04
	2	I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	4.21	0.81
	3	I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	4.30	0.77
	4	I have got a real interest in other countries.	4.28	0.77
	5	Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	3.90	0.94
	6	The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	4.17	0.84
	7	I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	4.26	0.81
	8	Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	3.33	1.19
	9	I like watching movies from different countries.	4.15	0.96
	10	I like listening to music of other cultures.	3.74	1.08
	11	I like trying original dishes from other countries.	4.01	0.98
	12	I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	3.95	0.88
Big Five Personality Types	1	Is talkative	2.70	1.05
	2	Tends to find fault with others	2.74	1.09
	3	Does a thorough job	3.69	0.93
	4	Is depressed, blue	3.69	0.94
	5	Is original, comes up with new ideas	2.15	0.96
	6	Is reserved	3.54	0.95
	7	Is helpful and unselfish with others	2.69	1.16

	8	Can be somewhat careless	3.32	1.06
	9	Is relaxed, handles stress well	3.74	0.99
	10	Is curious about many different things	4.22	0.77
	11	Is full of energy	3.12	1.13
	12	Starts quarrels with others	4.06	0.89
	13	Is a reliable worker	3.36	1.06
	14	Can be tense	2.85	1.15
	15	Is ingenious, a deep thinker	4.13	0.76
	16	Generates a lot of enthusiasm	3.39	1.08
	17	Has a forgiving nature	4.05	0.81
	18	Tends to be disorganized	3.92	0.87
	19	Worries a lot	2.78	1.13
	20	Has an active imagination	4.29	0.73
	21	Tends to be quiet	2.95	1.25
	22	Is generally trusting	2.99	1.12
	23	Tends to be lazy	3.99	0.82
	24	Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	4.07	0.75
	25	Is inventive	3.47	0.98
	26	Has an assertive personality	3.02	1.07
	27	Can be cold and aloof	2.44	1.11
	28	Perseveres until the task is finished	2.65	1.05
	29	Can be moody	3.95	0.80
	30	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	3.70	1.09
	31	Is sometimes shy, inhibited	2.81	1.09
	32	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	3.80	1.01
	33	Does things efficiently	2.53	1.00
	34	Remains calm in tense situations	2.73	1.08
	35	Prefers work that is routine	3.83	0.82
	36	Is outgoing, sociable	4.05	0.90

	37	Is sometimes rude to others	3.68	0.94
	38	Makes plans and follows through with them	4.14	0.86
	39	Gets nervous easily	3.63	0.85
	40	Likes to reflect, play with ideas	4.25	0.81
	41	Has few artistic interests	3.51	1.09
	42	Likes to cooperate with others	4.05	0.73
	43	Is easily distracted	3.35	1.19
	44	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	3.15	1.13
Tourist destination image	1	Quality of service	2.61	1.41
	2	Value of money	2.84	1.74
	3	Attractive scenery	4.47	1.78
	4	Amount of wilderness	4.70	1.66
	5	Variety of activities	2.39	1.39
	6	Originality of experience	3.15	1.62
	7	Culturally interesting	3.68	1.94
	8	Entertainment	2.22	1.36
	9	Shopping facilities	2.36	1.38
	10	Sport facilities	2.08	1.22
	11	Memorability of experience	3.01	1.82
	12	Ease of getting around	2.66	1.53
	13	Ease of finding place of interest	2.70	1.55
	14	Accommodation	2.37	1.45
	15	Selection of restaurants	2.55	1.49
	16	Climate	5.50	1.62
	17	Peaceful	4.15	1.82
	18	For the whole family	4.31	1.96
	19	Safety	4.24	1.85
	20	Your knowledge of the destination	3.27	1.73
	21	Tourist attractions	3.32	1.90

Destination brand experience	1	Aseer region makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways	3.46	1.08
	2	I find Aseer region interesting in a sensory way	3.56	1.05
	3	Aseer region does not appeal to my senses	3.44	1.07
	4	Aseer region induces feelings and sentiments	3.37	1.07
	5	I do not have strong emotions for Aseer region	3.16	1.17
	6	Aseer region is an emotional area	3.09	1.08
	7	I engage in physical activities and behaviors when I am in Aseer region	2.49	0.99
	8	Aseer region gives me bodily experiences	2.64	1.03
	9	Aseer region is not activity oriented	2.20	1.02
	10	I engage in a lot of thinking when I am in Aseer region	3.09	0.97
	11	Aseer region does not make me think	3.28	0.95
	12	Aseer region stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	3.25	1.01
Tourist satisfaction	1	Overall satisfaction	2.46	1.06
	2	Proud to visit	3.06	1.33
	3	Overall rating of Aseer as a tourist destination	2.55	1.26
	4	Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations	2.43	1.28

15.11 Appendix K: Skewness and Kurtosis of all variables

		Skewness	Kurtosis
Demographics	Age	1.48	4.02
	Annual income	1.93	3.45
	Education	-1.39	3.46
Institutional trust in SCTA	Honesty	0.39	-0.29
	Kindness	-0.55	-0.03
	Credibility	0.17	-0.79
	Commitment	0.38	-0.77
	Fairness	-0.13	-0.40
Institutional trust in The Ministry of Trade	Honesty	-0.50	-0.78
	Kindness	-0.84	0.09
	Credibility	-0.75	-0.30
	Commitment	-0.66	-0.50
	Fairness	-0.60	-0.32
Institutional trust in The Ministry of Transportation	Honesty	0.49	-0.36
	Kindness	-0.11	-0.53
	Credibility	0.19	-0.69
	Commitment	0.34	-0.76

	Fairness	0.02	-0.72
The Municipality of Aseer	Honesty	-0.83	0.71
	Kindness	-0.46	1.88
	Credibility	-0.67	1.21
	Commitment	-0.69	0.75
	Fairness	-0.90	1.93
CPVPV	Honesty	0.10	-1.11
	Kindness	-0.20	-1.19
	Credibility	0.04	-1.14
	Commitment	-0.11	-1.06
	Fairness	0.03	-0.96
Institutional trust in The Ministry of Culture	Honesty	0.67	-0.07
	Kindness	-0.12	-0.60
	Credibility	0.22	-0.68
	Commitment	0.30	-0.71
	Fairness	-0.08	-0.62
Importance of institutions	IT:Imp:SCTA	-1.27	0.59
	IT:Imp:Trade	-3.11	11.44
	IT:Imp:Transpo	-2.34	5.61
	IT:Imp:Muni	-0.67	-0.07
	IT:Imp:CPVPV	-0.34	-1.45
	IT:Imp:Culture	-1.33	0.80
Consumer Cosmopolitanism	When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	-0.75	-0.12

	I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	-1.21	1.93
	I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	-1.24	2.01
	I have got a real interest in other countries.	-1.08	1.37
	Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	-0.75	0.14
	The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	-1.11	1.39
	I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	-1.27	2.04
	Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	-0.26	-1.02
	I like watching movies from different countries.	-1.13	0.82
	I like listening to music of other cultures.	-0.65	-0.31
	I like trying original dishes from other countries.	-0.94	0.37
	I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	-0.78	0.42
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Saudi people should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.	0.30	-0.75
	Only those products that are unavailable in Saudi Arabia should be imported.	0.16	-1.22
	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi Arabia working.	-0.68	-0.07
	Saudi products, first, last, and foremost.	0.52	-0.34
	Purchasing foreign-made products is un- Saudi .	1.32	2.37
	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Saudis out of jobs.	1.12	1.43
	A real Saudi should always buy Saudi-made products.	1.27	2.02
	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi Arabia instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	0.58	-0.57
	It is always best to purchase Saudi products.	0.18	-0.93

	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	0.32	-0.82
	Saudis should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.	0.99	1.17
	Curbs should be put on all imports.	0.15	-1.00
	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Saudi products.	-0.30	-0.65
	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	1.31	2.71
	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Saudi Arabia .	0.64	-0.29
	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	0.37	-0.94
	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudis out of work.	1.19	2.33
Extroversion	EP1	0.34	-0.83
	EP6R	0.28	-0.77
	EP11	-0.49	-0.20
	EP16	-0.44	-0.37
	EP21R	0.78	0.16
	EP26	-0.40	-0.32
	EP31R	0.26	-0.99
	EP36	-0.28	-0.68
Agreeableness	AP2R	-0.67	-0.11
	AP7	-1.16	2.15
	AP12R	-0.13	-0.96
	AP17	-1.08	1.20

	AP22	-0.44	-0.63
	AP27R	0.13	-1.02
	AP32	-0.75	0.54
	AP37R	-0.20	-0.97
	AP42	-1.07	1.83
Consciousness	CP3	-0.82	0.56
	CP8R	0.35	-0.94
	CP13	-1.00	1.35
	CP18R	0.05	-1.17
	CP23R	0.02	-0.92
	CP28	-0.76	0.65
	CP33	-0.78	0.99
	CP38	-0.44	-0.37
	CP43R	-0.10	-1.00
Neuroticism	NP4	0.48	-0.65
	NP9R	0.30	-0.68
	NP14	-0.93	1.31
	NP24R	0.13	-0.86
	NP29	-0.80	0.09
	NP34R	0.36	-0.52
	NP39	0.29	-0.86
Openness to experience	OP5	-0.57	0.29
	OP10	-1.06	1.09

	OP15	-0.33	-0.47
	OP20	-0.96	0.71
	OP25	-0.22	-0.29
	OP30	-1.14	1.43
	OP35R	-0.51	-0.60
	OP40	-0.69	0.96
	OP41R	-0.23	-1.09
	OP44	-0.02	-0.90
Domestic Tourist Destination image	Quality of service	0.58	-0.17
	Value of money	0.78	-0.17
	Attractive scenery	-0.23	-0.87
	Amount of wilderness	-0.31	-0.69
	Variety of activities	0.84	0.17
	Originality of experience	0.40	-0.50
	Culturally interesting	0.16	-1.08
	Entertainment	1.05	0.64
	Shopping facilities	0.87	0.20
	Sport facilities	1.08	0.77
	Memorability of experience	0.58	-0.67
	Ease of getting around	0.68	-0.22
	Ease of finding place of interest	0.66	-0.33
	Accommodation	0.89	0.14
	Selection of restaurants	0.72	-0.28

	Climate	-1.14	0.69
	Peaceful	-0.14	-0.88
	For the whole family	-0.20	-1.08
	Safety	-0.16	-0.94
	Your knowledge of the destination	0.37	-0.70
	Tourist attractions	0.33	-0.94
Intention to visit (First time)		0.41	0.15
Destination Brand Experience	Aseer region makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways	-0.69	-0.22
	I find Aseer region interesting in a sensory way	-0.76	0.01
	Aseer region does not appeal to my senses	-0.60	-0.42
	Aseer region induces feelings and sentiments	-0.53	-0.46
	I do not have strong emotions for Aseer region	-0.15	-0.94
	Aseer region is an emotional area	-0.15	-0.60
	I engage in physical activities and behaviors when I am in Aseer region	0.32	-0.57
	Aseer region gives me bodily experiences	0.12	-0.82
	Aseer region is not activity oriented	0.80	0.25
	I engage in a lot of thinking when I am in Aseer region	-0.08	-0.29
	Aseer region does not make me think	-0.21	-0.20
	Aseer region stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	-0.29	-0.34
Satisfaction	Overall satisfaction	0.29	-0.50
	Proud to visit	-0.03	-1.10
	Overall rating of Aseer as a tourist destination	0.37	-0.84
	Rating of Aseer as a destination compared to other destinations	0.49	-0.86

Intention-revisit		0.26	-1.31
Intention-recommend		0.44	-1.04
Touristic preference		-2.75	5.55
International preferences reasons	IP1	-1.03	-0.13
	IP2	-0.60	-1.12
	IP3	0.41	-1.12
	IP4	-1.01	-0.01
	IP5	-2.06	4.18
	IP6	-0.66	-0.61
Domestic preferences reasons	DP1	-0.49	-1.13
	DP2	-1.50	1.30
	DP3	-0.58	-0.98
	DP4	-0.37	-1.29
	DP5	0.65	-0.63
	DP6	-0.67	-0.78
	DP7	0.13	-1.22
Female special effect?		-0.91	-1.17
Guardian approval effect?		-0.89	-1.21
Administration approval effect?		0.55	-1.76
Military special effect?		-1.47	0.16

15.12 Appendix L: Informed consent form

Informed Consent

I have volunteered to participate in a research project conducted by *Mohammed Alwan* from *Carleton University*. I understand that the project is designed to gather information about academic work on campus. I will be one of approximately 500 people being asked to answer this questionnaire.

1. My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. If I decline to participate or withdraw from the study, no one will be told.
2. I understand that I have the right to decline to answer any question.
3. I understand that the researcher will not identify me by name in any reports using information obtained from this questionnaire, and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies, which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.
4. I understand that the researcher will do his best to guarantee both the anonymity of my identity and the confidentiality the information I provide in the questionnaire. However, due to the limited number of participants, I understand that there is a possibility beyond the researcher's control that my identity could be guessed.
5. I understand that the data collected through the online version of this questionnaire might be hosted in the United States and, therefore, subject to the U.S. Patriot Act.
6. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

15.13 Appendix M: Interview protocol

The interviews protocol consisted of six main questions:

No.	Questions
1	This study has found a strong relationship between tourists' level of trust in the SCTA/Municipality of Aseer and how they perceive the image of the Aseer region as a tourist destination. Do you find this relationship reasonable? Has it been considered in any of your strategies before?
2	Some personal factors, such as ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and personality type have been found to influence the TDI of Aseer. Have these factors been incorporated in your strategy of promoting domestic tourism?
3	Destination brand experience has a direct influence on TS, which in turn influences the intention to re-visit and recommend. How do you think the DBE could be ensured to be positive?
4	This study has revealed shocking statistics about Saudi citizens' preferences regarding tourism. Almost 90% of them, male and female, prefer international tourism. Your numbers have detected that indeed. What do you think the main reasons are behind the domestic destinations failing to compete with international destinations?
5	Do you think that bundled domestic vacation packages are rare? If so, why?
6	Many female respondents have highlighted the issue of the difficulty of finding a proper means of transportation in domestic destinations. What do you think about this issue? How do you think it could be addressed in a wider domestic tourism strategy?