An Examination of Effects of Self-Concept, Destination Personality, and SC-DP Congruence on Tourist Behavior

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ABSTRACT

Factors influencing tourist behavior have been a focal point in tourism research for decades. Efforts to unveil the determinants that shape travel behavior stem not only from pure academic interest, but from practical business considerations (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999). Destination personality, self-concept, and congruence between self-concept and destination personality (SC-DP congruence) are among the factors that are believed to influence tourist behavior. However, little research has been undertaken to understand the impact of these factors on tourist behavior. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects destination personality, self-concept and SC-DP congruence on tourist behavior.

A theoretical model that attempts to investigate the influence of destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence on tourist behavior was developed and tested empirically. Specifically, the model proposed that tourist behavior is affected by destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence. Particularly, self-concept consists of four aspects, including actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, social self-concept, and ideal social self-concept; hence SC-DP congruence also includes fours such facets. Furthermore, tourist involvement is examined to see whether it would moderate the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior.

Data were collected using an online panel survey in December 2008. A total of 663 usable responses were obtained. Pearson correlation, structural equation modeling (SEM), and hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to test the hypotheses. For the SEM analysis, the sample was randomly split into two groups. One was used to test the model and the other was used for model validation.

The findings suggested significant influences of destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence on tourist behavior. Findings of this study also showed that there are significant and positive relationships between destination personality and self-concept.

However, tourist involvement was found to have no moderating effect on the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. The study also provided managerial implications for destination marketers based on the research results.

DEDICATION

To my husband, Jiang Wu and daughter, Zining Serena Wu

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this dissertation is to propose a theoretical model that attempts to investigate the influence of self-congruence on tourist behavior. Specifically, this study attempts to examine the structural relationships among the following constructs: self-concept, destination personality, self-congruency (congruency between self-concept and destination personality, hence SC-DP congruence hereafter), and tourist behavior. In addition, self-concept consists of four aspects, including actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, social self-concept, and ideal social self-concept; hence SC-DP congruence also includes fours facets: actual SC-DP congruence (congruency between actual self-concept and destination personality), ideal SC-DP congruence (congruency between ideal self-concept and destination personality), social SC-DP congruence (congruency between social self-concept and destination personality), and ideal social SC-DP congruence (congruency between ideal social self-concept and destination personality). Furthermore, tourist involvement is examined to see whether it would moderate the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Factors influencing tourist behavior have been a focal point in tourism research for decades. Efforts to unveil the determinants that shape travel behavior stem not only from pure academic interest, but from practical business considerations (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999). Sirgy and Su (2000) pointed out that past research efforts have focused on the issues of what, when, where, and how to purchase, but not much on why to purchase. Therefore, further analysis of why tourists make their choices is much needed (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007). Tourism literature has explored some critical concepts such as push and pull factors (Bellenger, Steinberg, & Stanton, 1976; Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; H.-S. Kim, 2000; Phillips & Jang, 2007; Pyo, Mihalik, & Uysal, 1989; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994); destination image (Goodrich, 1978; Hunt, 1975; Long-Yi & Chun-Shuo, 2006; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Phillips & Jang, 2007; Sirgy & Su, 2000); novelty seeking (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Crotts,

1993; Snepenger, 1987); psychographics (Plog, 1974, , 1991, , 2002). However, other topics, such as self-concept, destination personality, and self-congruity, have been largely ignored in tourism research (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Ksatenholz, 2004).

It has long been established in consumer behavior literature that a consumer's purchase decision-making process not only involves the evaluation of the functional attributes, but also the value-expressive or symbolic attributes of a product (Levy, 1959). Functional or utilitarian attributes refer to the tangible performance characteristics related to a product, while value-expressive or personality-related attributes are reflected in the stereotypic images of the product user (Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy & Johar, 1985). Tourism, as a product, consists of both functional and value-expressive attributes. A tourism destination can have functional attributes as it can provide tourists with natural attractions, sports activities, historic sites, museums, etc, which have been heavily researched in the stream of tourism destination image study. At the same time, the tourism product is heavily intangible and provides value-expressive attributes. Some of those attributes are personified. For instance, in discussing the New Asia-Singapore branding process, Henderson (2000) identified five personality characteristics, including cosmopolitan, youthful, vibrant, modern, reliability, and comfort.

The idea that brands can be described in terms of a set of personality traits can be traced back to Gardner and Levy (1955) and Martineau (1958). The concept of brand personality has also been accepted by most marketing academics and practitioners (Jennifer L. Aaker & Fournier, 1995; Gardner & Levy, 1955). It is argued that a well-established brand personality can help to differentiate among brands (Brïdson & Evans, 2004; Plummer, 1984), add value (Brïdson & Evans, 2004; McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999), help consumers develop emotional attachment to a brand to enhance brand equity (Keller, 1993; Phau & Lau, 2000), augment the personal meaning of a brand to the consumer (Gardner & Levy, 1955; Levy, 1959), influence consumer preference and purchase (Malhotra, 1988), build relationships with consumers to increase brand loyalty (D. A. Aaker, 1996; Fournier, 1998), and help consumers to better express their self-concept (Belk, 1988; Belk, Bahn, & Mayer, 1982; Birdwell, 1968; Sirgy, 1982). Along a similar line, a distinctive destination personality can help differentiate among destinations (Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007), influence destination preference and choice behavior (Crockett & Wood, 1999, , 2002; Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007), positively improve destination image (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006, , 2007), and enhance tourist loyalty (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Although destination personality is an important topic of study, its research is only on its

infancy. In addition, despite the growing body of literature on destination branding, there is little empirical evidence that visitors can and do associate brand personality characteristics with destinations (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Neither have the links between brand personality and self-concept been explored (Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007). As a result, more academic effort is needed in this area (Ekinci, 2003; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006, 2007; Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007).

Self-concept and self-congruence are two important concepts in consumer behavior research. Most of the time, they are mentioned and tested together. Gardner and Levy (1955) initiated the concept of self-congruence, stating that consumers prefer products with images that are congruent with their self-concept. Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) formally proposed that consumer self-concept affects their consumption behavior. Research focusing on the impact of consumer self-concept, and self-congruence on their choice process has been proliferating in the marketing literature, especially during the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s. It is argued that the perceived congruency between a product's user image and the consumer's self-concept can positively influence the consumer's purchase intention (Birdwell, 1968; Dolich, 1969; Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967; Grubb & Hupp, 1968; Grubb & Stern, 1971; Hamm & Cundiff, 1969; Hughes & Guerrero, 1971; Kassarjian, 1971; Landon, 1974; Malhotra, 1988; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Ross, 1971; Sirgy, 1982, , 1985; Sirgy & Samli, 1985; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). A positive relation has been shown between self-congruence and product consumption in the context of automobiles (Birdwell, 1968; Grubb & Hupp, 1968; Grubb & Stern, 1971; Hughes & Guerrero, 1971; Karande, Zinkhan, & Lum, 1997; Ross, 1971), household products (Dolich, 1969; Landon, 1974), cigarettes (Dolich, 1969), beer and drinks (Graeff, 1997; Hogg, Cox, & Keeling, 2000), houses (Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, Grzeskowiak, & Su, 2005), stores (Martineau, 1958; Sirgy & Samli, 1985; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977), magazines (Ross, 1971).

Chon (1990) first introduced the constructs of self-concept and self-congruence into tourism research. He found that the higher the congruence between self-concept and destination image, the greater the satisfaction of the tourists. Sirgy and Su (2000) also proposed that the greater the match between the tourist's self-concept and destination visitor image, the more likely the tourist has a positive attitude toward that destination, thus the more likely the tourist would prefer and visit that destination. Although several articles have attempted to verify the roles of self-concept and self-congruity in the setting of the tourism and hospitality industry (Back, 2005; Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Chon, 1992; Chon & Olsen, 1991; Ekinci & Riley, 2003; Goh & Litvin, 2000; Litvin & Goh, 2002; Litvin, Goh, &

Goldsmith, 2001; Litvin & Kar, 2003; Sirgy & Su, 2000; Todd, 2001), self-image-destination image congruity is still a topic that has been under-studied in the discipline of tourism and hospitality marketing and more empirical evidence is needed to clarify the role of self-congruity in tourist's destination choice process (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Sirgy & Su, 2000). Furthermore, the mixed results of self-congruity research in tourism also suggest further validation of the application of self-congruity, the relationship between self-image, destination image, and destination selection in tourism research (Litvin & Goh, 2002).

In addition, the application of self-concept in tourism research focuses mostly on actual self-concept. However, self-concept is a multidimensional construct. According to Sirgy (1982), consumer researchers have generally used four aspects of self-image in explaining and predicting consumer behavior. These four aspects of self-image are actual self-concept, social self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept. Therefore, more empirical study is needed to examine the application of all the four dimensions of self-concept in the context of tourism (Sirgy & Su, 2000; Todd, 2001).

Most of the studies focusing on self-congruity in tourism literature conceptualize self-congruity as a matching process between a tourist's self-concept and destination visitor image (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Chon, 1990; Chon & Olsen, 1991; Goh & Litvin, 2000; Litvin & Goh, 2002; Litvin, Goh, & Goldsmith, 2001; Litvin & Kar, 2003; Sirgy & Su, 2000). However, the congruence between tourist's self-concept and destination personality (SC-DP congruence) has rarely been tested. Ekinci and Hosany (2006) suggested future studies could assess the direct impact of SC-DP congruence on destination choice. Murphy, Moscardo and Benckendorff (2007) also requested further research to investigate the link between self-concept, brand personality, and visitation.

The concept of involvement has been extensively studied by consumer behavior scholars, and is thought to exert a considerable influence over consumers' decision processes (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). In addition, involvement has been recognized as a useful moderating variable with respect to consumer behavior (Bloch, 1981). It has also been proposed that the concept of involvement should be helpful to self-concept research because they both deal with self-relevant information (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Xue, 2008). However, there are only a handful papers that have examined the moderating relationship between self-congruity and decision-making, especially in the field of tourism. Even though, the results are mixed. Therefore, although involvement is important for self-concept research, more research is needed for better understanding of the relationship between product involvement and self-congruence (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Sirgy

& Su, 2000).Therefore, one of the main focuses in this study is to further investigate the interactions between involvement, self-congruence and tourist behavior. More specifically, the study also examines the moderating effect of involvement on the relationship between self-congruence and tourist behavior.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to better understand the relationships among self-concept, destination personality, SC-DP congruence, and tourist behavior, this study aims to conceptualize, develop and test a model which describes the above mentioned relationships. In particular, research questions related to the purpose of the study include:

Research question 1: What is the relationship between self-concept and destination personality?

Research question 2: How is tourist behavior influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence individually?

Research question 3: What is the moderating effect of tourist involvement on the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior?

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the research questions, research hypotheses are proposed to determine how tourist behavior is influenced by the following factors: self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence.

H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.

- H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.
- H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.
- H1.3: There is a relationship between social self-concept and destination personality.
- H1.4: There is a relationship between ideal social self-concept and destination personality.

H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.3: Social self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.4: Ideal social self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.1: Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.3: Social SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.4: Ideal social SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H5: The relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.1: The relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.2: The relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.3: The relationship between social SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.4: The relationship between ideal social SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

1.5 KNOWLEDGE FOUNDATION

The theoretical basis for this study comes from symbolic interactionism. Generally speaking, symbolic interactionism is based on the premise that individuals interact with society and their reference groups to determine how their behaviors should be formed. Specifically, there are three basic premises (Blumer, 1969, p. 2).

1. Human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things

have for them.

2. The meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellows. That is to say, meanings are seen as social products.
3. These meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretative process used by the person in dealing with the things he encounters. In the process of interpretation, meanings are used and modified to guide and form the person's action.

It is argued that sellers not only sell products and services, they also sell symbols. Along the similar line, consumers not only buy goods and services because of what they can do, but also what they mean, personal meaning and social meaning (Leigh & Gabel, 1992; Levy, 1959; Solomon, 1983). Therefore, the goods and services serve as a means of communication between the buyers and the society and their significant others. From this standpoint of view, symbolic interactionism is manifested in consumer behavior in the form of symbolic consumption (Leigh & Gabel, 1992; Solomon, 1983). For that reason, symbolic interactionism offers a theoretically sound way of conceptualizing product choice and consumption for products with symbolic values.

Solomon (1983) attempted to link consumption to the creation of meaning in the consumer behavior research from the perspective of symbolic interactionism. He made a link between consumption of products and how symbolic interaction defines objects, primarily how it defines the self as a social object. He argued that symbolic qualities of products are often determinants of product evaluation and adoption, and consumer products are used as a tool for individuals to develop an image consistent with the products purchased and consumed. The essence of his research lies in the following points: (p.326-227)

1. The symbolism embedded in many products is the primary reason for their purchase and use.
2. Individuals are evaluated and placed in a social nexus to a significant degree by the products which surround them.
3. The reflexive evaluation construct implies that the product symbolism which is instrumental in assigning meaning to others is also used by individuals to assign social identity to themselves.
4. The outcome of this self-definition process guides behavior via the script that is evoked.
5. Symbolic consumption can exert an a priori effect on role definition and

interaction, especially in situations where internalized behavioral responses are lacking.

Leigh and Gabel (1992) also examined the concept of symbolic interactionism in explaining the phenomena that people purchase a good or service on the basis of what it represents to themselves and to their significant others. He proposed several propositions based on his observations (p.7):

1. The symbolic meaning of products is ultimately defined by society.
2. Products can be viewed as causes of behavior, in addition to their role as satisfiers of, or responses to need. Specifically, the symbols attached to product by a certain relevant referent may cause a consumer to act. Symbolic meaning can serve to either increase or decrease the likelihood of purchase, depending on whether the consumer identifies with or holds negative attitudes toward the reference group, respectively.
3. Product symbolism affects the formation of an individual's self concept. The way a consumer sees others evaluating him is based, in part, on the products possessed and consumed.
4. The more complete and consistent the set of product symbols possessed by a consumer, the higher the probability of successful role performance.
5. Symbolic purchasing behavior is more likely to be exhibited when the consumer lacks knowledge about how to perform a certain required role.
6. Although products are purchased because of the symbols attached to them at a societal or group level, this symbolism may be consumed on individual, private basis.

Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) proposed a model of consumer behavior based on self-theory and goods as symbols, which also provides a theoretical ground for this study (p.25-26).

1. An individual does have a self-concept of himself.
2. The self-concept is of value to him.
3. Because this self-concept is of value to him, an individual's behavior will be directed toward the furtherance and enhancement of his self-concept.
4. An individual's self-concept is formed through the interaction process with parents, peers, teachers, and significant others.
5. Goods serve as social symbols and, therefore, are communication devices for the individual.

6. The use of these good-symbols communicates meaning to the individual himself and to others, causing an impact on the intra-action and/or the interaction processes and, therefore, an effect on the individual's self-concept.
7. Therefore, the consuming behavior of an individual will be directed toward the furthering and enhancing of his self-concept through the consumption of goods as symbols.

1.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Figures 1.1a and 1.1b depict the proposed theoretical models in this study. Figure 1.1a shows that self-concept and destination personality are interrelated. Figure 1.1b illustrates the structural relationships among self-concept, destination personality, SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. It demonstrates that tourist behavior is influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence. Tourist involvement serves as a moderator in the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. Figures 1.2a and 1.2b represent the models with sub-constructs for the main concepts: self-concept, destination personality, SC-DP congruence, and tourist behavior. Self-concept includes actual self-concept, social self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept. Accordingly, SC-DP congruence includes actual SC-DP congruence, social SC-DP congruence, ideal SC-DP congruence, and ideal social SC-DP congruence. Tourist behavior is operationalized as destination preference.

Figure 1.1 Proposed Model

Figure 1.1a Interrelationship between Self-Concept and Destination Personality

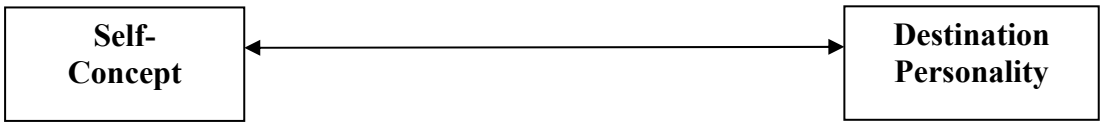


Figure 1.1b Structural Relationships

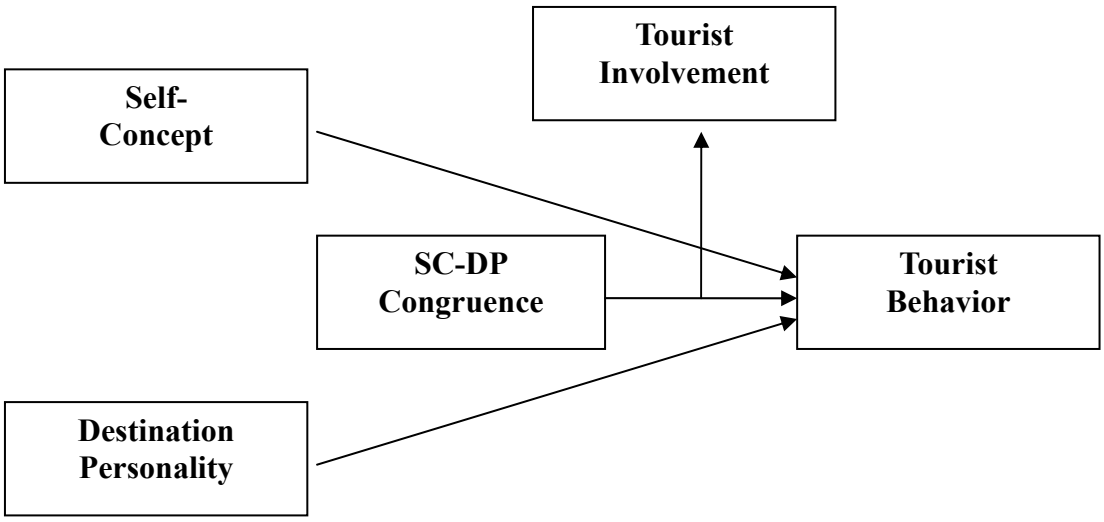


Figure 1.2 Proposed Model with Sub-Constructs

Figure 1.2a Interrelationship between Self-Concept and Destination Personality

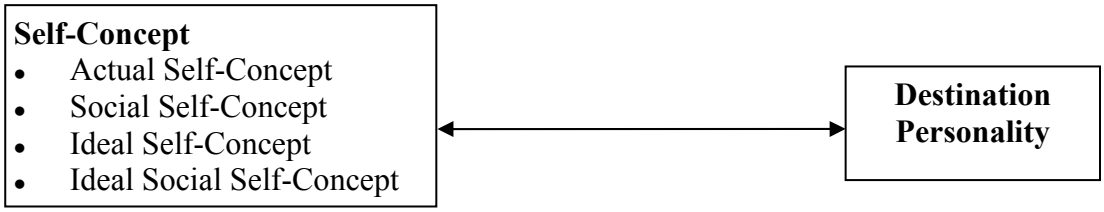
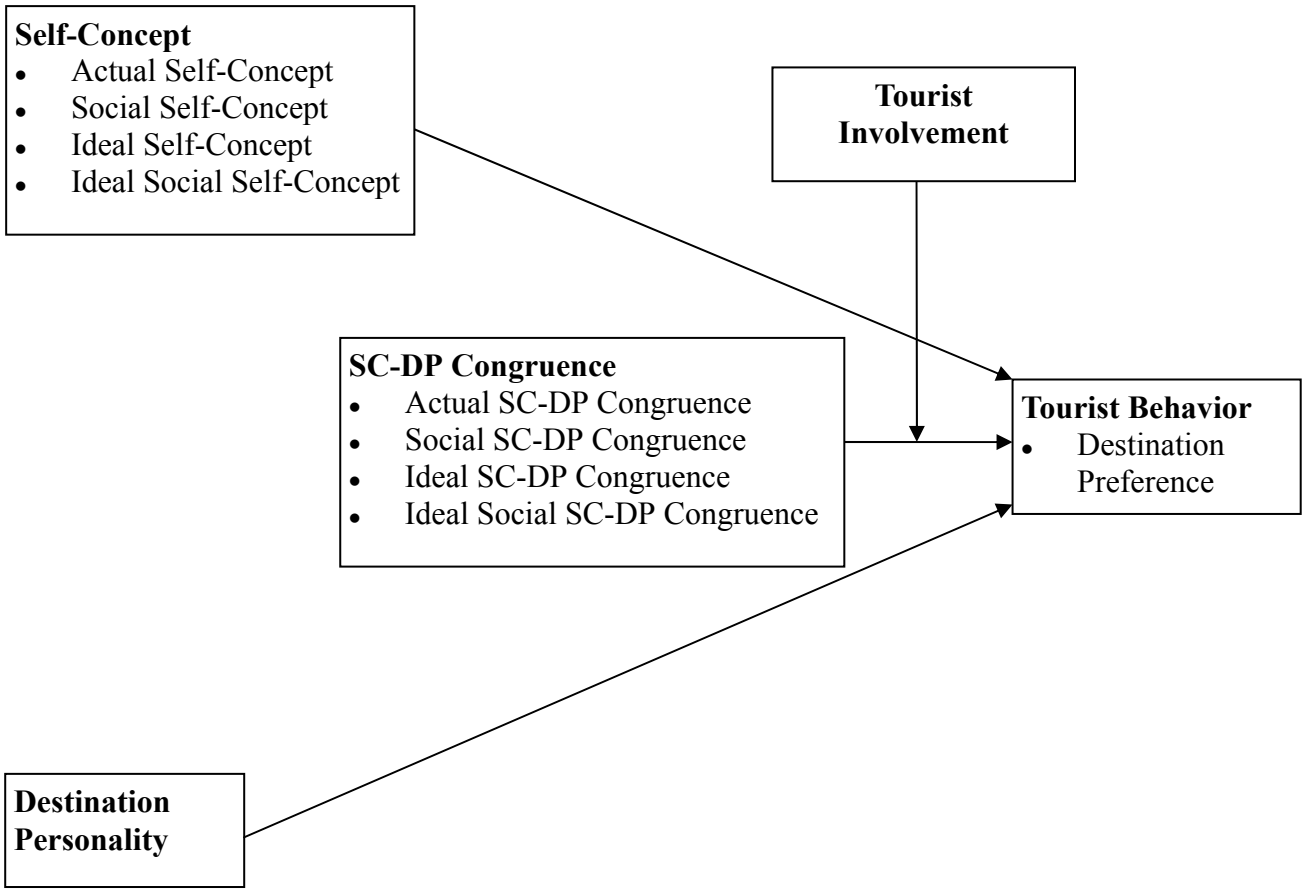


Figure 1.2b Structural Relationships



1.7 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The potential contribution of this study can be discussed from both theoretical and practical perspectives. This study contributes to the theoretical advancement in the field of tourism research by introducing congruence between self-concept and destination personality, and investigating the impact of such congruence on tourist behavior. This study provides empirical tests of the relationships among self-concept, destination personality, congruence between self-concept and destination personality, and tourist behavior.

From the practical perspective, the findings of this study explain how tourist behavior is influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and congruence between self-concept and destination personality. The results will help destination managers and marketers with the planning of strategic marketing programs, such as how to build a strong and distinct destination personality that is congruent with their targeted tourist markets through advertising messages and promotion programs.

1.8 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

Brand personality: A brand is perceived to possess a personality in much the same way as humans. Therefore, brand personality can be defined as the set of human characteristics associated with a brand and it tends to serve a symbolic or self-expressive function (Jennifer L. Aaker, 1997). According to Aaker (1997), there are five dimensions under brand personality, including sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness.

Destination personality: It can be defined as the set of human characteristics associated with a destination as perceived from a tourist (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Destination personality is made up of three dimensions: sincerity, excitement, and conviviality.

Self-concept: In the literature, self-concept and self-image are interchangeable. Self-concept denotes the "totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as an object" (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 7). Sirgy (1982) pointed out that, generally, consumer researchers have used four aspects of self-concept in explaining and predicting

consumer behaviors. He described four aspects of self-concept based on the individual's perspective: namely, actual self-concept, social self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept.

- **Actual self-concept:** It can be defined as how a person sees himself or herself. For instance, a person may think of himself or herself as modern.
- **Social self-concept:** It can be defined as how others see him or her. For instance, others may think of him or her as somewhat modern.
- **Ideal self-concept:** It can be defined by how a person would like to see himself or herself. For instance, a person would like himself or herself as very modern.
- **Ideal social self-concept:** It can be described as how a person would like others to see him or her. For instance, a person would like others to think of him or her as very modern.

Self-congruence: In the consumer research, self-congruence can be defined as a process of cognitively matching a consumer's self-concept with the product-user image (Sirgy, 1982, , 1985). In this study, self-congruence is defined as the cognitive matching process between a tourist's self-concept and the destination personality, SC-DP congruence. Similarly, as four aspects of self-concept are explored in this study, there are four aspects of SC-DP congruence.

- **Actual SC-DP congruence:** It is defined as the cognitive matching process between a tourist's actual self-concept and the destination personality.
- **Social SC-DP congruence:** It is defined as the cognitive matching process between a tourist's social self-concept and the destination personality.
- **Ideal SC-DP congruence:** It is defined as the cognitive matching process between a tourist's ideal self-concept and the destination personality.
- **Ideal social SC-DP congruence:** It is defined as the cognitive matching process between a tourist's ideal social self-concept and the destination personality.

Tourist involvement: Havitz & Dimanche (1990) proposed a definition of involvement in the leisure and tourism domain based on Rothschild's (1984) definition: "Involvement is a psychological state of motivation, arousal, or interest between an individual and recreational activities, tourist destinations, or related equipment, at one point in time, characterized by the perception of the following elements: importance, pleasure value, sign value, risk probability, and risk consequences" (p. 184).

1.9 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I presented the overview of the study, including the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, the research questions, the research hypotheses, knowledge foundation, and theoretical model of the study which is the basis of this study. The key concepts were also defined in this chapter. Chapter II presents an extended literature review relevant to the proposed model and the key constructs, namely, self-concept, brand personality and destination personality, self-congruency, and their relationship with tourist behavior. Chapter III focuses on the research framework. Specifically, a detailed discussion is provided with the research design, the development of the survey instrument, sampling procedure, and procedures of data analysis. Chapter IV reports the results of the pretest and the analyses of the proposed hypotheses and theoretical model. Chapter V includes the summary and discussions of the hypotheses testing. Furthermore, both theoretical and managerial implications of the findings are discussed. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are proposed.

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a review of the literature pertaining to the constructs of proposed model of this study, including brand personality and destination personality, self-concept, self-congruence, and the moderator. This chapter also presents the proposed model with the hypotheses established by the theoretical framework of this study to be empirically tested.

2.2 BRAND PERSONALITY AND DESTINATION PERSONALITY

2.2.1 Definitions

The idea that brands can be described in terms of a set of personality traits can be traced back to Gardner and Levy (1955) and Martineau (1958). The concept of brand personality has also been accepted by most marketing academics and practitioners (Jennifer L. Aaker & Fournier, 1995; Gardner & Levy, 1955). Just as David Ogilvy (1983, p. 14) stated: "Products, like people, have personalities, and they can make them or break them in the marketplace". For example, Coca Cola may be described as young, fun and sporty, and Chanel described as glamorous, stylish and upper class. Such characteristics, deemed as part of brand personality, are used to form impressions of and preference for a particular brand. Consumers tend to identify personally with certain brands or use brands as a means of self-expression (H.-S. Kim, 2000).

Plummer (1984) asserted that any brand can be described in terms of three different classes of characteristics: physical attributes, functional characteristics, and characterizational aspects or brand's personality. Sirgy (1985) also argued that may products are assumed to have personality traits which are not solely determined by the actual physical characteristics but also by a bundle of other factors such as advertising, price, stereotype of the generalized users, and other marketing and psychological associations. Belk (1988) claimed that possession of certain products can reflect part of the owner's personality. Aaker and Fournier (1995) stated that although brands are not people, they can be personified. Aaker (1997)

thought that it is possible that consumers often give brands human personality traits due to the self-expressive or symbolic meaning the brands possess. Keller concurred that "brand personality reflects how people feel about a brand" (Keller, 1998, p. 97). Phau and Lau (2000) added that brand personality renders an avenue for consumers' self-expression or expressing emotional benefits, and brand personality, like human personality is both distinctive and enduring.

The "naïve psychology" perspective defines brand personality as "the specific set of meanings which describe the "inner" characteristics of a brand. These meanings are constructed based on behaviors exhibited by personified brands or brand characteristic" (Allen and Olsen in Aaker and Fournier 1995). Brand personality can be defined as the set of human characteristics associated with a brand and it tends to serve a symbolic or self-expressive function (Aaker, 1997; Allen and Olsen in Aaker and Fournier 1995). In discussing the relationship between consumers and brands, the brand is treated as an active and contributing partner and , in the relationship dyad, Fournier (1998) defined brand personality as a set of trait inferences constructed by consumers based on their long-time observation of brand behaviors, which trigger attitudinal, cognitive, and/or behavioral responses on the part of the consumer. Haigood (2001) claimed that researchers generally recognize the use of human descriptors to portray brands, and agree that brands, like people, can acquire distinctive personalities that differentiate them in the minds of consumers and shape their preferences. Smit, Berger, and Franzen (2003) contended that brand personality is about perception in the consumer's views, about personality characteristics attributed to brands, about associations and symbolic values and about emotional responses on the brand or emotional relationships with brands.

In this study, Jennifer L. Aaker's (1997) definition will be used. She defined brand personality as the set of human characteristics associated with a brand and it tends to serve a symbolic or self-expressive function.

2.2.2 Brand Personality Measurement

Two types of measures of BP are found in the literature--general scales and idiographic (brand-specific) measures (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). Idiographic scales are based on a qualitative pre-study in which relevant personality characteristics for the brand or products are elicited. Thus, such scales contain only characteristics that are relevant to the brand in question. The most popular general scale was specifically developed by Jennifer L.

Aaker in 1997 to measure the personality of brands based on the Five Factor Model of personality. Other researchers also have attempted to create general brand personality scales on the basis of the Five Factor Model, such as Caprara, Barbaranelli and Guido (1997; , 2001), Milas and Mlacic (2007). However, this study will focus on Aaker's scale and discuss it in detail.

One of the ways in conceptualizing and measuring brand personality is the trait approach. Among many human personality theories, the Five Factor Model has received the most attention. The Big Five Model reduces the large number of adjectives describing human personalities to only five latent dimensions: extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness. Based on the Five Factor Model of human personality, Jennifer L. Aaker (1997) developed a theoretical framework of brand personality dimensions., and created a reliable, valid and generalizable scale to measure these dimensions across 37 brands that cover various product categories. Employing a scientific scale development procedure, she proposed a 42-item Brand Personality Scale (BPS hereafter) that measure five salient dimensions: Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, and Ruggedness, among which, dimensions of Sincerity, Excitement, and Competence relate to three of the Big Five human personality dimensions (Agreeableness, Extroversion, and Conscientiousness), while two other dimensions (Sophistication and Ruggedness) differ from any human personality dimension. This implies that brand personality dimensions might operate in different ways or influence consumer preferences for different reasons. She explained that one of the reasons is that the personality dimensions of Sincerity, Excitement, and Competence tap an innate part of the human personality, while Sophistication and Ruggedness tap dimensions that an individual desires but does not necessarily have. Table 2.1 demonstrates her BPS dimensions and their respective traits.

Table 2.1 Brand Personality Frameworks

	Brand Personality				
Dimensions	Sincerity	Excitement	Competence	Sophistication	Ruggedness
Markers	• Down-to-earth • Honest • Wholesome • Cheerful	• Daring • Spirited • Imaginative • Up-to-Date	• Reliable • Intelligent • Successful	• Upper class • Charming	• Outdoorsy • Tough

Other researchers also have attempted to create general brand personality scales on the basis of the Five Factor Model. To examine the validity of the Five Factor Model of personality for describing a brand, Caprara, Barbaranelli and Guido (1997; , 2001) conducted several studies across different brands. In addition, they sought to investigate the semantic reliability of the attributes used in descriptions of human personality when applied to the realm of brand personality. Specifically, they wanted to determine markers of human personality applied to brand personality are traceable to the same factor solution found in humans; and whether personality descriptors load under the same factor when used to describe human personality and brand personalities, and when used to describe the personalities of different brands. Through a series of factor analyses, they found that when considering brand personalities, the factor structures were substantially divergent from the Big Five Model. Instead of five factors, two broad factors emerged that are blends of the Big Five. All analyses produced a factor defined by markers of Agreeableness and Emotional Stability. This factor reflects those aspects of brands linked to stability, predictability, and pleasantness. The other factor is defined by markers of Extroversion and Openness and reflects those aspects of brands liked to dynamism, activity, and innovation. They concluded that while it may be possible to describe brand personalities with only a few factors, it is unlikely that the same factors used to describe human personality are suitable for the description of brands. They further recommended that other traits specific to brands and extraneous to human personality should probably be taken into account to achieve a comprehensive picture of brand personality.

Milas and Mlacic (2007) focused on determining the factor structure of personality ratings of familiar Croatian brands and determining how different levels of data aggregation can affect the dimensionality and the nature of extracted factors. Since they were interested in the brand personality of local Croatian brands, according to the emic/etic difference in human personality studies, they chose to apply an indigenous measure of personality. Thus, rather

than using an instrument from another culture, such as Aaker's scale, they developed a brand personality measure pertinent to the culture of Croatia and the Abridged Big Five-Dimensional Circumplex (AB5C) Model. The AB5C model represents each of the five Big-Five domains (Extraversion — I, Agreeableness — II, Conscientiousness — III, Emotional Stability — IV and Intellect — V) with 9 bipolar facets in each domain. To create an inventory of personality descriptors for Croatian brands, an exhaustive Croatian taxonomy of personality descriptors was used as the basis. A 90-item inventory was constructed that covered the 45 facets from the Big Five model. A sample of 267 students rated the personality of the ten selected brands using the 90-item inventory on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = adjective describes this brand completely inaccurate to 5 = adjective describes this brand completely accurate).

To identify brand personality dimensions, principal component analyses were conducted on different levels: individual subject level, brand level (averaged across subjects), and subject × brand level (treating each evaluation of a brand as a separate case). The three levels of aggregation correspond to factorizing different sources of variance: between brands, between subjects, and combined between subjects and between brands. The factor structure on individual subject level shows that only two components are identifiable, which bears the least resemblance to the Big-Five model. Both dimensions consist of very heterogeneous items and can hardly be assigned suitable labels. Extracted components do not resemble the two-factor structure reported by Caprara et al. (2001) α and β personality dimensions. The results of factor analyses at brand level suggested that in most cases three or four components should be retained, showing modest resemblance to the expected Big-Five model. Some of them highly correspond to the Big-Five such as Čipi-Čips brand, while others show very low resemblance. However, when the analysis was performed at the subject × brands level of aggregation, the factor structure in general resembles the Big-Five structure, although this structure has many incongruities. For example, Emotional Stability is a weak factor. Moreover, none of the factors represents a clear-cut factor in the sense that it gathered only the expected items.

2.2.2.1 Application of Jennifer Aaker's Brand Personality Scale (BPS)

Since BPS's inception, it has received tremendous attention and extensive application in different cultures. One of the first applications is by Ferrandi, Valette-Florence and Fine-Falcy (2000) in French context. A convenience sample of 246 students was used to

rate twelve brands. The sample was divided into three groups of identical size and each group was assigned four brands. By means of principal components and confirmatory factor analyses, it was found that Aaker's scale cannot be fully replicated although the results were rather satisfactory. Five dimensions were detected, which explained 61.56% of the variance; however, Aaker's scale was reduced in France to 33 items. Among the five dimensions extracted, three are the same with the dimensions in Aaker's scale: dynamism (excitement), robustness and femininity (sophistication). Aaker's competence and sincerity dimensions are reallocated. Particularly, Aaker's sincerity dimension is split into two distinct concepts: sincerity *stricto sensu* and conviviality; and the dimension of conviviality forms a distinct dimension in the context of France.

Kim, Han and Park (2001) investigated the applicability of BPS in Korean cellular phone market. A sample of 150 respondents rated the 42 items on a five-point Likert scale with 1 being 'strongly agree'. Exploratory factor analysis was used to identify the dimensions of cellular phone personality. The result is quite consistent with Aaker's. Six variables (down-to-earth, family-oriented, real, independent, cool, and cheerful) that were not related to any factor were excluded and a total of five factors were extracted from remaining items. The factors were named after Aaker's dimensions as 'sincerity', 'excitement', 'competence', 'sophistication', and 'ruggedness'.

Alvarez-Ortiz & Harris (2002) employed an etic approach to test the stability of Aaker's scale in Mexico. The 42 items were translated into Spanish. Brand personality measures were collected on a set of twenty brands: ten global brands popular in Mexico and ten well-known Mexican brands. Using a mall-intercept method, 400 respondents were interviewed. Each respondent evaluated five of the 20 brands, resulting in a total of 100 responses per brand. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the factorial similarity of the measures. The analysis indicated that the items forming the Ruggedness factor obtained in the United States were not internally consistent. In addition, among Mexican consumers, the traits of masculinity and femininity represented one bipolar dimension. This suggested that the Mexican data did not fit well using the five-dimension structure. Modification of the model resulted in a six-dimension structure: Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, Ruggedness, and Genders.

In attempting to replicate Aaker's scale in restaurant setting, Austin, Siguaw, and Mattila (2003) employed nine restaurants: three well-known quick service brands, three well-known casual dining brands, and three local upscale restaurants. Using a five-point scale, 247 college students were asked to evaluate the 42 personality traits identified by Aaker. A

series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were run to verify the five-dimension model for each individual brand as well as aggregated brands. All the CFA resulted in poor fit of the models and a number of items cross-loaded.

Aaker, Benet-Martínez and Garolera (2001) argued that the meaning embedded in consumption symbols, such as commercial brands, can serve to represent and institutionalize the values and beliefs of a culture. To test to what degree basic dimensions of brand personality carry universal or specific cultural meaning, four studies were conducted relying on a combined emic-etic approach across three cultures, America, Japan and Spain. Studies 1 and 2 revealed that all but one of the Japanese brand personality dimensions are highly similar with the American dimensions reported by Aaker (Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, and Sophistication). The culture-specific dimensions are Peacefulness to Japanese culture and Ruggedness to American culture. In addition, there is much overlapping in terms of facets and markers under the common dimensions. Excitement dimension is primarily defined by attributes such as funny, contemporary, young, and energetic, several of which are also markers of Excitement in the American brand personality structure. Competence dimension was defined by attributes such as responsible, reliable, confident, and tenacious, which are consistent with the markers of Competence in the United States. Sincerity dimension included warm, thoughtful, and kind, markers that are in line with those found in the United States for Sincerity. Finally, Sophistication dimension is defined by terms such as elegant, smooth, stylish, and sophisticated markers that are also consistent with those found in the United States for Sophistication. Studies 3 and 4 replicated studies 1 and 2 to Spanish consumers. The studies yielded brand personality dimensions common to both Spain and the United States (Sincerity, Excitement, and Sophistication), plus nonshared Spanish (Passion) and American (Competence and Ruggedness) dimensions. Similarly, those common dimensions also share same markers. Excitement dimension included markers such as outgoing, daring, young, and unique, several of which are terms that also serve as markers of Excitement in the American and Japanese brand personality sets. Sincerity dimension included considerate, thoughtful, real, and sincere, which are consistent with the markers of Sincerity in the United States as well as Japan. Sophistication dimension was depicted by good looking, glamorous, upper-class, and stylish markers, which are consistent with those found in the United States for Sophistication. As a consequence, in contrast to Peacefulness, Ruggedness, and Passion, the Sincerity, Excitement, and Sophistication dimensions appear to be more similarly construed across cultures. This suggests that, in addition to potential cultural variance in consumer needs, commercial brands may reflect more universally held

individual needs.

Davies, et al. (2001) attempted to apply BPS scale to assess the identity and image of three companies, each in a different sector: retailing, financial services and business-to-business. In addition, they sought to extend the scales' application to employees as well as customers. They found that with the exception of the Ruggedness factor, the reliability levels from the employee data are higher than for the customer data. In addition, all the reliability levels were lower than those reported by Aaker, although all the reliability coefficients are above 0.7. Ruggedness is the weakest factor in terms of reliability. Additionally, they confirmed that this scale is applicable from both the customers' and employees' views as there were high correlations between customers' and employees' dimension scores. The examination of the factor structure using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis indicated that items from the Sophistication and Excitement scales tended to co-load, and goodness of fit measures were above threshold levels for all but Ruggedness. Ruggedness seems to be the most problematic dimension, which may be due to the fact that Aaker's study was sponsored by Levi Strauss whose jeans are perceived to be rugged.

Supphellen and Grønhaug (2003) endeavored to apply BPS scale to two foreign brands in Russia. Using 123 consumers and 107 undergraduate business students in St Petersburg, they found that the dimensionality of brand personality in Russia seems to be different from the dimensionality of the construct in the United States through confirmatory factor analysis. To find out the factor structure of Russian brand personality perceptions, exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Although, the analysis resulted in five-factor solution, it also demonstrated that there are similarities and differences between American and Russian brand personality perceptions. Specifically, the first large factor consisted of traits from four different dimensions of the Aaker scale. This factor was named Successful and contemporary, and seems to reflect a stereotype of the new economic upper class in Russia. These people are described using traits such as successful, upper-class, secure, up to date, and, importantly, Western. The four remaining factors, Sincerity, Excitement, Sophistication, and Ruggedness were more similar to Aaker's dimensions, although some traits are missing in the Russian sample. For example, under Sincerity dimension, the trait of technical is missing. Under Excitement dimension, the missing trait is up-to-date. Under Sophistication dimension, the trait related to the upper class loaded under the first factor. Similarly, under Ruggedness dimension, the missing traits of Western and outdoorsy also loaded on the first factor.

Rojas-Méndez, Erenchun-Podlech and Silva-Olave (2004) applied the BPS to empirically measure the Ford brand personality in Chile. A convenience sample of 388 respondents was asked to rate the 42 items of brand personality with a 5-point Likert scale with 1 as “strongly disagree”. The confirmatory factor analysis resulted in a shortened scale of four dimensions with 16 items. Each dimension is composed of four items: excitement (independent, cool, spirited, exciting); sincerity (friendly, cheerful, wholesome, down-to-earth); competence (confident, intelligent, secure, hard working); and sophistication (smooth, good looking, glamorous, upper class). The ruggedness dimension was shown to be not reliable, nor was it valid. This finding is consistent with that reported by Davies et al. (2001). They argued that the apparent sponsorship of Aaker's study by Levi Strauss and the inclusion of Levi jeans in each brand group presented to the respondents may have influenced the emergence of the ruggedness dimension. Nonetheless, this study reinforced Aaker's proposition that, although not with exactly the same attributes, across cultures some dimensions sharing similar meanings emerge, such as sincerity, excitement, and sophistication.

Venable, et al (2005) strived to develop and refine a parsimonious measure of brand personality specifically for the nonprofit context based on BPS scale. First, using three qualitative studies, they found that dimensions of sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness all were viable for describing nonprofit organizations. However, the qualitative studies also suggested there are three more dimensions that are important in describing nonprofit organizations: emerged: thoughtfulness (loving, compassionate, kind, helpful, and caring), integrity (reputable, committed to the public good, purposeful, accessible, and long-term orientation), and reliability (cost-effective and financially stable). Secondly, they conducted two factor analyses on the newly-created 54-item scale to develop a parsimonious brand personality framework for nonprofit organizations using faculty and student samples respectively. Both factor analyses resulted in a four-factor solution. Of the original 54 items, 15 were retained. Two of Aaker's factors (sophistication and ruggedness) were kept; and two new factors based on the additional traits emerged as distinct brand personality dimensions, namely integrity and nurturance. Integrity focused on the reputation, honesty, and reliability of the organization. Nurturance focused on the extent to which a nonprofit organization was perceived to be loving, compassionate, and caring. Thus, the factor analyses resulted in a four-factor solution of integrity, ruggedness, sophistication, and nurturance. Lastly, confirmatory factor analysis among a more nationally representative sample was utilized to verify the four-structure solution. Most of the fit indices

indicated that the four-factor model has achieved an adequate fit.

Sung and Tinkham (2005) tested the hypothesis that different cultures are likely to have somewhat unique organizations of brand personality dimensions that are reflective of cultural differences in basic values using American and Korean samples. In addition to Aaker's scale, additional items were generated from a pretest. A combined 80 items were subjected to rate a set of 13 global brands. Several factor analyses were carried over with the pooled sample, American sample, and Korean sample. Factor analysis of the pooled sample identified eight dimensions: Competence (reliable, successful, confident, popular, well made, and efficient); Trendiness (different, new, innovative, trendy, up-to-date, imaginative, and contemporary); Likeableness (funny, warm, easy, bubbly, smooth, cheerful, and honest); Western (Western, free, technical, outdoorsy, and professional); Sophistication (elegant, glamorous, upper class, charming, and feminine); Ruggedness (tough, rugged, and masculine); Tradition (traditional, typical, small-town, and original); and Ascendancy (strict, intelligent, busy, daring, heavy, and big). The second factor analysis with American sample also produced eight dimensions, six of which are consistent with those of the pooled data analysis: Likeableness, Trendiness, Competence, Sophistication, Traditionalism, and Ruggedness. Two new components emerged: White Collar (corporate, technical, and professional) and Androgyny (masculine, feminine, and expensive). The third factor analysis with Korean sample created eight dimensions too. The first factor is Competence and is fairly consistent with that of the American sample. Primary markers of the second factor are suggestive of those of Trendiness in the U.S. sample. Factor 3, Likeableness seems to capture a somewhat narrower view of the Likeableness factor than was observed for the American sample. Factor 4, Passive Likeableness (funny, small-town, easy, smooth, family-oriented, warm, playful, and sentimental) appears to be unique to the Korean sample. Dimension 5 is clearly Sophistication and includes terms consistent with the markers of this factor in the United States but with the added attribute of feminine. Factor 6, Ascendancy (strict, heavy, intelligent, big, and daring) seems unique to the Korean sample, although it was observed and reported earlier as a part of the pooled analysis. The seventh factor clearly represents Ruggedness, as observed in the U.S. sample, and Factor 8, Traditionalism, is defined by markers in line with that found in the United States. To summarize, six brand personality dimensions have similar meaning in both Korea and the United States, whereas other dimensions are culture-specific. Two culture-specific brand personality dimensions, Passive Likeableness and Ascendancy, were identified from the Korean data; while factors of White Collar and Androgyny suggest that professional status and gender roles are separated more

strongly from other dimensions of brand perception in the United States than they are in Korea.

Smit, Berger and Franzen (2003) made an effort to develop a Brand Personality Scale for Dutch practitioners. They adopted Aaker's 42 personality scales and an additional list of 60 items borrowed from Brokken's Dutch Personality Scale, resulting in a total of 102 items. Data collection involved two phases. The first phase obtained 1009 responses on 20 brands in four product categories; and the second phase obtained 3524 responses on 73 brands in eight product categories. Both samples were from on line panels. The respondents were asked to score six brands on 102 personality items on a dichotomous scale (0=not descriptive, 1=descriptive). Several rounds of factor analysis were performed. First factor analysis was run on Aaker's 42 items using the first sample. Six factors were extracted, among which only two factors corresponded with Aaker's dimensions, namely Sincerity and Excitement. Second factor analysis with 102 personality items using the first sample produced seven factors, among which the same two dimensions corresponded with Aaker's. The third factor analysis was performed on all the 93 brands using both samples. In this case, seven factors emerged: Competence+, Excitement+, Annoying, Gentle, Ruggedness, Distinguishing, and Sophistication. To meet the practitioner's needs, the 102 items were reduced to 38 items using Aaker's method of selecting the items with highest loading on the facets in terms of item-to-total correlations. The fourth and final factor analysis on the 38 items resulted in six same dimensions as the third analysis except the dimension of Sophistication. Competence-plus shows some resemblance with Aaker's Competence dimension plus the facets down-to-earth and honest from Aaker's Sincerity dimension; Aaker's Excitement and Ruggedness dimensions were found as well. Sophistication dimension was also found in the third factor analysis but it was rather weak; and did not appear in the fourth analysis. Differences are found in the three smaller dimensions: Annoying, Gentle and Distinguishing. They could be culture-specific as a result of the addition of Dutch personality items.

Aaker's BPS scale was also tested with 230 Chinese non-student sample in Beijing (Zhang, 2007). Two brands, Nike and Sony, were used. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which that the 42 personality traits described the Sony and Nike respectively with a five-point Likert scale (1=extremely descriptive, 5=completely non-descriptive). To investigate whether the same dimensions would appear, two exploratory factor analyses were run. Both factor analyses extracted four factors. However, the four factors for the two brands differed from each other except for the last factor: Small-Town Ruggedness. For Nike, the four factors consisted of Brightness and Trustworthiness (intelligent, tough, independent,

imaginative, honest, cheerful, secure); Fashion and Charm (good looking, fashionable, charming, daring, friendly); Realism and Smoothness (down-to-earth, smooth, real); and Small-Town Ruggedness (rugged, small-town). For Sony, on the other hand, the four factors included Charm of Youth (fashionable, good looking, contemporary, imaginative, unique, young, charming, daring); Trustworthiness (down-to-earth, secure, real, honest, tough, confident, wholesome); Masculinity (masculine, Western, exciting); and Small-Town Ruggedness (rugged, small-town). In addition, the last factors of both brands did not show significant difference.

Zentes, Morschett and Schramm-Klein (2008) applied Aaker's scale to retailing industry in Germany. Data were collected with six retailers in Germany as stimuli, representing different retail sectors (food, furniture, books, beauty and health care, clothing, consumer electronics) (n=1337) with written and online survey. Aaker's five-dimensional measure made up of 15 facets and 42 traits were adopted. Respondents rated how descriptive the 42 traits were of the specific retail brand used as stimuli in the questionnaire, using a five-point Likert scale (1 = not at all descriptive, 5 = extremely descriptive). Two rounds of exploratory factor analyses resulted in five dimensions proposed by Aaker. However, the number of items was reduced to from 42 to 38. Among the items deleted, three of them are specific to the American culture: 'outdoorsy', 'corporate', 'small town' as the connotative meaning is likely to differ between the US and Germany. In addition, the second round of factor analysis pointed out that four items did not dominantly load on the factor suggested by Aaker. Items of 'contemporary' and 'independent' loaded highly on dimension of competence instead of excitement as expected; items of 'sentimental' and 'good-looking' loaded highly on dimension of sophistication instead of sincerity as expected. Overall, the scale is applicable for retail brands in Germany with minor modifications.

Although the Aaker's BPS has received the most academic attention in its field, unchallenged on its validity, Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) raised the question whether the BPS scale really measure brand personality. They argued that the current BPS scales do not measure brand personality, but a number of dimensions of brand identity with personality being only one of them. They supported their argument by questioning the scale's concept validity. They pointed out that the definition used by Aaker was too looses, which not only includes personality aspect, but also intellectual abilities, gender or social class, thus creating a conceptual confusion. To remedy this, they offered a more strict definition of brand personality as "a set of human personality traits that are both applicable to and relevant for brands". Secondly, they contended that some dimensions and items under the scale are

conceptually distinct from the pure concept of personality, such as dimension "competence" which is a cognitive ability; item "feminine" which is a value judgment.

In applying Aaker's scale in the restaurant industry, Austin, Siguaw, and Mattila (2003) also found that all their confirmatory factor analyses of the five dimensions resulted in poor fit of the models and a number of items cross-loaded, which raised the concern regarding potential boundary conditions for Aaker's conclusion concerning the generalizability of her framework. They suggested that this might be due to an interaction between brands and subjects' interpretations of the traits. For example, for some brands the trait 'family-oriented' evoked thoughts of a 'restaurant that specializes in serving families' (e.g., Applebee's) and for other brands the trait elicited thoughts of a 'family-run' or 'Mama/Papa' restaurant (e.g., Dano's on Cayuga). Similarly, for some brands the trait 'cool' prompted thoughts such as 'hip' or 'in' (e.g., TGI Friday) while the trait generated thoughts such as 'cold' or 'unfriendly' for other brands (e.g., some quick service brands).

Although BPS scale is not without its drawbacks, its' extensive replications in different cultures have produced rather stable dimensions. Thus, this scale has also been adapted in the tourism field. Destination personality scale was developed by Ekinci and Hosany (2006) as the first attempt.

2.2.3 Brand Personality and Consumer Behavior

The idea that brands an be described in terms of a set of personality traits can be traced back to Gardner and Levy (1955) and Martineau (1958). It is argued that a well-established brand personality can help to differentiate among brands (Brïdson & Evans, 2004; Plummer, 1984), add value (Brïdson & Evans, 2004; McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999), help consumers develop emotional attachment to a brand to enhance brand equity (Keller, 1993; Phau & Lau, 2000), augment the personal meaning of a brand to the consumer (Gardner & Levy, 1955; Levy, 1959), influence consumer preference and purchase (Malhotra, 1988), build relationship with consumers to increase brand loyalty (D. A. Aaker, 1996; Fournier, 1998), and help consumers to better express their self-concept (Belk, 1988; Belk, Bahn, & Mayer, 1982; Birdwell, 1968; Sirgy, 1982).

Kim (2000) examined consumer perceptions of five brand personality dimensions for various apparel brands and the relationship between brand personality and brand preference. Two datasets were used in this study: 245 responses were obtained to rate 11 national brands for women's wear in Brand Group 1 and 262 to rate 11 national brands for a

variety of products, sportswear, shoes, lingerie, innerwear, etc. in Brand Group 2. Aaker's five personality dimensions were used for the rating. Respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement for each personality trait corresponding to each brand name. Respondents were also asked to indicate the degree to which they felt 'positive' or 'negative' toward each brand on a five-point Likert-type scale. GLM repeated measures were used to test for differences between overall mean across all brands and each brand name. Overall, test results indicate that for a high majority of brands, differences between overall mean across brands and brand mean for each measured dimension were statistically significant. Personality traits that describe each brand appeared to vary by brand. For example, Liz Claiborne in Brand Group 1 is ranked high in 'sincere', 'competent', 'exciting', and 'sophisticated'; while in the case of Victoria's Secret, 'exciting' was ranked much higher. Correlations between brand personality dimensions and brand attitude show that 'sincere', 'exciting', competent and 'sophisticated' were moderately to highly positively correlate with brand preference. Results for 'rugged' were not consisted.

Kim, Han and Park (2001) investigated the effect of brand personality, as well as self-expressive value of brand personality, on brand attitude, word-of-mouth reports, and brand loyalty. Brand attitude was operationalized as brand attractiveness, brand favorability and brand distinctiveness. The empirical results indicated that there are positive relationships between brand personality, self-expressive value of brand and brand attitude. Furthermore, both brand personality and self-expressive value have direct positive effect on word-of-mouth reports and indirect effect on brand loyalty.

In examining the effect of brand personality on brand preference over two brands in Russia, Supphellen and Grønhaug (2003) found that such an effect does exist for the brand personalities of Ford and Levi's. More importantly, consumer ethnocentrism was identified as a strong moderator of this effect. As predicted, brand personalities had an effect for low-ethnocentric consumers only. Specifically, two dimensions of brand personality have effects on attitudes for both brands. Ruggedness and Sophistication have a positive impact on attitudes towards Ford. For Levi's, Sincerity has a negative effect and Sophistication a positive effect on brand preference. Smit, et al. (2003) found there is a positive relationship between brand personality and brand attitude in developing a Brand Personality Scale for Dutch practitioners.

Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) attempted to test whether brand personality has an impact on brand attitudes. Instead of using Aaker's scale, because this study was conducted in Sweden and specific brands of retailers were examined, an idiographic BP scale was

developed. The authors elicited brand personality characteristics of five major Swedish retail brands in the clothing industry by means of open-ended questions to a group of 24 female consumers. Nine characteristics were generated: classic, modern, youthful, cool, stylish, elegant, formal, and hip. 424 female consumers were asked to rate these adjectives. In addition, brand attitude (preference) was also on the questionnaire. Factor analysis of the nine brand personality items resulted in two dimensions: Modern (modern, youthful, cool, stylish, hip) and Classic (classic, elegant, formal). Regression analysis suggested that both aspects of BP, modern and classic, were significantly positively related to brand attitude.

Venable, et al (2005) attempted to examine the impact of their newly-developed four factors of brand personality for nonprofit organizations (integrity, sophistication, ruggedness, and nurturance) on the likelihood that a person would contribute to a nonprofit organization. Twelve correlations were calculated between the likelihood to contribute and each dimension of nonprofit brand personality for each organization (PBS, Greenpeace, and March of Dimes, respectively). All the coefficients were significant at $p < .01$, except for the correlations for Greenpeace between sophistication and ruggedness and the likelihood to contribute to this organization. Thus, likelihood to contribute was related to respondents' perceptions of the organizations' brand personality.

Zhang (2007) also tried to examine the role of the perception of brand personality, using Aaker's (1997) scale, in consumers' brand preference, attitude, loyalty, and buying intent (PALI). Two brands, Nike and Sony, were used. Two exploratory factor analyses of the 42 personality items resulted in four-factor solutions for both brand. For Sony, the four factors included Charm of Youth; Trustworthiness; Masculinity; and Small-Town Ruggedness. For Nike, on the other hand, the four factors consisted of Brightness and Trustworthiness; Fashion and Charm; Realism and Smoothness; and Small-Town Ruggedness. The results of factor analyses showed that these two brands had different brand personalities, which indicates that consumers perceived these two brands differently. Furthermore, with additional items, although Sony was perceived as good as Nike, Sony was considered more positive, and more exhilarating than Nike. To explore the impact of brand personality on the Chinese consumers' brand PALI, a series of multiple regression analyses were performed. The results demonstrated that, for Sony, the first three factors affected consumer's brand preference, attitudes, loyalty and buying intention positively; while the factor of Small-Town Ruggedness affected their preference, attitudes and loyalty negatively. Additionally, no significance was found on the relationship between factor of Small-Town Ruggedness and consumer's buying intention. For brand Nike, the analyses showed the same pattern. The first three factors had

positive relationships with consumer's brand PALI; while the last factor (Small-Town Ruggedness) had a negative relationship with their preference, attitudes and loyalty and no significant relationship with their buying intention.

In applying Aaker's scale in retailing industry in Germany, Zentes, et al. (2008) also examined the differentiational power of brand personality among different retail brands and its influence of on store loyalty, both attitudinal (intention to recommend and commitment to the brand) and behavioral loyalty (frequency of shopping and percentage of budget allocation in a category to a store). The factor analysis of Aaker's scale produced the same five dimensions. The average factor values for each retailer were calculated and the distinct profiles of the brand personality of the six retailers in the study show that the BPS can be applied to investigate differences amongst retailers. For example, Aldi (discount store) receives high values in competence, sincerity, and ruggedness, but low values in excitement and sophistication. All of these values seem to be very plausible for this leading discount store chain. On the other hand, Douglas (perfumes and beauty care) is especially strong on sophistication. Then those dimensions were regressed on the two dimensions of loyalty respectively. The regression model of attitudinal loyalty provided evidence that all retail brand personality dimensions have a significant influence on the attitudinal loyalty. All dimensions influence attitudinal loyalty positively except for the dimension of ruggedness. The strongest effect is exerted by the perceived sincerity, followed by competence and excitement. The regression model of behavioral loyalty was not as promising. Only two dimensions, sincerity and excitement, exerted a positive impacted on actual behavior. In summary, perceived retail brand sincerity and excitement are strong drivers of store loyalty, both in terms of attitude and actual behavior.

Freling and Forbes (2005a; , 2005b) tried to explore the concept of brand personality and its effect using both qualitative and quantitative methods. They (2005b) utilized a multi-method qualitative approach, including focus groups, in-depth interviews and document analysis. They found that brand personality seems to be a very pervasive phenomenon as 69 subjects could associate human characteristics to a wide range of goods and services, including automobiles, computers, beverages, etc. In addition, data showed that a strong, favorable brand personality provides emotional fulfillment and may lead to an increased willingness to continue using a given brand, to try a new brand or brand extension, to stay loyal to a brand and to pay premium prices for a brand. For example, one subject stated "I regard the personality of Tiffany perfume as prestigious, glamorous, and refined, and as a result I am very loyal to this brand. In fact, I haven't used another perfume for over

eight years. You'll probably think this sounds strange, but when I put Tiffany on, it's like I'm spraying some of its glamour and charm onto me. I feel more sophisticated and beautiful, like Holly Golightly in the movie Breakfast at Tiffany's.'

To provide empirical support for the "brand personality effect", they (2005a) employed an experimental research design with 192 student subjects to test the direct influence brand personality would have on brand attitude and other consumer-driven outcomes. Brand attitude measures included attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. Attitude toward the brand was measured with four 7-point semantic differential items (anchored by favorable ... unfavorable, good ... bad, likable ... unlikable, and pleasant ... unpleasant). Purchase intentions were also measured with four 7-point items to indicate the likelihood that they would purchase the product (anchored by very likely ... not at all likely, very probably ... not at all probably, very possible ... not at all possible, and very certain ... not at all certain). The findings provided support for all five brand personality dimensions: sincerity, competence, sophistication, excitement, and ruggedness. These findings indicate that brand personality had a positive influence on product evaluations. Subjects exposed to a brand's personality also exhibited significantly greater likelihood of purchasing that brand.

2.2.4 Destination Personality

Just as brand can have distinctive personality, destinations can also possess some unique characteristics. Similarly, destination personality can have impact on tourist behavior as brand personality on consumer behavior. A distinctive destination personality can help differentiate among destinations (Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007), influence destination preference and choice behavior (Crockett & Wood, 1999, , 2002; Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007), positively improve destination image (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006, , 2007), and enhance tourist loyalty (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006).

Ekinci and Hosany (2006) recognized the importance of destination personality and made the first attempt to adapt Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale to tourism destination. They explained that Aaker's scale "remains the most stable, reliable, and comprehensive measure to gauge brand/product personality"(p. 130). Adopting Aaker's (1997) definition of brand personality, they defined destination personality as "the set of human characteristics associated with a destination" (p. 127). The authors tested the content validity of the 42-item scale with 20 native British respondents, and 27 traits were retained for further analysis as at least 70% of the respondents thought these adjectives would be suitable for defining a

tourism destination. These 27 traits were split across five dimensions and they consisted of sincerity (down to earth, family oriented, sincere, wholesome, original, cheerful, friendly), excitement (daring, exciting, spirited, imaginative, up to date, independent), competence (reliable, secure, intelligent, successful, confident, secure), sophistication (upper class, glamorous, good-looking), and ruggedness (outdoorsy, masculine, Western, tough, rugged). To validate the 27-item scale, two samples were collected. The first sample included 148 respondents and the second had 102 respondents. Respondents were asked to rate the items using a 5-point Likert type scale, with anchors (1) not descriptive at all and (5) extremely descriptive, consistent with Aaker's (1997) study.

Exploratory factor analysis was run with the first sample for construct validity purpose. This factor analysis resulted in a 3-factor model with 12 items. Specifically, the three factors included sincerity (reliable, sincere, intelligent, successful, wholesome), excitement (exciting, daring, original, spirited), conviviality (friendly, family oriented, charming). Confirmatory factor analysis with the second sample was conducted to revalidate the 12-item, 3-factor model derived from the exploratory factor analysis. Through modification, a final confirmatory model with 11 items exhibited an adequate fit. Additionally, to test the predictive validity of the newly developed destination personality scale, the relationships between destination personality, destination image and intention o recommend were examined. They found out that destination personality can significantly influence destination image and intention to recommend. As a post hoc test, destination personality was also found to moderate the relationship between destination image and intention to recommend. As a result, the authors concluded that “tourists ascribe personality characteristics to destinations, and destination personality can be described in three dimensions: sincerity, excitement, and conviviality” (p. 135). They also pointed out that dimensions of sincerity and excitement are the two main factors, which is in line with prior research on the application of Aaker’s (1997) scale. Conviviality dimension, which is a unique one to the tourism context, and is the only dimension that significantly influence on affective image, cognitive image, intention to recommend, and moderate the relationship between destination image and intention to recommend.

Following their own footstep, Hosany, Ekinci and Uysal (2006; , 2007) tried to investigate the relationship between destination image and destination personality as most studies fail to distinguish between these two concepts. Using the first sample mentioned in their first study (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006), they found that destination image and destination personality are two related, but distinct concepts. Specifically, the affective and accessibility

scales of destination image were significantly correlated with the three destination personality factors (sincerity, excitement, and conviviality). In addition, they put forward that destination image seems to be an encompassing concept, while destination personality is more related to the affective component of destination image.

Another effort of applying destination personality was made by Ekinci and his colleagues (Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, & Baloglu, 2007). They develop a path analytical model to test multiple direct and indirect relationships involving tourists' perception of host image, destination personality, and behavioral intentions (intention to return and to recommend). Using a convenience sample of 365 German travelers to the Mediterranean region of Turkey, confirmatory factor analysis was carried on the 20-item destination personality scale. The original model failed to fit the data adequately. After modification, the final 13-item 3-dimenstion model achieved an adequate fit. Specifically, the conviviality dimension consisted of three items (friendly, family oriented, hospitable); the sincerity dimension included six items (sincerity, reliability, wholesome, intelligent, successful, spiritual); and the excitement dimension had four items (exciting, daring, cheerful, charming). Additionally a series of multiple regressions were conducted to test the hypothesized relationships. The results exhibited that host image has a positive impact on all three destination personality dimensions. However, only the dimension of conviviality of destination personality was found to influence intent to return and word of mouth positively. Furthermore, only the dimension of conviviality showed to mediate the relationship between host image and intent to return and word of mouth.

Murphy, Moscardo and Benckendorff (2007) sought to determine the applicability of using destination personality to differentiate between two tourism destinations, Cairns and the Whitsunday Islands, Australia, from tourists' perspective. A total of 464 useable surveys were collected, among which 90 respondents rated both destinations, and two groups of 187 respondents rated only one destination. Twenty brand personality traits across five dimensions of Aaker's (1997) scale were selected for rating. These items were measured on a 1 to 5 scale of how strongly respondents associated with the destination. The option of "not sure" was included. Two factor analyses were carried out on the destination personality items of each destination. The factor analysis of the Whitsundays produced a four-factor solution, which included upper class (sophisticated, successful, intelligent, charming, reliable, up to date, competent), honest (sincere, down to earth, wholesome, reliable, outdoorsy), exciting (cheerful, spirited, imaginative) and tough (rugged, daring); while the factor analysis of Cairns resulted in a three-factor solution including sincerity + competence (sincere, honest,

down to earth, wholesome, competent, reliable, intelligent), sophistication (sophisticated, up-to-date, successful, upper class, imaginative, cheerful), and excitement + ruggedness (outdoorsy, rugged, daring, exciting, tough, spirited, charming). A series of tests showed that the Whitsundays was perceived to be more wholesome, cheerful, exciting, imaginative, and upper-class, etc, thus proving that tourists were able to differentiate between destinations on the basis of brand personality. They requested more research to refine and develop a brand personality model that is valid and reliable for tourism destinations as Aaker's traditional product brand personality model does not translate directly to tourism destinations. In addition, they incorporate the concept of self-congruity into this study and found that respondents thought a Whitsundays holiday is more consistent with their actual, ideal, social, and ideal social self. However, a surprising finding was that with the favorable rating of destination personality and self-congruity on the Whitsunday Islands, respondents are not more likely to revisit this destination. They authors attributed this to some possible travel constraints that influence actual travel behavior, such as cost.

To further test the relationships between destination personality and self-congruity, travel motivations, and tourist visit behavior, Murphy and his colleagues (2007) developed a preliminary conceptual model. In this study, they only used the sample of 277 respondents who rated the Whitsunday Islands. The results revealed that only excitement dimension of brand personality positively influence travel motivation, novelty/learning, in this case. Additionally, sophistication+competence, sincerity, and excitement were found to have significant relationships with the four measures of self-congruity (actual, ideal, social, and ideal social). The dimension of ruggedness only influenced ideal and ideal social self-congruence in terms of the relationship between destination personality and visitation; however, no significance was detected, suggesting there might be an indirect relationship between destination personality and visitation through self-congruence. However, no empirical test was provided.

2.3 SELF-CONCEPT

2.3.1 Definitions and Dimensions

Self-concept research has revealed the great diversity and complexity and its importance in regulating behavior (Markus & Nurius, 1986). One of the first difficulties faced by researchers interested in investigating the self concept is the multiple definitions of this construct and the issue of dimensionality. However, the concept's definition and dimensionality must be made clear and explicit before it can be measured adequately.

A number of investigators have conceptualized self-concept as a single construct and treated it to mean the actual self-concept, that is, the image of oneself as he/she perceives himself/herself. Within the single self-construct tradition, some investigators have restricted self-concept to merely sex role self-concept, defined as that image of oneself as he/she perceives his/her sex role (Sirgy 1982a, 1984a). However, more scholars think self-concept should be multi-dimensional. In the multiple self-construct tradition, self-concept has been conceptualized as having two or more constructs.

William James (1890), the founding father of self-concept, was one of the first psychologists who sought to distinguish between the 'I' and the 'ME'. The 'I' part of the self is concerned with 'pure experience' and the 'ME' component is rather deeper and deals with the contents of that experience. A person's total self concept is the combination of the 'I' and the 'ME'. James (1890) thought that the self could be considered as a hierarchy of four components: the Spiritual Self, the Material Self, the Social Self, and the Bodily Self. Particularly useful in the consumer behavior is the Material Self and the Social Self. Many people have a view of them self which may be defined in material terms. This material self uses possessions, e.g. a house, or a car, designer clothes, as a means of describing the self, because the material self may form a significant portion of the self concept. The Social Self is concerned with how we see ourselves in terms of other people. e.g. mother, spouse, friends, children and colleagues. These people are important because they offer support, recognition, role definition and reinforcement for the self we adopt.

Similarly, Rogers (1951) postulated that the self is made up as all the ideas, perceptions and values that characterize the 'I' or the Me', it includes those feelings about 'what I can do', 'what I am', and how I evaluate these. According to this theory, the self concept is not only influenced by the person's perception of the world, but also influences the way that person behave in that world. Rogers also proposed the notion of the ideal self, the

person we would most like to be. It is suggested that the closer the 'real self' is to the ideal self, the better adjusted and happier the individual will be; discrepancies between the real and ideal self will result in dissatisfaction and unhappiness.

Markus and Nurius (1986) supplemented the idea of "ideal self" with the concept of "possible selves". They suggested that there is not a single ideal self, rather ideal selves or "possible selves". There are a range of ideal selves some of which a person would like to become, but others that a person is afraid of becoming. It is argued that possible selves will be motivating factors in determining how we behave.

According to Symonds (1951), self-concept is the way or manner in which an individual reacts to himself or herself. He spells out four aspects of self-concept: how a person perceives himself; what he thinks of himself; how he values himself; and how he attempts through various actions to enhance or defend himself. Purkey (1988) thought self-concept as the cognitive or thinking aspect of self (related to one's self-image) and generally defined it as the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence.

Rosenberg defined self-concept as "the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as an object" (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 7). It seems this definitions has been agreed and used by many other researchers (Chon, 1990; Litvin, Goh, & Goldsmith, 2001; Mehta, 1999; Sirgy, 1982; Todd, 2001).

Sirgy (1982) pointed out that consumer researchers generally use four aspects of self-concept to explain consumer behavior. The four aspects are based on individual's perspective: actual self-concept, social self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept. Actual self-concept can be defined as how a person sees himself or herself, whereas social self-concept can be defined as how others see him or her. Ideal self-concept can be defined by how a person would like to see himself or herself, whereas the ideal social self-concept can be described as how a person would like others to see him or her. Furthermore, ideal social self-concept can be described as how an individual develops a positive self-concept and wants to be perceived by others with the same positive or even more positive concept. He further extended the four dimensions into seven, adding expected self (an image of self somewhere in between the actual and ideal self); situational self (a person's self-image in a specific situation); and global self-attitude (a conscious judgment regarding the relationship of one's actual self to the ideal or social self).

Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) also agreed that self-concept is a multidimensional

concept. They identified at least four components: real self (actual or objective self) – the way a person actually is; self-image (subjective self) – the way a person sees himself; ideal self (self-actualization) – the way he would like to be; and looking-glass self (social self) – the way he thinks others regard him.

Malhotra (1988) defined self-concept as the totality of the individuals' thoughts and feelings having reference to themselves as subjects as well as objects. Therefore, self-concept includes two types of selves: the self as knower, or subject, or I, i.e., the process of active experiencing; and the self as known, or object, or me, i.e., the content of that experiencing. Furthermore, he concurred that it is important to adopt a multidimensional view of self-concept which takes into account the role of ideal, actual, and social self-concepts. These are important components of self-concept, as the goals of an individual could be to maintain (actual self-concept), enhance (ideal self-concept), or project a certain self concept to significant others (social self-concept).

2.3.2 Self-Concept and Consumer Behavior

According to Carl Rogers (1951), people evaluate all their experiences in terms of their self concept. Generally people want to behave in ways that are consistent with their self concept and inconsistencies will produce feelings of discomfort and perhaps anxiety. More specifically, he listed the properties of self: a) the self develops out of the organism's interaction with the environment; b) it may interject the values of other people and perceive them in a distorted fashion; c) it strives for consistency; d) the organism behaves in ways that are consistent with the self; e) experiences that are not consistent with the self-structure are perceived as threats; f) the self may change as a result of maturation and learning. In developmental terms, the person who grows up in an environment of 'unconditional positive regard', i.e. they are valued for who they are even though they may have some undesirable characteristics, is more likely to become better adjusted, healthier and happier as an adult.

These ideas have been basis for the research on using self-concept to explain and predict consumer behavior. Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) formally proposed that consumer self-concept affects their consumption behavior. Heath and Scott (1998) also pointed out that, from a marketing perspective, the study of self-concept is of particular relevance because the image that individuals associate with themselves frequently dictates specific purchase behavior patterns. Franken (1994) stated that: "there is a great deal of research which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behavior. It is the self-concept that

gives rise to possible selves, and it is possible selves that create the motivation for behavior" (p. 443).

Although it has been recognized that self-concept is useful, very few articles focus on the relationship between self-concept and consumer behavior. Jacobson and Kossoff (1963) are two of the first researchers who focused on the relationship between self-concept and consumer behavior, in this case, attitude towards the purchase of American small cars. Employing a random household sample of 250 adults in a metropolitan area, three groups were categorized based on their rating of their selfs: Cautious Conservatives, Middle-of-the-Roaders, and Confident Explorers. Contrary to hypothesis, they found that persons who saw themselves as Cautious Conservatives were more likely to express a favorable opinion of the innovative small cars. The possible explanation provided is that Conservatives did not consider the small car an adventure, but rather a practical, economical convenience; while Confident Explorers saw a large car as a means of expressing their ability to control the environment.

O'Brien, Tapia, and Brown (1977) proposed that purchase behavior is a function of the image of what kind of person he is and how he wants to convey to others about himself. They argued that an individual's self-concept changes over time, so does their preference for and purchase of products to communicate the new self. However, they found the important dimensions of stability and continuity exist across the self-concept over time. In addition, they concluded that a consumer's perception of, preference for, and purchase of products are related to his self-concept.

Chang (2002) operationalized self-concept differently in two experimental studies in exploring the relationship between self-concept and ad attitude, and brand attitude. In the first study, self-concept is operationalized as individualism vs. collectivism; while in the second study, self-concept is operationalized as being extrovert vs. introvert. The first study revealed that the collectivist participants responded significantly more positively toward the ads and brands than did the individualist participants. Findings from study 2 also indicated that individuals who rated themselves high on extroversion responded more positively to the ads and brands than the introverts. The evidence seems to argue that individuals who differ from others in terms of certain personality orientations may respond differently to advertising messages and advertised brands. In this case, individuals with certain self-concepts, such as collectivist values or an extrovert orientation, may have stronger urges to improve their self images, which may enhance their readiness to respond to ad messages and brands more favorably.

Xue (2008) applied Aaker's sophistication dimension items to measure respondents' self-concept and attempted to examine the effect of self-concept on situational brand choice using a convenience sample of 223 undergraduate students. Based on the respondent's rating on sophistication self-concept items, they are categorized into high and low sophistication groups. Similarly, based on respondent's rating on sophistication items of 12 SUVs, six SUVs were considered more sophisticated than the other six vehicles. ANCOVA test suggested that there was a significant effect of self-concept on brand choice. Specifically, respondents with high sophistication self-concept were more likely to choose a highly sophisticated brand than those with low sophistication self-concept; and participants with low sophistication self-concept were more likely to choose a less sophisticated brand than those with high sophistication self-concept.

The only relevant tourism literature was written by Todd (2001). She proposed that tourism is a visible sign of conspicuous, hedonic consumption, which makes self-concept a perfect variable in explaining tourism behavior. She utilized self-concept to segment tourists. The analysis resulted in three distinct groups in terms of how tourists perceive themselves while on holiday, and their actual behavior. The three clusters were termed happy holidaymakers, striving, and holiday partners. They not only differ in terms of who they are and what they do, they also are different in aspects of how they see themselves. As a result, they concluded that tourist's self-concept does affect the choice of tourism product to be consumed.

2.4 SELF-CONGRUENCE

2.4.1 Measurement of Self-Congruence

The concept of self-congruence has gone through a developmental process over the years since the 1960s. Over the decades, this construct has been specified and refined and its measurement has been developed and refined. Sirgy (1982) and Sirgy et al. (Sirgy et al., 1997) did great overviews. There are primarily two ways to obtain self-congruence score: traditional measurement (difference scores) and direct/global measure. Traditional self-congruence measurement consisted of a two-step procedure (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). First, respondents rated a brand or product with respect to a set of specified image characteristics for a typical user of the brand, product-user image. Next, the self-concepts of respondents

were rated with respect to the same characteristics. Congruence is estimated by computing a difference score for each characteristic, and then summing across all characteristics. Different mathematical indexes have been used to estimate discrepancies: such as geometry distance measure; absolute arithmetic difference measure; D^2 measure; generalized absolute difference measure; etc.

Birdwell (1968) utilized the generalized distance technique of solid geometry to obtain self-congruity score: D-measure[1]. It was computed to indicate the level of congruity between the self-image and perception of his car. A D-value of zero indicates complete congruity or complete perceptual agreement. The larger the D-value, the more divergence from congruity. On the other hand, the smaller the D-value, the more congruent between self-image and perception of his car. The way to obtain self-congruity score were replicated by Green, Maheshwari, Rao (1969), Karande, Zinkhan, & Lum (1997).

Dolich (1969), Sirgy (1980), and Martin and Bellizzi (1982)obtained the congruence score between self-image and a brand image by computing the absolute arithmetic difference[2], scale by scale, between two semantic differential instruments. Summing the differences of all scales gives a value that represents the congruence between self-image and a brand image. Samli and Sirgy (Samli & Sirgy, 1981; Sirgy & Samli, 1985) also employed this method to obtain self-image/store-image congruity score as they claimed that the generalized absolute difference congruence has been demonstrated to be most predictive of product preference and purchase intention, compared to other distance models. The more recent studies in which this method was used included Mehta (1999), Ekinci and Riley (2003), Magin et al. (2003), Kastenholz (2004), Kressmann et al (2006).

Ross (1971) utilized another distance measure to compute self-congruence: D^2 measure[3]. D^2 value of zero reflects exact overlap between self-concept and brand image. The larger the D^2 value, the less similar between self-concept and brand image. This method was also used by Beerli et al (2007)

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[1] $D_{ie} = \sqrt{\sum_i d_{ie^2}}$, where, ***Di,*** is the linear distance between the points in the semantic space representing concepts *i* and ***e,*** and ***die*** is the algebraic difference between the coordinates of ***i*** and ***e*** on the same dimension or factor. Summation is over the k dimensions.

[2] $Self - Congruence = \sum \left| Self\ \mathrm{Im}age - Store\ \mathrm{Im}age \right|$

[3] $D_{12} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} (X_{j1} - X_{j2})^2$, where, $\boldsymbol{D_{12}}$ is the distance between the points in the semantic space representing concepts j1 and *j2.* Summation is over the k dimensions.

In their 1991 research, Sirgy and his colleagues used various methods to measure self-congruence (Sirgy, Johar, Samli, & Claiborne, 1991). In Study One (in the context of store), they used the same difference measure to obtain self-congruity score as they did in previous two studies ((Samli & Sirgy, 1981; Sirgy & Samli, 1985). In Study Two (in the context store), they utilized same set of semantic differential scales to measure images, but different method to get self-congruity score. In this measure, they take the weight of each attribute into consideration[4]. In Study Three (in the context of eight products), they employed 5-point Likert scale to measure actual, social, ideal, ideal social self-image and product image. This time, they used a distance index to measure four self-congruity models – actual, ideal, social, ideal social congruity[5]. In Study Four (in the context of beer brand), four self-congruity models – actual, ideal, social, ideal social congruity were measured using another distance index[6]. Respondents followed these instructions:

> "How different are the images portrayed by beer brand (A) from how you see yourself. For example, a person who might characterize a beer brand as having an outdoorsy image and also sees himself/herself as the outdoorsy type may not see any difference between how he sees himself/herself and the image portrayed by this beer brand, and therefore assigns a no difference rating of 0 using the following scale:
>
> No Difference between Beer Image & Self-Image 0 1 2 3 4 Lot of Difference between Beer Image & Self-Image

A self-congruity score was computed by reversing the rating and summing the individual attribute ratings.

Although, difference scores have been applied extensively, Sirgy et al. (1997) pointed out a number of problems inherent in these measures. First, the use of predetermined image characteristics forces respondents to indicate congruence with characteristics that may or may not be relevant to them. Second, the use of discrepancy scores involves a multitude of

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[4] $\sum_{j=1}^{m}(STI_j)(SSI_j)(EW_j)$, where, STI_j = symbolic store image (j); SSI_j = social self-image (j); EW_j = evaluation weight of (j)

[5] $\sum_{j=1}^{m}\left|P_j - S_j\right|$, where, P_j = product image along attribute (j) ($1 \le P_j \le 5$); S_j = actual (or ideal, social, or ideal social) self-image along attribute (j) ($1 \le S_j \le 5$). The greater the distance, the lower the congruity.

[6] $\sum_{j=1}^{n}(D_j)$, where, D_j = psychological or subjective difference between how one views oneself and image of beer brand. The greater the distance, the lower the congruity.

problems, such as being potentially unreliable, having systematic correlations with their components, having spurious correlations with other variables, having questionable construct validity, and restricting variance. In addition, the method does not incorporate any reference to the psychological congruity experience. Third, the traditional method employs the compensatory decision rule in integrating the self-congruity scores across all image dimensions with the underlying assumption that consumers experience self-congruity with more than one image dimension to form a judgment. However, images are processed holistically or globally, not analytically or piecemeal and then integrated using complex decision calculus. Thus, they introduced the global or direct measurement approach in order to alleviate these problems.

With the global or direct approach, the respondents are asked directly to rate the congruence between a brand image and their own self-concept. In this way, the new method assumes that self-image congruence is a holistic, gestalt-like perception. Accordingly, the new method helps to overcome problems associated with the traditional method as follows. First, the new method deals with the problem of discrepancy scores by measuring the self congruity experience directly. Second, it deals with the problem of the use of irrelevant images by using a methodological procedure to induce subjects to conjure up the product-user image at the moment of response. Third, the new method deals with the problem of the compensatory decision rule by using a procedure that guides subjects to focus on the product-user image and rate the self-congruity experience holistically or globally. In addition, the overall predictiveness of the new self-image congruence measure can be boosted (Sirgy et al., 1997). This method has been adopted by Chon (1992), Jamal & Goode (2001), Helgeson and Supphellen (2004), Ekinci, Dawes and Massey (2008).

In addition to the above-mentioned two measures, congruence score can also be represented by using a correlation between self-concept and product image, such as Bellenger, Steinberg, and Stanton (1976), Ericksen (1996). The higher the correlation is, the higher the self-congruence is.

2.4.2 Self-Congruence and Consumer Behavior

Gardner and Levy (1988) initiated the concept of self-congruence, stating that consumers prefer products with images that are congruent with their self-concept. As Tucker (1968, p. 186) put it:

"There has long been an implicit concept that consumers can be defined in terms of

either the products they acquire or use, or in terms of the meanings products have for them or their attitudes towards products".

Belk (Grubb & Hupp, 1968; Grubb & Stern, 1971; Heath & Scott, 1998; Karande, Zinkhan, & Lum, 1997) holds the similar viewpoint that a person's possessions are a major contributor to and reflection of his or her identities. Similarly, Britt (Birdwell, 1968; Dolich, 1969; Green, Maheshwari, & Rao, 1969; Jamal & Goode, 2001; Malhotra, 1988; Martin & Bellizzi, 1982; Sirgy, 1980) also states that:

> "A consumer may buy a product because, among other factors, he feels that the product enhances his own self-image. Similarly, a consumer may decide not to buy a product or not to shop at a particular store if he feels that these actions are not consistent with his own perceptions of himself."

Since the initiation of the relationship between self-congruence and consumer behavior in 1955, the effects of self-congruence on consumer behavior have been extensively researched in the field of consumer behavior. Relevant literatures have been proliferating in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. Previous research has indicated that the self-concept/product-image congruity may influence consumer's:

- product ownership (Grubb & Hupp, 1968; Grubb & Stern, 1971; Heath & Scott, 1998; Karande, Zinkhan, & Lum, 1997)
- product/brand preference (Birdwell, 1968; Dolich, 1969; Green, Maheshwari, & Rao, 1969; Jamal & Goode, 2001; Malhotra, 1988; Martin & Bellizzi, 1982; Ross, 1971; Sirgy, 1980)
- purchase intentions, product/brand choice (Ericksen, 1996; Hughes & Guerrero, 1971; Landon, 1974; Mehta, 1999; Sirgy, 1980)
- store patronage/loyalty, brand loyalty (Bellenger, Steinberg, & Stanton, 1976; Dornoff & Tatham, 1972; Kressmann et al., 2006; Samli & Sirgy, 1981; Sirgy, Johar, Samli, & Claiborne, 1991; Sirgy & Samli, 1985; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977)

Using different brands of automobile, Grubb and Hupp (1968) and Grubb and Stern (1971) found out that consumers of a specific brand of an automobile would hold self-concepts similar to the self-concepts they attribute to other consumers of the same brand. Further, consumers of a specific automobile brand would hold self-concepts significantly different from self-concepts they attributed to consumers of a competing brand. Following Grubb and Hupp's footstep, Birdwell (1968) obtained the same conclusion. In addition he found that these findings were stronger for luxury cars than for economy cars. However,

using 11 automobile brands Green, Maheshwari, and Rao (1969) did not reach the same conclusion. On the contrary, they found that some respondents prefer cars whose "personalities" may be highly discrepant with their self-images.

Thirty years later, Karande, Zinkhan and Lum (1997) made an effort to replicate and extend the above-mentioned researches. Using three automobile brands, Saturn, Neon, and Tercel, they replicated the studies and found that the Tercel, the Neon, and the Saturn, each have distinct brand personalities, and owners do identify themselves closely with the car they own. They extended previous research and revealed that a car brand's personality among owners is different than its personality among non-owners. The hypothesis that a car brand's personality among males is different from its personality among females is only partially supported.

Dolich (1969) contributed to the literature by taking ideal self-image and the nature of product consumed into consideration. Four products were included in the study, beer and cigarettes (public consumption), bar soap and tooth paste (private consumption). The study revealed that self-concept congruence is greater for most preferred product brands than for least preferred product brands as hypothesized. Self-concept congruence with socially consumed products differs from self concept congruence with privately consumed products as hypothesized. However, contrary to the hypothesis, ideal self-congruence did not exert greater influence on consumer behavior than real self-congruence. Martin and Bellizzi (1982) made an extension and replication of Dolich's work (1969) to examine some of the possible relationships between self-image and product image. Using the same product categories and same semantic differential scales, they obtained similar results with Dolich's.

In addition to investigate the relationship between actual and ideal self-congruence and brand preference, Ross (1971) attempted to clarify the role of product conspicuousness in the above-mentioned relationship. He identified six automobile brands as more conspicuous products and six magazine brands as less conspicuous products. As hypothesized, for both magazines and automobiles, subjects preferred the brand of the product which was perceived them to be more rather than less similar to their own self-concept. However, contrary to the hypotheses that ideal self-concept will be more closely related to consumption preference when the object of consumption is more conspicuous, and actual self-concept will be more closely related to consumption preference when the object of consumption is less conspicuous to others, actual self-concept was more similar to consumption preference than ideal self-concept for each of the six brands of both automobiles and magazines. This finding

suggests further investigation of the role of consumption conspicuousness mediating the relationship between self-concept and consumption preferences.

Hughes and Guerrero (1971) introduced another self-concept, social self-concept in addition to actual self-concept. Using automobiles, they found that actual self-congruity model did not hold. Instead, they suggested that brand choice for a product used socially, such as an automobile, may involve social rather than actual self-congruity. As a result, they recommend social self-congruity models be considered for products consumed in public and self-congruity models for products consumed privately. Furthermore, they concluded that some buyer behavior may be explained better by incongruity models, since incongruity may stimulate innovators.

It is criticized that congruency was measured after purchase not before, thus, perhaps, it was only after the purchase that the consumer came to define the product-image as being similar to his own. In addition, it is argued that the actual congruity hypothesis is too simple and sometimes consumers may do just the opposite. Often the consumer does not want to express himself in a purchase, but rather wishes to express his ideal self-image, particularly if the relevant actual self-image dimension is negative (Landon, 1974). To overcome these two criticisms, he sought to clarify the relative importance of actual and ideal self-image to the purchase intentions of consumers using 179 male and 173 female college students; 12 products for males and seven products for female. In addition, he included consumer's self-motives as a possible explanation of when some individuals would show a dominant influence of actual self-image correlation over all products used (an actualizing tendency) and when some individuals would show a dominant influence of ideal self-image (a perfection tendency). The findings of this study suggest that:

1. Over all subjects, the purchase intentions of some products tend to be more correlated with actual than with ideal self-image.
2. Overall all subjects, the purchase intentions of some products tend to be more correlated with ideal than with actual self-image.
3. Over all products, some subjects, or actualizers, are characterized by a higher actual self-image/purchase intention correlation than an ideal self-image/purchase intention correlation.
4. Over all products, some subjects, or perfectionists, are characterized by a higher ideal self-image/purchase intention correlation than an actual self-image/purchase intention correlation.

Bellenger, Steinberg, and Stanton (1976) attempted to empirically investigate

whether a predictive relationship exists between the correlation of a consumer's self image and the image he has of a department store and his loyalty to that store in Atlanta, Georgia. The findings support the basic hypothesis that the correlation of self and store image is related to store loyalty. Specifically, correlation between store and self image with regards to the trait of objectivity influenced store loyalty positively. Those whose views of self and store image on the objectivity-impulsiveness scale are congruent, tend to be more loyal to that store. In addition, store image of objectivity influenced store loyalty negatively. Consumers who see store personnel as highly objective may feel that the store is always logical, thus less likely to develop loyalty to stores in which they perceive highly logical content rules governing operations, lending an air of rigidity and lack of warmth.

Using two automobiles (MCG, VW RABBIT) and two magazines (PLAYGIRL, GLAMOUR), Sirgy (1980) found that both product preference and purchase intention were significantly and highly correlated with the four types of self-congruity: actual, social, ideal, and ideal social self-congruity. Additionally, ideal self-congruity and ideal social self-congruity were better predictors of product preference than actual self-congruity and social self-congruity with respect to the MGB and VW RABBIT; whereas the four types of self-congruity were equally predictive of product preference with respect to the PLAYGIRL and GLAMOUR. On the other hand, purchase intention was a function of four types of self-congruity with respect to the MGB and GLAMOUR but not PLAYGRIL and VW RABIIT. Furthermore, the moderating effect of product personalization was examined. The study supported the hypothesis that moderating effect was stronger for PLAYGIRL, MGB, and GLAMOUR (products varying from high to moderate in their personalization potential, respectively) than for the VW RABBIT (a low personalizing product).

Malhotra (1988) developed a framework to examining the role of self concept in house preference. He not only took into account of actual, ideal, and social self-concept, but personality variables. The study indicated that the respondents preferred houses which more closely matched their ideal self-concepts than their actual or social self-concepts, although actual and social self-concepts also exerted a significant influence on house preference. In addition, the differential role of ideal, actual and social self-concept was investigated and showed to be likely to vary over individuals. In this study, a majority of the respondents (60.1%) preferred houses which were more congruent with their ideal self concept, followed by actual self-concept (22.3%), and social self (17.6%). Personality was operationalized as cognitive differentiation, which was found to be significantly mediating the relationship between congruence and preference. Specifically, cognitively complex individuals were able

to achieve a better match between preference and self-congruence as compared to cognitively simple individuals.

Ericksen (1996) attempted to determine whether self-concept enhancement theory is relevant to European consumers. Specifically, he tried to investigate the relationship between the actual and ideal self-image/product-image congruity and intention to purchase. The study revealed that it is necessary to distinguish between actual self-image and ideal self-image. Additionally, significant correlations were found for actual self-congruity, ideal congruity and purchase intention.

Heath and Scott (1998) examined self-concept and image congruence theory in relation to physically similar products with different brand images using the New Zealand motor vehicle market. Mazda 323 and Ford Laser were chosen as the brands for rating because they were almost identical in design, styling and mechanical characteristics. Contrary to previous findings, the results indicated that when different brands of motor vehicles were physically similar, owners perceived no difference between their own self-concepts and the self-concepts they attributed to owners of competing product brands. They explained that this was because previous research tended to focus on non-substitutable products and employed student samples; while this one utilized almost identical products and real owners of the motors. However, they also found that consumers of a specific brand of motor vehicle will have different perceptions about the self-concept characteristics they attribute to other owners of the brand compared with the self-concept characteristics they attribute to those that own a competing brand, which is consistent with previous findings.

Jamal and Goode (2001) made an attempt to reconfirm the validity of the relationship between self-image congruence and two consumer behavior constructs, brand preference and consumer satisfaction, in the precious jewelry market in the UK. They found that there is a very strong positive relationship between self-image congruency and brand preference; and between self-image congruency and satisfaction with the brand in the precious jewelry market. Furthermore, the study revealed that individuals with different levels of self-image congruency exhibit different behaviors in terms of their brand preference and their satisfaction with the brand. Specifically, the higher the congruency is, the higher their preference and satisfaction.

To examine the application of self-congruity model in the context of stores, Dornoff and Tatham (1972) sought to determine the relationships between store image and personal image and to determine which facet of personal image has the greatest influence on store selection. Using supermarket, department store and specialty store, they found that an

individual's personal image is congruent with his store image. Specifically, the degree of congruity between ideal self and stores most preferred was the greatest, somewhat less for real self and stores most preferred and smallest for the image of best friend and stores most preferred. Furthermore, the results indicate that the influence of real self, ideal self, and image of best friend upon an individual's store selection process varies according to the type of store.

Stern, Bush, and Hair (1977) conducted a study to investigate whether consumers patronize retail stores that possess images, both actual and ideal, which are congruent with their images of themselves. Images of four different retail outlets were used: discount department store, a lower-end department store, a quality men's specialty clothing store, a women's fashion specialty clothing store. The study found out that shoppers do patronize stores whose characteristics are congruent with their own real self-images. With respect to shoppers' ideal self-image, there tended to be much less congruence with their patronized store's image. In addition, shoppers generally perceived that the nonpatronized stores' images were significantly different from their perceived self-images (both real and ideal). Furthermore, shoppers' self-images, both real and ideal, appear to be more closely associated with patronage of specialty stores than with department stores.

Samli and Sirgy (1981) conducted a study to test the differential determinants of store loyalty. Specifically, store loyalty was regressed on social and ideal social self-congruity, functional congruity (functional evaluation store-image or multiattribute attitude), socioeconomic status, area loyalty, and shopping-complex loyalty. The results showed that although self-congruity failed to significantly predict store loyalty, the self-congruity variables were significantly correlated with functional congruity. In their follow-up study (1985), they used the same variables and demonstrated through path analysis that tore loyalty may be primarily influenced by functional congruity. However, functional congruity is influenced by social and ideal social self-congruence. They label this influence a "biasing effect" of self-congruity on functional congruity. The "biasing effect" suggests that, although functional congruity is more closely related to behavior than self-congruity, functional congruity is highly influenced by self-congruity.

Sirgy and his colleagues (Sirgy, Johar, Samli, & Claiborne, 1991) used four studies to further test the predictive power of self-congruity versus functional congruity on consumer behavior and the "biasing effect". The four studies employed different methods to measure self-congruity and functional congruity. All the four studies concluded that both functional congruity and self-congruity have significant influence on consumer behavior, with

functional congruity having a stronger influence. In addition, functional congruity is influenced by self-congruity, confirming the “biasing effect” of self-congruity over functional congruity.

Kressmann et al. (2006)attempted to establish direct and indirect links between self-congruity and brand loyalty, in terms of automobiles. They found that self congruity played an important role in brand loyalty. In addition to a significantly positive relationship with brand loyalty, self-congruity positively affects brand relationship quality, product involvement, and functional congruity. Furthermore, the results demonstrated that self-congruity impacts brand loyalty indirectly through brand relationship quality and functional congruity.

Sirgy, et al. (Sirgy, Lee, Johar, & Tidwell, In Press) extended self-image congruence research into the corporate sponsorship. They developed a conceptual model showing how self-congruity with a sponsorship event affects brand loyalty. The model posits that self-congruity with a sponsorship event has a positive influence on brand loyalty and the relationship is moderated by customer involvement and customer awareness. A total of five surveys were conducted within an interval of 3 months, with resulted in a total of 1588 respondents. It was indicated that customers' self-congruity with a sporting event has a positive influence on brand loyalty in 3 out of 5 samples. In addition, the results from the pooled sample also show that self-congruity does indeed have a positive influence on brand loyalty. In addition, the positive relationship between a customer's self-congruity with a sponsored event on brand loyalty is moderated by customer involvement. Specifically, self-congruity did not have a positive influence on brand loyalty when customer's involvement with the sports event was low for all five samples and the pooled sample. On the contrary, self-congruity had a positive influence on brand loyalty when customer's involvement was high in four samples and the pooled sample. Furthermore, consumer awareness was found to moderate the relationship between self-congruity and brand loyalty. The results indicate that when customers did not have knowledge of the firm's sponsoring of the event, self-congruity did not have a positive influence on brand loyalty for all five samples and the pooled sample. On the other hand, when customers had knowledge on the firm's sponsoring of the event self-congruity did have a positive influence on brand loyalty for 2 out of 5 samples and the pooled sample.

2.4.3 Application of Self-Congruence in Tourism and Hospitality Research

Chon (1990; , 1992) and Chon and Olsen (1991) first introduced the constructs of self-concept and self-congruence into tourism research. In these studies (1990; , 1992), the author attempted to test the relationship between a tourist's self-concept and his or her satisfaction/dissatisfaction with a destination area, using self-image/product image congruity model. He found that the higher the congruence between self-concept and destination image, the greater the satisfaction of the tourists. In addition, the level of tourist's satisfaction occurred in the following order of congruity condition: positive self-image congruity condition, positive self-image incongruity condition or negative self-image incongruity condition, and negative self-image congruity.

Using the same theoretical framework, in addition to test the relationship between tourist's satisfaction/dissatisfaction with a destination and the self-concept/destination image congruence (or symbolic congruity), Chon and Olsen (1991) also examined the relationship between tourist's satisfaction/dissatisfaction and the functional congruity between the tourist's expectations and his/her perceptions of performance outcome on specific functional attributes of a destination. The findings revealed that tourist's satisfaction/dissatisfaction level is a function of both symbolic and functional congruity. Further, the functional congruity is a better predictor of tourist's satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

Goh and Litvin (2000) extended Chon's (1992) post-visit work to explore the relationship of actual and ideal self-congruence with pre-trip visit interest and purchase intention. They found that a similar correlation existed between self-image and destination-image congruency, pre-visit travel interest, and purchase likelihood. The findings implied that potential travelers are most likely to select destinations they feel to be reflective of their image of self.

In order to explain the psychological underpinnings of tourist behavior, Sirgy and Su (2000) proposed a theoretical model integrating destination image, self-congruity (congruence between tourists' self-concept and destination visitor image), and functional congruity (match between the functional destination attributes and the tourist's ideal expectations of those attributes). In their model, they proposed that travel behavior is influenced by both self-congruity and functional congruity. However, no empirical test is conducted.

Due to the lack of empirical study of applying self-concept theory in the tourism research, Litvin and Goh (2002) questioned the validity of this theory in the context of

tourism. In order to validate the concept of self-image in tourism research, they hypothesized that actual self-image and ideal self-image are positively correlated with tourist's interest in and likelihood of visiting a destination. In addition, this study employed both Malhortr's (1981)and Chon's (1992) scales to measure self-image. The results suggested that Chon's method found self-image congruity significantly correlated to travel interest and purchase likelihood at moderate levels. However, the Malhotra results were mixed. They encouraged future research to further validate the theory of self-image congruity, especially in developing a valid measurement scale for self-image congruity.

In 2003, Litvin and Kar sought to replicate Chon's (1992) work using Singapore as the destination, at the same time; they added the cultural construct of individualism/ collectivism as a possible moderating variable between self-congruity and destination satisfaction. Using Chon's self-congruity scale and Hofstede's culture scale, they found that destination image/actual self-image and destination image/ideal self-image congruity were significantly correlated with visitor satisfaction, strongly supporting Chon's work. Further analysis revealed that correlation coefficients between satisfaction and self-image congruity were significantly higher for "individualists" than for "collectivists", especially so for ideal self-image congruity.

Kastenholz (2004) examined the role of destination-self-congruity (DSC) in the context of rural tourism. DSC was operationalized as a direct comparison between actual self-image and affective destination image (or holistic personality of the destination). Both constructs were measured on 16 semantic differential scales, based on instrument tested by Malhotra (1981). The factor analyses of self-image and affective destination image revealed that the two factor structures do not exactly match. However, three dimensions largely correspond (pleasant, calm, informal) and one dimension (simple) partly responding. The regression analysis showed that DSC was a significant predictor of probability to return; however, no significance was detected in determining the probability to recommend. The author suggested that maybe ideal social self-congruity is more relevant to the probability to recommend, since this behavior should be affected by tourists' perception of how they would like to be seen by others.

Beerli, Meneses and Gil (2007) attempted to look at the relationships between both actual self-congruity and ideal self-congruity and intention to visit. In addition, past experience and involvement were examined to see whether they moderate the above mentioned relationships. The measurement of self-concept and destination image was adapted from Malhotra (1981). The empirical research found that the greater the agreement

between a destination's image and one's actual and ideal self-concept, the greater the tendency for the tourist to visit that place. Moreover, self-congruity loses this determining power when one has already visited a place. Furthermore, the result indicated that the greater the tourist's involvement, the greater predictive power self-congruity has over destination choice.

Back (2005) made an effort to explores the effects of social image congruence and ideal social image congruence on customer satisfaction and brand loyalty in the lodging industry. He found that both social and ideal social image congruence have significant direct effects on customer satisfaction and indirect effects on brand loyalty. That is to say if there is a match between a customer's social or ideal social self-concept and the hotel brand image, the customer tends to be satisfied with the hotel. Furthermore, when satisfied with the service, the customer becomes brand loyal, holding a positive attitude toward the brand.

Ekinci & Riley (2003) endeavored to investigate self-congruence theory in two studies, one in the setting of restaurant, the other in the setting of restaurant and hotel. They tried to test the relationships between actual self-concept and ideal self-concept and satisfaction, attitude, service quality and behavioral intention. The first study operationalized self-congruence with gap score formula, while the second uses the direct score formula. Both studies suggest that actual self-congruence and ideal self-congruence are related to consumer behavior, but with different influence. The first study indicates that ideal self-congruence has more relevance in estimating attitude, customer satisfaction and service quality; whereas the second study proposes that actual self-congruence has more influence.

Ekinci, et al (2008) attempted to examine the impact of self-congruence, actual and ideal, on consumer satisfaction with services and to develop and test a conceptual model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Data were collected from 185 consumers who had recently visited a restaurant or hotel. Findings revealed that ideal self-congruence has positive effects on consumer satisfaction, while actual self-congruence is not related to consumer satisfaction. However, actual self-congruence does relate directly with intention to return. Moreover, the study confirms that consumer satisfaction mediates the relationship between ideal self-congruence and intention to return. The results suggest that ideal self-congruence has more aspiration compared to actual self-congruence. Moreover, the ideal self is more emotionally charged compared to the actual self because it represents the consumers' desirable personality. The results also confirmed that consumers can seek to enhance their self-esteem through their consumption of luxury or

publicly consumed products and these kinds of consumptions generate positive feelings (Hong & Zinkhan, 1995) as hotels and restaurants can be viewed as examples of the consumption of luxury or publicly consumed products and therefore it seems reasonable to assume that the ideal self-concept is likely to be more relevant in such contexts.

2.5 INVOLVEMENT

2.5.1 Definitions

Research on involvement originates from social judgment theory's ego-involvement (M. Sherif & Cantril, 1947). Social judgment theory focuses on the internal processes of an individual's judgment with relation to a communicated message and has been used to explain attitude and attitude change (C. W. Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965). The concept of involvement is the core of social judgment theory. Ego-Involvement refers to the importance of the information or an issue in a person's life. C. W. Sherif, et al. (1965) speculated that the more important the issues are to the individuals, the more involved the individuals are. When individuals who are highly involved in an issue are more likely to evaluate all possible positions, thus resulting in an extremely limited or nonexistent latitude of noncommitment. High involvement also means that individuals will have a more restricted latitude of acceptance. This conceptualization of involvement has been the basis for the application of the concept in the consumer behavior research. It has been approached from the perspective of involvement in advertising (Krugman, 1965, , 1966), information processing and persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981), product (Bloch, 1981; Hupfer & Gardner, 1971) and purchase decision (Clarke & Belk, 1979; Mittal & Lee, 1988) .

However, the different applications lead to diverse definitions of involvement. In social psychology, involvement refers to the importance of the information or an issue in a person's life (C. W. Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965). In the consumer psychology, Krugman (1966) defined involvement with advertising as the number of "connections," conscious bridging experiences or personal references per minute, that the subject makes between the content of the persuasive stimulus and the content of his own life. In the area of product class involvement, Howard and Sheth (1969) defined involvement in terms of a person's needs or values. Hupfer and Gardner (1971) defined involvement as a general level of interest in or concern about an issue without reference to a specific position. Based on the previous definitions, Zaichkowsky (1985) defined involvement as a person's perceived

relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests. She claimed that this definition may be applied to advertisements, products, or purchase decisions. Mittal (1989a) defined purchase-decision involvement as the extent of interest and concern that a consumer brings to bear upon a purchase-decision task.

Although the definitions vary, Kapferer and Laurent (2003), and Mittal (1989b) both claimed that the field seems to have made considerable progress at converging toward a reasonably unified definition of involvement. Based on an extensive review of involvement definitions, Kapferer and Laurent (2003) asserted that despite differences in emphasis and preferences among researchers, a consensus seems to emerge as to its following generic definition: "involvement is a state of motivation, arousal or interest. This state exists in a process. It is driven by current external variables (the situation; the product; the communications) and past internal variables (enduring; ego; central values). Its consequents are types of searching, processing and decision making" (Rothschild, 1984, p. 217). Similarly, Mittal (1989b) presented a list of involvement definitions and concluded that despite differences in nuances of the definitions, there does seem to be a common thread. This common thread may be construed as a "motivational state that has been activated" by a stimulus, situation, or a decision task.

Despite considerable conceptual discussion, it is proposed that involvement is a central part of the leisure and tourism experience (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990). Selin and Howard (1988) (1988) argued that the ego involvement could act as an explanation to individual's attachment to leisure pursuits. They defined ego involvement as "the state of identification existing between an individual and a recreational activity, at one point in time, characterized by some level of enjoyment and self expression being achieved through the activity" (p.237). Havitz and Dimanche (1990) set forth 15 propositions for testing the involvement concept in a recreational and tourism context, among which they suggested that involvement construct should be measured with multifaceted scales and portrayed as a profile; recreational and tourist experiences tend to be highly involving on all the facets; an individual's involvement profile is positively related to frequency of participation, travel, or purchase. They also proposed a definition of involvement in the leisure and tourism domain based on Rothschild's (1984) definition: "Involvement is a psychological state of motivation, arousal, or interest between an individual and recreational activities, tourist destinations, or related equipment, at one point in time, characterized by the perception of the following elements: importance, pleasure value, sign value, risk probability, and risk consequences" (p. 184).

2.5.2 Dimensions and Measurement

As in measurement of any construct, dimensionality of involvement is a critical issue that must be resolved before the proposed scales may be employed in any theoretical investigations of the effects of involvement (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). Quite a few of researchers viewed involvement as unidimensional (Chon & Olsen, 1991; B. Hu & Yu, 2007; Lee, Yun, & Lee, 2005; Long-Yi & Chun-Shuo, 2006; Mittal, 1989a, , 1989b, , 1995; Quester & Smart, 1998; Zaichkowsky, 1985) . However, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) contended that considering involvement as unidimensional would hamper the understanding of the concept and its effect on consumer behavior imprecise. Hence, they proposed the construct of involvement is multidimensional in nature, which has been concurred by many other scholars (Arora, 1993; Bauer, Sauer, & Becker, 2006; Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003; Havitz & Dimanche, 1990, , 1997; Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007; McIntyre, 1989; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992; O'Cass, 2000).

Previous measures of involvement were diverse due to the different applications of the term "involvement" (Zaichkowsky, 1985). However, there are two scales that have been receiving great attention in the literature. Both scales were introduced in 1985. Zaichkowsky (1985) proposed the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) to measure involvement as a unidimensional construct; while Laurent and Kapferer (1985) proposed the Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) scale to measure involvement as a multi-dimensional construct. The subsequent discussion and measurement of involvement concept has based on these two scales.

As Zaichkowsky (1985) pointed out that a person can be involved with advertisements, with products, or with purchase decisions. Involvement with these different objects leads to different responses. To solve the confusion so that the same measure of involvement would be used across various research studies, Zaichkowsky (1985) developed a measure of involvement which is independent of the behavior. At the same time, the measure was also sensitive to the proposed areas that affect a person's involvement level: personal, physical and situational areas. The original semantic differential scale was proposed based on the earlier definition of involvement and consisted of a list of 168 word pairs that represented the concept of involvement. Through several rounds of purification, 20 items were retained for the scale. Each bipolar item was rated on a seven-point scale. The scale was named the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), a context-free measure applicable to involvement with products, with advertisements, and with purchase situations. In 1994, Zaichkowsky revised

and reduced her PII scale from twenty items to ten items. Additionally, the revised PII scale could be broken into two subscales: a cognitive aspect and an affective aspect. Interesting, appealing, fascinating, exciting, and involving represent affective or emotional component. The other five items might be described as more rational or cognitive in nature: important, relevant, valuable, means a lot to me, and needed.

Unlike Zaichkowsky who treated involvement as a unidimensional concept, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) considered it multi-dimensional. They pointed out that there is more than one kind of consumer involvement. Depending on the antecedents of involvement, consequences on consumer behavior differ. As a result, they recommended involvement be measured through a Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP), an empirical instrument comprising several subscales. An involvement profile was based on the antecedents of involvement and five antecedent conditions were identified:

1. Interest: the personal interest a person has in a product category, its personal meaning or importance.
2. Pleasure: the hedonic value of the product, its ability to provide pleasure and enjoyment.
3. Sign: the sign value of the product, the degree to which it expresses the person's self.
4. Risk importance: the perceived importance of the potential negative consequences associated with a poor choice of the product (risk importance).
5. Risk probability: the perceived probability of making such a poor choice (risk probability).

In their two 1985 studies (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003), Kapferer and Laurent suggested a five-factor solution as indicated by the five antecedents, namely, Interest, Pleasure, Sign, Riskimp, and Riskpro. However, they did point out it might happen that for some specific product categories two scales merge: for instance in the case of foot products, interest and pleasure may load on the same factor. The four-factor structure also occurred in their another 1985 study (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). They suggested the involvement profile is made up of four distinct facets: Imporisk (the perceived importance of the product and the perceived importance of the consequences of a mispurchase), Riskpro, Pleasure, and Sign. This time, the antecedents of Interest and Riskimp loaded on the same factor. Furthermore, they conducted a set of replication studies of the CIP using based on five large-scale data collections (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003). They reached two main conclusions. First, three subscales led to the results as expected: one factor per item, all items from an antecedent on the same factor, one factor per antecedent. These antecedents are sign value, risk importance, and risk probability. Secondly, the two other subscales are more problematic: pleasure and interest, which led to a couple of four-factor solution with both interest and pleasure items

loading on one factor. Nevertheless, they still recommended CIP be measured with all five subscales because they contended that the conceptual definitions of interest and pleasure are different. In summary, involvement is a multi-dimensional concept and has five dimensions: Interest, Pleasure, Sign, Riskimp, and Riskpro.

However, these two measurement scales have also been criticized, especially by Mittal and colleagues (Mittal, 1989a, , 1989b, , 1995; Mittal & Lee, 1988). Mittal (1989a; , 1989b) critiqued both scales on their operationalization and dimensionality of involvement. Zaichkowsky's (1985) adopted a unidimensional conception of involvement defining it as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests." However, the 20 items in her scale did not constitute a unidimensional construct. Only six of the items can properly measure involvement proper: relevant, important, of concern, matters, means a lot, and significant. In Laurent and Kaperfer's work (1985), Mittal suggested that only the "Importance" factor be deemed appropriate to represent involvement. Therefore, the concept of involvement is rather a unidimensional construct.

Mittal and Lee (1988) pointed out that Laurent and Kapferer's consumer involvement profile failed to distinguish between product-class and brand-choice involvement and they conceived and measured two of the four facets at product level and the other two at the brand level. Through analysis, Mittal and Lee confirmed that the separation of each facet at the product and brand-choice levels are necessary, especially for the factor of perceived importance, sign value, and perceived risk. Mittal (1989b) further contended that Laurent and Kapferer's scale, being proprietary, has not been published in its entirety. In addition, he criticized Zaichkowsky (1985)'s statement that although her scale was developed for product involvement, it can be used for purchase involvement by specifying purchase-decision as the context of the instrument. Mittal stressed that such an application is inappropriate and most of her items are more appropriate in measure product involvement, rather than purchase-decision involvement.

To fill the gap, Mittal (1989a) proposed a scale measuring involvement with purchase decision (PDI). The scale consisted of four items: degree of caring, perceived brand differences, importance of right brand selections, and concern with the outcome. The exploratory as well as confirmatory factor analysis results showed the four items to cohere well and to reflect a single underlying construct.

Mittal (1995) attempted to compare the above-mentioned three scales: Zaichkowsky's (1985) PII, Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) CIP, and his four-item purchase-decision involvement scale (PDI) (1989a) in terms of their unidimensionality,

convergent and discriminant validity, and nomological validity. However, only five items of Zaichkowsky's PII scale were used. For Laurent and Kapferer Scale, only the importance/interest items, operationalized separately at the product- and brand-decision levels, were used for the proposed comparisons. The comparison showed that each of the three scales exhibited acceptable reliabilities and validities with marginal trade-offs. These concern mainly the superior unidimensionality and simplicity of PII but better nomological validity of PDI, and CIP; or the better convergent validity of the CIP, and PDI scales hut lesser response set bias for the PDI scales.

Goldsmith & Emmert (2001) also assessed the convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity of the three measures: Zaichkowsky's Personal Involvement Inventory, Laurent and Kapferer's Consumer Involvement Profile Inventory, and Mittal's Purchase-Decision Involvement Scale using multitraitmultimethod matrix analysis. All three scales showed convergent validity and discriminant validity with other two measures of global, marketplace involvement. Thus, all the three measures of involvement capture the construct to some extent. Correlations with several criterion measures demonstrated criterion-related validity. The reliability coefficients suggested that the PI1 and MIS are internally consistent, but that the CIP is less so. This may be due to the multiple dimensions of CIP scale. Whereas the PII scale possessed excellent internal consistency, the Mittal scale may also be used because of its short length, convenience, and validity. The Laurent and Kapferer scale possesses validity, but had lower internal consistency. However, the lower reliability of the CIPI may be offset by its more complex involvement profile.

In the tourism and leisure literature, efforts to operationalize the involvement construct have drawn heavily from the work of Laurent and Kapferer and their consumer involvement profile (CIP) scale as most of the recent studies in tourism and leisure have utilized involvement as a multidimensional scale (Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, , 1999). Jamrozy, Backman, and Backman (1996) stated that the CIP scale have received so much attention, because this scale conceptualizes involvement as multifaceted and as such, provides an appropriate investigative tool for a complex product such as tourism. Havitz and associates (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990, , 1997, , 1999; Havitz & Howard, 1995) also claimed that multifaceted scales are more appropriate than single faceted scales for measuring leisure and tourism involvement. They (1997) reported that although six of the nine leisure involvement data sets published through 1990 used unidimensional scales, excluding comparison research, only nine of thirty-three studies published between 1991 and 1997 used unidimensional scales.

In applying CIP scale in a beach camping setting, McIntyre (1989) found that instead of four or five dimensions proposed by Laurent and Kapferer, campers' involvement consisted of only three dimensions. These dimensions were termed attraction, self-expression and centrality. Attraction dimension is made up of a mixture of items under enjoyment and importance. Self-expression or sign dimension is made up of the original self-expression items. The last dimension, centrality, is comprised of two of original centrality items and one importance item. The results suggest that the importance consists of two aspects: the enjoyment of camping and its importance to lifestyle. McIntyre and Pigram (1992) reexamined the scale three years later using vehicle-based campers and found the same results that campers' involvement profile consisted of three factors: attraction, self-expression and centrality.

Dimanche, Havitz and Howard (1991) translated CIP scale from French into English and tested it in the context of recreational and touristic activities. Their factor analyses showed similar dimensions as in the context of consumer goods. They found that involvement is composed of four dimensions in the leisure context: sign; importance-pleasure; risk probability; and risk consequence. The combination of importance and pleasure suggests that pleasure and importance become synonymous in the context of recreational activities. In addition, the sign dimension is the first factor emerging, which indicated the importance of sign value or self-expression in the leisure purists.

Park (1992) attempted to investigate the relationships between fitness program participants' attitudinal loyalty profiles and involvement profiles. The scales administered to measure *involvement* construct were drawn from Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) 15 item Likert scale, each of which was written to assess importance or interest, pleasure, self-expression or sign, risk consequence or risk importance, and risk probability.

Jamrozy, Backman, and Backman (1996) examined the relationship between nature-based tourists' involvement and opinion leadership. Both the PI1 and CIP scales were used to determine each involvement scale's multidimensionality and applicability for travelers interested in nature-based tourism. The 15 CIP statements of Laurent and Kapferer were worded to fit the nature-based tourism domain. Same with Dimanche, Havitz and Howard's (1991) study, factor analysis resulted in four factors with Pleasure and Interest items loaded under one dimension. The four factors are Pleasure/Interest, Sign, Risk Probability, and Risk Importance. They also run a factor analysis using an oblique rotation on the 19 statements of the revised Zaichkowsky's PII. The result presented a unidimensional scale instead of a two-factor model: cognitive and emotional dimensions as reported by

Zaichkowsky (1994).

Gabbott and Hogg (1999) adopted the Laurent and Kapferer (1985) Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) in an attempt to replicate the antecedents of involvement in service products, including hotels. The results confirmed a five-factor structure with one factor per antecedent. This result is almost entirely consistent with results reported by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) and Kapferer and Laurent (1993). The difference in the solution is in the ordering of factors. In addition, in the case of services, pleasure has a significant role to play as a facet of involvement.

Gursoy and Gavcar (2003) applies the multidimensional CIP developed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) to leisure tourists at international vacation destinations. The analyses revealed that international tourist involvement is composed of three factors: pleasure/interest, risk probability, and risk importance. The first dimension is pleasure/interest, a combination of the interest/importance and pleasure dimensions of the original CIP scale. The second dimension consisted of four items measuring risk probability. The third dimension, risk importance, consisted of two items. However, the sign dimension of the original CIP scale is not a unidimensional construct in measuring international leisure tourists' involvement.

Gross and Brown (2006) examined the role of involvement in combination with place attachment in tourism experiences in South Australia. They employed three dimensions of CIP in this study, namely, attraction, centrality, and self expression. The interpretation of these dimensions was consistent with previous CIP leisure research. In examining the relationship among tourists' involvement, place attachment and interpretation satisfaction in Taiwan's national parks, Hwang, Lee, and Chen (2005) combined CIP scale which includes 15 items from five components (importance, pleasure, symbolism, risk probability, and risk consequence), and McIntyre and Pigram's (1992) modified Enduring Involvement scale which includes 13 items from 4 components (importance, enjoyment, self-expression, centrality). The combined scale included 21 items from 6 components (importance, pleasure, self-expression, sign, risk probability, and risk consequence) to measure tourist involvement. Tourists' involvement includes four measurement items: importance and pleasure, self-expression and sign, risk probability, and risk consequence.

2.5.3 Moderating Effect of Involvement

The concept of involvement has been extensively studied by consumer behavior scholars, and is thought to exert a considerable influence over consumers' decision processes

(Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). In addition, involvement has been recognized as a useful moderating variable with respect to consumer behavior (Bloch, 1981). The moderating effect of involvement has been studied with regards to satisfaction (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005; Suh & Yi, 2006; Tsiotsou, 2006), on advertising effectiveness (Krugman, 1965; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983), information processing (Chang, 2002; Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996), loyalty (Kressmann et al., 2006; Park, 1996; Sirgy, Lee, Johar, & Tidwell, In Press), purchase intention and consumption (Lee, Yun, & Lee, 2005; Tsiotsou, 2006; Xue, 2008). It has also been proposed that the concept of involvement should be helpful to self-concept research because they both deal with self-relevant information (Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Xue, 2008). However, there are only a handful papers that examine the moderating relationship between self-congruity and decision-making, especially in the field of tourism.

In examining how self-congruent advertising messages affect ad and brand evaluations in different contexts, Chang (2002) also looked at the moderating role of product involvement. The results indicate that when the products being considered are more involving, self-congruency is not as important a determinant of product evaluations as when products are less involving. She explained the findings with Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) theorization. Specifically, when product is highly involving, information perceivers have no motivation to process in a systematic, detail oriented way and the elements of ad messages serve as peripheral cues and dominate attitude formation.

In Kressmann et al.'s study (2006), product involvement was included in a model to test direct and indirect effects of self-congruity on brand loyalty. It was found that product involvement moderates the relationship between self-congruity and functional congruity. Specifically, the self-congruity effect on functional congruity is more pronounced in the high than low involvement conditions. However, product involvement failed to moderate the relationship between self-congruity and brand relationship quality. An explanation for this effect might be that consumers who feel involved with a product category are likely to experience an emotional bond with a brand in the product category.

Xue (2008) investigated the moderating role of product involvement in predicting the effects of self-concept and consumption situation on consumers' situational brand choice. Participants were divided into low and high involvement groups based on a median split. ANCOVA test results suggested that participants' product involvement was a significant moderating factor. Specifically, for consumers who were highly involved with the product, self-concept and consumption situation were both determinant factors in a situational brand

choice. That is to say, participants were more likely to choose a highly sophisticated brand in a high sophistication situation rather than in a low sophistication situation, and vice versa. Participants with high sophistication self-concept were more likely to choose a highly sophisticated brand and vice versa. For consumers who were not highly involved with the product, however, their situational brand choice was based solely on the situational factor. In a high involvement condition, individuals are supposed to dedicate more attention and effort to a specific decision problem, which may generate more attention to the self-concept message embedded in brand information and therefore strengthen its effects on consumer decision making.

Sirgy and Su (2000) are the first researchers who suggested fitting involvement as a moderator in an integrative model of destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior. Specifically, they put forward a proposition that the relationship between self-congruity and travel behavior is moderated by tourists' involvement with destinations and touring. The effects of self-congruity on travel behavior are likely to be greater for tourists who are not very involved with touring in comparison with those who are very involved. However, no empirical test is provided.

Beerli, et al (2007) attempted to test whether involvement moderate the relationship between actual and ideal self-congruity and destination choice. They found that contrary to the hypotheses and to Sirgy and Su's (2000) proposition, the relationships between both types of self-congruity and the degree of desire to take a holiday are statistically significant when involvement in leisure travel is high. Thus, the greater the involvement with traveling, the more important congruity is. They explained that this may be due to the importance of leisure travel to the self-concept of the consumer, given its symbolic meaning, which possibly has a greater influence on those who are involved with traveling. Therefore, the more the tourists are involved, the more dominant the role played by symbolic features in self-congruity.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a literature review that builds the theoretical framework for constructs in this study. The first section explained the construct of brand personality and destination personality, especially the measurement scale of brand personality developed by Aaker (1997). The relationships between brand personality and consumer behavior, destination personality and tourist behavior are also explored. The second section is related to the construct of self-concept and how it is related to consumer behavior. The third section introduced the concept of self-congruence and its application in the tourism and hospitality field. How self-congruence influences consumer behavior is also discussed. The last section reviewed the concept of involvement and its measurement scales. Its moderating role in self-congruence study is also addressed. The next chapter illustrates the methodology used to test the proposed research hypotheses.

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the methodology and research design in detail. The first section explains the framework of the research. The second and third sections review research propositions and hypotheses. The fourth section describes the research design, including the discussion of sample and data collection. The fifth section provides a description of the measurement development. The last section focuses on the statistical methods that are utilized to test the proposed hypotheses.

3.2 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The proposed conceptual framework in this study is based on findings in the literature review presented in Chapter II. This research intends to investigate the relationships among self-concept, destination personality, SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. Three research questions are addressed.

Research question 1: What is the relationship between self-concept and destination personality?

Research question 2: How is tourist behavior influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence individually?

Research question 3: What is the moderating effect of tourist involvement on the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior?

To answer these research questions, an extensive literature review has been conducted, and a theoretical model developed. This model proposes that tourist behavior is influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence. Tourist involvement serves as a moderator in the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. Figure 3.1 represents the theoretical model and the proposed hypotheses in this study. Specific hypotheses are presented in next section.

Figure 3.1 Proposed Model with Hypotheses

Figure 3.1a Interrelationship between Self-Concept and Destination Personality

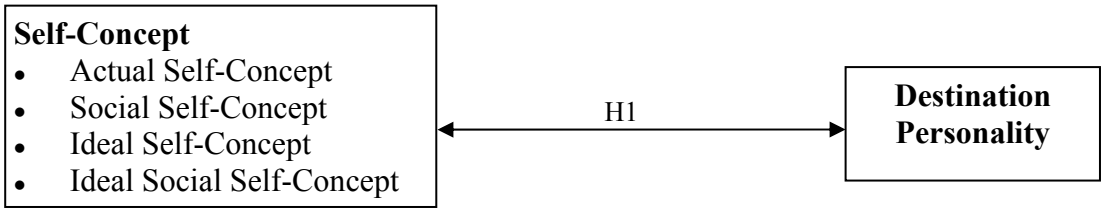
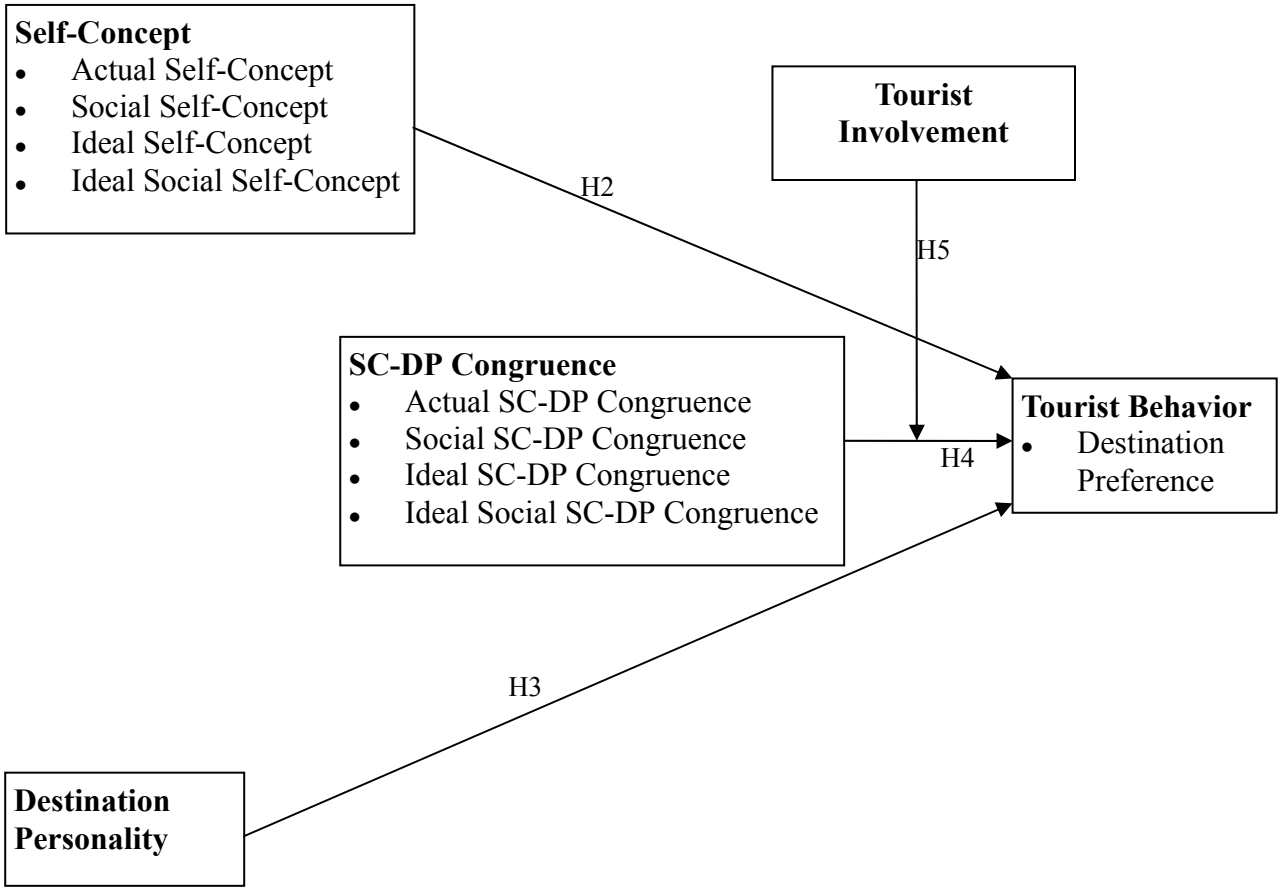


Figure 3.1b Structural Relationships



3.3 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following is a list of the hypotheses that are presented in the theoretical model to be empirically tested in this study.

H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.

- H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.
- H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.
- H1.3: There is a relationship between social self-concept and destination personality.
- H1.4: There is a relationship between ideal social self-concept and destination personality.

H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

- H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.
- H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.
- H2.3: Social self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.
- H2.4: Ideal social self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

- H4.1 Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.
- H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.
- H4.3: Social SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.
- H4.4: Ideal social SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H5: The relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

- H5.1: The relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.
- H5.2: The relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.
- H5.3: The relationship between social SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.4: The relationship between ideal social SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.4.1 Sample

This study targeted leisure tourists. A leisure tourist is one who is at least 18 years old or above and took at least one leisure trip for at least two nights away from home during the past 18 months. The target sample size is 600.

As the major statistical technique used in this study is structural equation modeling (SEM); SEM in general requires a larger sample. As sample size provides a basis for the estimation of sampling error, small samples used by SEM would provide unreliable and unstable results. However, opinions regarding minimum sample sizes have varied (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

One rule of thumb is that the minimum sample size is to have at least five times as many cases as the number of variables to be analyzed. The more acceptable sample size would have a 10:1 ratio (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). Stevens' (2002) rule of thumb is to have at least 15 cases per measured variable or indicator. In the literature, sample sizes commonly run 200 - 400 for models with 10 - 15 indicators. Hoyle (1995) recommended a sample size of at least 100 - 200. Schumacker and Lomax (2004) surveyed the literature and found sample sizes of 250 - 500 to be used in many articles. Hair et al.'s (1977) recommended sample size is 200, as they think 200 would provide a sound basis for estimation. In addition, they suggested that as the sample size becomes larger than 400, the test becomes more sensitive and almost any difference is detectable. As a result, sample sizes in the range of 150 to 400 are suggested. Based on the literature, the target sample size is 600. Three hundred was used for the model testing and the other half for model validation.

3.4.2 Data Collection

An Internet survey was utilized to collect the data, since it allows researchers to reach a large audience, and secure confidential answers quickly and cost-effectively (Zikmund, 2003). This study used a commercial online market research company

(www.Zoomerang.com) to post and distribute the questionnaires to their ZoomPanel. The company has a true sample panel of more than two million consumers.

3.5 MEASUREMENT SCALES AND SURVEY DEVELOPMENT

3.5.1 Survey

The questionnaire consists of five parts. The first part gathers information concerning the leisure travelers' most recent trip of a two-night minimum stay. Part two asks about their demographic characteristics. Parts three, four, and five ask respondents to rate destination personality, their self-concept, and involvement with five point Likert type scales (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree).

3.5.2 Measurement Variables

The proposed model consists of three exogenous constructs (destination personality, self-concept, SC-DP congruence), and one endogenous construct (tourist behavior). The following sections explain their respective measurement scales in detail.

3.5.2.1 Destination Personality

One of the ways to conceptualize and measure brand personality is the trait approach. Based on the Five Factor Model of human personality, Jennifer L. Aaker (1997) developed a theoretical framework of brand personality dimensions, and created a reliable, valid and generalizable scale to measure these dimensions across 37 brands that cover various product categories. She proposed a 42-item Brand Personality Scale (BPS hereafter) that measures five salient dimensions: Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, and Ruggedness.

Since BPS's inception, it has received tremendous attention and extensive application in different cultures (Jennifer Lynn Aaker, Benet-Martínez, & Garolera, 2001; Alvarez-Ortiz & Harris, 2002; Davies, Chun, Silva, & Roper, 2001; Ferrandi, Valette-Florence, & Fine-Falcy, 2000; C. K. Kim, Han, & Park, 2001; Rojas-Méndez, Erenchun-Podlech, & Silva-Olave, 2004; Smit, Berger, & Franzen, 2003; Sung & Tinkham, 2005; Supphellen & Grønhaug, 2003; Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005; Zentes,

Morschett, & Schramm-Klein, 2008; Zhang, 2007). Ekinci and Hosany (2006) also adapted Aaker's BPS scale to tourism destination and created a 11-item destination personality scale consisting of three dimensions: sincerity, excitement, and conviviality.

During the purification of the destination personality scale, Ekinci and Hosany (2006) pretested the content validity of Aaker's scale. This test reduced the original 42 items to 27 items. These 27 items split across five dimensions: *sincerity* (down to earth, family oriented, sincere, wholesome, original, cheerful, friendly), *excitement* (daring, exciting, spirited, imaginative, up to date, independent), *competence* (reliable, secure, intelligent, successful, confident, secure), *sophistication* (upper class, glamorous, good-looking), and *ruggedness* (outdoorsy, masculine, Western, tough, rugged). In this study, these 27 items were used to capture destination personality (Table 3.1). Respondents were asked to rate the adjectives using a five point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. The response cue is as follows:

> "The following statements are about the destination of your most recent leisure trip (the leisure trip specified in Part I). We would like you to think of the destination as if it were a person. Please circle the appropriate number that indicates your agreement or disagreement to the following adjectives that can describe the destination of this trip."

3.5.2.2 Self-Concept

In most self-concept and user image literature, self-concept and user image are measured with the same adjectives. In this study, thus, the measurement of self-concept is consistent with that of destination personality. Therefore, the same adjectives were used to measure the four aspects of self-concept with a five point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree (see Tables 3.2 and 3.3). Different response cues were used to guide the respondents to rate their actual, ideal, social, and ideal social self-concept (Sirgy, Johar, Samli, & Claiborne, 1991; Sirgy & Samli, 1985) .

- **Actual self-concept:** the sort of person you think you are, or the way in which you actually see yourself; e.g. I am the type of person who is stylish.
- **Ideal self-concept:** the sort of person you would most like to be (or being), or the way in which you ideally see yourself; e.g. I like to be the type of person who is stylish.
- **Social self-concept:** the sort of person you are seen by others, or the way you believe other people see you; e.g. those people who are close to me see me as being stylish.
- **Ideal social self-concept:** the sort of person you like to be seen by others, or the way you want others to see you; e.g. I like those people who are close to me to see me as being

stylish.

Table 3.1 Measurement Scale of Destination Personality

down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5
family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
sincere	1	2	3	4	5
wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
original	1	2	3	4	5
cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
friendly	1	2	3	4	5
daring	1	2	3	4	5
exciting	1	2	3	4	5
spirited	1	2	3	4	5
imaginative	1	2	3	4	5
up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
independent	1	2	3	4	5
reliable	1	2	3	4	5
charming	1	2	3	4	5
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
secure	1	2	3	4	5
successful	1	2	3	4	5
confident	1	2	3	4	5
upper class	1	2	3	4	5
glamorous	1	2	3	4	5
good looking	1	2	3	4	5
outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5
masculine	1	2	3	4	5
Western	1	2	3	4	5
tough	1	2	3	4	5
rugged	1	2	3	4	5

Table 3.2 Measurement Scale of Actual and Ideal Self-Concept

Actual Self						Ideal Self				
1	2	3	4	5	down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	sincere	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	original	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	friendly	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	daring	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	exciting	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	spirited	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	imaginative	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	reliable	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	charming	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	secure	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	successful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	confident	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	upper class	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	glamorous	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	good looking	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	Western	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	tough	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	rugged	1	2	3	4	5

Table 3.3 Measurement Scale of Social and Ideal Social Self-Concept

Social Self						Ideal Social Self				
1	2	3	4	5	down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	sincere	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	original	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	friendly	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	daring	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	exciting	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	spirited	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	imaginative	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	reliable	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	charming	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	secure	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	successful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	confident	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	upper class	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	glamorous	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	good looking	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	Western	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	tough	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	rugged	1	2	3	4	5

3.5.2.3 Tourist Involvement

There are two involvement scales receiving great attention in the literature. Both scales were introduced in 1985. Zaichkowsky (1985) proposed the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) to measure involvement as a unidimensional construct; while Laurent and Kapferer (1985) proposed the Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) scale to measure involvement as a multi-dimensional construct. Although both scales have their supporters, in the tourism and leisure field, CIP scale has received much more attention.

In the tourism and leisure literature, efforts to operationalize the involvement construct have drawn heavily from the work of Laurent and Kapferer and their consumer involvement profile (CIP) scale as most of the recent studies in tourism and leisure have utilized involvement as a multidimensional scale (Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, , 1999). Jamrozy, Backman, and Backman (1996) stated that the CIP scale has received so much attention, because this scale conceptualizes involvement as multifaceted and as such, provides an appropriate investigative tool for a complex product such as tourism. Havitz and Dimanche (1997) also reported that although six of the nine leisure involvement data sets published through 1990 used unidimensional scales, excluding comparison research, only nine of thirty-three studies published between 1991 and 1997 used unidimensional scales.

Dimanche, Havitz and Howard (1991) translated the CIP scale from French into English and tested it in the context of recreational and touristic activities. Although Kapferer and Laurent (2003) suggested a five-factor solution as indicated by the five antecedents of involvement (interest, pleasure, sign, risk importance, and risk probability), Dimanche, et al. (1991) found that tourist involvement is composed of four dimensions: sign; importance/pleasure; risk probability; and risk consequence. Their resultss were similar to Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) original findings. The measurement scale of tourist involvement with wording modification was developed on the basis of these two studies and other relevant literature. This scale was composed of 15 items. The respondents were asked to rate each of the items using a five point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. The items comprising the instrument are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Measurement Scale of Tourist Involvement

I attach great importance to travel.	1	2	3	4	5
Travel is an activity that leaves me totally indifferent.	1	2	3	4	5
I can say that travel interests me a lot	1	2	3	4	5
When one travels, it is a bit like giving a gift to oneself.	1	2	3	4	5
I give myself pleasure by traveling.	1	2	3	4	5
For me, traveling is somewhat a pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5
You can tell about a person by whether or not he/she travels.	1	2	3	4	5
Where I travel gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5
Where you travel tells something about you.	1	2	3	4	5
It is really annoying to go traveling somewhere that isn't suitable.	1	2	3	4	5
When you choose a travel destination, it is not a big deal if you make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
If, after I traveled somewhere, my choice proved to be poor, I would be very upset.	1	2	3	4	5
It is rather complicated to choose a travel destination.	1	2	3	4	5
Whenever one travels, one never really knows whether it is the right choice.	1	2	3	4	5
When faced with choosing among destinations, I always feel a bit at a loss to make the right choice.	1	2	3	4	5

3.5.2.4 Travel Behavior

Travel behavior was operationalized as destination preference. This construct was measured with three items using a five point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. Destination preference items (Table 3.5) were adopted from general brand preference literature with wording modification (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Jamal & Goode, 2001; Sirgy, Johar, & Claiborne, 1992; Sirgy, Johar, Samli, & Claiborne, 1991).

Table 3.5 Measurement Scales of Tourist Behavior

I like this destination better than any other destination.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a favorable impression of this destination.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination.	1	2	3	4	5

3.5.2.5 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are two essential issues in the measurement of constructs. Reliability deals with how consistently similar measures produce similar results (Zikmund, 2003). Reliability has two dimensions: repeatability and internal consistency. The dimension of internal consistency, which was discussed in this study, refers to the ability of a scale item to correlate with other items of the sample scale that are intended to measure the same construct. It can be assessed by Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 or higher indicate that the measurement scale is moderately reliable (Nunnally, 1978). In structural equation modeling (SEM), the composite reliability is used to assess the internal reliability. It is analogous to Cronbach's alpha and is calculated by the formula developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Validity refers to how well the measurement captures what it is intended to measure (Zikmund, 2003). There are three major types of validity: face/content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity (convergent validity and discriminant validity). Face/content validity refers to the agreement among experts that the scale is measuring what it is supposed to measure, criterion validity refers to the degree of correspondence between a measure and a criterion variable, usually measured by their correlation. Construct validity refers to the ability of a measure to confirm a network of related hypotheses generated from a theory based on constructs. Construct validity includes convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Face validity of the measurement instrument was assessed by having five professors in the field examine the instrument and provide feedback. After the revision, the survey instrument was given to graduate students majoring in hospitality and tourism management to solicit feedback as well as to check for readability of the questions and estimated time to complete the survey. Additionally, a formal pretest was conducted on a convenience sample.

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which two measures of the same concept

are correlated. It was assessed from the measurement model by confirmatory factor analysis by estimating t-tests of factor loadings. If all factor loadings for the indicators in the same construct are statistically significant, convergent validity is supported (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Discriminant validity was assessed for every possible pair of constructs by constraining the estimated correlation parameter between them to 1.0 and then performing a chi-square difference test on the values obtained for the constrained and unconstrained model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). A significantly lower chi-square value for the model in which the trait correlations are not constrained to unity indicates that the traits are not perfectly correlated and that discriminant validity is achieved.

3.6 STATISTICAL METHODS

Several statistical methods were conducted for the data analysis. The SPSS statistical package and LISREL was used to analyze the data. First, descriptive statistics was generated to evaluate the distribution of variables. Then, Pearson correlation, structural equation modeling (SEM), and hierarchical multiple regression analysis were performed to test the proposed hypotheses. Pearson correlation was employed to test H1, SEM was utilized to test H2, H3, H4, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test H5.

3.6.1 Pearson Correlation

Pearson correlation analysis is the most popular technique to investigate the relationship of one variable to another (Zikmund, 2000). Pearson correlation coefficient, a measure of linear association, ranges from +1.0 indicating a perfect positive relationship to -1.0 implying a perfect negative relationship. The larger the correlation coefficient is, the stronger the relationship between the two variables is.

3.6.2 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

Structural equation modeling (SEM) examines a series of dependence relationships simultaneously, thus it was utilized to test several hypotheses (H2, H3, H4) proposed in this study. Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 proposed direct influence of self-concept, destination

personality, and SC-DP congruence on travel behavior. Hypothesis 5 deals with the moderating effect of involvement on the relationship between self-congruity and travel behavior. Hypothesis 5 was tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

There are two components of SEM: the measurement model and structural equation model. When the measurement model and the structural model are combined, researchers can evaluate relations among variables that are free of measurement error through the combined comprehensive statistical model (Hoyle, 1995). The following sections discuss measurement model and structural equation model in detail.

3.6.2.1 Measurement Model

The measurement model prescribes the posited relationships of the observed variables to the underlying constructs, with the constructs allowed to intercorrelate freely (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Confirmatory factor analysis is used to test the measurement model.

According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), measurement models should be evaluated and re-specified before the measurement models and structural equation models are examined simultaneously. Therefore, before testing the overall measurement model, each construct in the model should be analyzed separately to assess their unidimensionality. In this study, six constructs are identified in the model, including: actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, social self-concept, ideal social self-concept, destination personality, and involvement. Each of them was tested using confirmatory factor analysis. Constructs with unacceptable fits (lower than 0.7 of factor loading) were re-specified by deleting the indicators that did not work out as planned.

After assessing the unidimensionality of each construct individually (Sethi & King, 1994), a measurement model for each pair of constructs was estimated, combining them two by two (Jöreskog, 1993). First, each construct's fit is measured. After making sure that the fit of each construct is acceptable, the fit of two constructs (a pair) is measured. All constructs are paired with each other. Afterwards, each pair of constructs' fit is measured separately to make sure that indicators of each construct do not load on other constructs. Then the overall measurement model fit is tested (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Jöreskog, 1993; Sethi & King, 1994).

3.6.2.2 Structural Model

The structural portion of the SEM allows for the testing of multiple equations with multiple dependent variables. It is the hypothetical model that prescribes the relationship among latent constructs and observed variables that are not indicators of latent constructs (Hoyle, 1995). This statistical method provides parameter values (i.e., path coefficients) for each of the research hypotheses. In addition, each path coefficient can be tested for its respective statistical significance for the hypotheses' relationships, while including standard errors and calculated t-values (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). The proposed model consists of three exogenous constructs (destination personality, self-concept, self-congruence), and one endogenous constructs (tourist behavior). SEM is used to test the path coefficient of each hypothesized relationship between destination personality, self-concept, and self-congruity between destination personality and self-concept on travel behavior.

In addition, Hair et al. (1977) suggested a need to examine the standardized solution for another evaluation for the structural model. The standard solution indicates that the estimated coefficients all have equal variances with a maximum value of 1.0. Furthermore, for the measure of the entire structural equation, an overall coefficient of determinant (R^2) should be calculated for the overall explanation of the variance. The model also enables explanations of direct, indirect, and total structural effects of the exogenous constructs on the endogenous constructs.

3.6.2.3 Evaluation of Model Fit

After the measurement models and structural models are estimated, the model validity needs to be estimated with goodness-of-fit indices. Generally, there are three groups of overall model fit measures used to evaluate the measurement and structural models. They are absolute fit measures (AFM), incremental fit measures (IFM), and parsimonious fit measures (PFM) (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

The first group of fit indices is absolute fit measures, which are a direct measure of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. The commonly used measures include the chi-square (χ^2) statistic, goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI), root means square residual (RMSR) and standardized root mean residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The most

fundamental absolute fit index is chi-square (χ^2) goodness-of-fit statistic with an associated p value. It is used to quantify the differences between the observed and estimated covariance matrices. The model is deemed acceptable if the chi-square value is non-significant. However, it was well recognized that chi-square values are largely influenced by the sample size and a large sample size could easily produce a significant chi-square value. Therefore, other fit indices should also be utilized to evaluate the fit of models (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

GFI is another absolute fit index. The possible range of GFI values is 0 to 1 with higher values indicating better fit. GFI values of greater than .90 conventionally are considered good. As GFI often runs high compared to other fit indices, Schumacker and Lomax (2004) suggested using .95. AGFI to take into account differing degrees of model complexity. AGFI should also be at least .90. AGFI values are typically lower than GFI values. No statistical test is associated with either (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

Both RMSR and SRMR are measures based on residuals. RMR is the mean absolute value of the covariance residuals. The closer RMR is to 0, the better the model fit. The rule of thumb is that RMR should be less than .05. However, an unstandardized RMR is difficult to interpret, SRMR is recommended instead. SRMR is the average difference between the predicted and observed variances and covariances in the model, based on standardized residuals. The smaller the SRMR, the better the model fit. SRMR = 0 indicates perfect fit. A value less than .05 is widely considered good fit and below .08 adequate fit (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

RMSEA is also called the discrepancy per degree of freedom. By convention, there is good model fit if RMSEA is less than or equal to .05. There is an adequate fit if RMSEA is less than or equal to .08. More recently, Hu and Bentler (1999) have suggested RMSEA <= .06 as the cutoff for a good model fit. RMSEA is a popular measure of fit, partly because it does not require comparison with a null model and is less sensitive to sample size.

The second group of fit indices is incremental fit indices, which assess how well a specified model fits relative to some alternative baseline model. The commonly used measures include normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), and relative noncentrality index (RNI). NFI is a ratio of the difference in the chi-square value for the fitted model and a null model divided by the chi-square value for the null model. It ranges between 0 and 1 and a model with perfect fit would produce an NFI of 1. By convention, NFI values above .95 are good, between .90 and .95 acceptable, and below .90

indicates a need to respecify the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

CFI compares the existing model fit with a null model which assumes the latent variables in the model are uncorrelated (the "independence model"). CFI, like RMSEA, is one measure least affected by sample size. CFI varies from 0 to 1. CFI close to 1 indicates a very good fit. By convention, CFI should be equal to or greater than .90 to accept the model, indicating that 90% of the covariation in the data can be reproduced by the given model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

TLI also involves a comparison of a specified theoretical measurement model and a baseline null model. It is also called non-normed fit index. As it is not normed, TLI's value is not guaranteed to vary from 0 to 1. TLI value close to 1 indicates a good fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) have suggested TLI >= .95 as the cutoff for a good model fit and this is widely accepted. TLI values below .90 indicate a need to respecify the model. Like the other incremental fit indices, higher RNI values represent better fit. RFI close to 1 indicates a good fit. RNIs lower than .90 are usually not associated with good fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

The third group is parsimonious fit measures (PFM), which provide information about which model among a set of competing models is best, considering its fit relative to its complexity. The commonly used measures include parsimony goodness-of-fit index (PGFI), and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI). PGFI is a variant of GFI; and PNFI adjusts the NFI. Both indices' values range between 0 and 1. Neither PGFI nor PNFI taken alone is a useful indicator of a single model's fit. Therefore, there is no accepted cut-off level for a good model. When used in comparing models, the one with a higher PGFI and PNFI is better (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). Table 3.6 summarizes all the fit indices discussed above and their associated cutoff values.

Table 3.6 Summary of Model Fit Index

Fit Index	Cutoff Values
Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)	
Chi-square ($\chi 2$) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	p>.05
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	>.90 is a good fit
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	>.90 is a good fit
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	<.05 is a close fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<=.08 is an acceptable fit; <=.06 is a good fit
Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)	
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	>.90 is an acceptable fit; >.95 is a good fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	
Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)	
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	Neither taken alone is a useful indicator of a single model's fit. There is no accepted cut-off level for a good model. When used in comparing models, the one with a higher PGFI or PNFI is better
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	

3.6.3 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

The most widely used statistical procedure to estimate moderating effects is hierarchical multiple regressions (HMR). HMR can detect the moderating effects for moderator variables that are measured on both continuous and dichotomous scales (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). HMR is favored by researchers over other statistical techniques, such as the comparison of sub-group based correlation coefficients for two or more sub-groups, and HMR analysis provides researchers with important information about slope differences for various sub-groups (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). Therefore, the study used the HMR to examine the presence of moderating effects of tourist involvement.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlines the research design for the study. It includes the description of the sample and the method of the data collection. Measurement scales were developed to measure the constructs involved in this study. A questionnaire was created to collect data. The statistical methods that were employed to analyze the data were also discussed in detail. Additionally, the issue of reliability and validity was mentioned.

CHAPTER IV RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of data analysis and hypothesis testing. The first section provides the pretest results of scale items. The second section describes the demographic profiles and travel behavior of the respondents. The third section discusses the results of the hypotheses testing.

4.2 PRETEST

As stated in Chapter III, before the final survey instrument could be prepared, it was necessary to conduct a pretest of scale items. The purpose of the pretest is to validate the scale items to be used in the study that were either developed specifically for this study or modified from previous studies.

Review of the literatures resulted in 27 items for destination personality, actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, social self-concept, and ideal social self-concept respectively. In addition, three items were developed to measure tourist behavior, and fifteen items to measure tourist involvement.

These items were submitted to five professors for the assessment of content validity. The professors were asked to provide comments on content and understandability. They were then asked to edit and improve the items to enhance their clarity, readability, and content adequacy. They were also asked to identify any of the scale items that were redundant with other scale items, and to offer suggestions for improving the proposed scale. Then the scales were used for the pretest with undergraduate students empirically.

4.2.1 Pretest Survey Method

The pretest survey questionnaire was distributed through an online survey method. Due to length of the questionnaire, it was split into two parts for separate pretest in order to decrease the fatigue of the respondents. Questionnaire 1 consisted of the scales of destination personality, actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, and tourist behavior; and questionnaire 2 consisted of the scales of destination personality, social self-concept, ideal social self-concept, and tourist involvement. The questionnaires were posted at SurveyMonkey.com, and the links were sent to the respondents through email by asking them to access the particular web addresses.

4.2.2 Pretest Sample

A convenient sample was used to conduct the pretest. Questionnaire 1 was distributed to 273 undergraduate students in three classes at Virginia Tech; and 213 usable questionnaires were generated. Questionnaire 2 was distributed to 300 undergraduate students in one large class at the same university; and 239 usable questionnaires were generated. These responses were analyzed to test the reliability of the measurement items of destination personality, tourist behavior, and tourist involvement. The feedback received was also used to refine the initial instrument scales and develop the final version of the survey instrument.

4.2.3 Pretest Results

The results of the pretest provided the necessary validation in order to finalize the scale items to be used in the final survey. This section provides a discussion of which items were chosen and how they were determined to be valid.

One of the objectives of a pretest is to establish a unidimensional scale for the measurement of constructs. Unidimensionality refers to the existence of a single construct explaining a set of indicators. To detect scale dimensionality, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with a principal component method was conducted for each construct and sub-construct. A separate principal component analysis was conducted for each scale. First of all, to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined. A value of .50 or above from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test indicates that the

data are adequate for exploratory factor analysis and that a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity is required. In order to make sure that each factor identified by EFA has only one dimension and that each attribute loads on only one factor, attributes that had factor loadings of lower than 0.4 and attributes loading on more than one factor with a loading score of equal to or greater .40 on each factor were eliminated from the analysis (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977).

4.2.3.1 Destination Personality

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to determine the underlying factors of destination personality scale. The items that had cross-loadings or no loadings higher than 0.40 were deleted, which reduced the scale from 27 items to 19. Four dimensions were extracted as displayed in Table 4.1. They explained 61.5% of the total variance. Although the result is different from the dimensionality of brand personality scale, most of the items loaded on the expected factors. Based on the labels of brand personality scale, the four dimensions were named as Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity, and Ruggedness. The dimension of Competence in BPS did not emerge. This is because the original list of items included in the pretest was a shortened version. In addition, two items (original and cheerful) of Sincerity factor of BPS loaded on Excitement; and two items (confident and successful) of Competence factor of BPS loaded on Sophistication dimension in this test. The reliability coefficients were calculated and ranged from 0.765 to 0.818 for the dimensions, which means they are all reliable.

Table 4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Destination Personality

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha
Excitement		4.855	25.6%	0.818
Spirited	0.828			
Exciting	0.825			
Imaginative	0.759			
Daring	0.737			
Original	0.543			
Cheerful	0.493			
Sophistication		2.684	14.1%	0.798
Upper Class	0.817			
Glamorous	0.808			
Good Looking	0.734			
Confident	0.616			
Successful	0.615			
Sincerity		2.452	12.9%	0.814
Sincere	0.849			
Wholesome	0.789			
Family-Oriented	0.788			
Down-to-Earth	0.710			
Ruggedness		1.698	8.9%	0.765
Rugged	0.890			
Tough	0.876			
Masculine	0.636			
Western	0.591			
			61.5%	0.813

4.2.3.2 Tourist Involvement

The pretest measurement scale of tourist involvement consisted of 15 items. The items were factor analyzed utilizing a principal components analysis with Varimax rotation to identify any underlying dimension. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (.768) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p<0.001$) indicated that data were acceptable for factor analysis. One item "travel is an activity that leaves me totally indifferent" was deleted due to no significant factor loadings. Four factors were derived and explained 64.6% of the total variance (Table 4.2). The factors were consistent with previous studies and were

labeled as Pleasure/Interest, Sign, Risk Probability, and Risk Importance (Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991; Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996). All the factor loadings are higher than .600. The reliability coefficients ranged from .590 to .845.

Table 4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Tourist Involvement

	Factor Loadings	Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha
Pleasure/Interest		28.3%	0.845
I enjoy traveling.	0.843		
Traveling is a bit like giving myself a gift.	0.840		
I can say that travel interests me a lot.	0.833		
I attach great importance to travel.	0.713		
For me, traveling is somewhat a pleasure.	0.615		
Sign		14.5%	0.830
Where I travel gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.	0.875		
Where you travel tells something about you.	0.869		
I can tell a lot about a person by whether or not he/she travels.	0.758		
Risk Probability		11.4%	0.649
When faced with choosing among destinations, I always feel a bit at a loss to make the right choice.	0.828		
Whenever one travels, one never really knows whether it is the right choice.	0.735		
It is rather complicated to choose a travel destination.	0.697		
Risk Importance		10.4%	0.590
If, after I traveled somewhere, my choice proved to be poor, I would be very upset.	0.762		
When you choose a travel destination, it is not a big deal if you make a mistake.	-0.722		
It is really annoying to go traveling somewhere that isn't suitable.	0.695		
		64.6%	**0.679**

4.2.3.3 Tourist Behavior

Tourist behavior was operationalized as destination preference, which was made up of three items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (.642) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p<0.001$) indicated that data were acceptable for factor analysis. This scale was uni-dimensional. This factor could explain 72.3% of the total variance. All the factor loadings are higher than .700. The reliability coefficient was .804 (Table 4.3)

Table 4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Tourist Behavior

	Factor Loadings	Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha
Tourist Behavior		**72.3%**	**0.804**
I like this destination better than any other destination.	0.911		
This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination.	0.889		
I have a favorable impression of this destination.	0.741		

4.2.4 Summary of the Pretest

The pretest utilized a convenience sample of undergraduate students in Virginia Tech to examine the measurement items for the proposed constructs: destination personality, tourist involvement and tourist behavior. The results of exploratory factor analyses and reliability coefficients showed that most of the dimensions presented a satisfactory score of .70 and higher. The indicators used for each construct explained a substantial amount of the variance of their constructs.

4.3 DATA COLLECTION AND SAMPLE

This section discusses the final survey method, the sample, the respondents' demographic characteristics and their general travel behavior.

4.3.1 Final Questionnaire

Final questionnaire made up of five parts. Part I collects respondents' travel characteristics; Part II includes the items that measure destination personality. Part III includes scales of four aspects of self-concept. Part IVD includes items that measure tourist involvement. The last part collects information on respondents' demographics.

4.3.2 Sampling

Data were collected using an online panel survey, a marketing research method used with increasing frequency. ZoomPanel was utilized, an online panel of some 2.5 million customers. The survey invitations were sent to 2600 respondents in December 2008. Within one week, 718 responses returned and 55 of them were incomplete. A final sample of 663 was used for the analysis. Therefore, the response rate is 25.5%. Although the response rate is not high enough, it should be noted that before the link to the survey automatically closed when the predetermined number of responses was reached.

4.3.3 Profile of Respondents

A general overview of the respondents is discussed in this part. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented, followed by the characteristics of the general travel behavior of the respondents.

4.3.3.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The demographic characteristics of gender, marital status, education, ethnicity, total annual household income, and age, are included in this section in order to provide a descriptive profile of the respondents (Table 4.4). This table also provides a comparison of

demographics between this study's sample and 2005 U.S. travel market. The 2005 U.S. travel market demographic information was obtained from TIA (Travel Industry Association).

Of all 663 respondents, there were more male respondents (55.7%) than females. The majority of the respondents (68.1%) were living with spouse/partner, which is very close to the percentage (70%) provided by TIA report. In terms of education level, 43.6% of the respondents had college degrees, 24.7% had some college or went to technical school, and 17.3% of them had master degrees. This sample included higher percentage of respondents with a higher education degree than 2005 U.S. Travel Market (39% of travelers have a college degree). In addition, the majority of the respondents were Caucasians (87.5%). As far as the total annual household income is concerned, 33.3% of the respondents reported a total annual household income of $40,000-$70,000, 22.4% had an annual household income of $70,001-$100,000, and 26.0% of them reported an annual income of more than $100,000. With regard to the respondents' age, their mean age is 43 with a standard deviation of 16; while the mean age of 2005 U.S. domestic travelers was 46.

4.3.3.2 Characteristics of the General Travel Behavior of the Respondents

Table 4.5 displayed the respondents' characteristics of the general travel behavior, including their trip destination, length of stay (nights spent in the destination), frequency of visiting the same destination, trip planning (how far in advance they decided on the trip), trip type, and travel party.

Specifically, the majority of the respondents visited a domestic destination. Over half of them spent 2-4 nights at the destination. Almost 29% of the respondents were the first time visitors to the destination, 25.6% of them visited the same destination for 2-3 times, 20.8% of them for 4-8 times, and 24.7% of them for nine times or more. In terms of their trip planning, over half of the respondents decided on the trip two months or more in advance. With regard to the trip type, 29.7% of the respondents took a city trip, 18.3% of them visited their family and/or friends, 14.2% of them spent time in a resort, 9.7% of them participated in outdoor activities, 5.0% and 4.7% of them took a cultural/heritage trip, and theme park trip respectively. In addition, most of the respondents traveled with their family members/relatives (36.9%), or only with their spouse/partner (36.8%). The rest of the respondents either traveled alone (12.6%), or traveled just with friends (6.5%), or with family/relatives/friends (6.2%), or participated in an organized tour (0.9%).

Table 4.4 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	TIA*
Gender (n=663)			
Female	294	44.3	
Male	369	55.7	
Marital Status (n=652)			
Single (never married)	136	20.9	16
Living with spouse/partner	444	68.1	70
Widowed	18	2.8	
Separated	5	0.8	14
Divorced	49	7.5	
Education (n=663)			
High school or less	67	10.1	
Some college/Technical school	164	24.7	
College degree	289	43.6	39
Master degree	115	17.3	
Doctoral degree	28	4.2	
Ethnicity (n=656)			
Caucasian	574	87.5	
African-American	25	3.8	
Hispanic	13	2.0	
Asian	36	5.5	
Native American	4	0.6	
Other	4	0.6	
Total Annual Household Income (n=661)			
Less than $40,000	121	18.3	Mean=$70,200
$40,000-70,000	220	33.3	Median=$62,900
$70,001-100,000	148	22.4	
$100,001-130,000	82	12.4	
$130,001-160,000	42	6.4	
$160,001-190,000	18	2.7	
Over $190,000	30	4.5	
	Mean	**Standard Deviation**	
Age (n=659)	43.3	15.9	

* Source: Domestic Travel Market Report, 2006 Edition

Table 4.5 Travel Behavioral Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Trip Destination (n=663)		
Domestic	579	87.2
International	84	12.8
Length of Stay (Nights Spent) (n=623)		
2	134	21.5
3	129	20.7
4	92	14.8
5	60	9.6
6	42	6.7
7	77	12.4
8 or more	89	14.3
Frequency of Visiting the Destination (n=620)		
First time	179	28.9
2-3 times	159	25.6
4-8 times	129	20.8
9 times or more	153	24.7
How far in advance did you decide on this trip? (n=657)		
less than 2 weeks	67	10.2
2 weeks to 1 month	106	16.1
more than 1 month and less than 2 months	150	22.8
2 months or more	334	50.8
Trip Type (n=661)		
outdoor trip	64	9.7
resort trip	94	14.2
city trip	196	29.7
cultural/heritage trip	33	5.0
theme park trip	31	4.7
Visiting friends and family	121	18.3
Other	122	18.5
Travel Party (n=658)		
Alone	83	12.6
Spouse/Partner	242	36.8
Family Members/Relatives	243	36.9
Friends	43	6.5
Family/Relatives/Friends	41	6.2
Organized Tour	6	0.9

4.3.4 Descriptive Statistics, Skewness, and Kurtosis

Frequency distributions for each variable in the study were first run and examined to ensure that the data were "clean." Errors were corrected and frequencies were run a second time to ensure that all of the errors had been corrected. Next, measures of central tendency were run for each of the variables in the study. The mean scores and standard deviations in addition to the skewness and kurtosis of each of the variables in the study are shown in Appendix A.

Since SEM will be used to test the model in this study, normality of the variables should be checked. To assess the normality of the distribution of the data, the skewness and kurtosis of each variable were examined. The critical value for both of these measures of normality is drawn from a z distribution. The SPSS software package was used to generate the skewness and kurtosis values for each of the variables in the model. Therefore, for the calculated skewness and kurtosis values, zero assumes perfect normality in the data distribution (which is seldom achieved), ± 2.58 indicating rejecting the normality assumption at the 0.01 probability level, and ± 1.96 signifies a 0.05 error level (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). By applying the above criteria to the skewness values for each of the variables listed in Appendix A, it is clear that no variable fell outside the ±1.96 range for skewness. Therefore, it can be assumed that all of the variables for the study are reasonably free from skewness.

Another data characteristic that was considered is the kurtosis: how observations cluster around a central point for a given standard distribution (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). Distributions that are more peaked than normal are called "leptokurtic," whereas those that are flatter than normal are referred to as "platykurtic." Positive values for kurtosis show that a distribution has a higher than normal peak. Looking again at the analysis included in Appendix A, none of the variables fell outside ±2.56 range for kurtosis. Therefore, the study can conclude that none of variables was leptokurtic or platykurtic.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis of the data collected. First, the sample was split into two sets. The first set was used to test the hypothesis. The second set was used to validate the results. The two sets of data used in this study were compared to identify if they had similar demographic patterns using chi-square tests and independent t-test. Results in Table 4.6 indicated that there is no significant difference between two groups in

terms with gender, age, marital status, level of education, ethnicity, and total annual household income. Therefore, the two sub samples are comparable in their demographics.

Table 4.6 Demographic Comparison between Two Datasets

	Dataset 1		Dataset 2		Total			
	Frequency	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**	χ^2	**Sig.**
Gender							0.912	0.340
Female	152	46.2%	142	42.5%	294	44.3%		
Male	177	53.8%	192	57.5%	369	55.7%		
Marital Status							3.241	0.518
Single (never married)	65	20.1%	71	21.6%	136	20.9%		
Living with spouse/partner	221	68.4%	223	67.8%	444	68.1%		
Widowed	8	2.5%	10	3.0%	18	2.8%		
Separated	1	0.3%	4	1.2%	5	0.8%		
Divorced	28	8.7%	21	6.4%	49	7.5%		
Education							6.191	0.185
High school or less	27	8.2%	40	12.0%	67	10.1%		
Some college/ Technical school	76	23.1%	88	26.3%	164	24.7%		
College degree	156	47.4%	133	39.8%	289	43.6%		
Master degree	54	16.4%	61	18.3%	115	17.3%		
Doctoral degree	16	4.9%	12	3.6%	28	4.2%		
Ethnicity							4.020	0.547
Caucasian	291	89.3%	283	85.8%	574	87.5%		
African-American	8	2.5%	17	5.2%	25	3.8%		
Hispanic	5	1.5%	8	2.4%	13	2.0%		
Asian	18	5.5%	18	5.5%	36	5.5%		
Native American	2	0.6%	2	0.6%	4	0.6%		
Other	2	0.6%	2	0.6%	4	0.6%		
Total Annual Household Income							5.297	0.506
Less than $40,000	59	17.9%	62	18.7%	121	18.3%		
$40,000-70,000	115	35.0%	105	31.6%	220	33.3%		
$70,001-100,000	79	24.0%	69	20.8%	148	22.4%		
$100,001-130,000	40	12.2%	42	12.7%	82	12.4%		
$130,001-160,000	17	5.2%	25	7.5%	42	6.4%		
$160,001-190,000	6	1.8%	12	3.6%	18	2.7%		
Over $190,000	13	4.0%	17	5.1%	30	4.5%		
	Mean						t value	
Age	42.6		44.0		43.3		-1.127	0.260

Second, paired samples t tests were used to see whether the four aspects of self-concept are indeed different from each. Then Table 4.7 summarizes the results of the t tests. The results showed that 16 out of 19 pairs of actual and social self-concept items were not significantly different at .05 level. In addition, 14 out of 19 pairs of ideal and ideal social self-concept items were not significantly different at .05 level. Therefore, actual self-concept and social self-concept are not distinct from each other; and ideal self-concept and ideal social self-concept are not distinct from each other. As a result, in the following analysis, social self-concept and ideal social self-concept were excluded. As SC-DP congruence score is calculated as the difference between destination personality and self-concept, social SC-DP congruence and ideal social SC-DP congruence were also not included in the following analysis.

Table 4.7 Summary of Paired Samples t-Tests among Four Aspects of Self-Concept

	actual vs. ideal	**actual vs. social**	**ideal vs. social**	**actual vs. ideal social**	**ideal vs. ideal social**	**social vs. ideal social**
Down-to-Earth		n.s.			n.s.	
Family-Oriented		n.s.		n.s.		
Sincere		n.s.			n.s.	
Wholesome		n.s.			n.s.	
Original		n.s.			n.s.	
Cheerful		n.s.			n.s.	
Daring		n.s.			n.s.	
Exciting		n.s.			n.s.	
Spirited					n.s.	
Imaginative		n.s.				
Successful		n.s.			n.s.	
Confident		n.s.				
Upper Class		n.s.				
Glamorous					n.s.	
Good Looking		n.s.			n.s.	
Masculine	n.s.			n.s.		n.s.
Western		n.s.		n.s.	n.s.	
Tough		n.s.			n.s.	
Rugged		n.s.			n.s.	

Because two aspects of self-concept (social and ideal social) and two aspects of SC-DP congruence (social and ideal social) were excluded from further analysis, hypotheses 1-5 were restated. In addition, Figure 4.1a and 4.1b depicted the modified model and hypotheses.

H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.

H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.

H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.

H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.1 Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H5: The relationship between self-congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.1 The relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.2: The relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

Finally, hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 1 was tested with a series of Pearson correlation. Hypotheses 2-4 were tested using SEM. Hypothesis 5 was tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Figure 4.1 Revised Models with Hypotheses

Figure 4.1a Interrelationship between Self-Concept and Destination Personality

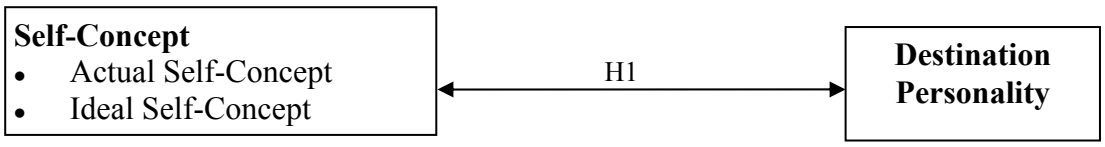
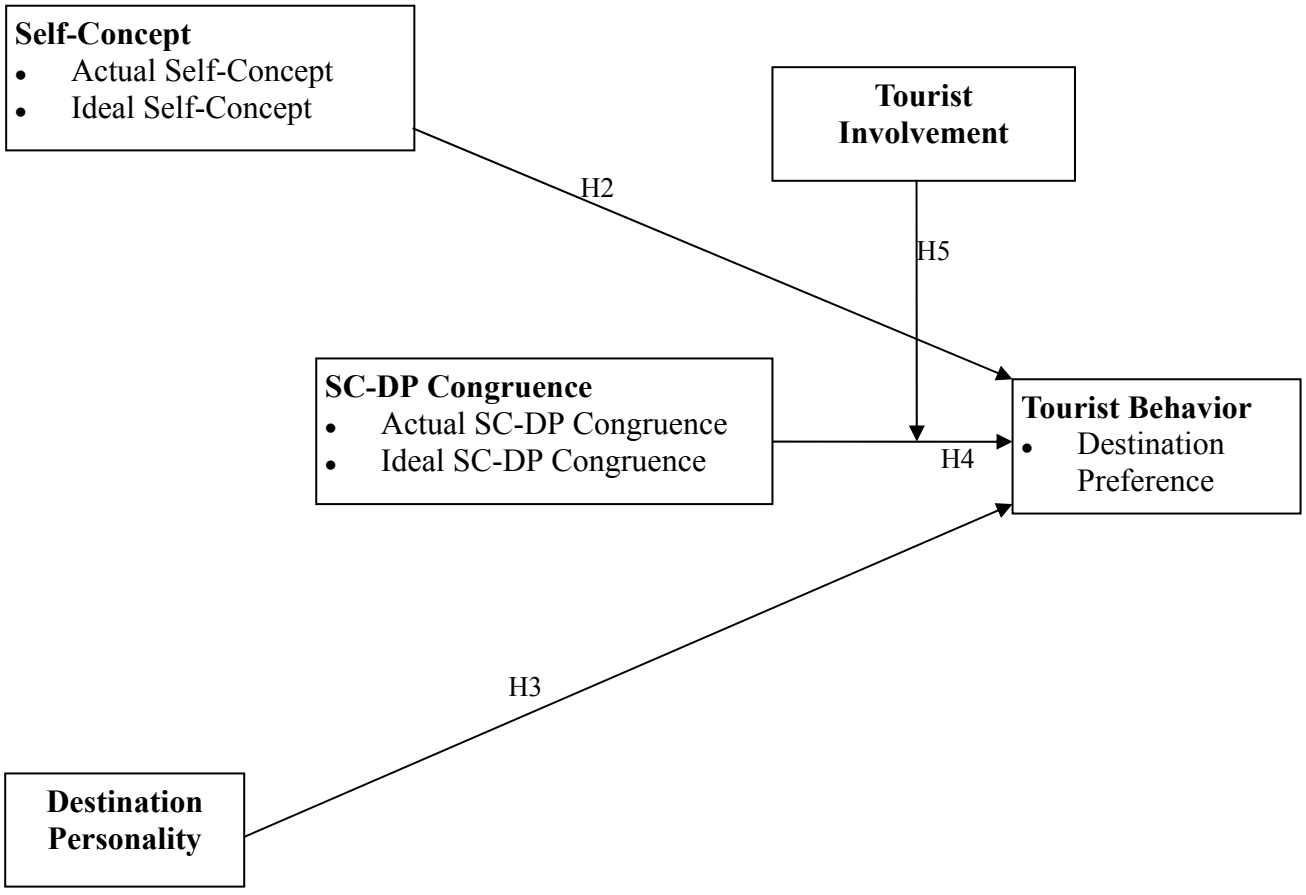


Figure 4.1b Structural Relationships



4.4.1 Test of Hypothesis 1: Pearson Correlation

A series of Pearson correlation analyses were used to test the first hypothesis: the relationship between destination personality and two aspects of self-concept (actual self-concept and ideal self-concept).

H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.

H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.

H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.

The results of Person correlation analyses (Table 4.8) indicated that there were positive relationships between destination personality and two aspects of self-concept (actual and ideal self-concept). Specifically, all the relationships were significant at 0.01 level. In addition, the correlation coefficients range from 0.170 to 0.490 between destination personality and actual self-concept; and from 0.144 to 0.359 between destination personality and ideal self-concept. Therefore, the overall results strongly suggest the existence of significant positive relationships between destination personality and two aspects of self-concept. As a result, the first hypothesis was strongly supported.

4.4.2 Test of Hypotheses 2-4

SEM was used to test the hypotheses 2-4 simultaneously. As indicated in the pretest section, destination personality consisted of four dimensions: Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity, and Ruggedness. Therefore, before testing the structural relationships, CFA was used to test the measurement model of destination personality and construct of tourist behavior, as each dimension was measured with several indicators. Before employing CFA to test the overall measurement model, CFA was used to determine the uni-dimensionality of four dimensions of destination personality and construct of tourist behavior. However, summated scales for actual and ideal self-concept and actual and ideal SC-DP congruence were created by averaging their indicators; therefore, they were measured by single indicators (summated scale) and no CFA analyses of the four constructs were needed to determine the uni-dimensionality. Then, CFA was used to test the overall measurement model. After satisfactory results were obtained, SEM was utilized to test the structural relationships.

Table 4.8 Correlations between Destination Personality, Actual Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept

Destination Personality	Actual Self-Concept	Ideal Self-Concept
Down-to-Earth	.355(**)	.252(**)
Family-Oriented	.299(**)	.246(**)
Sincere	.289(**)	.174(**)
Wholesome	.279(**)	.235(**)
Original	.342(**)	.286(**)
Cheerful	.180(**)	.294(**)
Daring	.310(**)	.200(**)
Exciting	.348(**)	.261(**)
Spirited	.318(**)	.247(**)
Imaginative	.290(**)	.238(**)
Successful	.237(**)	.170(**)
Confident	.216(**)	.230(**)
Upper Class	.264(**)	.239(**)
Glamorous	.370(**)	.317(**)
Good Looking	.263(**)	.153(**)
Masculine	.279(**)	.207(**)
Western	.461(**)	.359(**)
Tough	.434(**)	.279(**)
Rugged	.490(**)	.337(**)

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.4.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA analyses were used to confirm the measurement scales of destination personality, and tourist behavior to determine their uni-dimensionality. As proposed in the pretest section, destination personality composed of four dimensions: Excitement (six items), Sophistication (five items), Sincerity (four items), and Ruggedness (four items). Tourist behavior scale included three items.

4.4.2.1.1 CFA of Destination Personality

A total of 19 indicators were used to measure four dimensions of destination personality. Specifically, there were six items measuring Excitement dimension, five items measuring Sophistication dimension, four items measuring Sincerity dimension, and four items measuring Ruggedness dimension. Before testing the overall confirmatory measurement model, the measurement unidimensionality of each dimension of destination personality was assessed individually.

Excitement Dimension

The excitement dimension was measured with six indicators (Spirited, Exciting, Imaginative, Daring, Original, and Cheerful). Through modifications, the items of Cheerful, and Daring were deleted. The final CFA produced satisfactory results (Table 4.9). All the fit indices suggested excellent fit. The Chi-square value was not significant (χ^2 =1.46, df=2, p=0.481) and all other indices showed a very good fit between the data and the measurement model: GFI=1.00, AGFI=0.99, SRMR=0.009, RMSEA=0.000, NFI=1.00, CFI=1.00. The standardized factor loadings revealed ranged from 0.52 to 0.79, which were rather high. The squared multiple correlations (R^2) ranged between 0.35 and 0.83. The composite reliability of this construct produced a value of 0.81, which exceeded the recommended threshold level of 0.70. The extract variance estimate was 0.52, which also met the recommended cutoff value of 0.50. Therefore, four out of the six items were retained for future analysis.

Table 4.9 CFA Summary of Excitement

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	t value	Reliability (Li^2)	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Excitement			**0.81**		**0.52**	
Spirited	0.75	18.43	0.56	0.44		0.76
Exciting	0.78	16.69	0.61	0.39		0.83
Imaginative	0.79	16.90	0.62	0.38		0.67
Original	0.52	10.98	0.27	0.73		0.35
Fit Index	**Value**					
Chi-square ($\chi 2$)	1.46 (p=0.481)					
GFI	1.00					
AGFI	0.99					
SRMR	0.009					
RMSEA	0.000					
NFI	1.00					
CFI	1.00					

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI); Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI); Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR); Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA): Normed Fit Index (NFI); Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

Sophistication Dimension

Five items (Upper-class, Glamorous, Good-looking, Confident, and Successful) were employed to measure the dimension of Sophistication. The first two rounds of CFA analyses suggested that Glamorous and Successful did not contribute much to the measurement model. As a result, these two items were deleted. The final CFA model was a saturated one with three indicators: Upper-class, Good-looking, and Confident (Table 4.10). Since this is a saturated model, all the fit indices were perfect. The standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.68 to 0.77. The squared multiple correlations (R^2) ranged between 0.46 and 0.59. The composite reliability of this construct produced a value of 0.75, which exceeded the recommended threshold level of 0.70. The extract variance estimate was 0.51, exceeding the recommended cutoff value of 0.50. Thus, the three items were retained for further analysis.

Table 4.10 CFA Summary of Sophistication

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	t value	Reliability	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Sophistication			**0.75**		**0.51**	
Upper-class	0.68	11.46	0.46	0.54		0. 46
Good-looking	0.77	12.80	0.59	0.41		0. 59
Confident	0.68	11.38	0.46	0.54		0. 46
Fit Index	**Value**					
Chi-square (χ2)	0.00 (p=1.000)					

Sincerity Dimension

The Sincerity dimension was measured with four items (Sincere, Wholesome, Family-oriented, and Down-to-earth). The first round of CFA suggested that Down-to-earth contribute little to the model; therefore, this item was deleted. After the modification, CFA was rerun and produced a saturated model (Table 4.11). The squared multiple correlations (R^2) ranged between 0.56 and 0.72. The composite reliability of this construct produced a value of 0.77, which exceeded the recommended threshold level of 0.70. The extract variance estimate was 0.52, which also exceeded the recommended cutoff value of 0.50. Therefore, the three items were retained for future analysis.

Table 4.11 CFA Summary of Sincerity

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	t value	Reliability (Li^2)	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Sincerity			**0.77**		**0.52**	
Sincere	0.63	14.46	0.40	0.60		0.58
Wholesome	0.77	16.33	0.59	0.41		0.72
Family-oriented	0.76	14.13	0.58	0.42		0.56
Fit Index	**Value**					
Chi-square (χ2)	0.00 (p=1.000)					

Ruggedness Dimension

Four indicators were utilized to measure the Ruggedness dimension. First CFA produced satisfactory results (Table 4.12). The Chi-square value was insignificant (χ^2 =0.32, df=2, p=0.851), and all other indices showed a very good fit between the data and the measurement model: GFI=1.00, AGFI=1.00, SRMR=0.005, RMSEA=0.00, NFI=1.00, CFI=1.00. The standardized factor loadings revealed high loadings, ranging from 0.61 to 0.98. The squared multiple correlations (R^2) ranged between 0.44 and 0.79. The composite reliability of this construct produced a high value of 0.91, which exceeded the recommended threshold level of 0.70. The extract variance estimate was 0.73, which was also above the recommended cutoff value of 0.50. Therefore, all four items were retained for future analysis.

Table 4.12 CFA Summary of Ruggedness

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	t value	Reliability (Li^2)	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Ruggedness			**0.91**		**0.73**	
Rugged	0.98	19.08	0.96	0.04		0.79
Tough	0.97	18.74	0.94	0.06		0.77
Masculine	0.61	12.65	0.37	0.63		0.44
Western	0.80	12.64	0.64	0.36		0.44
Fit Index	**Value**					
Chi-square (χ2)	0.32 (p=0.851)					
GFI	1.00					
AGFI	1.00					
SRMR	0.005					
RMSEA	0.00					
NFI	1.00					
CFI	1.00					

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI); Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI); Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR); Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA): Normed Fit Index (NFI); Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

4.4.2.1.2 CFA of Tourist Behavior

Tourist behavior was operationalized as destination preference. Destination preference was made up of three items. As this measurement model was saturated, the fit was perfect. Therefore, Chi-square value was 0.00 (df=0, p=1.000). The standardized factor loadings ranged between 0.41 and 0.84 (Table 4.13). The squared multiple correlations (R^2) varied from 0.25 to 0.86. Although the reliability of the third items was relatively low, the overall composite reliability of this construct still produced a value of 0.73, which exceeded the recommended threshold level of 0.70. The extract variance estimate was 0.50, which also met the recommended cutoff value of 0.50. Therefore, all the three items were retained for future analysis.

Table 4.13 CFA Summary of Tourist Behavior

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	t value	Reliability	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Tourist Behavior			**0.73**		**0.50**	
Preference1	0.84	14.38	0.71	0.29		0.86
Preference2	0.79	11.65	0.62	0.38		0.50
Preference3	0.41	8.53	0.17	0.83		0.25

Preference1: I like this destination better than any other destination

Preference2: This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination

Preference3: I have a favorable impression of this destination.

Fit Index	Value
Chi-square ($\chi 2$)	0.00 (p=1.000)

4.4.2.1.3 CFA of Overall Measurement Model

After making sure that each construct was unidimensional, (Sethi & King, 1994), the overall measurement model fit was tested (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Jöreskog, 1993; Sethi & King, 1994). The overall measurement model consisted of nine constructs, tourist behavior, four dimensions of destination personality (Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity, and Ruggedness), actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, actual SC-DP congruence, and ideal SC-DP congruence. Specifically, as summarized in Table 4.14, tourist behavior was measured by three items, Excitement by four items, Sophistication by three items, Sincerity by four items, and Ruggedness by four items, and the other four constructs were all measured by a single summated indicator.

Next, the fit of the measurement model was tested using CFA. The primary interest in this section was to test whether the measurement model has acceptable fit or not. The first round of CFA suggested that item of Original was not a good indicator of dimension Excitement. Therefore, the second round of CFA was conducted and the model was evaluated.

Before evaluating the model as a whole, it is necessary to evaluate the individual parameter estimates. Table 4.15 presented the unstandardized parameter estimates for the proposed measurement model. There were three lines of information for each observed indicator. The first line represents the estimate (lambda), the parentheses value of the second line denotes the standard error, and the third line represents the t-value. An examination of the unstandardized parameter estimation in Table 4.15 revealed all estimates to be both reasonable and statistically significant.

Only the constructs and dimensions with multiple indicators were presented in the table. As shown in Table 4.16, most of the R^2 values and indicator reliability coefficients of individual indicator were above 0.50, which indicates that most of the indicators were high in explanatory power and reliable. Furthermore, the composite reliabilities ranged from 0.74 to 0.92, which were above the cutoff value of 0.70; and the extract variance estimates ranged from 0.50 to 0.74, which were also above the threshold of 0.50. Therefore, the overall measurement model was deemed acceptable.

Table 4.14 Summary of Constructs and their Indicators

Constructs	Indicators
Tourist Behavior	
	Preference1: I like this destination better than any other destination
	Preference2: This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination
	Preference3: I have a favorable impression of this destination.
Destination Personality	
Excitement	Spirited
	Exciting
	Imaginative
	Original (deleted after the first run of CFA)
Sophistication	Upper-class
	Confident
	Good-looking
Sincerity	Sincere
	Wholesome
	Family-oriented
Ruggedness	Rugged
	Tough
	Masculine
	Western
Actual Self-Concept	Single indicator (summated scale)
Ideal Self-Concept	Single indicator (summated scale)
Actual SC-DP Congruence	Single indicator (summated scale)
Ideal SC-DP Congruence	Single indicator (summated scale)

Table 4.15 Parameter Estimates for Overall Measurement Model

Indicators	Constructs/Dimensions								
	Tourist Behavior	Excitement	Sophistication	Sincerity	Ruggedness	Actual Self-Concept	Ideal Self-Concept	Actual SC-DP Congruence	Ideal SC-DP Congruence
Preference1	0.79								
	(0.05)								
	16.82								
Preference2	0.83								
	(0.06)								
	13.97								
Preference3	0.44								
	(0.05)								
	9.55								
Spirited		0.73							
		(0.04)							
		18.36							
Exciting		0.80							
		(0.05)							
		17.57							
Imaginative		0.78							
		(0.05)							
		16.91							

Upper-class	0.52		
	(0.05)		
	9.58		
Confident	0.75		
	(0.05)		
	15.19		
Good-looking	0.80		
	(0.05)		
	14.60		
Sincere		0.63	
		(0.04)	
		14.82	
Wholesome		0.77	
		(0.05)	
		16.61	
Family-oriented		0.76	
		(0.05)	
		14.28	
Rugged			0.98
			(0.05)
			19.08
Tough			0.97
			(0.05)
			18.96
Masculine			0.61
			(0.05)
			12.82
Western			0.81

	(0.06) 12.75			
Actual Self-Concept	0. 52 (0. 02) 25. 10			
Ideal Self-Concept		0. 56 (0. 02) 25. 10		
Actual SC-DP Congruence			0. 39 (0. 02) 25. 10	
Ideal SC-DP Congruence				0. 47 (0. 02) 25. 10

Preference1: I like this destination better than any other destination

Preference2: This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination

Preference3: I have a favorable impression of this destination.

Note: The first line represents the estimate (lambda), the parentheses value of the second line denotes the standard error, and the third line represents the t-value.

The next step in assessing model fit is to examine the extent to which the measurement model is adequately represented by the observed items. The squared multiple correlation (R^2) and indicator reliability for each item; and composite reliability and extract variance estimate for each construct/dimension were calculated for this purpose (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16 Composite Reliability and Validity of Overall Measurement Model

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	Reliability (Li^2)	Composite Reliability	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Tourist Behavior			**0.74**		**0.50**	
Preference1	0.79	0.62		0.38		0.76
Preference2	0.83	0.69		0.31		0.56
Preference3	0.44	0.19		0.81		0.29
Excitement			**0.81**		**0.59**	
Spirited	0.73	0.53		0.47		0.74
Exciting	0.80	0.64		0.36		0.69
Imaginative	0.78	0.61		0.39		0.66
Sophistication			**0.74**		**0.49**	
Upper-class	0.52	0.27		0.73		0.29
Confident	0.75	0.56		0.44		0.85
Good-looking	0.8	0.64		0.36		0.81
Sincerity			**0.77**		**0.52**	
Sincere	0.63	0.40		0.60		0.59
Wholesome	0.77	0.59		0.41		0.71
Family-oriented	0.76	0.58		0.42		0.56
Ruggedness			**0.91**		**0.73**	
Rugged	0.98	0.96		0.04		0.79
Tough	0.97	0.94		0.06		0.77
Masculine	0.61	0.37		0.63		0.45
Western	0.81	0.66		0.34		0.44

Preference1: I like this destination better than any other destination
Preference2: This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination
Preference3: I have a favorable impression of this destination.

Another assessment of the model adequacy was to examine different types of fit indices. Generally, there are three groups of overall model fit measures used to evaluate the measurement and structural models. They are absolute fit measures (AFM), incremental fit measures (IFM), and parsimonious fit measures (PFM) (Stern, Bush, & Hair, 1977). Table 4.17 summarized the fit indices for each group. Overall, the fit indices met the cutoff values, thus the measurement model was considered acceptable.

Table 4.17 Fit Indices for the Overall Measurement Model

Fit Indices	Model 1	Cutoff Values
Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)		
Chi-square ($\chi 2$) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi 2$=267.52 (df=137, p=0.000)	p>.05
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.92	>.90 is a good fit
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	0.054	<.05 is a close fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.055	<=.08 is an acceptable fit; <=.06 is a good fit
Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)		
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.91	>.90 is an acceptable fit; >.95 is a good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.93	
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.95	
Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)		No accepted cut-off level for a good model. When used in comparing models, the one with a higher PGFI or PNFI is better.
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.60	
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.66	

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the confirmation of the measurement of a construct by the use of multiple methods (Zikmund, 2002). It is overlaps between alternative measures that are intended to measure the same construct but that have different sources of undesired variation (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991). In other words, if several observed indicators are used to measure a theoretical construct (i.e., latent variable), those observed indicators should share a good deal of variance (converge together).

In estimating convergent validity, one of the common methods is to examine the standardized confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) parameters' estimated pattern coefficient (i.e. the factor loading) with an associated t-value (Marsh & Grayson, 1995). Convergent validity can be assessed from the measurement model by determining whether each indicator's estimated factor loading on its posited underlying construct factor is significant (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Statistically significant large factor loadings indicate convergent validity. That is, if the values in the off diagonal are large, convergent validity is achieved. As shown in Table 4.15, all of the estimated factor loadings on their posited underlying factors were significant at 0.05 significant levels (i.e., each had a t-value $>\pm 1.96$). Therefore, convergent validity was achieved for all the variables in the study.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity addresses the concept that "dissimilar constructs should differ" (Burns & Bush 1995, p. 275). It refers to the distinctiveness of constructs, meaning that the ability of measures of one construct to have a low correlation with the measures of different constructs. To ensure that the different constructs are measuring different concepts, the discriminant validity was assessed for each construct by examining the constructs in sets of two. For instance, the dimension of Excitement was tested against the dimension of Sophistication in order to establish that these two constructs were not measuring the same thing. Separately, the dimension of Sophistication was tested against the dimension of Sincerity, and so on so forth until every possible pair of constructs was tested.

Discriminant validity was tested by calculating the χ^2 difference between one model, which allowed the correlation between the pair of constructs (with multiple indicators) to be constrained to unity (i.e., perfectly correlated), and another model, which allowed the

correlations to be free. A significant change in χ^2 of the two models demonstrates that discriminant validity has been achieved (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982). Table 4.18 listed the correlations of each pair of constructs/dimensions and χ^2 difference tests between the constrained and the unconstrained models. The results showed that all of the constructs possess discriminant validity. A closer examination revealed that many of the constructs are correlated, as the correlation of each pair ranged from 0.13 to 0.84.

Table 4.18 Summary of Discriminant Validity Tests

	Correlation Value	Correlation Fixed		Correlation Free		Change in χ2	Change in df	p value
		χ^2	df	χ^2	df			
Tourist Behavior vs. Excitement	0.55	100.14	9	35.20	8	64.94	1	0.00
Tourist Behavior vs. Sophistication	0.51	77.53	9	28.70	8	48.83	1	0.00
Tourist Behavior vs. Sincerity	0.28	28.90	9	12.28	8	16.62	1	0.00
Tourist Behavior vs. Ruggedness	0.19	35.87	14	27.94	13	7.93	1	0.00
Excitement vs. Sophistication	0.84	159.88	9	25.71	8	134.17	1	0.00
Excitement vs. Sincerity	0.19	31.37	9	23.22	8	8.15	1	0.00
Excitement vs. Ruggedness	0.34	54.12	14	28.43	13	25.69	1	0.00
Sophistication vs. Sincerity	0.33	48.98	9	29.37	8	19.61	1	0.00
Sophistication vs. Ruggedness	0.17	49.88	14	43.82	13	6.06	1	0.01
Sincerity vs. Ruggedness	0.13	22.05	14	18.06	13	3.99	1	0.05

4.4.2.2 Testing Hypothesis 2-4

In testing Hypotheses 2-4 simultaneously, SEM was utilized. The hypotheses were as follows.

H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.1: Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

The structural model consisted of eight exogenous variables (four dimensions of destination

personality: Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity, and Ruggedness; actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, actual SC-DP congruence, and ideal SC-DP congruence), and one endogenous variable (tourist behavior).

The relationships between tourist behavior and its exogenous variables were assessed based on t-values associated with the path coefficients. If an estimated t-value is greater than a certain critical value ($p<0.05$, t-value=1.96), the hypothesized relationship was supported. Table 4.19 showed the standardized path coefficients with standard errors on the second line and associated t-values on the third line. The results indicated that dimensions of Excitement and Sincerity have significantly positive impacts on tourist behavior. Thus Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

In addition, actual self-concept has a significantly positive influence on tourist behavior (t=0.15, p=0.042); however, ideal self-concept is not a significant predictor. Therefore, H2.1 was supported while H2.2 was not. In terms of the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior, actual SC-DP congruence failed to show significant effect on tourist behavior while ideal SC-DP congruence had a significantly negative impact on tourist behavior (t=-0.21, p=.0.001). As a result, H4.1 was not supported, while H4.2 was, but in an opposite direction.

Table 4.19 Standardized Path Coefficients

	Excite -ment	**Sophisti -cation**	**Sincerity**	**Rugged -ness**	**Actual Self-Concept**	**Ideal Self-Concept**	**Actual SC-DP Congruence**	**Ideal SC-DP Congruence**
Tourist	0.43	0.02	0.15	-0.08	0.15	0.05	0.03	-0.21
Behavior	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.12)	(0.09)	(0.13)	(0.11)
	4.52	0.21	2.31	-1.28	2.05	0.86	0.49	-3.26

Note: The first line represents the standardized path coefficient, the parentheses value of the second line denotes the standard error, and the third line represents the t-value.

4.4.2.3 Model Validation

Hair et al. (1977) pointed out that the researcher must strive not only to estimate a significant model but to ensure that the model can also be used to generalize to the whole population. To validate the results, the researcher can split the sample to two, one for the model estimation and the other one for predictive accuracy estimation. In this study, total sample was split into two, and the second sample (334 cases) was used for the validation purpose. Both CFA and SEM were employed for this purpose.

4.4.2.3.1 CFA of Overall Validation Measurement Model

The CFA analysis results for the validation were assessed based on the unstandardized parameter estimates (factor loadings) with associated t-values (Table 4.20); item reliability and construct composite reliability (Table 4.21); and fit indices (Table 4.22). An examination of the unstandardized parameter estimation in Table 4.20 revealed all estimates to be both reasonable and statistically significant.

Table 4.21 presented the squared multiple correlation (R^2) and indicator reliability for each item; and composite reliability and extract variance estimate for each construct/dimension. Most of the R^2 values and indicator reliability coefficients of individual indicator were above 0.50, which indicates that most of the indicators were high in explanatory power and reliable. Furthermore, the composite reliabilities ranged from 0.72 to 0.87, which were above the cutoff value of 0.70. The extract variance estimates ranged from 0.46 to 0.63. All the estimates were above the threshold of 0.50 except that of Sophistication. Therefore, the validation measurement model was deemed acceptable.

Table 4.22 presented the list of fit indices of the validation model. For comparison purpose, the fit indices for the original final measurement model were also shown. Although the fit indices of the validation model were not as good as those of the original model, half of the fit indices reached the threshold values and the other half were very close. Therefore, the validation model was considered acceptable.

Table 4.20 Parameter Estimates for Overall Validation Measurement Model

Indicators	Constructs/Dimensions								
	Tourist Behavior	Excitement	Sophistication	Sincerity	Ruggedness	Actual Self-Concept	Ideal Self-Concept	Actual SC-DP Congruence	Ideal SC-DP Congruence
Preference1	0.85								
	(0.05)								
	16.83								
Preference2	0.82								
	(0.06)								
	13.88								
Preference3	0.32								
	(0.05)								
	6.74								
Spirited		0.76							
		(0.04)							
		17.58							
Exciting		0.74							
		(0.05)							
		16.15							
Imaginative		0.76							
		(0.05)							
		16.37							
Upper-class			0.57						
			(0.05)						
			10.55						

Confident	0.72 (0.05) 15.37		
Good-looking	0.73 (0.05) 14.43		
Sincere		0.70 (0.04) 16.57	
Wholesome		0.84 (0.04) 19.31	
Family-oriented		0.73 (0.05) 14.21	
Rugged			0.92 (0.05) 19.21
Tough			0.98 (0.05) 20.90
Masculine			0.58 (0.05) 12.83
Western			0.62 (0.06) 10.30

Actual Self-Concept	0.51 (0.02) 25.81			
Ideal Self-Concept		0.51 (0.02) 25.81		
Actual SC-DP Congruence			0.41 (0.02) 25.81	
Ideal SC-DP Congruence				0.42 (0.02) 25.81

Preference1: I like this destination better than any other destination

Preference2: This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination

Preference3: I have a favorable impression of this destination.

Note: The first line represents the estimate (lambda), the parentheses value of the second line denotes the standard error, and the third line represents the t-value.

Table 4.21 Composite Reliability and Validity of Overall Validation Measurement Model

Factor and Indicators	Standardized Loading (Li)	Reliability (Li^2)	Composite Reliability	Error Variance	Extract Variance Estimate	Squared Multiple Correlations
Tourist Behavior			**0.72**		**0.50**	
Preference1	0.85	0.72		0.28		0.81
Preference2	0.82	0.67		0.33		0.56
Preference3	0.32	0.10		0.90		0.14
Excitement			**0.80**		**0.57**	
Spirited	0.76	0.58		0.42		0.69
Exciting	0.74	0.55		0.45		0.61
Imaginative	0.76	0.58		0.42		0.62
Sophistication			**0.72**		**0.46**	
Upper-class	0.57	0.32		0.68		0.32
Confident	0.72	0.52		0.48		0.71
Good-looking	0.73	0.53		0.47		0.64
Sincerity			**0.80**		**0.58**	
Sincere	0.70	0.49		0.51		0.66
Wholesome	0.84	0.71		0.29		0.81
Family-oriented	0.73	0.53		0.47		0.50
Ruggedness			**0.87**		**0.63**	
Rugged	0.92	0.85		0.15		0.76
Tough	0.98	0.96		0.04		0.86
Masculine	0.58	0.34		0.66		0.42
Western	0.62	0.38		0.62		0.29

Preference1: I like this destination better than any other destination
Preference2: This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination
Preference3: I have a favorable impression of this destination.

Table 4.22 Fit Indices for the Overall Validation Measurement Model

Fit Indices	Original Model	Validation Model	Cutoff Values
Absolute Fit Measure (AFM)			
Chi-square ($\chi 2$) goodness-of-fit statistic with associated p value	$\chi 2$=267.52 (df=137, p=0.000)	$\chi 2$=407.92 (df=137, p=0.000)	p>.05
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.92	0.89	>.90 is a good fit
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	0.054	0.072	<.05 is a close fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.055	0.077	<=.08 is an acceptable fit; <=.06 is a good fit
Incremental Fit Measure (IFM)			
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.91	0.88	
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.93	0.89	>.90 is an acceptable fit; >.95 is a good fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.95	0.92	
Parsimonious Fit Measure (PFM)			No accepted cut-off level for a good model. When used in comparing models, the one with a higher PGFI or PNFI is better.
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI)	0.60	0.58	
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.66	0.64	

4.4.2.3.2 SEM of the Validation Model

For the validation purpose, only significant path coefficients from the original structural model were estimated. Therefore, only the paths from dimensions Excitement and Sincerity of destination personality, actual self-concept, and ideal SC-DP congruence to tourist behavior were estimated. Table 4.23 presents the standardized path coefficients of the structural validation model. For comparison purpose, the path coefficients of the original model were also included. The results of validation model suggested that the paths from dimension Excitement, dimension Sophistication, and ideal SC-DP congruence to tourist

behavior were still significant. However, the path from actual self-concept to tourist behavior was not at .05 level.

Table 4.23 Standardized Path Coefficients for Validation Model

	Excite-ment	Sophisti-cation	Sincerity	Rugged-ness	Actual Self-Concept	Ideal Self-Concept	Actual SC-DP Congruence	Ideal SC-DP Congruence
Tourist Behavior	0.35	not	0.18	not	0.08	not	not	-0.16
(Validation	(0.10)	estimated	(0.08)	estimated	(0.12)	estimated	estimated	(0.11)
Model)	5.40		2.94		1.52			-2.94
Tourist Behavior	0.43	0.02	0.15	-0.08	0.15	0.05	0.03	-0.21
(Original	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.12)	(0.09)	(0.13)	(0.11)
Model)	4.52	0.21	2.31	-1.28	2.05	0.86	0.49	-3.26

Note: The first line represents the standardized path coefficient, the parentheses value of the second line denotes the standard error, and the third line represents the t-value.

4.4.2.4 Summary of Hypotheses 2-4

Both original and validation model tests indicated that dimensions of Excitement and Sincerity have significantly positive impacts on tourist behavior. Thus Hypothesis 3 was supported. In addition, both original and validation model tests indicated ideal SC-DP congruence had a significant impact on tourist behavior. As a result, H4.2 was supported. The original model test suggested that actual self-concept has a significantly positive influence on tourist behavior; while the validation test did not support this hypothesis; thus, H2.1 was partially supported. However, H2.2 and H4.1 were not supported.

4.4.3 Test of Hypothesis 5: Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Hypothesis 5 stated the possible moderating effect of tourist involvement on the relationship between actual and ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used for this purpose. First, tourist involvement items were factor analyzed to identify the underlying dimensions. Second, cluster analysis was employed to identify groups of respondents based on the involvement dimensions generated from the factor analysis. Third, the hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to test the moderating effect of tourist involvement on the relationships between actual and ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior.

4.4.3.1 Factor Analysis of Tourist Involvement

Factor analysis of tourist involvement in the pretest staged suggested that tourist involvement composed of four dimensions: Pleasure/Interest, Sign, Risk Probability, and Risk Importance. There were 14 items in the involvement scale. These 14 items were factor analyzed with Varimax rotation. Before the analysis, the data were first assessed for the appropriateness of running factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy test (.794) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p<0.001$) indicated that data were acceptable for factor analysis.

Based on the pretest results, four dimensions were predetermined. All the items were loaded to the dimensions they were supposed to (Table 4. 24). Four factors could explain 68.0% of the total variance, which was slightly higher than the variance explained in the pretest. The factors were, again, labeled as Pleasure/Interest, Sign, Risk Probability, and Risk Importance. All the factor loadings were also higher than .600. The reliability coefficients ranged from .590 to .870, also slightly better than those in the pretest.

4.4.3.2 Identification of Clusters

Cluster was employed to identify groups of respondents based on the tourist involvement dimensions. Both hierarchical and non-hierarchical (quick) clustering methods were performed. Two clusters were identified, with first cluster having 172 members and second cluster having 144 members. The cluster means for each involvement dimension are shown in Table 4.25. ANOVA tests revealed that differences excited between clusters except

the factor of Risk Probability. Cluster I respondents rated all the involvement dimensions higher than Cluster II respondents. Therefore, Cluster I was labeled as “High Involvement” and Cluster II as “Low Involvement”.

Table 4.24 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Tourist Involvement

	Factor Loadings	Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha
Pleasure/Interest		31.5%	0.870
I can say that travel interests me a lot.	0.859		
I enjoy traveling.	0.809		
Traveling is a bit like giving myself a gift.	0.788		
I attach great importance to travel.	0.783		
For me, traveling is somewhat a pleasure.	0.689		
Sign		15.9%	0.850
Where I travel gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.	0.891		
Where you travel tells something about you.	0.874		
I can tell a lot about a person by whether or not he/she travels.	0.709		
Risk Probability		11.7%	0.717
When faced with choosing among destinations, I always feel a bit at a loss to make the right choice.	0.820		
Whenever one travels, one never really knows whether it is the right choice.	0.790		
It is rather complicated to choose a destination.	0.731		
Risk Importance		8.9%	0.590
If, after I traveled somewhere, my choice proved to be poor, I would be very upset.	0.794		
When you choose a travel destination, it is not a big deal if you make a mistake.	-0.721		
It is really annoying to go traveling somewhere that isn't suitable.	0.672		
		68.0%	**0.738**

Table 4.25 Cluster Analysis Results

Factors	High Involvement (n=163)	Low Involvement (n=144)	F	p-value
Pleasure/Interest	4.38	3.51	179.38	0.00
Sign	4.09	2.71	413.96	0.00
Risk Probability	2.75	2.64	1.37	0.24
Risk Importance	3.33	3.11	11.64	0.00

4.4.3.3 Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Hierarchical multiple regression was then used to test the moderating effect of tourist involvement between the relationships of actual and ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. First the involvement groups were dummy-coded. The "High Involvement" group was coded into "1", and "Low Involvement" group into "0". Second, two product variables were created by multiplying actual SC-DP congruence by the dummy variable; and by multiplying ideal SC-DP congruence by the dummy variable. Third, two hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. The first hierarchical multiple regression was to test the moderating role of tourist involvement between the relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. The second analysis was to test the moderating effect on the relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. This could be achieved by first entering the actual SC-DP congruence variable, followed by the product variable (actual SC-DP congruence*dummy variable). R^2 change was examined to check wither the product variable made significant additional explanatory contribution to the dependent variable. If the R^2 change was significant, it means that tourist involvement did have a significant moderating effect. The moderating role of tourist involvement on the relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior could be examined using the same procedure. Unfortunately, neither of the R^2 change values was significant. Therefore, the tests did not support the moderating effect of tourist involvement. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was rejected.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter IV covered the data analysis from both the pretest of the scale items and the final study. First, the results of the pretest were presented. The second section presented a description of the survey method employed and the demographic profiles of the final study. The third section tested the proposed hypotheses with appropriate statistical techniques. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 was tested with Pearson correlation. Hypotheses 2-4 were tested using EM; and Hypothesis 5 was tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Table 4.26 presented a summary of the hypotheses testing results.

Table 4.26 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypotheses	Original Model	Validation Model
H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.		
H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.	Supported	N/A
H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.	Supported	N/A
H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.		
H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.	Supported	Not Supported
H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.	Not Supported	N/A
H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.	Partially Supported	Partially Supported
H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.		
H4.1: Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.	Not Supported	N/A
H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.	Supported	Supported
H5: The relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.		
H5.1: The relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.	Not Supported	N/A
H5.2: The relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.	Not Supported	N/A

CHAPTER V DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the summary, discussion and implications of the findings of the study. In the first section of the chapter, a summary and discussion of the hypotheses testing are presented. The managerial and theoretical implications of the findings, followed by the limitation of the study, are discussed next. Finally, the chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

This study developed a model (Figure 3.1a and 3.1b) that proposed the relationships among destination personality, self-concept, SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. The proposed model stated that tourist behavior would be influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence. Specifically, self-concept includes four aspects: actual, ideal, social, and ideal social. As SC-DP congruence was calculated as the absolute difference between self-concept and destination personality, SC-DP congruence also had four corresponding aspects: actual, ideal, social, and ideal social. Additionally, tourist involvement was proposed to have moderating effect on the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. Before conducting the actual study, pretest was done to make sure that the proposed constructs and items measuring these constructs are valid and reliable.

This study specially focused on leisure tourists who take trips away from home for at least two nights. This study utilized an online panel, ZoomPanel, to complete a self-administered survey based on their trip experience. The survey questionnaire was posted on line and distributed to a nationally representative customer base from ZoomPanel. A final usable sample of 663 respondents was used in the data analysis. The sample was randomly split into two, one for model testing and the other for model validation.

Before empirically testing the proposed model, paired samples t-tests found that actual self-concept and social self-concept did not differ from each other significantly. Furthermore, ideal self-concept and ideal social self-concept did not differ from each other

significantly either. Therefore, the pair of actual SC-DP congruence and social SC-DP congruence, and the pair of ideal SC-DP congruence and ideal social SC-DP congruence also did not have significant difference. As a result, social self-concept, ideal social self-concept, social SC-DP congruence and ideal social SC-DP congruence were removed from the model. Both self-concept and SC-DP congruence were considered only consisting of two aspects: actual and ideal. The model was thus modified as depicted in Figure 4.1a and 4.1b.

The study then tested a measurement model for the four dimensions of destination personality and constructs of actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, actual SC-DP congruence, ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. The four dimensions of destination personality included Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity and Ruggedness. After the measurement model was tested, the study continued with the test of the relationships proposed. The results found that destination personality, actual self-concept, and ideal SC-DP congruence did influence tourists' tourist behavior. However, ideal self-concept and actual SC-DP congruence did not. In addition, the moderating effect of tourist involvement was found insignificant as well. Validation with second sample confirmed with the findings using the first sample. These findings were discussed in detail in the following section.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

This section first discusses the reduction of self-concept aspects from four to two. Second, this section addresses the development and testing of destination personality measurement model. Third, a detailed discussion of research questions and hypotheses is presented.

5.3.1 Self-Concept

Self-concept research has revealed the great diversity and complexity and its importance in regulating behavior (Markus & Nurius, 1986). A number of investigators have conceptualized self-concept as a single construct and treated it to mean the actual self-concept (Sirgy, 1982). Others argued that self-concept should be multi-dimensional (James, 1890; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Todd, 2001). According to Sirgy (1982; , 1985), consumer researchers have generally used four aspects of self-image in explaining and predicting consumer behavior. These four aspects of self-image are actual self-concept, social

self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept. Therefore, this research initially adopted this perspective that self-concept should include four aspects.

However, paired samples t tests of the four self-concept aspects suggested otherwise. The results of t tests showed that 16 out of 19 pairs of actual and social self-concept items were not significantly different; and 14 out of 19 pairs of ideal and ideal social self-concept items were not significantly different. Therefore, (actual) social self-concept and ideal social self-concept were excluded for future analysis. Possible explanation is that since all the respondents were engaging in the same or similar activity (tourism), the social situation is somewhat similar. As a consequence, social aspect of self-concept is not distinct from actual aspect of self-concept. Similarly, ideal social aspect of self-concept is not distinct from social aspect of self-concept.

5.3.2 Destination Personality

Ekinci and Hosany (2006) recognized the importance of destination personality and made the first attempt to adapt Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale to tourism destination. During the purification of the destination personality scale, Ekinci and Hosany (2006) pretested the content validity of Aaker's scale. This test reduced the original 42 items to 27 items, which were used in this study. These 27 items split across five dimensions: Sincerity (down to earth, family oriented, sincere, wholesome, original, cheerful, friendly), Excitement (daring, exciting, spirited, imaginative, up to date, independent), Competence (reliable, secure, intelligent, successful, confident, secure), Sophistication (upper class, glamorous, good-looking), and Ruggedness (outdoorsy, masculine, Western, tough, rugged).

Exploratory factor analysis of the 27 items was performed with a pretest sample of 273 undergraduate students. The analysis reduced the 27 items to 19 items and produced four dimensions: Excitement (spirited, exciting, imaginative, daring, *original, cheerful*), Sophistication (upper class, glamorous, good-looking, *confident successful*), Sincerity (sincere, wholesome, family oriented, down to earth), and Ruggedness (rugged, tough, masculine, Western). The dimension of Competence in BPS did not emerge. This is because the original list of items included in the pretest was a shortened version. In addition, two items (original and cheerful) of Sincerity factor of BPS loaded on Excitement; and two items (confident and successful) of Competence factor of BPS loaded on Sophistication dimension in this test. The reliability coefficients were calculated and ranged from 0.765 to 0.818 for the dimensions.

Confirmatory factor analysis of destination personality scale retained the four dimensions extracted from exploratory factor analysis but with 15 items. The four dimensions and their indicators included Excitement (Spirited, Exciting, Imaginative, and Original), Sophistication (Upper-class, Glamorous, and Good-looking), Sincerity (Sincere, Wholesome, and Family-oriented), and Ruggedness (rugged, tough, masculine, Western). The results differed from Ekinci and Hosany's (2006). Their final scale consisted of three dimensions with 11 items: sincerity (reliable, sincere, intelligent, successful, wholesome), excitement (exciting, daring, original, spirited), conviviality (friendly, family oriented, charming). The difference possibly is due to the sample used in the two studies. This study utilized the sample of American residents while Ekinci and Hosany's (2006) study interviewed a sample of British residents.

5.3.3 Research Hypotheses

Due to the exclusion of two aspects of self-concept and SC-DP congruence (social and ideal social aspects), hypotheses 1-5 were modified:

H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.

H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.

H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.

H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.1 Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H5: The relationship between self-congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.1 The relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.2: The relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

Hypothesis 1 was tested with a series of Pearson correlation. Hypotheses 2- 4 were tested using SEM; and Hypothesis 5 was tested with hierarchical multiple regression.

5.3.3.1 Hypothesis 1

H1: There is a relationship between self-concept and destination personality.

H1.1: There is a relationship between actual self-concept and destination personality.

H1.2: There is a relationship between ideal self-concept and destination personality.

A series of Pearson correlation analyses were used to test the first hypothesis: the relationship between destination personality and two aspects of self-concept (actual self-concept and ideal self-concept). The results of Person correlation analyses indicated that there were positive relationships between destination personality and two aspects of self-concept (actual and ideal self-concept). These findings were consistent with previous studies (Bellenger, Steinberg, & Stanton, 1976; Ericksen, 1996; Goh & Litvin, 2000). These findings indicated that there was congruence between self-concept and destination personality. However, for some items, the congruence was larger, while for others, the congruence was smaller.

5.3.3.2 Hypothesis 2

H2: Self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.1: Actual self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H2.2: Ideal self-concept has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

The results of this study revealed that only actual self-concept had a significantly positive influence on tourist behavior; while ideal self-concept did not. Previous studies did suggest that self-concept affects consumer behavior, such as Grubb and Grathwohl (1967), Heath and Scott (1998) and Franken (1994). Empirical studies also found that self-concept influence consumer behavior. Jacobson and Kossoff (1963) advocated that self-concept is related to attitude towards the purchase of American small cars. Chang (2002) also argued that individuals with certain self-concepts may respond more positively toward the ads and brands than others. Xue (2008) was one of the first authors who applied Aaker's sophistication dimension items to measure respondents' self-concept and found a significant effect of self-concept on brand choice. However, no studies were found to test the impacts of different aspects of self-concept on consumer behavior.

5.3.3.3 Hypothesis 3

H3: Destination personality has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

The results suggested that the dimensions of Excitement and Sincerity had significantly positive impacts on tourist behavior; but the Sophistication dimension and the Ruggedness dimension did not. Previous research supported the hypothesis that destination personality influences destination attitude; however, due to different samples, different dimensions of destination personality emerge, therefore, dimensions of destination personality that influence destination attitude vary. For example Ekinci and Hosany (2006) found that Conviviality dimension significantly influences tourist behavior. Murphy and his colleagues (2007) revealed that only Excitement dimension of brand personality positively influence travel motivation.

5.3.3.4 Hypothesis 4

H4: SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.1 Actual SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

H4.2: Ideal SC-DP congruence has a direct positive influence on tourist behavior.

The study showed that actual SC-DP congruence was not a significant predictor of tourist behavior while ideal SC-DP congruence was. However ideal SC-DP congruence significantly influenced tourist behavior negatively. These results were not entirely consistent with previous studies, as previous research revealed mixed results. For example, Goh and Litvin's (2000; , 2002) studies suggested that both actual and ideal self-congruence were correlated significantly with visit interest and purchase intention. Kastenholz (2004) only examined actual congruence and found no significant relationship between actual congruence and tourist behavior. Ekinci & Riley (2003) found that both actual and ideal self-congruence influenced satisfaction, attitude, service quality and behavioral intention.

Results of this study finds support from Hugehes and Guerrero (1971), who found that actual self-congruity model did not hold using automobiles. They also suggested that some buyer behavior may be explained better by incongruity models, as found in this study that ideal congruence influence tourist behavior negatively. Chon (1990, 1992) also found that tourist satisfaction can be influenced by self-image congruity and self-image incongruity.

Some possible explanations why this study's results are not consistent with previous research are as follows. One possible explanation is that SC-DP congruence was measured by

the difference scores of destination personality and self-concept. Destination personality was measured with the shortened Aaker's (1997) BPS scale while other studies utilized some other adjectives. Another explanation is that other studies utilized correlation analysis to test the relationship between self-congruence and tourist behavior, while this study employed SEM analysis. Third, as ideal SC-DP congruence in this study was measured with multiple items, ideal SC-DP congruence itself should be multi-dimensional. However, this study only used the summated scale of ideal SC-DP congruence as previous studies did. Detailed analysis of the possible dimensions of ideal SC-DP congruence could provide some explanation why ideal SC-DP congruence had a negative impact on tourist behavior.

5.3.3.5 Hypothesis 5

H5: The relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.1 The relationship between actual SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

H5.2: The relationship between ideal SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior is moderated by tourist involvement.

This study did not support the moderating effect of tourist involvement on the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior. These findings were contrary to Sirgy and Su's (2000) proposition that tourists' involvement should moderate the relationship between self-congruence and travel behavior. In addition, these were contrary to Beerli, et al's (2007) results that involvement moderates the relationship between actual and ideal self-congruity and destination choice. As Sirgy and Su's (2000) did not provide empirical test, Beerli, et al's (2007) utilized a very different statistical analysis from the one used in this study. Beerli, et al (2007) tested the moderation effect of involvement by means of a correlation analysis, differentiating between the tourists with low, medium, and high degrees of involvement leisure travel. Different statistical techniques could be some reason that this study did not support the moderation effect of tourist involvement, while Beerli, et al's (2007) study did.

5.3.4 Summary of the Discussion

Overall, the findings of the study indicated that there is a positive relationship between the destination personality and self-concept. In addition, the findings suggested that actual self-concept, destination personality, and ideal SC-DP congruence had significant impact on tourist behavior. However, ideal self-concept, actual SC-DP congruence did not. Furthermore, the moderating effect of tourist involvement on the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior was not supported.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS

5.4.1 Managerial Implications

From the practical perspective, the findings of this study explain tourist behavior is influenced by self-concept, destination personality, and SC-DP congruence between self-concept and destination personality. The results will help destination managers and marketers with the planning of strategic marketing programs.

The findings suggest that destinations could be described using personality traits. This study found four salient destination personality dimensions: Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity, and Ruggedness. This study also found that destination personality had positive impact on tourist behavior. In today's competitive environment, creating and managing an appropriate destination personality is of vital importance to the survival and success of tourist destinations. More importantly, destinations should create and maintain a personality that is unique and appealing to its target markets. Different destinations could conduct studies to identify their own unique personality traits and then use those personality traits to differentiate themselves from their competitors. In their promotion materials, advertising messages could contain the desirable personality traits that best position the destination in the competitive markets.

This study also found that actual self-concept influenced tourist behavior significantly. Since targeting tourists' self-concept has always been an essential part of marketing and advertising when it comes to branding strategies, this suggests that marketers should develop tourist products and services that are consistent with the actual self-concept of their target markets. While everyone's self-concept is unique, there is also significant overlap

across individuals. For example, for tourists who see themselves as being exciting, destinations could promote themselves as a place boasting some exciting activities.

Another strong finding was that there is a significant and positive relationship between destination personality and actual self-concept; and between destination personality and ideal self-concept. This finding suggested that there is some congruence between destination personality and self-concept; although the degree to which they are congruent with varies. This further reinforces the importance that destination marketers should take both tourists' self-concept and destination personality into consideration when developing marketing strategies. Destination promoters should develop and promote their products and services that could reflect the personality traits of the destinations and, at the same time, are congruent with tourists' self-concept.

5.4.2 Theoretical Implications

Although destination personality is an important topic of study, its research is only in its infancy. Despite the growing body of literature on destination branding, there is little empirical evidence that visitors can and do associate brand personality characteristics with destinations (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007). The first study was conducted in Britain (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006); and the second in Australia (Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007). This study adds to the body of the literature by replicating Ekinci and Hosany's (2006) study with a sample of American tourists. The study revealed different result from Ekinci and Hosany's (2006) that destination personality consisted of four dimensions: Excitement, Sophistication, Sincerity and Ruggedness.

In addition, the application of self-concept in tourism research was limited; and in most cases, self-concept was treated as a uni-dimensional construct. However, according to Sirgy (1982), self-concept is a multidimensional construct and there are four aspects of self-image in explaining and predicting consumer behavior. These four aspects of self-image are actual self-concept, social self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept. Although the empirical tests failed to differentiate social self-concept from actual self-concept, and ideal social self-concept from ideal self-concept, the study did suggest that actual self-concept is different from ideal self-concept.

In addition, Murphy et. al (2007) pointed out that no study has explored the links between brand personality and self-concept, and the impact of such link on tourist behavior. This study contributes to the theoretical advancement in tourism research by introducing

SC-DP congruence between self-concept and destination personality, and investigating the impact of such congruence on tourist behavior. This study empirically validated the notion that destination personality and self-concept are related; and there is a strong, positive relationship between them. In addition, empirical evidence suggested that such congruence influences tourist behavior, in this case, destination preference.

5.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

As expected in all research, this one is not without its limitations. First, this study was focused only on residents in the U.S. Therefore, the findings are culturally bound and not generalizable. More research is needed for other cultural groups. Second, this study only collected data from leisure tourists. It is understood that the results would be different if tourist with different traveling purposes were surveyed. Third, this study surveyed tourists who have been to the destination. Although the study found significant effects of destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence on destination preference, social desirability could be an intervening effect. Therefore, future study could examine the role of social desirability in self-congruence study. Fourth, different studies utilized different items to measure self-concept. In this study, the self-concept was measured with the same items that measured destination personality, but with different instructions. Therefore, the measurement problem of self-concept should be further explored. It would be of great significance if a generalizable measurement scale for self-concept could be developed in tourist research.

Fifth, this study only explored the relationship between destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence on tourist behavior. There are also other relevant factors that could influence tourist behavior, such as destination image, and tourist motivation. Future research could try to integrate these elements. Sixth, although Sirgy (1982) embraced the idea that self-concept includes four aspects: actual self-concept, social self-concept, ideal self-concept, and ideal social self-concept, this study only suggested two distinct aspects: actual and ideal. Therefore, future study should investigate the aspects of self-concept and determine under what circumstances social and ideal social aspects are also salient. Finally, this study failed to support the moderating role of tourist involvement in the relationship between SC-DP congruence and tourist behavior as suggested by previous studies. Future study should continue to examine this issue. In addition, other possible moderators should be explored, such as destination type, travel purpose, and demographics including income level and education level.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS

This study proposed and tested a theoretical model that attempts to investigate the influence of destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence on tourist behavior. The findings suggested significant influences of destination personality, self-concept, and SC-DP congruence on tourist behavior. Findings of this study also showed that there are significant and positive relationships between destination personality and self-concept.

This study contributes to tourist behavior literature by providing a theoretical model by which a simultaneous empirical treatment of the elements influencing tourist behavior was investigated. Additionally, the study added that there is congruence between destination personality and self-concept. Limitations of this study were presented and future research suggestions were provided.

The results of this study also provided important implications for destination marketing strategies. An understanding of what influenced tourist behavior tested in this model can aid in designing and implementing marketing programs for creating and enhancing tourist destination personality, tailoring unique destination personality to attract particular markets, differentiating and positioning tourist destinations, and designing and promoting tourism advertising and programs.

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Appendix A Final Questionnaire

Cover Letter

December __, 2008

Dear _____

I am a Ph.D. student in Hospitality and Tourism Management at Virginia Tech. I am working on my dissertation that examines individuals' perceptions of their self-concept, destination personality, and how perceptions would influence individual travel behavior. This study will help the tourism industry better serve travelers like you. I really need your help in participating in this study!

The enclosed questionnaire should take about 10-15 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers. I would greatly appreciate it if you answer all the questions carefully. All the responses will be completely confidential and only used for my dissertation.

Thank you so much in advance for your time and help! Your response is of the utmost importance in completing this research. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me (Xiangping Li) via phone at (540) 257-3357 or through email lxpwj@vt.edu.

Again, your participation in this important project is greatly appreciated!

Sincerely,

Xiangping Li
Ph.D. Candidate
Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Tech

Muzaffer Uysal, Ph.D.
Professor
Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Tech

Part I: Your Most Recent Pleasure/Leisure Trip

1. Are you at least 18 years old and have traveled to any destination, and spent more than two nights away from home, for pleasure/leisure purpose in the past 18 months?
   ☐ Yes (Please continue) ☐ No (Please stop here)

2. What is the location of the destination you have most recently visited for pleasure/leisure, spending at least two nights away from home?
   City _____ State or Province _____ Country _____

3. Which one of the following trip types best describes this most recent pleasure/leisure trip?
   ☐ Outdoor trip (a natural area where you may engage in activities such as camping, hiking, rafting, fishing)
   ☐ Resort trip (a resort area that has a variety of activities, such as beaches, skiing, tennis, golfing)
   ☐ City trip (a city where you can shop, enjoy entertainment, visit museums and theaters, and/or just enjoy the city)
   ☐ Cultural/Heritage trip (a trip taken mainly for the purpose of visiting a historical site or cultural attraction)
   ☐ Theme park trip (a trip taken primarily for the purpose of visiting a major theme park)
   ☐ Other: Please specify_____

4. How many nights did you spend on this leisure trip? _____ nights.

5. How many times have you visited the same destination (including this most recent one)? _____ times.

6. Who did you travel with during this pleasure/leisure trip?
   ☐ Alone ☐ Spouse/Partner ☐ Family members ☐ Friends
   ☐ Relatives ☐ Organized tour ☐Other: _____

7. How far in advance did you decide on this pleasure/leisure trip?
   ☐ Less than 2 weeks ☐ 2 weeks to 1 month
   ☐ More than 1 month and less than 2 months ☐ 2 months or more

8. The following statements are about the destination of this pleasure/leisure trip. Please circle the number that can best indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement.
   1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

	SD				SA
I like this destination better than any other destination.	1	2	3	4	5
I would revisit this destination more than I would revisit any other destination within three years.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination.	1	2	3	4	5
I would be inclined to revisit this destination over any other destination within three years.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a favorable impression of this destination.	1	2	3	4	5
It is very likely that I would return to this destination within three years.	1	2	3	4	5
I will recommend this destination to other people.	1	2	3	4	5

I will say positive things about this destination to other people.	1	2	3	4	5
I will encourage friends and relatives to visit this destination.	1	2	3	4	5
I would be willing to pay a higher price to visit this destination over others.	1	2	3	4	5
This most recent trip was worth my time and effort.	1	2	3	4	5
The value I received from this most recent trip was worth the price.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination provided much more benefits than costs.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination was much better than what I expected.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, I am satisfied with this destination.	1	2	3	4	5

Part II: Destination Personality

9. The following statements are about the destination of your most recent pleasure/leisure trip (the one specified in Part I). We would like you to think of the destination as if it were a person. Please circle the appropriate number that indicates your agreement or disagreement to the following adjectives that can describe the destination of this trip.

1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

	SD				SA
down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5
family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
sincere	1	2	3	4	5
wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
original	1	2	3	4	5
cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
friendly	1	2	3	4	5
daring	1	2	3	4	5
exciting	1	2	3	4	5
spirited	1	2	3	4	5
imaginative	1	2	3	4	5
up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
independent	1	2	3	4	5
reliable	1	2	3	4	5
charming	1	2	3	4	5
intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
secure	1	2	3	4	5
successful	1	2	3	4	5
confident	1	2	3	4	5
upper class	1	2	3	4	5
glamorous	1	2	3	4	5

good looking	1	2	3	4	5
outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5
masculine	1	2	3	4	5
Western	1	2	3	4	5
tough	1	2	3	4	5
rugged	1	2	3	4	5

10. Take a moment to think about the destination of this recent pleasure/leisure trip as a person with some human characteristics. Once you've done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements.

1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

	SD				**SA**
This destination is consistent with how I see myself.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination is consistent with how I like to see myself.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination is consistent with how I believe others see me.	1	2	3	4	5
This destination is consistent with how I would like others to see me.	1	2	3	4	5

Part III: Self-Concept

11. Please circle the appropriate number that indicates your agreement or disagreement to the following adjectives that describe your **'actual self'** and **'ideal self"**.

- **Actual self:** the sort of person you think you are, or the way in which you actually see yourself; e.g. I am the type of person who is stylish.
- **Ideal self:** the sort of person you would most like to be, or the way in which you ideally see yourself; e.g. I like to be the type of person who is stylish.

1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

Actual Self						**Ideal Self**				
SD				**SA**		**SD**				**SA**
1	2	3	4	5	down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	sincere	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	original	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	friendly	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	daring	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5	exciting	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	spirited	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	imaginative	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	reliable	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	charming	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	secure	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	successful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	confident	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	upper class	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	glamorous	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	good looking	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	Western	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	tough	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	rugged	1	2	3	4	5

12. Please circle the appropriate number that indicates your agreement or disagreement with the following adjectives that describe your **'social self'** and **'ideal social self"**.

- **Social self:** the sort of person you are seen as by others, or the way you believe other people see you; e.g. those people who are close to me see me as being stylish.
- **Ideal social self:** the sort of person you would like to be seen as by others, or the way you want others to see you; e.g. I like those people who are close to me to see me as being stylish.

1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

Social Self						**Ideal Social Self**				
SD				**SA**		**SD**				**SA**
1	2	3	4	5	down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	family-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	sincere	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	original	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	friendly	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	daring	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5	exciting	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	spirited	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	imaginative	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	independent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	reliable	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	charming	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	secure	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	successful	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	confident	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	upper class	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	glamorous	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	good looking	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	masculine	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	Western	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	tough	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	rugged	1	2	3	4	5

Part IV: Tourist Involvement

13. The following statements are used to understand how involved you are with your pleasure/leisure trip. Please circle the number that best indicates how much you agree or disagree with each statement.
1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree (SA)

	SD				**SA**
I attach great importance to travel.	1	2	3	4	5
Travel is an activity that leaves me totally indifferent.	1	2	3	4	5
I can say that travel interests me a lot.	1	2	3	4	5
When one travels, it is a bit like giving a gift to oneself.	1	2	3	4	5
I give myself pleasure by traveling.	1	2	3	4	5
For me, traveling is somewhat a pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5
You can tell about a person by whether or not he/she travels.	1	2	3	4	5
Where I travel gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5
Where you travel tells something about you.	1	2	3	4	5
It is really annoying to go traveling somewhere that isn't suitable.	1	2	3	4	5

When you choose a travel destination, it is not a big deal if you make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
If, after I traveled somewhere, my choice proved to be poor, I would be very upset.	1	2	3	4	5
It is rather complicated to choose a travel destination.	1	2	3	4	5
Whenever one travels, one never really knows whether it is the right choice.	1	2	3	4	5
When faced with choosing among destinations, I always feel a bit at a loss to make the right choice.	1	2	3	4	5

Part V: Demographic Information

14. Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male
15. Age (in which year you were born): _____
16. Your zip code: _____
17. Current marital status: ☐ Single (Never Married) ☐ Living with Spouse/Partner
    ☐ Widowed ☐ Separated ☐ Divorced
18. Education: ☐ High school or less ☐ Some college/Technical school
    ☐ College degree ☐ Master degree ☐ Doctoral degree
19. Ethnic group: ☐ Caucasian ☐ African-American ☐ Hispanic
    ☐ Asian ☐ Native American ☐ Other: _____
20. Total annual household income (before taxes):
    ☐ Less than $40,000 ☐ $40,000-70,000 ☐ $70,001-100,000
    ☐ $100,001-130,000 ☐$130,001-160,000 ☐ $160,001-190,000 ☐ Over $190,000

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix B Individual Items with Mean and Standard Deviation

Variables	Mean	Std. Devi.	Skew.	Kurt.
Tourist Behavior				
I like this destination better than any other destination.	3.24	0.94	-0.13	-0.21
This destination is my preferred destination over any other destination.	3.29	1.14	-0.21	-0.84
I have a favorable impression of this destination.	4.10	0.85	-1.04	1.45
Destination Personality				
Down-to-Earth	3.74	0.97	-0.69	0.24
Family-Oriented	3.89	1.04	-0.86	0.19
Sincere	3.78	0.86	-0.56	0.33
Wholesome	3.78	0.93	-0.59	0.14
Original	3.86	0.92	-0.44	-0.42
Cheerful	4.02	0.80	-0.62	0.45
Daring	3.12	1.06	-0.07	-0.51
Exciting	3.66	0.98	-0.52	-0.14
Spirited	3.72	0.91	-0.52	0.22
Imaginative	3.64	0.98	-0.40	-0.27
Successful	3.90	0.86	-0.49	-0.01
Confident	3.85	0.86	-0.50	0.26
Upper Class	3.27	1.00	-0.08	-0.37
Glamorous	3.11	1.07	-0.07	-0.52
Good Looking	3.70	0.92	-0.57	0.24
Masculine	3.13	0.92	-0.04	0.22
Western	2.63	1.19	0.28	-0.80
Tough	2.86	1.09	0.05	-0.63
Rugged	2.71	1.09	0.17	-0.61
Actual Self-Concept				
Down-to-Earth	4.16	0.70	-0.79	1.49
Family-Oriented	4.17	0.92	-1.25	1.54
Sincere	4.28	0.68	-0.77	0.77
Wholesome	3.90	0.80	-0.47	0.17
Original	3.84	0.84	-0.41	-0.20
Cheerful	3.96	0.80	-0.67	0.71
Daring	3.09	1.03	0.05	-0.57
Exciting	3.29	0.92	-0.03	-0.36
Spirited	3.63	0.84	-0.37	0.04
Imaginative	3.81	0.91	-0.44	-0.35

Variables	Mean	Std. Devi.	Skew.	Kurt.
Successful	3.78	0.82	-0.41	0.07
Confident	3.89	0.85	-0.59	0.18
Upper Class	2.88	1.01	0.03	-0.56
Glamorous	2.51	1.07	0.32	-0.55
Good Looking	3.31	0.91	-0.29	-0.01
Masculine	2.90	1.34	-0.10	-1.25
Western	2.38	1.17	0.40	-0.79
Tough	2.87	1.10	-0.09	-0.77
Rugged	2.58	1.08	0.17	-0.77
Ideal Self-Concept				
Down-to-Earth	4.22	0.74	-0.96	1.63
Family-Oriented	4.30	0.82	-1.33	2.27
Sincere	4.40	0.69	-1.04	1.40
Wholesome	4.08	0.84	-0.70	0.15
Original	4.19	0.76	-0.67	0.20
Cheerful	4.33	0.71	-0.87	0.79
Daring	3.60	0.95	-0.44	0.05
Exciting	3.87	0.85	-0.46	0.00
Spirited	3.95	0.82	-0.53	0.22
Imaginative	4.22	0.76	-0.90	1.22
Successful	4.29	0.79	-1.11	1.40
Confident	4.39	0.74	-1.16	1.44
Upper Class	3.43	1.09	-0.33	-0.40
Glamorous	3.12	1.16	-0.07	-0.72
Good Looking	3.88	0.91	-0.55	0.03
Masculine	2.96	1.39	-0.13	-1.29
Western	2.58	1.22	0.21	-0.92
Tough	3.13	1.21	-0.24	-0.78
Rugged	2.82	1.22	-0.02	-0.95
Social Self-Concept				
Down-to-Earth	4.06	0.77	-0.80	1.22
Family-Oriented	4.12	0.93	-1.10	1.22
Sincere	4.19	0.73	-0.73	0.72
Wholesome	3.88	0.87	-0.50	0.13
Original	3.84	0.85	-0.35	-0.20
Cheerful	3.97	0.82	-0.56	0.34
Daring	3.14	1.08	-0.12	-0.57
Exciting	3.34	0.99	-0.17	-0.34

Variables	Mean	Std. Devi.	Skew.	Kurt.
Spirited	3.55	0.96	-0.44	0.02
Imaginative	3.76	0.91	-0.40	-0.17
Successful	3.84	0.83	-0.39	0.00
Confident	3.97	0.80	-0.47	0.13
Upper Class	2.99	1.05	-0.16	-0.44
Glamorous	2.69	1.11	0.17	-0.57
Good Looking	3.41	0.93	-0.24	-0.06
Masculine	2.79	1.32	-0.01	-1.18
Western	2.41	1.19	0.37	-0.82
Tough	2.86	1.19	-0.04	-0.86
Rugged	2.58	1.19	0.22	-0.80
Ideal Social Self-Concept				
Down-to-Earth	4.24	0.79	-1.01	1.45
Family-Oriented	4.22	0.89	-1.19	1.49
Sincere	4.37	0.77	-1.09	0.89
Wholesome	4.04	0.88	-0.64	-0.02
Original	4.18	0.78	-0.61	-0.10
Cheerful	4.31	0.75	-0.84	0.32
Daring	3.63	0.98	-0.40	-0.19
Exciting	3.90	0.89	-0.60	0.19
Spirited	3.94	0.88	-0.58	0.16
Imaginative	4.11	0.82	-0.73	0.49
Successful	4.19	0.82	-0.96	1.09
Confident	4.29	0.77	-0.96	0.87
Upper Class	3.27	1.11	-0.20	-0.52
Glamorous	3.08	1.16	-0.07	-0.66
Good Looking	3.83	0.96	-0.53	-0.15
Masculine	2.84	1.38	-0.03	-1.27
Western	2.52	1.24	0.32	-0.85
Tough	3.03	1.23	-0.18	-0.90
Rugged	2.75	1.25	0.08	-0.99
Tourist Involvement				
I attach great importance to travel.	3.71	0.96	-0.61	0.02
I can say that travel interests me a lot.	4.03	0.96	-0.94	0.43
When one travels, it is a bit like giving a gift to oneself.	4.03	0.87	-0.92	0.82
I give myself pleasure by traveling.	4.02	0.89	-0.94	0.87
For me, traveling is somewhat a pleasure.	4.06	0.84	-0.86	0.88

Variables	Mean	Std. Devi.	Skew.	Kurt.
You can tell about a person by whether or not he/she travels.	3.14	1.13	-0.11	-0.69
Where I travel gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.	3.52	1.02	-0.57	-0.10
Where you travel tells something about you.	3.63	0.98	-0.70	0.26
It is really annoying to go traveling somewhere that isn't suitable.	3.47	1.05	-0.38	-0.48
When you choose a travel destination, it is not a big deal if you make a mistake.	3.00	1.08	-0.04	-0.71
If, after I traveled somewhere, my choice proved to be poor, I would be very upset.	3.15	1.06	-0.16	-0.67
It is rather complicated to choose a travel destination.	2.63	1.07	0.18	-0.76
Whenever one travels, one never really knows whether it is the right choice.	2.96	1.05	-0.08	-0.69
When faced with choosing among destinations, I always feel a bit at a loss to make the right choice.	2.46	1.02	0.41	-0.37