The Effects of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness on Behavioral Intention

Yunzhou Zhang

Thesis submitted to the faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science
In
Hospitality and Tourism Management

Muzaffer Uysal, Committee Chair
Ken McCleary
Vincent P. Magnini

May 2, 2012
Blacksburg, VA

Keywords: destination attractiveness, superstition attitude, behavioral intention, superstition as destination attractiveness (SADA)

The Effects of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness on Behavioral Intention

Yunzhou Zhang

ABSTRACT

Superstitious beliefs date back thousands of years and continue to the present, and research suggests that superstitious beliefs have a robust influence on product satisfaction and decision making under risk. The study therefore examines how superstition attitude will impact potential tourists' intention to visit a destination so that relevant organizations (e.g. destination management/marketing organizations) could better understand potential tourists' behaviors, identify a niche market encompassing those prone to superstition, and tailor the tourism products to the needs and beliefs of potential tourists.

The study used a survey instrument which consists of four components: the scale of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness (SADA), the revised Paranormal Belief Scale, the measurement of Intention to Visit, and respondents' demographics and travel experiences. A mixed-method data collection procedure was adopted to populate the sample. A total of 323 questionnaires were collected from Virginia Tech students, at both undergraduate and graduate level.

A multiple regression analysis method was employed for hypothesis testing. The result of the data analysis supported both hypotheses, and the study finds that the more positive potential tourists' attitude is about superstition, the more likely they are to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness, and the more trait of superstition a potential tourist bears, the stronger the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness. Implications and future studies were suggested based on the findings of the study.

Dedication

To my beloved parents, Mr. Zhiyu Zhang and Ms. Xinjuan Xu, who give me unconditional support, love, and care

Acknowledgement

Finally I have come to the very point that I can proudly hand this little piece of work to my beloved ones in this world. I am very fortunate to have the support and help from my advisor, advisory committee members, the professors in the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management at Virginia Tech, my family, friends, and colleagues, in the past two years, without whom I would not even have imagined the completion of this study.

My deep gratitude goes to my advisor, Dr. Muzaffer Uysal, who guided my courageous exploration of the incredible beauty of research in my master studies with his best support, extensive research experience, and professional opinions. To me, he is not only an advisor, but also a mentor and a great example in my pursuit of genuine knowledge about this world.

My special thanks go to the supervisor of my teaching assistantship with the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management at Virginia Tech and my friend, Mr. Pierre Couture, from whom I learned many things, the most important among which is the tool of learning. He shed some light into my life with his wisdom and humor. To have him as my friend is the best thing that ever happened to me in my master studies at Virginia Tech.

I would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Ken McCleary and Dr. Vincent P. Magnini, for their patience and professional suggestions to my thesis. I would like to acknowledge and extend my gratitude to Dr. Pamela Weaver, who gave me enormous help and guidance in developing the scale of superstition as destination attractiveness, which is an indispensable part of this study. Additionally, I would like to thank Mark Seiss and Katie Griffin, two collaborators of my statistics consulting service with the Laboratory for Interdisciplinary Statistical Analysis at Virginia Tech, who helped me better understand my data structure and the statistical analysis techniques I adopted in this study.

I want to express my great appreciation for Dr. Suzanne K. Murrmann and Dr. Manisha Singal, whose contributions were not directly related to this study, but both of them taught me how to strive for excellence and to explore and be my best self.

I am very grateful to have strong support from my family and my friends in China, the United States and some other parts of the world, who held faith in me and trusted me with all of their heart. Special thanks go to my parents, my grandmother, Yu Eunice Yi, Liang Tao, Dr. Yingzhi Guo, Ying Yu, Xiu Grace Guo and Seung-ah Yoo.

I feel fortunate to have Virginia Tech as the destination for my master studies. Therefore, my last piece of thank-you note goes to Virginia Tech. Wherever I go, I would always bear the motto of Virginia Tech, Ut Prosim (That I May Serve), with me and remember to give to the society, and to help make this a better world. Whatever happens to me, I would have faith and feel the light even if the dawn is dark. Because we are Virginia Tech, we will prevail!

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

BACKGROUND

The past few decades have witnessed the emergence of an ever increasing number of destinations around the globe, and mass tourism has been a key driver for socio-economic progress through the creation of jobs and enterprises, infrastructure development and the export revenues earned (UNWTO, 2008). It is proposed that destinations' success lies in the wise augmentation of supply resources to match demand and meet traveler expectations (Uysal *et al*., 2000; Chen & Uysal, 2002).

On the demand side, researchers have consistently contributed to the knowledge accumulation in topic areas such as tourist/visitor studies (studies about behaviors, preferences and perspectives of tourists/visitors), tourism planning (tourism development, strategies, predicting and forecasting), and marketing (marketing, segmentation and promotion), to name a few (Ballantyne *et al*., 2009).

The push-pull theory has been widely recognized in the explanation of tourists' motivations (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Uysal *et al*., 2008). Besides motivation, many other facets of tourists have been investigated including tourist attitude (e.g. Um & Crompton, 1990; Baloglu, 1998; Huang, 2007; Phillips & Jang, 2008), expectation (e.g. Hsu *et al*., 2010), past experience (e.g. Huang, 2007), satisfaction (e.g. Pizam *et al*., 1978; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Akama & Kieti, 2003), loyalty (e.g. Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Campo & Yagüe, 2008), personality (e.g. Hoxter & Lester, 1988), revisit/repurchase intention (e.g. Caneen, 2003; Huang, 2007), and information search behavior (e.g. Fodness & Murray, 1997; Fodness & Murray, 1998; Fodness & Murray, 1999; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004). Studies of tourists' personality adopted some of the generic dimensions (e.g., those in Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, see literature review for details) to determine tourists' personality type. Dimensions that have also been investigated other than those in MBTI are psychocentrism – allocentrism (Plog, 2001) and neuroticism (Hoxter & Lester, 1988). However, there are few studies that have explored tourists' traits of superstition.

In terms of tourism supply, academics have researched many aspects of destinations including destination image (e.g. Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Gallarza *et al*., 2002; Pike, 2002; Beerli & Mart ń, 2004; Sirgy & Su, 2000; Chen & Tsai, 2007), competitiveness (e.g. Kozak & Rimmington, 1999a; Mihalič, 2000; D'Hauteserre, 2000; Enright & Newton, 2004; Enright & Newton, 2005), branding (e.g. D'Hauteserre, 2001; Blain *et al*., 2005; Marzano & Scott, 2009), attractiveness (e.g. Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Kozak & Rimmington, 1998; Formica, 2000; Formica & Uysal, 2006), and personality (e.g. Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hosany *et al*., 2007; Ekinci *et al*., 2007). With regards to destination attractiveness, academics have also explored some generic attractiveness factors that can apply to most of destinations, such as attractions (Ferrario, 1979; Gartner, 1989; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999), facilities, prices of venues, and transport networks (Middleton, 1989; Vengesayi *et al*., 2009). The contribution of some factors such as superstition to destination attractiveness has largely been neglected.

Viewing the importance of the success of destinations, researchers and practitioners are wondering what they can do to create/sustain the attractiveness of destinations to visitors in view of the fact that destinations are seen with similar attributes such as scenery, history, and culture. It is proposed that differentiation is the core concept of destination branding together with identification (Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998). Effective destination branding requires a sustainable, believable, and relevant selling proposition (Blain *et al*., 2005) and that "the competition wants and is maybe able to copy but which they cannot surpass or usurp" (Morgan *et al*., 2002: pp. 21). Differentiation is the key not only to destination branding, but also to the overall success of a destination; therefore, it is essential for destination management organizations to find how to differentiate their products (i.e. destinations) from others.

Intrigued by the thought that superstition might be one of the factors that can lead to differentiation and further the success of a destination, this study might be able to contribute to the scholarly tourism literature by exploring tourists' traits of superstition and understanding the potential contribution of superstition to destination attractiveness by investigating the effect of superstition as a salient aspect of destination attractiveness on behavioral intention.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

***Superstition*:** an attitude, or attitudes, individually held by people which relate their existence to the general order of the cosmos but which are not based upon empirical evidence nor incorporated within the institutionalized belief systems of a society as defined by leading representatives of these systems at any given time (Jarvis, 1980).

***Destination Attractiveness*:** the drawing force existing in a given place at a certain time including dimensions like attractions, recreational opportunities, food and accommodation, cultural/historical richness, natural beauty, and various other amenities, and in the same time, tourists' perceived ability to meet the expectation of tourists and further satisfy their needs.

Superstition as Destination Attractiveness (SADA): This refers to the notion that a destination attracts visitors using its superstition features or resources.

***Behavioral Intention*:** the indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behavior (Ajzen & Driver, 1992).

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

In recent years, specific forms of tourism such as dark tourism, have gained much attention from academics. It is also a phenomenon that over the last century as part of specific tourism forms, dark tourism has become both widespread and diverse (Stone & Sharpley, 2008). Within this realm, dark tourism is defined as tourism whose attraction is related to death, disaster, and the macabre (Stone, 2006). Stone (2006) contended that the premise of the human condition that "as we shall live so we shall die" lies at the crux of the dark tourism concept, and human beings "have always held a fascination with death, whether our own or others, through a combination of respect and reverence or morbid curiosity and superstition". The study thus suggests that SADA does not necessarily fall within the category of dark tourism; however, superstition may be a precursor of the attractiveness of some form of dark tourism.

Superstitious beliefs date back thousands of years and continue to the present (Jahoda, 1969; Vyse, 1997; Kramer & Block, 2008). The phenomenal success of the Harry Potter series and vampire legends (such as the Vampire Dairies and the Twilight Series) proved the commercial value in utilizing superstition to attract consumers. One of the most noteworthy events in the hospitality and tourism field with regards to SADA is that "The Wizarding World of Harry Potter" was introduced into Universal Studio in Orlando in June 2010, which has been a huge success since it opened (Plowright, 2010). Despite all the evidence that using superstition for business purposes has gained attention from the public, no comparable attention has been gained from academics as to how superstition would affect potential tourists' intended purchase of a tourism product. One of the exceptions is the research conducted by Kramer and Block (2008) who demonstrated that superstitious beliefs have a robust influence on product satisfaction and decision making under risk.

This study tries to fill the gap by examining how superstition attitude will impact potential tourists' intention to visit a destination so that relevant organizations (e.g. destination management/marketing

organizations) could better understand potential tourists' behaviors, identify a niche market encompassing those prone to superstition, and tailor the tourism products to the needs and beliefs of potential tourists.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

The general objective of the study is to investigate the effect of SADA on behavioral intention. Specifically, the research has the following objectives:

1. Develop a scale that measures the underlying dimensions of superstitions as they relate to destination attractiveness;
2. Identify whether potential tourists attracted by superstitions as they relate to destination attractiveness will have higher intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition;
3. Identify the role of potential tourists' traits of superstition in the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition.

The study will address the following questions:

1. Do potential tourists' attitudes about superstition impact their visiting intention?
2. Do potential tourists' traits of superstition moderate the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition?

Summary

This chapter starts with a general background of the research from the perspectives of both academics and business. The popularity of some of the most successful series and books in recent years has drawn the attention of the study to the attractiveness of superstition in the hospitality and tourism industry. The

study further puts forward the research objectives and questions, and defines some of the commonly-used terms in the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

SUPERSTITION

Superstition is a complicated phenomenon in human society. To date, the majority of theories accounting for both superstitious beliefs and practices have been psychological in nature (Campbell, 1996). Meanwhile, superstition has also gained considerable attention in fields such as general psychology (Shermer, 1997; Vyse, 2000; Wheen, 2004), philosophy (Scheibe & Sarbin, 1965), abnormal psychology (Devenport, 1979; Brugger *et al*., 1994; Shaner, 1999; Nayha, 2002) and medicine (Hira *et al*., 1998; Diamond, 2001). Within the realm of abnormal psychology and medicine, superstitions have been framed as irrational mistakes in cognition (Foster & Kokko, 2009). Levitt (1952) suggested the following characteristics for the concept of superstition: (1) superstition should be fundamentally irrational; (2) superstition should be popularly accepted; (3) superstition usually influences the behavior of the holder; (4) superstition may be a belief in supernatural phenomena in the conventional sense; (5) superstition has no sound evidence of personal experience to support it; and (6) superstition may have arisen spontaneously and spread without ever having had the sanction of authority. For the second characteristic that "superstition should be popularly accepted", academics have long held that superstition is a cultural phenomenon with relativity. Specific superstitions differ across cultures (Carlson *et al*., 2009). The relativity of superstition is illustrated in the comment of Lesser (1931) that the same belief or practice "can be superstitious to one person, non-superstitious to another; non-superstitious to one person at one time, superstitious to the same person at a different time; superstitious to some men at one time, non-superstitious to other men at the same time; non-superstitious to all men at one time, superstitious to all men at a different time". Wagner (1928) found that superstition is not correlated with intelligence, nor with rural or city community life, nor with religious belief, nor with immigrant groups, and suggested that youth is slightly more susceptible to superstitions though the difference is not distinct, while both sexes are superstitious, women being somewhat more so than men.

It is proposed in literature that superstitions are adopted as a heuristic device and that they influence a variety of consumer behaviors (Carlson *et al*., 2009). Researchers have documented events centered on superstitions and oftentimes consumers "pay" for their superstitious beliefs (Ng *et al*., 2010). Casual estimates suggested that US businesses lose between $800 and $900 million every Friday the 13th (Ng *et al*., 2010). Similarly, counter to economic rationality, Taiwanese consumers were reported to be willing to spend nearly 15% more money for a product when the price point included a lucky number 8 (Kramer & Block, 2008), and because of the association of number 8 with good luck in Chinese language and culture, the Beijing Olympic Games was scheduled to begin on 8/8/08 (Carlson *et al*., 2009).

A frequent assumption in American culture is that superstitious thoughts and behaviors characterize those who are (1) ***primitive, uneducated*** (Lesser, 1931; Vyse, 1997) demonstrated by a comment of Lesser (1931) that "primitive man is still in the earlier stage of human thinking, in which rationalism is crude and tentative, and superstition its halting product" or (2) ***suffering from a mental disorder*** (Fishbein, 1930). However, research efforts revealed that educated, intelligent, and mentally healthy adults also exhibit superstitious tendencies (e.g., Gallup & Newport, 1991). It is exposed that Nancy Reagan, the wife of Ronald Reagan, 40th president of the United States, relied on an astrologer from San Francisco to determine the timing of the president's every public move (Time, 1988). Raymond Domenech, the former manager of the France national team and a keen astrologer, admitted that his passion for astrology even impacted his squad selection (CultureMap, 2010). The reality, however, could be that educated and intelligent adults might be even more superstitious than those who are primitive and uneducated. Taking into consideration the idea of Maslow's hierarchy of needs[1] (Maslow, 1948), it can be argued that people

[1] Maslow asserts that human motives emerge in a sequential pattern according to a hierarchy of five need levels. These levels are listed in order from lowest to highest as follows: physiological, safety, affiliation, achievement and esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow predicts that for a given individual at a given point in time, one class of needs will be more salient than any other. The basic idea of the theory is that the importance of higher needs increases in a consistent, sequential pattern as lower needs become satisfied and decrease (Hall & Nougaim, 1968).

in the higher social classes have, ceteris paribus, lower restrictions to invest in their personal "spiritual capital", which might have an impact on their beliefs in star sign, horoscopes or fortune tellers (Torgler, 2007).

Besides, superstitions have been found to be included in ***low-involvement decision making*** (Newell & Simon, 1972), however, it has also been argued that superstitious beliefs can influence ***high-involvement decisions*** when risk and uncertainty are present, such as when to have a wedding, whether to invest in a stock, and how to sell a home (Carlson *et al*., 2009). Mowen and Carlson (2003) intended to explore the antecedents and consumer behavior consequences of trait of superstition. They found that the antecedents of superstition include a lower need for learning among older adults, higher levels of sports interest, a belief in fate, and a decreased belief in heaven and hell. Meanwhile, superstition might lead to belief in astrology, magic, psychokinesis, and the existence of fictitious creatures (e.g. the Loch Ness Monster). The phenomenon of superstition has been examined even in economic studies in which the rational individual assumption is prevalent. Fudenberg and Levine (2006) constructed a game-theoretic model with rational learning, taking superstitions as beliefs on events off the equilibrium path. They concluded with the findings that some superstitions can persist and persistent superstitions do affect human behavior.

The reasons why people exhibit superstitious behaviors have been examined from three alternative explanations in literature (Carlson *et al*., 2009). The first stems from reinforcement theory and an operant conditioning perspective. It is proposed that chance associations of behaviors with reinforcers or punishers can result in superstitious beliefs and behaviors (Skinner, 1948; Wagner & Morris, 1987). This explanation has been supported by Skinner's (1948) experiments on operant conditioning using pigeons as the experiment subject to investigate their superstitious behavior. Skinner presented the pigeons with food at random intervals and noticed that the subject pigeons developed ritualized behaviors that he considered to be superstitious (i.e., the pigeon was behaving as if its actions were able to cause the food to

arrive, Foster & Kokko, 2009). This reason does not stand sound largely because the behaviors of pigeons in the supporting experiments were analogous to salivation in Pavlov's dogs[2] (Pavlov, 1927 in Pavlov, 1928). The second explanation comes from a cognitive learning perspective in which the individual tries to understand his or her environment by adopting superstitious beliefs and behaviors and providing an explanation and reason for unfamiliar and otherwise inexplicable phenomena (Keinan, 2002; Carlson *et al*., 2009). The third reason stems from people's psychological coping mechanism for anxiety that they employ a self-delusion strategy to perceive control of life situations through the use of superstition. Jahoda (1969) asserted that superstition functions as a means by which people reduce the stress and anxiety that arise from uncertainty. The second and third reasons have been supported by Shermer (1997) who contended that "superstitions are the adaptive outcome of a general 'belief engine', which evolves to both reduce anxiety (proximate cause) and enable humans to make causal associations" (ultimate cause, see also in Tinbergen, 1963; West *et al*., 2007; Foster & Kokko, 2009).

Academics have tried hard to offer better understanding and explanations of the phenomenon of superstition; however, there is barely any research on whether superstition as perceived attractiveness can affect an individual's intension to visit a specific destination. It is proposed that superstition can be seen as a sort of "spiritual help", especially in difficult life situations (Torgler, 2007). In this sense, superstition contributes to spiritual well-being which is an indispensible component of quality of life (Moberg & Brusek, 1978).

[2] In 1927, Pavlov reported an experiment conducted by Shenger-Krestovnikova in which "a hungry dog was placed in a harness for what was intended to be a straightforward salivary conditioning experiment. When a circle was presented, meat powder was forthcoming when an ellipse was shown, the food was withheld. Everything went as usual, and the dog acquired the discrimination rapidly. Then the animal was required to make increasingly fine discriminations, at which he succeeded until the ratio of the semi-axes on the ellipse reached 9:8". Since Pavlov's classic report, many other psychologists have produced similar "neuroses of the experiment" by means of various procedures (Mineka & Kihlstrom, 1978).

DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS

The study of attractiveness is multidisciplinary. Some of these disciplines include anthropology, sociology, and psychology (Patzer, 1985: pp.13). The idea of destination attractiveness is important not only because it is closely related with destination competitiveness as proposed by Ritchie and Crouch (2003): "[W]hat makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations" (pp.2), but also because destination attractiveness plays the role as a linkage between visitors and a destination that interact in the entire tourism system (Formica, 2000). Despite the importance of destination attractiveness, what scholars, researchers and practitioners are concerned with is "not related to the theoretical investigation of the attractiveness concept itself, but to the possibility of finding a universal method for its measurement" (Formica, 2000; Formica & Uysal, 2006).

Destination attractiveness is interchangeably used with tourism attractiveness. Pearce (1979) defined destination attractiveness as the degree to which a destination meets the touristic expectations of its visitors in terms of dimensions like recreational opportunities, food and accommodation, cultural richness, natural beauty, and various other amenities. The problem with this definition is that it does not address the subjectivity in judging the attractiveness of a specific destination. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) defined destination attractiveness as the relative importance of individual benefits and the perceived ability of the destination to deliver these individual benefits (pp.201), which was slightly modified by Vengesayi *et al*. (2009) who considered destination attractiveness to be the opinions of visitors about the destination's perceived ability to satisfy their needs.

Besides the definitions from a tourist perspective, the concept of destination attractiveness has also been developed from the angle of a destination. Kaur (1981) regarded tourism attractiveness as the drawing

force generated by the overall attractions existing in a given place at a certain time. To combine both the tourist perspective and the destination perspective, Formica and Uysal (2006) believed that destination attractiveness is a function of the resource base (attraction) and of demand (those who are attracted).

The theoretical basis and empirical research on evaluating tourism attractiveness are derived from multiple disciplines and bodies of knowledge (Formica, 2002; Formica & Uysal, 2006), including spatial-analysis and planning (Smith, 1983; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1992; Gunn, 1994; Young, 1999), marketing (Hu & Ritchie, 1993), management science, and operation research (Var *et al*., 1977). Formica and Uysal (2006) embedded in the tourism-system approach their investigation of relationships between the supply-and-demand elements that contribute to the overall evaluation of destination attractiveness of a specific area, since attractiveness power belongs to the supply side of tourism that is represented by destination in the tourism system. They further took the behavioral perspective of the interaction between demand and supply in the tourism system, which is the push-full theory (Crompton, 1979), and pointed out that destination attractiveness contributes to the pulling force that helps form destination choice (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981).

Though the study of destination attractiveness is limited in literature (Formica, 2002), a number of studies have identified the attributes that tourists consider important in the evaluation of destination attractiveness (Gearing *et al*., 1974; Kim, 1998). Middleton (1989) examined three factors of destination attractiveness: facilities, prices of venues, and transport networks. However, these attributes explain only a small proportion of destination attractiveness (Vengesayi, 2009).

Lew (1987) proposed that there are three major approaches to determining destination attractiveness: ideographic, organizational, and cognitive. Ideographic approach relating to a specific characteristic of a site is represented by descriptive groups of attributes, and is linked to the supply side of tourism while

organizational approach best describes spatial and temporal relationships between attractions (Formica & Uysal, 2006). The cognitive approach is based on the experiential characteristics that are related to the attractions and focuses on the demand side of tourism (Formica & Uysal, 2006).

Most of the researches that deal with determinants of destination attractiveness adopt the first approach, and many researchers have made efforts to categorize destination attributes into groups (e.g. Ritchie & Zins, 1978; Ferrario, 1979; Lew, 1987; Leiper, 1990; Vengesayi *et al*., 2009). Ferrario (1979) laid the foundation of grouping destination attributes. He identified attractions within a destination to represent the first important group of destination attractiveness. His assertion was supported by the research conducted by Crouch and Ritchie (1999) who contended that attractions are the primary factors that pull people to visit a destination and thus destination attractions are the main factors of destination attractiveness. A significant number of researchers have looked at destination attractiveness from the perspective of attractions. For example, Gartner (1989) found historic and cultural sites, night-life, liquor, outdoor life and natural environment to be important attributes of destination attractiveness.

The second group of destination attributes that predict attractiveness is represented by destination support services and facilities (Vengesayi *et al*., 2009). However, they are only considered instrumental factors in destination attractiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000; Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Kim (1998) listed clean and peaceful environment, quality of accommodation facilities, family-oriented amenities, safety, accessibility, reputation, entertainment, and recreational opportunities to be the factors that affect destination attractiveness.

Researchers have combined the first and second groups of destination attributes to explain destination attractiveness. As mentioned in the introduction section of this proposal, one perspective to explore the definition of destination attractiveness combines the groupings of attributes of destination attractiveness.

Laws and Prentice (1995) and Kozak and Rimmington (1999b) defined destination attractiveness by pointing out that destination attributes could be classified under two main headings: the primary and secondary features. Primary features include climate, ecology, culture and traditional architecture. Secondary destination features are those developed particularly for tourism such as hotels, catering, transport and entertainment. The two main groups together contribute to the overall attractiveness of a destination. Likewise, Thach and Axinn (1994) proposed that the dimensions of destination attractiveness consist of core and augmented attributes, and the augmented dimension represents functional/physical attributes that may influence visitors' evaluation of the core attributes.

The third group of destination attractiveness determinants includes people-related factors (Vengesayi *et al*., 2009). People-related factors are highly related to attractions and support facilities and services. They cannot be looked at separately. Herein, people-related factors refer to factors that are concerned with local residents within a destination. Smith (1989) proposed that the social interaction between tourists and local people is crucial in attracting people to a destination. Similarly, Vengesayi *et al*. (2009) asserted that local residents, whether they are employees of the tourism and hospitality industry or the general public, influence the attractiveness of a destination. Baum (1995; 1996) and Crouch and Ritchie (1999) documented the role that a destination's people play in enhancing destination attractiveness, and various studies discuss the relationship between destination employees and its attractiveness (Baum, 1993).

The aforementioned categorization systems of the determinants of destination attractiveness investigated the physical attributes of destinations. Several authors noted that places are best understood by focusing on their symbolic meanings (McCain & Ray, 2003; Williams *et al*., 1992), which falls into the scope of the third approach: the cognitive approach. Russo and Van Der Borg (2002) proposed that thinking of destination attractiveness as a collection of functional attributes might be too limited in the context of cultural tourism experiences because they depend as much on the setting as they do on its symbolic

significance. For visitors with cultural background different from that of the hosts, Clements *et al*. (1993) suggested the attractiveness of cultural destinations includes learning, awareness and understanding of other cultures, cultural exchange, and stronger cultural identity. For visitors with the same cultural background as the hosts', the attractiveness of a destination depends on aspects like family bonding, community pride, and ethnic identity (Esman, 1984; Besculides *et al*., 2002).

Researchers have investigated the effect of destination attractiveness on destination attachment (e.g. Hou *et al*., 2005), destination image, tourist satisfaction (e.g. Truong & Foster, 2006) and destination branding. However, it has been very rare for researchers to use destination attractiveness as a dependent variable and to see the reciprocal effects of these variables have on destination attractiveness.

BEHAVIORAL INTENTION

Behavioral intention is assessed by the subject's intention or willingness to get involved in various behaviors with respect to a given person or object (Kim & Hunter, 1993). The earliest researches of behavioral intention can be found in the literature of psychology. Afterwards, the concept of behavioral intention has been applied in various fields including marketing (e.g., Shim & Drake, 1990), human resource (e.g., Waters & Roach, 1979), hospitality (e.g., Jang *et al*., 2011), to name a few. Within marketing literature, behavioral intentions have been predicted to influence a variety of consumer behaviors ranging family planning decisions (e.g., Davidson & Jaccard, 1975) to toothpaste preferences (e.g., Wilson *et al*., 1975). In the realm of human resources, Waters and Roach (1979) identified that measures of overall job satisfaction, intention to remain with the organization, and absenteeism were correlated with and thus could be predictors of turnover. Jang *et al*. (2011) examined the Generation Y consumer segments' behavioral intentions toward green restaurants and found that the "health-conscious consumer" group and the "adventurous consumer" group had higher intentions to pay premium in green restaurants. In the hospitality and tourism field, a great body of studies has focused on the

interrelationships between quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Backman & Veldkamp, 1995; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cronin *et al*., 2000); besides, quality, perceived value and satisfaction have been used as the antecedents of behavioral intentions (Kashyap & Bojanic, 2000; Petrick, 2004; Tam, 2000; Tian-Cole *et al*., 2002; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Mittal *et al*. (1999) contended that at least three theoretical perspectives can support the link between satisfaction and behavior intention. The first one is the adaptation-level theory (Helson, 1964), according to which prior judgments and intentions function as anchors for future judgments and intentions. Consistency theory has been adopted as the second supporting perspective. The basic explanation is that to lower the level of dissonance (Festinger, 1957) or maintain balance in mental representations of different thoughts (Heider, 1958), people tend to process information that encourages consistency. The third perspective is rooted in learning theory (Bagozzi 1981). People's satisfactory experiences with a product or a service act as reinforcers for them to repeat the behavior in future encounters.

It has been widely recognized in academia that behavioral intention mediates the relationship between attitudes and behavior (Bagozzi, 1981; Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ryan & Bonfield, 1975; Warshaw, 1980). According to the theory of reasoned action (TRA), a person's intention is a function of two basic determinants: one personal in nature (i.e. attitude toward the behavior) and the other reflecting social influence (i.e. subjective norm). The basic paradigm of the Fishbein behavioral intention model is that behavior is affected by behavioral intention which, in turn, is affected by attitude and subjective norm (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The personal attitude toward the behavior refers to the person's judgment of being in favor of or against performing the behavior. Expectancy-value models provide a framework to explore the relationship between an individual's attitudes and their underlying beliefs (Blue, 1995). Outcome expectancy is the belief that a given behavior will lead or will not lead to a given outcome, whereas outcome value is the person's evaluation or subjective value placed on that outcome (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; McGuire,

1985). The higher value one places on an outcome, the more intended the individual is to perform the behavior leading to the specific outcome. Rosenberg (1956) developed a different perspective to understand the relationship between attitude and the variables that are assumed to co-vary with it. One of the variables is the intensity of a person's values associated with the action or object, and a second is the perceived importance of the action or object in leading to or blocking the attainment of his values (Smith, 1995: pp.75). The subjective norm is the person's perception of the social pressure to perform the behavior in question. Blue (1995) suggested that behavioral and normative beliefs are antecedent to attitude and subjective norm. Attitude toward a behavior is a function of a cognitive belief structure that employs two subcomponents: salient beliefs that conducting a behavior will result in a specific outcome and the evaluation of the outcome. Thus, the measure of attitude can be quantified by the use of beliefs about the behavioral outcome weighted by the respective evaluations of those outcomes. Likewise, the measure of subjective norm can be realized by the use of salient normative beliefs about the expectations of others and the motivation to comply with those respective expectations. There is no closed conclusion as to which of the two variables in the TRA is more decisive for behavioral intention as for some behaviors, the variable of attitude may be more important in determining behavioral intentions, whereas for other behaviors, the normative variable may stand out as the main determinant (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). TRA has been criticized for its stipulation that the behavior in question must be under volitional control, which imposes strict limitations on the theory's range of application.

Ajzen (1985) identified the characteristics of an individual that can influence successful performance of an intended behavior such as individual differences, information, skills, and abilities, power of will, emotions and compulsions, time and opportunity, and dependence on others. On the basis of the discussion, he further proposed that successful performance of the intended behavior is contingent on the person's control over the various factors that may prevent it (i.e. perceived behavioral control), which is the dimension added to the TRA and the theory of planned behavior (TPB, see figure 1) was thus

proposed. Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is a reflection of actual control and is sometimes considered a partial substitute for actual control (Ajzen, 1988). Ajzen (1991) stated that the relative importance of attitude, subjective norm, and PBC in the prediction of intention is expected to vary across behaviors and situations. In general, the more favorable the attitude and subjective norm with respect to a behavior, and the greater the PBC, the stronger should be an individual's intention to perform the behavior under consideration.

TPB can be simply expressed as follows:

$$B \sim BI = (Aact)w_1 + (SN)w_2 + (PBC)w_3$$

Where,

B=behavior, BI=behavior intention, Aact=attitude toward behavioral act, SN=subjective norm, PBC=perceived behavioral control, w=empirically derived weight/coefficient.

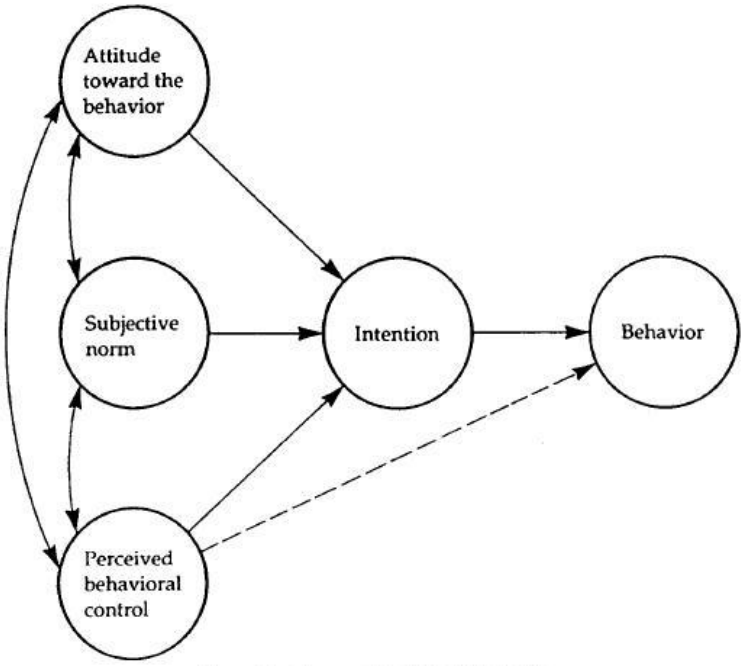

Figure 1 Theory of Planned Behavior

Ajzen has noted that the TPB is open to the inclusion of further variables if they are found to enhance its predictive utility in general (Ajzen, 1991) or in particular behavioral domains (Ajzen, 1998). Besides the internal and external factors that relate to successful performance of an intended behavior identified by Ajzen (1985), Conner and Armitage (1998) reviewed the evidence supporting the addition of six different variables to the TPB. The six additional variables were belief salience, past behavior/habit, PBC versus self-efficacy, moral norms, self-identity, and affective beliefs. Bentler and Speckart (1979) suggested that more distal determinants of behavior, such as past behavior, could have a direct impact on the formation of behavioral intention (Cheng *et al*., 2005). Pavlou and Fygenson (2006) proposed the extension of the TPB with PBC viewed as a second-order factor formed by the first-order dimensions of self-efficacy and controllability.

TPB has received considerable attention in literature. Armitage and Conner (2001) examined a database of 185 independent studies published until the end of 1997 and found that the TPB accounted for 27% and 39% of the variance in behavior and intention, respectively. Empirical findings in tourism and leisure have largely supported the TPB. Ajzen and Driver (1992) used the TPB to predict leisure intentions and behavior and concluded that attitude, subjective norm, and PBC predicted leisure intentions (R=0.50 to 0.86), which proved the consistency of the theory. Lam and Hsu (2004) found in a study of potential travelers from mainland China to Hong Kong that attitude and PBC were related to travel intention. Reddy *et al*. (2010) used the TPB to explore individuals' attitudes, subjective norms, PBC and intention for medical tourism. The respondents did not perceive control over the behavior. They also had slightly unfavorable attitudes towards the topic (i.e., medical tourism), and they had even less favorable subjective norms for travelling to another country to receive medical treatment. It is understandable that the study found the behavioral intentions to carry out such tourism very low. In terms of destination choice, Lam and Hsu (2006) sampled potential Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong and found that attitude, PBC, and past behavior were related to behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. In hospitality settings,

Han *et al*. (2010) employed the TPB to explain the formation of hotel customers' intentions to visit a green hotel. The result of the study revealed that attitude, subjective norm, and PBC positively affected customers' intention to stay in a green hotel. Cheng *et al*. (2005) tested the sufficiency of the TPB in examining customer dissatisfaction responses in restaurants. Results of the study demonstrated that the TPB is applicable to the measurement of behavioral intentions in the context of Chinese customer dissatisfaction responses in high-end restaurants, and the three TPB variables (i.e., attitude, PBC, and subjective norm) are significant predictors of behavioral intentions across the three dissatisfaction response intentions of voice, negative word-of-mouth communication, and exit.

Since this study is intended to examine the effect of SADA on behavioral intention which is well grounded in the TPB, the constructs in the theory will be adopted with the proxy specific to the research setting. The subjective norm construct is generally found to be a weak predictor of intentions, partly attributable to a combination of poor measurement and the need for expansion of the normative component (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Thus, this study will not investigate the effect of subjective norm on potential tourists' visiting intention. To focus on the effect of SADA on behavioral intention, the study will not examine PBC either. The SADA, equivalent to an attitudinal component in the TPB, is measured by potential tourists' ratings of the attractiveness of a superstition-based destination. Trait of superstition is proposed by this study to moderate the relationship between potential tourists' attitude (i.e., ratings of SADA) and their visiting intention. In view of the importance of the two constructs, the following part of the literature review examines attitude as an antecedent of behavior and behavioral intention and personality (i.e., trait of superstition).

Attitude as an Antecedent of Behavior and Behavioral Intention

A person's attitude represents his evaluation of the entity in question (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). It is a predisposition, created by learning and experience, to respond toward an object, such as a product in a consistent way. This predisposition can be favorable or unfavorable in nature (Moutinho, 1987). There

has not been an all agreed-upon definition for attitude. The understanding of attitude varies with different research settings (Gnoth, 1997; Stedman, 2002). Attitude is proposed to be a combination of affective, cognitive and behavioral components (Allport, 1935; Ostrom, 1969). The affective component is represented by sympathetic nervous responses and verbal statements of affect, while overt actions and verbal statements concerning behavior are in the behavioral component; and perceptual responses and verbal statements of beliefs are in the cognitive component (Ostrom, 1969). Millar and Tesser (1986) proposed that different attitude components drive different behaviors, and a match between the attitude component emphasized by thought and the attitude component that drives behavior would increase the attitude-behavior relation. Whether there is truly a correlation between attitude and behavior has been examined and debated for decades and despite the fact that the low correlation between attitudes and behavior has been frequently reported in literature (Maykovich, 1976), attempts have been continued to improve the ability of attitudes to predict behavior by adding additional variables to control (Chaiklin, 2011). To integrate specific situational constraints into models under consideration is one way that many studies have concluded to enhance their predictive power (Belk, 1975; Hansen, 1976; Park, 1978; Tybout & Hauser, 1981; Um & Crompton, 1990).

Other than the TPB discussed in the previous section, other theories and models have been developed in literature to identify the relationship between attitude and behavior. One of them is the attitude accessibility model which was proposed by Fazio and his colleagues (1983; 1986), the fundamental of which is that attitudes guide behavior. In brief, the model regards behavior in any given situation as a function of an individual's immediate perceptions of the attitude object in the context of the situation in which the object is encountered. The key for the model to function is that the strength of attitude from memory is as such that the attitude-to-behavior process can be initiated when the accessibility of the attitude is needed (Fazio & Powell, 1989). Fazio (1990) further proposed the MODE (Motivation and Opportunity as Determinants) model which distinguishes between two classes of attitude-behavior

processes: spontaneous and deliberative process. The spontaneous-process model focuses on preexisting attitudes and their accessibility from memory while the deliberative process is concentrated on the raw data (i.e., the attributes of the behavioral alternative, Fazio & Towles-Schwen, 1990). The MODE model addresses the question concerning the conditions under which a spontaneous process versus a deliberative one might operate. The essence of the model is that in either of the cases (spontaneous process vs. deliberative process), attitudes exert influences on behavior, but the only difference is the process by which they are doing so (Fazio & Towles-Schwen, 1999, pp.97). The relationship between attitude and behavior has also been examined through the addition of another variable: value, which contributes to the proposal of the value-attitude (VA) and value-attitude-behavior models evaluating associations between values, attitudes, and behaviors or behavioral intentions (Heaven *et al*., 1994; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kristiansen & Matheson, 1990; McCarty & Shrum, 1994; Lindberg, 1997).

Academics have examined attitude/behavior relationship in a reverse direction. It is documented that LaPiere conducted a classic 1934 study in which he spent two years with a Chinese couple touring the United States during the time when there was a high anti-Asian feeling. He reported that in the 251 attempted hotel registrations, they were turned down once, and in the follow-up mail survey, 92% of the respondents said that they would not serve Orientals and most of the rest were uncertain. Dockery and Bedeian (1989) commented that in the experiment, LaPiere formed his position that "behavior is a direct attitude manifestation", and thus "one can only know a person's true attitude by the action he or she takes" (Chaiklin, 2011). The association between the two constructs in the reverse direction, that is, the predictive value of behavior on attitude, can be supported by the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) which proposes that individuals seek consistency in their behaviors and cognitions; therefore, in cases of inconsistency, attitudes change to be congruent with behavior (De Leeuw *et al*., 2008). Bern's (1972) self-perception theory has been used to explain the reverse association of attitude and behavior (Zanna *et al*., 1980). De Leeuw and her colleagues (2008) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the

bi-directional relations between adolescents' smoking attitudes and behaviors, and concluded that smoking behavior predominantly forms smoking-related attitudes, rather than vice versa.

In tourism realm, researches indicated that attitudes were positively related to tourists' behavioral intention (Brown, 1999; Lee & Moscardo, 2005). The research findings of Brown (1999) supported the argument that attitudes are a significant predictor of intention (i.e., climbing intention in this research setting). Lee and Moscardo (2005) found that those who held positive environmental attitudes were more inclined to opt for environmentally friendly travels. Huang (2007) investigated the effects of motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention in the context of mainland Chinese tourists to Hong Kong and attitude was found to positively impact revisit intention, supporting the TPB. Many studies have explored the relationship between attitude towards a place or its image, and preference for the place as a travel destination (Goodrich, 1978; Mayo, 1973; Scott, *et al*., 1978), but they did not extend to actual travel destination choice behavior (Um & Crompton, 1990). Um and Crompton (1990) hypothesized that attitude is important in the stages both for the awareness set to evolve to the evoked set and for a destination to be selected from the evoked set. The results of their study supported their hypotheses and suggested that attitude influences the determination of whether a potential destination is selected as part of the evoked set and the final selection of a destination.

There are researches that received the opposite outcomes exemplified by the study conducted by Mohsin (2005) who investigated tourists' attitudes and their destination choice and argued that the relationship between tourists' attitudes and their destination choice did not exist due to ineffective marketing campaigns that offered insufficient information to potential tourists. In terms of attitude-behavioral intention relationship, Sparks (2007) undertook a study to explore potential wine tourists' intentions to take a wine-based vacation. Sparks concluded that no relationship between emotional attitude and

intentions was found, but instead their hypothesis "attitude toward past wine tourism experiences will have a direct effect on intention to visit a wine region in the future" was supported.

Chaiklin (2011) conducted a review on the relationship between attitudes and behavior, and contended that the state of knowledge about the ability of attitudes to predict behavior is "murky and not a great deal of progress has been made in clarifying the matter. The one thing that methodological advances have clarified is that attitudes have some utility in predicting behavior when it is not a problem to the person and there is social acceptance of its expression in action".

Despite the fact that many studies found a nonexistent relationship between attitudes and behavior, there is still ongoing debate on attitude/behavior relationship and many other studies, especially the ones in tourism and hospitality literature, have verified the predictive ability of attitude for behavior; thus, the following proposition is stated:

There is a positive relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition.

This study suggests that attitude and behavioral intention outcome interact in the same direction. Therefore, the proposition can be specified as follows:

H1: The more positive potential tourists' attitude is about superstition, the more likely they are to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness.

Personality as a Moderator

Like the concept of attitude, academics do not agree on any general definition of the term "personality" (Kassarjian, 1971), except to some extent refer it to the unique psychological attributes that elicit

consistent and lasting responses to one's own environment (Lee, 2009). Personality influences the formation of different types of lifestyles, which is subject to social and cultural interactions (Engel *et al*., 1993). Larsen and Buss (2008) categorized personality studies into six domains: disposal, biological, intrapsychic, cognitive/experimental, social and cultural, and adjustment. Empirically, the disposal domain is the most popular one (Leung & Law, 2010). In the disposal domain, factor theories were proposed to view personality as a set of traits or factors, some general and others specific to a particular situation or test (Kassarjian, 1971). Allport (1961) argued that "scarcely anyone questions the existence of traits as the fundamental units of personality" because they represent the "considerable constancy in a person's mode of conduct" (pp.332, 334). McClelland (1951) decided "for reasons of convenience to use the trait variable to describe the surface or stylistic manifestations of personality only" (pp.233).

Hierarchical relationships are generally believed to underlie different dimensions of personality; however, researchers have been debating with regards to the number of levels of the hierarchy (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hampson *et al*., 1986). The 3M Model (Meta-theoretical Model) of motivation and personality integrates control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1990), evolutionary psychology principles (Buss, 1991), and elements of trait theories (Allport, 1961), and specifies how personality interacts with situations to influence feelings, thoughts, and behaviors (Carlson *et al*., 2009). Within the 3M Model, there exist four levels of traits (elemental, compound, situational, and category-specific surface). The first layer of the model is represented by elemental traits which are enduring cross-situational traits and are the most abstract ones. Some of the most widely acknowledged personality scales have been developed within this level of the hierarchy including the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Big Five.

MBTI has been widely recognized as a useful psychometric tool intended to measure personality traits of an individual (Bisping & Patron, 2008). MBTI was developed after the theory of psychological types proposed by Carl Jung (1923) who argued that people could be classified into types based on their

preferences for different sources of data and/or for dealing with data in different ways (Edwards *et al*., 2002). MBTI distinguishes different personalities utilizing the four dimensions (Jung *et al*., 1971): (1) ***introvert-extrovert*** which relates to individual's source of energy; (2) ***intuitive-sensing*** which identifies modes of perceiving stimuli; (3) ***thinking-feeling*** which is intended to examine how decisions are made; and (4) ***judging-perceiving*** which investigates the level of organization and control needed by an individual.

Many Big-Five structures exist to interpret the most important five dimensions underlying human personality. At present, the major alternative set of Big-Five markers is the NEO Personality inventory (NEO-PI), developed by Costa and McCrae (1985) (Goldberg, 1992). The five dimensions of McCrea and Costa's Five-Factor Model are: (1) ***agreeableness*** which measures the tendency for an individual to be altruistic, warm, generous, trusting, and cooperative; (2) ***conscientiousness*** which is concerned with the extent to which an individual is efficient, punctual, well organized, and dependable; (3) ***extraversion*** which refers to a pattern of co-varying elements: behaviors, feelings, and cognitions (Winter *et al*., 1998). Sociable, assertive, active, energetic, and talkative can be used to describe individuals high in extraversion; (4) ***neuroticism*** which is interchangeable with *emotional stability*. Individuals who are high in neuroticism tend to be anxious, self-pitying, tense, touchy, unstable, and worrying (McCrae & John, 1992); and (5) ***openness*** which characterize an individual's openness to feelings and to new ideas, flexibility of thought, and readiness to indulgence in fantasy (Digman, 1990).

Saroglou (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the relationship between religiosity and five factors of personality (i.e., the five dimensions in the Five-Factor Model) and concluded that religiosity is positively related to extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, and negatively related to openness. Besides, openness was found to positively relate to measures of open or mature religiosity and spirituality.

Compound traits represent the second level of the hierarchy, defined as one-dimensional dispositions emerging from the interplay of elemental traits, culture, and the learning history of the individual (Carlson *et al*., 2009). The third level of the hierarchy consists of situational traits which explore tendencies of consistent patterns of behavior within a general situational context. Situational traits result from the interplay of the first and second level of the hierarch and the general situational context in which behavior occurs (Carlson *et al*., 2009). This perspective of the hierarchy of personality is supported by Snyder (1983) who proposed that the compound effects of types of traits, classes of behaviors, sets of situations determine the behavioral consistencies of personality. At the fourth level of the hierarchy are surface traits, which represent the most concrete and context-specific enduring dispositions to behave (Carlson *et al*., 2009). Trait of superstition was conceptualized as a surface trait by Mowen and Carlson (2003).

Academics have examined personality in tourism settings (Gountas & Gountas, 2001). As noted earlier, Plog (1974; 1991; 2001) developed the psychocentrism-allocentrism dimension and found that psychocentrics prefer to choose travel destinations close to home, whereas allocentrics choose distant destinations. Psychocentrics travel by means other than airplane, choose safe destinations, stay with tourists, avoid the "natives", stay in hotels of established brands, eat traditional foods at chain restaurants and look for familiar types of entertainment (Hoxter & Lester, 1988). Allocentrics are open to new experiences and adventurous activities. Galloway *et al*. (2008) examined whether personality trait sensation seeking (SS) can improve the ability to predict differences in various attitudes and behaviors of wine tourists. The findings suggested that SS is significantly related to spending on wine, and wine drinking, as well as to the frequency of visits to wineries and the number of activities engaged in at wineries, the use of the internet as a source of information about wineries, venturing off the beaten track during a visit to a wine region, and the strength of opportunity for learning, stimulation, or indulgence as incentives to visit a wine region. Lepp and Gibson (2008) also examined the SS and found that those

higher in SS are more likely to have traveled internationally and to have traveled to regions of the world rated as riskier. Nickerson and Ellis (1991) used Fiske and Maddi's (1961) activation theory of personality development to describe personality types and to predict destination preferences, travel companions, interactions with local cultures, degree of activity participation, and other distinguished characteristics. Frew and Shaw (1999) tested Holland's theory of personality types to examine the relationship between personality and individuals' likelihood of visiting tourist attractions and positive associations were reported between the respondents' Holland personality types and their travel behavior.

The relationship between personality, attitude, and behavioral intention has been examined in psychological and sociological literature. Personality has been implicated as determinants of the degree to which observed behavior is consistent with verbal attitudes (McArthur *et al*., 1969; Zanna *et al*., 1980; Fazio *et al*., 1982).

It is not clearly examined in literature as to how personality functions in the interplay between attitude and behavior or behavioral intention. This study proposes that potential tourists' trait of superstition moderates the relationship between their attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination, the attractiveness of which is superstition based. The following proposition captures the essence of this assertion:

The relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition is moderated by potential tourists' trait of superstition.

The associated specific hypothesis is as follows:

H2: The more trait of superstition a potential tourist bears, the stronger the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness.

PROPOSED MODEL

Figure 2 delineates the relationships between potential tourists' attitude about superstition, their traits of superstition, and their behavioral intention. According to the model, potential tourists' attitude about superstition will positively impact their visiting intention of a destination whose attractiveness is superstition-based. Potential tourists' trait of superstition is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between the perceived attractiveness of superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is superstition-based.

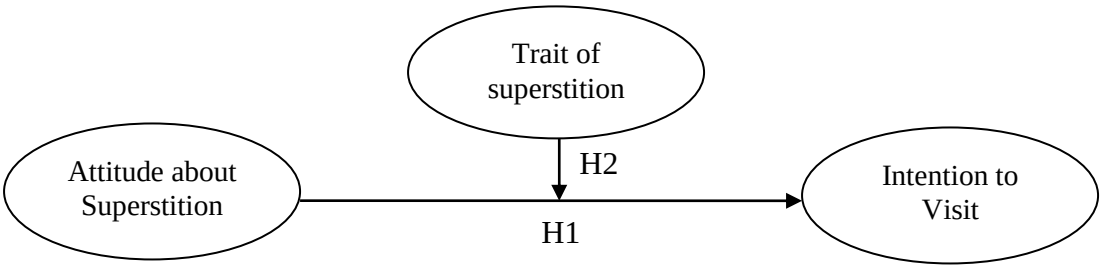

Figure 2 Proposed Model of the Research

Summary

This chapter provides a comprehensive literature review of the important terms and constructs in the study. Although the concept of superstition is fuzzy, the literature review provides a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of superstition in order to detect some underlying dimensions of the construct. The research hypotheses and model have been proposed based on the literature review, which has laid a solid foundation for further examination in later sections of the study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

This study is intended to answer the following questions:

1. How will potential tourists' attitudes about superstition impact their visiting intention?

2. How will potential tourists' traits of superstition moderate the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition?

The following hypotheses are proposed based on the literature review to address the research questions:

Proposition 1: There is a positive relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition.

H1: The more positive potential tourists' attitude is about superstition, the more likely they are to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness.

Proposition 2: The relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition is moderated by potential tourists' traits of superstition. As a rule of thumb, the study will use the following decision criteria for relationships: (1) $0 \leq r \leq 0.30$ = weak relation; (2) $0.30 < r \leq 0.60$ = moderate relation; and (3) $0.60 < r \leq 1$ = strong relation.

H2: The more traits of superstition a potential tourist bears, the stronger the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness.

RESEARCH DESIGN

To test the hypotheses and answer the research questions, the study used a survey instrument. The sampling technique and sampling frame were determined first (see *Sample* for details). A questionnaire

was drafted according to the sampling frame (see *Questionnaire Development* for details). A pretest using a student sample was conducted to test the validity of the survey instrument. The questionnaire was modified and fine-tuned based on the result of the pretest. The final survey was launched using the revised questionnaire. The data collected from the final survey were analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques and the results will be presented in later sections of the study.

Sample

In view of the convenience and resource constraint of the study, the sample of the study consists of Virginia Tech students, at both undergraduate and graduate level. A mixed-methods data collection procedure was designed to populate the sample.

"Qualtrics" survey tool was used to post the questionnaire online. A link was automatically created when the questionnaire was launched. An approval to send a link of the online questionnaire to courses randomly selected was received from the instructors of the selected courses. An announcement was added by the instructor to inform the students of the survey through Virginia Tech e-Learning web system "Scholar" using the link created by Qualtrics. In order to reach the graduate students, the study sent a request to the Graduate School of Virginia Tech for the link of the survey to be posted on its weekly email listserv. The online questionnaire was also distributed in HTM2454 Travel and Tourism Management, HTM2464 Introduction to Service, HTM2514 Catering Management, HTM3484 Socio-Cult Impacts of Tourism, and STAT3704 Statistics for Engineering Applications. Eighty online questionnaires were collected.

The value of an online survey has been increasingly recognized (Couper, 2000; Kaplowitz *et al*., 2004). The advantages of an online survey include cost savings associated with eliminating the printing and mailing of survey instruments (Cobanoglu *et al*., 2001; Kaplowitz *et al*., 2004) as well as time and cost savings of having returned survey data already in an electronic format (Kaplowitz *et al*., 2004).

Potential sources of errors related to surveys in general also apply to online surveys. Dillman (1991) describes four potential sources of error related with surveys: sampling error, non-coverage error, nonresponse error, and measurement error. *Sampling error* is concerned with the difference between the estimate, based on the sample, and the true parameter, based on the total population from which the sample is drawn (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). To increase the sample size is generally the best way to minimize this form of error (MacDonald *et al*., 2009). *Non-coverage error* is associated with the sampling frame (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003). *Nonresponse error* occurs when the potential participant is unwilling to participate or impossible to contact (Daly, *et al*., 2011). *Measurement error* occurs when respondents' answers to survey questions do not accurately reflect the variable that the survey is intended to measure (Dillman, 1991; 2007; MacDonald *et al*., 2009). The major limitation of online survey relates to the potential lack of representativeness of the "e-sample" (Best *et al*., 2001; Bradley, 1999; Schmidt, 1997; Tse, 1998; Hwang & Fesenmaier, 2004), which originates from non-coverage error. Besides, some studies suggest that response rates for e-mail and web-based surveys do not match those of other survey methods (Mehta & Sivadas, 1995; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Sheehan & McMillan, 1999; Weible & Wallace, 1998; Cook *et al*., 2000).The methods proposed to increase response rates and improve data quality for online surveys include follow-ups, incentives, and length and presentation of the questionnaire (Yu & Cooper, 1983; Deutskens *et al*., 2004).

An approval was also sent to the instructors of the courses randomly selected to distribute the questionnaires by the investigator of the study. A total of 243 questionnaires were collected in HTM4414 Food and Beverage Management, HTM3524 Lodging Management, ACIS5584 Information System Security and Assurance, MKTG3104 Marketing Management, FIN4254 Bank Management and Financial, and STAT5504 Advanced Applied Multivariate Analysis The study compared the study results for the two sampling methods, and no significant differences were identified.

Questionnaire Development

The questionnaire of the study is composed of four parts: the R-PBS, the scale of SADA, the scale of intention to visit, and demographics and past experience.

Measurement for Traits of Superstition

A revised Paranormal Belief Scale (R-PBS) is adopted by the study to measure respondents' traits of superstition. The original PBS was developed by Tobacyk and Milford (1983) as a measure of self-reported degree of belief in paranormal phenomena which are defined as those that, if genuine, would violate basic limiting principles of science (Broad, 1953). The definition of paranormal phenomena by Broad (1953) is similar to that of superstition employed by the study (see chapter 1) with the exception that traditional religious belief is considered a dimension of paranormal phenomena in the PBS while the definition of superstition in this study makes it clear that superstition has nothing to do with religious belief. Despite the difference in the inclusion of traditional religious belief, the PBS is regarded as the scale that can adequately measure respondents' traits of superstition.

The PBS consists of seven subscales, with each subscale reflecting a major dimension of paranormal belief. The PBS subscales are Traditional Religious Belief, Psi (clairvoyance, precognition, telepathy, and psychokinesis), Witchcraft, Superstition, Spiritualism, Extraordinary Life Forms, and Precognition (Tobacyk, 2004). The original PBS has 25 items, for which respondents can indicate the degree of belief by using a five-point rating scale. The scale has gone minor changes over the years. The R-PBS was constructed to improve subscale reliability and validity, particularly cross-cultural validity. One more item was added to the R-PBS. A seven-point Likert-type scale (*1=strongly disagree, 4=uncertain, 7=strongly agree*) was used to replace the original five-point rating scale. Item content was also changed for three subscales including (1) construction of a new Precognition subscale, (2) replacement of two of

four Witchcraft subscale items, and (3) replacement of one of three Extraordinary Life Forms subscale items. In total, seven new items replaced a total of six original PBS items.

All the items are specified for each subscale in the R-PBS as follows:

Traditional Religious Belief:

1. The soul continues to exist through the body may die;

8. There is a devil;

15. I believe in God;

22. There is a heaven and a hell.

Psi:

2. Some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces;

9. Psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist;

16. A person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object;

23. Mind reading is not possible.

Witchcraft:

3. Black magic really exists;

10. Witches do exist;

17. Through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons;

24. There are actual cases of witchcraft.

Superstition:

4. Black cats can bring bad luck;

11. If you break a mirror, you will have bad luck;

18. The number "13" is unlucky.

Spiritualism:

5. Your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection);

12. During altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body;

19. Reincarnation does occur;

25. It is possible to communicate with the dead.

Extraordinary Life Forms:

6. The abominable snowman of Tibet (i.e., the Big Foot) exists;

13. The Loch Ness monster of Scotland exists;

20. There is life on other planets.

Precognition:

7. Astrology is a way to accurately predict the future;

14. The horoscope accurately tells a person's future;

21. Some psychics can accurately predict the future;

26. Some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future.

The result of the pretest showed that the dimension of Traditional Religious Belief caused some confusion among the respondents, which ultimately affected the reliability of the scale since a huge percentage of the respondents who held strong traditional religious beliefs tended to strongly disagree with the other items in the R-PBS. Therefore, the study decided to take the four traditional religious belief items ("the soul continues to exist through the body may die", "there is a devil", "I believe in God", and "there is a heaven and a hell") off the scale for the final questionnaire.

Measurement for SADA

Measurement for SADA conformed to the procedures for scale development was established using a student sample for two rounds of survey. The first round survey had 46 items of SADA selected from peer interviews and literature review. All the items were retrieved based on the understanding of superstition in "western culture".

"**Ghost**" (the destination is believed to have ghosts, there are ghost stories surrounding the destination, the destination is said to be haunted), "**witchcraft**" (I can explore witchcraft, I can meet witches, I can meet wizards, I can meet warlocks, I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft), and "**magic**" (there is black magic, I can personally meet magicians, I can participate in magic, the destination is said to have magic power, I can watch magic performances) are the common themes in superstition related phenomena, from which 13 items were drafted for the questionnaire. In view of the popularity of "**vampire**" and "**werewolf**" series, two relevant items were added (werewolf stories have been reported at the destination, vampire stories have been reported at the destination).

"Divination" is considered one of the keys of superstition attitudes (Lasne & Gaultier, 1984: pp. 9); therefore, one item regarding divination was added (I can learn divinations). Some of the most elaborate and practical forms of divinations include "**astrology**" (I can explore astrology, I can meet astrologists), "**palmistry**" (I can meet palmists, I can explore palmistry), "**cartomancy**" (I can explore cartomancy), "**geomancy**" (I can explore geomancy) (Lasne & Gaultier, 1984: pp. 9), "**numerology**" (I can explore numerology) (Buckland, 2003: pp. 334), "**catoptromancy**" (I can explore catoptromancy) (Buckland, 2003: pp. 94), "**capnomancy**" (I can explore capnomancy) (Buckland, 2003: pp. 85), "**dactyliomancy**" (I can explore dactyliomancy) (Buckland, 2003: pp. 173) and "**phrenology**" (I can explore phrenology) (Buckland, 2003: pp. 368). 11 items originated from these divination methods. "**Plants**" and "**animals**" are reported to have been used in numerous superstitious practices and many beliefs stem from them (Lasne & Gaultier, 1984: pp. 55, 87). The items "there are plants considered to be propitious" and "there are animals considered to be propitious" were thus taken into the questionnaire.

In addition to ghosts, there are other forms of spirits which "make up an occult world subjacent to many superstitions" (Lasne & Gaultier, 1984: pp. 30) such as "**phantoms**" (the destination is said to have phantoms) (Lasne & Gaultier, 1984: pp. 30), and there are people who have the ability to connect to the

world where these spirits exist such as "**psychics**" (I can meet psychics) (Torgler, 2007), "**clairvoyants**" (I can meet clairvoyants), and "**fortune tellers**" (I can meet fortune tellers) (Berry, 2006: pp. 23).

Rook (1985) suggested that the average person relies on various ritual events to mark such significant life passages as graduation, marriage, and death. "**Performing rituals**" is considered the way that superstitious belief could be practiced via specific human behavior, and thus two items "I can perform little rituals to bring good luck" and "I can watch others perform rituals" were drafted for the questionnaire. "**To wish following propitious signs**" (e.g., wish upon a star) has been reported a specific and common ritualized activity among college students (Conklin, 1919; Beckwith, 1923). The item "I can make wishes following propitious signs" was included based on these reports.

Besides, some objects have the common purpose of bringing good luck such as "**charms**" (I can buy charms) and protecting their holder from evil influence such as "**talismans**" (I can buy talismans) (Lasne & Gaultier, 1984: pp. 31). Two items were added accordingly. "**Supernatural phenomena**" (Simmons & Schindler, 2003) and "**mystical energy**" (Bonewits & Bonewits, 2007: pp. 222) are the terms commonly related to superstitious beliefs as well, according to which, three items "supernatural things happen", "the destination is said to have supernatural forces", and "the destination is said to have mystical energy" were taken into the questionnaire.

Based on the results of **peer brainstorm**, five other items were included (mysterious things happen, local residents practice superstitious behavior, the local culture has many superstitions, the destination has a superstitious local culture, things that happen are beyond scientific explanation), thus making the questionnaire for the pretest composed of 46 items. A seven-point Likert scale was adopted (*1=strongly disagree, 4=neutral, 7=strongly agree*). One hundred thirty-nine questionnaires were collected.

The principal component factor analysis with a varimax orthogonal rotation was used to analyze the 46 items in the first round survey. Two-factor, three-factor, four-factor, and five-factor solutions were examined. A three-factor solution was deemed the most appropriate for this study, explaining 64.52% of the variance in total (see table 1 for more details). The first factor included 25 items, explaining 29.122% of the variance, and was named "**witchcraft**" in view that witchcraft related items had the highest factor loadings in the factor. The second factor explained 18.832% of the variance with its 10 items, and was named "**astrology**" to reflect that the item of the exploration of astrology had the highest factor loading in the factor. The third factor was termed "**ghost**" since ghost related items had the highest factor loadings of all its 11 items. "Ghost" could explain 16.567% of the variance.

Table 1 Factor Analysis for the Development of SADA (1st round)

Factors	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Explained Variance	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1: Witchcraft		**24.402**	**29.12%**	**.972**
I can meet witches.	.838			
I can explore witchcraft.	.809			
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil).	.774			
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball).	.761			
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm).	.726			
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings).	.721			
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).	.718			
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror).	.711			
I can participate in magic.	.706			
I can explore cartomancy (fortune-telling using a deck of cards).	.684			
Vampire stories have been reported at the destination.	.678			
Werewolf stories have been reported at the destination.	.665			
The destination is said to have magic power.	.659			
I can meet wizards (male witches).	.657			
I can learn divinations (attempts to foretell the future).	.645			
I can explore capnomancy (a method of divination using smoke).	.637			
There are animals considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	.624			
The destination is said to have mystical energy (ex. crystals	.612			

used to heal).				
I can meet fortune tellers.	.582			
I can personally meet magicians.	.562			
I can meet palmists (people who read palms).	.559			
There is black magic (magic that is considered evil).	.556			
I can explore numerology (the study of mystical meanings of numbers).	.546			
I can explore phrenology (the study of relationships between a person's character and the shape of skull).	.510			
I can explore geomancy (the study of patterns formed by tossed soil or sand).	.469			
Factor 2: Astrology		**3.141**	**18.83%**	**.909**
I can explore astrology (e.g. destiny is caused by the position of planets).	.749			
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck.	.698			
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck).	.686			
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star).	.646			
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary).	.642			
I can meet astrologists.	.611			
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	.594			
I can watch magic performances.	.530			
I can watch others perform rituals.	.510			
I can meet psychics (people who have extra sensory perceptions).	.508			
Factor 3: Ghost		**2.136**	**16.57%**	**.939**
The destination is said to be haunted.	.867			
The destination is believed to have ghosts.	.865			
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination.	.838			
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead).	.662			
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation.	.637			
Supernatural things happen.	.625			
The local culture has many superstitions.	.598			
The destination has a superstitious local culture.	.562			
The destination is said to have supernatural forces.	.559			
I can meet clairvoyants (people who can see beyond the five human senses).	.523			
Local residents practice superstitious behavior.	.510			
Total Variance Explained			**64.52%**	

Note: Extraction Method – Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method – Varimax; KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) = 0.910; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000.

There are two requirements for the items to be selected into the final scale: (1) the items should have the highest factor loadings within each factor; and (2) the items to be selected due to their highest factor

loadings could not in the same time had high factor loadings within another factor. Based on these two criteria, twenty-two of the 46 items of SADA were retained in the final scale (the first 9 items in "witchcraft", the first 8 items in "astrology", and the first 5 items in "ghost"). A seven-point Likert scale (*1=strongly disagree, 4=neutral, 7=strongly agree*) was adopted. One hundred nineteen questionnaires were collected for the second round survey.

Factor analysis was run on the second round data set to confirm the results of the first round survey. In order to be consistent with the first round survey, the number of factors was set at three. These three factors explained 69.17% of the variance in the SADA Scale (see Table 2 for more details). The first factor keeping the named "**witchcraft**" included nine items explaining 28.10% of the variance. "**Ghost**" became the second factor with five items explaining 23.22% of the variance. The third factor explained 17.85% of the variance and was renamed "**good luck**".

Table 2 Factor Analysis for the Development of SADA (2nd round)

Factors	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Explained Variance	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1: Witchcraft		**11.190**	**28.10%**	**.939**
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings).	.844			
I can explore witchcraft.	.830			
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil).	.817			
I can meet witches.	.802			
I can participate in magic.	.758			
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror).	.703			
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm).	.675			
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball).	.675			
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).	.599			
Factor 2: Ghost		**2.404**	**23.22%**	**.952**
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination.	.914			
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead).	.912			
The destination is said to be haunted.	.909			

The destination is believed to have ghosts.	.896			
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation.	.639			
Factor 3: Good luck		**1.621**	**17.85%**	**.872**
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck.	.824			
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck).	.739			
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star).	.629			
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	.628			
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary).	.562			
I can explore astrology (e.g. destiny is caused by the position of planets).	.527			
I can meet astrologists.	.527			
I can watch magic performances.	.479			
Total Variance Explained			**69.17%**	

Note: Extraction Method – Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method – Varimax; KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) = 0.899; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000.

The Scale of SADA is the scale developed based on the result of the second round of survey. It should be noted that the last three items within the factor of "good luck" ("I can explore astrology", "I can meet astrologists", and "I can watch magic performances") are taken off the scale to meet content validity and to boost the reliability coefficient. The finalized SADA scale (the first 19 items listed in table 2, *1=strongly disagree, 4=neutral, 7=strongly agree*) is used as the second part of the questionnaire.

Measurement for Intention to Visit

Three scenarios were set up revolving around the three principle factors ("witchcraft", "ghost", and "good luck"). Intention to visit the destination described in each scenario was measured by five items modified based on three items (likelihood to visit, intend to visit, want to visit) used by Lam and Hsu (2006), and two (probability of visitation, willingness to visit) adapted from Dodds *et al*. (1991). A three-year parameter for intention was adopted for the first three items measuring potential tourists' visit intention.

A seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) was adopted to measure the first three statements in visit intention. This study required respondents to rate their

willingness to visit (the last two items in general visit intention) using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*extremely low*) to 7 (*extremely high*).

Table 3 Measurement for Intention to Visit

Scenario 1.

Suppose there is a destination where you can explore many things related to witchcraft. For example, you can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil) or witches in person; watch them practice dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings), catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror), and palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm); buy things related to witchcraft (e.g. crystal ball), and talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).

Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.

Please consider the following statements.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low	Very Low	Low	Undecided	High	Very High	Extremely High
The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scenario 2.

Suppose there is a destination where you can listen to ghost stories surrounding the destination. The destination is said to be haunted and believed to have ghosts. Things that happen there are beyond scientific explanation.

Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.

Please consider the following statements.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low	Very Low	Low	Undecided	High	Very High	Extremely High
The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scenario 3.
Suppose there is a destination, the theme of which is to bring good luck to visitors. As a visitor, you can perform little rituals or buy charms to bring good luck. There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined) in the destination. You can make wishes following propitious signs.
Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.
Please consider the following statements.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low	Very Low	Low	Undecided	High	Very High	Extremely High
The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Other Variables

This study included potential tourists' basic socio-demographic variables, such as age, gender, education level, marital status, and annual household income to better understand various characteristics of the respondents.

Sutton (1994) argued that many behaviors are determined by one's past behavior rather than by cognitions such as those described in the TRA/TPB, based on the results of studies showing past behavior to be the best predictor of future behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Conner and Armitage (1998) further stated that frequent performance of a behavior may bring subsequent behavior under the control of habitual processes, though there is no uniformly recognized causal relationship between past behavior and subsequent behavior. In view of the argument about the role of past travel experience, whether a potential tourist has visited a destination whose attractiveness is superstition-based was added to be investigated.

Data Analysis

A multiple regression model was used with intention to visit as the dependent variable and attitude about superstition as the independent variable. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed to detect the moderating effects of potential tourists' traits of superstition on the relationships between attitude about superstition and intention to visit. Past experience will be entered as a control variable.

The population regression equation can be expressed as follows (Berry & Feldman, 1985):

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon$$

Where, Y is the dependent variable, assumed to be a function of a set of k independent variables—X_1, X_2, X_3,…, X_k—in a population. The Greek letter coefficient α, β_1, β_2,…, β_k represent population parameters to be estimated. The error term ε is the deviation of the observation of Y value from its true value in the population.

Berry and Feldman (1985: pp. 10-11) suggested that the relationship between E(Y) (the expected value of Y) and each X_i is assumed to be linear and additive although implicit in the way the regression equation is written. In addition to the linearity and additivity assumptions, several other assumptions must be met to be appropriately applied to the multiple regression model and conduct tests of statistical significance, as suggested by Berry and Feldman (1985), which are as follows:

(1) All variables must be measured at the interval level and without error. Measurement error will occur if this assumption is violated;

(2) For each set of values for the k independent variables (X_{1j}, X_{2j},…, X_{kj}) (X_{ij} is used to denote the value of the j^{th} observation of the variable X_i), $E(\varepsilon_j) = 0$ (i.e., the mean value of the error term is 0). If this assumption is violated, the intercept is the only coefficient of the regression model that is affected.

(3) For each set of values for the k independent variables, VAR (i.e., variance) $(\varepsilon_j) = \sigma^2$ (i.e., the variance of the error term is constant). If the variance of the error term is not constant, heteroscedasticity

occurs.

(4) For any two sets of values for the k independent variables, COV (i.e., covariance) (ε_j, ε_h) = 0 (i.e., the error terms are uncorrelated; thus there is no autocorrelation).

(5) For each X_i, COV (X_i, ε) = 0 (i.e., each independent variable is uncorrelated with the error term). The violation of this assumption is the occurrence of specification error which results in two ways. First, the function form of the relationship between variables is specified improperly despite the proper variables in the model. Second, the wrong independent variables are used when one estimates a model.

(6) There is no perfect collinearity—no independent variable is perfectly linearly related to one or more of the other independent variables in the model. The problem of multicollinearity occurs when this assumption is violated.

(7) For each set of values for the k independent variables, ε_j is normally distributed. According to Berry and Feldman (1985), normality is not an issue for large samples due to the application of the central limit theory.

According to Gauss-Markov theorem, the least squares estimators of regression parameters are unbiased and efficient as long as assumptions 1-6 are met (Berry & Feldman, 1985: pp. 15). R^2 is the statistic used to assess the goodness-of-fit of the multiple regression model.

Summary

This chapter addresses the procedures of the study including the research design, the sample, the instrument development, and the data analysis technique. The revised Paranormal Belief Scale is used to measure traits of superstition while the SADA scale has been developed to measure potential tourists' attitude about superstition as it relates to destination attractiveness. Three scenarios have been composed

for respondents to indicate their likelihood to visit the destination in each scenario. A total of 323 questionnaires were collected for data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

The pretest of the study helped the scale development of SADA and the redesign of the R-PBS for its fit in the purpose of the study, which was described in details in chapter 3. The fourth chapter of the study was dedicated only to the results found in the final data collection.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Demographics and Travel Experiences

The study received 125 responses online while the exact number of questionnaires distributed through the link on Qualtrics cannot be determined. It is estimated that about 7,500 students (there are about 7,000 graduate students listed on the graduate school's mail listserv) received the link of the questionnaire. The elimination of questionnaires that were either incomplete or from an inappropriate source (i.e., other sources than Virginia Tech) resulted in 80 usable questionnaires collected online. In the classes where the investigator monitored the survey process in person, 249 questionnaires were distributed, of which 247 were returned. The same screening process led to 243 usable questionnaires collected in class. Thus, a total of 323 questionnaires were collected from Virginia Tech students (graduate and undergraduate level), among which 46.4% (N=150) are male and 53.6% (N=173) are female. The mean of age is 22.48, ranging from 18 to 59. Of all the respondents, 62.5% (N=202) are from Pamplin College of Business. The College of Engineering is the second largest source of the respondents, accounting for 14.6% (N=47), followed by the College of Science (8.7%, N=28) and the College of Liberal Arts & Human Sciences (7.1%, N=23). In terms of past experience with SADA, approximately 7% (N=22) of the respondents claimed that they had been to a destination with superstition as one of the attractiveness attributes in the past 12 months, while only 3.1% (N=10) believed that they had been to a destination, where the major attractiveness is superstition-based, in the past 12 months. Approximately 5% (N=17) of the respondents were uncertain about whether they had been to a destination with superstition as one of the attractiveness attributes, in the past 12 months or not, and another 5% (N=16) of the respondents were uncertain about whether they had

been to a destination, where the major attractiveness is superstition-based, in the past 12 months. Table 4 provides a summary of demographics and travel experience variables and their distribution.

Table 4 Summary of Demographics and Travel Experience

Demographics and Travel Experience		N	%	Cumulative %
Gender	Male	150	46.40	46.40
	Female	173	53.60	100.00
	Total	323	100.00	

Age	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
	18	59	22.48	3.96

Demographics and Travel Experience		N	%	Cumulative %
College	Agriculture and Life Sciences	8	2.50	2.50
	Architecture and Urban Studies	2	.60	3.10
	Carilion School of Medicine	1	.30	3.40
	Engineering	47	14.60	18.00
	Liberal Arts & Human Sciences	23	7.10	25.10
	Natural Resources and Environment	9	2.80	27.90
	Pamplin College of Business	202	62.50	90.40
	Science	28	8.70	99.10
	The University Academic Advising Center	1	.30	99.40
	Veterinary Medicine	1	.30	99.70
	Virginia Bioinformatics Institute	1	.30	100.00
	Total	323	100.00	
Have you ever been to a destination with superstition as one of the attractiveness attributes, in the past 12 months?	Yes	22	6.80	6.80
	No	284	87.90	94.70
	Uncertain	17	5.30	100.00
	Total	323	100.00	
Have you ever been to a destination, the major attractiveness is superstition-based, in the past 12 months?	Yes	10	3.10	3.10
	No	297	92.00	95.00
	Uncertain	16	5.00	100.00
	Total	323	100.00	

Note: N=323. There is one missing value in "Age" (N=322).

Of the explanations provided by those who answered "Yes" to at least one of the questions regarding past experience with SADA, the most common answers were related to a haunted destination (e.g., "haunted bridge", "haunted house", "ghost tour", "haunted cemetery", "grave site", "haunted hotel", etc.). Other common answers were "Harry Porter Castle/Land", "New Orleans", and "Sarannah, GA". Some of the other answers provided included "Madagascar rainforest", "Beaufort, NC", "Blarney Stone, Ireland", "Mansfield Reformatory, Ohio", "Gettysburg", "Rome", "Tikal, Guatemala", "Las Vegas", and "temples".

The Scales of the Study: Descriptive Results

Before hypothesis testing, the study first looks at the descriptive statistics of the scales used in the questionnaire (i.e., R-PBS, SADA, and the scale of intention to visit). Table 5 provides the descriptive statistics of the R-PBS. On a scale of 1 to 7 (1= "strongly disagree", 7= "strongly agree"), the item "there is life on other planets" receives the highest mean and relatively large standard deviation meantime (M=4.93, SD=1.88). After being reverse coded, the item "mind reading is not possible" has been rated second highest on the R-PBS (M=3.91, SD=2.14), followed by the item "some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future" (M=3.02, SD=1.91). The least believed items on the R-PBS include "through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons" (M=1.76, SD=1.34), "black cats can bring bad luck" (M=1.85, SD=1.38), and "some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces" (M=1.87, SD=1.52). The overall reliability of this scale is 0.935.

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics of the Revised Paranormal Belief Scale

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation
Some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces	1.87	1.52
Black magic really exists	2.10	1.58
Black cats can bring bad luck	1.85	1.38
Your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection)	2.46	1.75
The abominable snowman of Tibet (i.e., the Big Foot) exists	2.12	1.58
Astrology is a way to accurately predict the future	2.20	1.55
Psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist	1.97	1.53
Witches do exist	2.55	1.94
If you break a mirror, you will have bad luck	1.89	1.36
During altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body	2.46	1.77
The Loch Ness monster of Scotland exists	2.38	1.83
The horoscope accurately tells a person's future	2.00	1.33
A person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object	1.88	1.48
Through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons	1.76	1.34
The number 13 is unlucky	1.94	1.50
Reincarnation does occur	2.68	1.81
There is life on other planets	**4.93**	1.88
Some psychics can accurately predict the future	2.81	1.89
Mind reading is not possible	**3.91**	2.14
There are actual cases of witchcraft	2.63	1.84
It is possible to communicate with the dead	2.64	1.82
Some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future	**3.02**	1.91

Note: The item "Mind reading is not possible" is reverse coded.

A review of the descriptive statistics of the scale of SADA (Table 6) leads to the findings that on a scale of 1 to 7 (1= "strongly disagree", 7= "strongly agree"), "things that happen are beyond scientific explanation" (M=3.61, SD=2.13) and "mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary)" (M=3.77, SD=2.07) are the only two items with a mean larger than three (i.e., "disagree"). Both items have the largest standard deviation as well. The item "I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings)" receives the lowest mean (M=1.60, SD=1.15), followed by "I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil)" (M=1.69, SD=1.31), and "I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror)" (M=1.73, SD=1.27). The overall reliability of this scale is 0.951.

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics of the Scale of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness (SADA)

I consider the destination attractive if	Mean	Std. Deviation
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings)	1.60	1.15
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination	2.78	1.98
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck	2.05	1.52
I can explore witchcraft	1.91	1.51
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead)	2.20	1.70
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck)	2.26	1.68
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil)	1.69	1.31
The destination is said to be haunted	2.61	1.85
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star)	2.60	1.87
I can meet witches	1.83	1.49
The destination is believed to have ghosts	2.59	1.88
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined)	2.23	1.68
I can participate in magic	2.07	1.67
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation	**3.61**	2.13
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary)	**3.77**	2.07
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror)	1.73	1.27
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm)	1.96	1.45
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball)	1.92	1.52
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers)	1.93	1.52

Three scenarios have been used to measure the respondents' intention to visit a destination with "witchcraft", "ghost", and "good luck" being the three themes of destinations featuring SADA. On a scale of 1 to 7 (1= "strongly disagree", 7= "strongly agree"), the five items within Scenario 1 have lower means (see Table 7) than their counterparts within the other two scenarios. In general, the respondents report the

least intention to visit the first scenario which features witchcraft. A respective comparison of the five items within both Scenario 2 and Scenario 3 finds that except the item "the possibility that I would consider visiting such as destination", all the other four items in Scenario 2 have higher means than their counterparts in Scenario 3, leading to a summary of the results that the majority of the respondents present higher intention to visit a destination with "good luck" being the major attractiveness than one featuring "ghost". The reliability alphas of these three scenarios are 0.945, 0.953, and 0.956, respectively.

Table 7 Descriptive Statistics of the Scale of Intention to Visit

Scenario/Item		Mean	Std. Deviation
Scenario 1 "Witchcraft"	It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next 3 years.	1.94	1.61
	I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1.71	1.38
	I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	2.04	1.72
	The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination	2.38	1.76
	My willingness to visit such a destination	2.55	1.81
Scenario 2 "Ghost"	It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next 3 years.	2.47	1.70
	I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	2.20	1.61
	I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	2.66	1.83
	The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination	2.93	1.92
	My willingness to visit such a destination	2.95	1.89
Scenario 3 "Good Luck"	It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next 3 years.	2.54	1.72
	I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	2.34	1.66
	I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	2.72	1.80
	The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination	2.84	1.83
	My willingness to visit such a destination	3.04	1.83

DIMENSIONS OF THE SCALE OF SADA

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20.0 was used for further data analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO=0.929) and the result of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (p=0.000) indicated that the data collected for the scale of SADA were suitable for factor analysis which was later run to identify the underlying dimensions of the scale of SADA. The rotation method of varimax was adopted with principal component analysis being the extraction method. The study looked at the correlation matrix for the identification of the structural relationships among eigenvalues. Three factors were extracted: "witchcraft", "ghost", and "good luck", consistent with the

result of factor analysis in the second round survey of scale development. The three factors explained 70.889% of the total variance (see Table 8).

The first factor "witchcraft" included seven items with an eigenvalue of 10.520, explaining 55.367% of the variance. The second factor, containing mostly items related to "ghost", explained 9.754% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.853. The third factor, having "I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck)" highest loaded, had an eigenvalue of 1.096 and explained the rest of the variance out of the total 70.889%. The reliability test of the scale reported that all the three factors had a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) larger than, or equal to, 0.900 ($\alpha \geq 0.900$, $\alpha_1=0.928$, $\alpha_2=0.907$, $\alpha_3=0.900$), manifesting that the scale of SADA had solid reliability. In order to generate a summated score for each of the three factors, an arithmetic average of each factor was computed and saved as a new variable in SPSS file for the later use of hypothesis testing.

Table 8 Factor Analysis of the scale of SADA

Factor/Item	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Explained Variance	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1: Witchcraft		**10.520**	**55.367%**	**.928**
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil).	.862			
I can meet witches.	.760			
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings).	.749			
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror).	.746			
I can explore witchcraft.	.708			
I can participate in magic.	.698			
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm).	.592			
Factor 2: Ghost		**1.853**	**9.754%**	**.907**
The destination is believed to have ghosts.	.887			
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination.	.860			
The destination is said to be haunted.	.840			
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead).	.762			
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary).	.589			
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation.	.519			
Factor 3: Good Luck		**1.096**	**5.768%**	**.900**
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck).	.787			
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star).	.744			
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck.	.630			
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	.604			
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).	.594			
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball).	.583			

Total Variance Explained	**70.889%**

Note: Extraction Method –Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method –Varimax; KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) =0.929; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000.

DIMENSIONS OF THE R-PBS

Before factor analysis was run on the R-PBS part of the data, the KMO (KMO=0.921) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (p=0.000) confirmed that the data were suitable to conduct factor analysis. Varimax was used as the rotation method while principal component analysis served as the extraction method. The correlation matrix delineating the structure of eigenvalues was observed. The study identified five dimensions of the R-PBS, explaining 69.380% of the total variance. The result revealed that the items loaded in "spiritualism" on Tobacyk's (2004) R-PBS were spread in "Psi" ("your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection)"), "precognition" ("reincarnation does occur"), and "witchcraft" ("during altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body" and "it is possible to communicate with the dead"). Other five factors on Tobacyk's (2004) R-PBS retained most of their items, but the rest were found to be loading in different dimensions (see Table 9).

The first factor "Psi" included six items with an eigenvalue of 9.887, explaining 44.940% of the variance. It retained three out of four items ("some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces", "psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist", and "a person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object"), gained two items from "witchcraft" ("black magic really exists" and "through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons"), one item from "Psi" as specified earlier, and lost one item to "precognition" ("mind reading is not possible"). The second factor explained 7.947% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.748. It maintained all of its items ("if you break a mirror, you will have bad luck", "the number 13 is unlucky", and "black cats can bring bad luck") and gained two items from "precognition" ("the horoscope accurately tells a person's future" and "astrology is a way to accurately predict the future"). The third

factor "witchcraft" had an eigenvalue of 1.436 and explained 6.526% of the variance. It lost two items to the first factor "Psi", retained two items ("there are actual cases of witchcraft" and "witches do exist"), and gained two items from "spiritualism" in Tobacyk's (2004) R-PBS. The fourth factor "precognition" contained five items with an eigenvalue of 1.153, explaining 5.239% of the variance. It kept two of its items ("some psychics can accurately predict the future" and "some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future"), gained one item from "Psi", one item from "spiritualism" and one item from "extraordinary life forms" ("there is life on other planets"). The fifth factor included only two items, explaining 4.728% of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.040. Its only loss was one item to "precognition".

A reliability test of the scale reported that all the five dimensions presented internal reliability with Cronbach's alpha larger than 0.7 ($\alpha \geq 0.7$, $\alpha_1=0.902$, $\alpha_2=0.857$, $\alpha_3=0.857$, $\alpha_4=0.752$, $\alpha_5=0.822$) which has always been held as a benchmark for acceptable scale reliability (Nunnally, 1978, p.36). In order to generate a summated score for each of the five dimensions, an arithmetic average of each factor was computed and saved as a new variable in SPSS file for the later use of hypothesis testing.

Table 9 Factor Analysis of the R-PBS

Factor/Item	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Explained Variance	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1: Psi		**9.887**	**44.940%**	**.902**
Some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces.	.832			
Psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist.	.810			
A person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object.	.788			
*Black magic really exists.	.623			
*Through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons.	.551			
*Your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection).	.473			
Factor 2: Superstition		**1.748**	**7.947%**	**.857**
If you break a mirror, you will have bad luck.	.807			
The number 13 is unlucky.	.798			
*The horoscope accurately tells a person's future.	.752			
Black cats can bring bad luck.	.665			
*Astrology is a way to accurately predict the future.	.611			
Factor 3: Witchcraft		**1.436**	**6.526%**	**.857**
There are actual cases of witchcraft.	.853			
Witches do exist.	.826			

*During altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body.	.520			
*It is possible to communicate with the dead.	.501			
Factor 4: Precognition		**1.153**	**5.239%**	**.752**
*Mind reading is not possible.	.656			
*There is life on other planets.	.637			
Some psychics can accurately predict the future.	.551			
Some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future.	.550			
*Reincarnation does occur.	.496			
Factor 5: Extraordinary Life Forms		**1.040**	**4.728%**	**.822**
The Loch Ness monster of Scotland exists.	.781			
The abominable snowman of Tibet (i.e., the Big Foot) exists.	.737			
Total Variance Explained			**69.380%**	

Note: Extraction Method –Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method –Varimax; KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) =0.921; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000. "*"means that the item loaded in different items in Tabacyk's (2004) analysis and in this study.

RELIABILITY OF THE MEASUREMENT FOR INTENTION TO VISIT

Three scenarios were set up to measure respondents' intention to visit a destination with superstition being the major attractiveness as specified in Chapter 3. Each scenario consists of five intention items. A reliability test was run to see whether the five items under each scenario would produce consistent results. Table 10 presents a summary of reliability statistics. A Cronbach's alpha equal, or larger than, 0.7 ($\alpha \geq 0.7$), has been considered an acceptable reliability indication (Nunnally, 1978, p.36). The three scenarios (S1, S2, S3) were believed to have strong reliability ($\alpha_{S1}=0.945$, $\alpha_{S2}=0.953$, $\alpha_{S3}=0.956$). In order to generate a summated score, a grand arithmetic average combining the three scenarios and an arithmetic average for each scenario were computed and saved as new variables in SPSS file for the later use of hypothesis testing.

Table 10 Reliability Statistics

Scale of Intention to Visit	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Scenario 1 (Witchcraft themed)	.945	5
Scenario 2 (Ghost themed0	.953	5
Scenario 3 (Good luck themed)	.956	5

MODEL TESTING

Regression analysis was employed for hypothesis testing in the study. Hypothesis 1 predicts a positive relationship between the extent to which respondents feel attracted by superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition. Hypothesis 2 proposes a moderating effect that respondents' trait of superstition has on the relationship predicted in Hypothesis 1. In view of the three underlying dimensions (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) identified in SADA, the five factors (PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5) underlying the R-PBS, and the three scenarios (S1, S2, S3) designed to measure intention to visit, the proposed model was extended as follows (Figure 3):

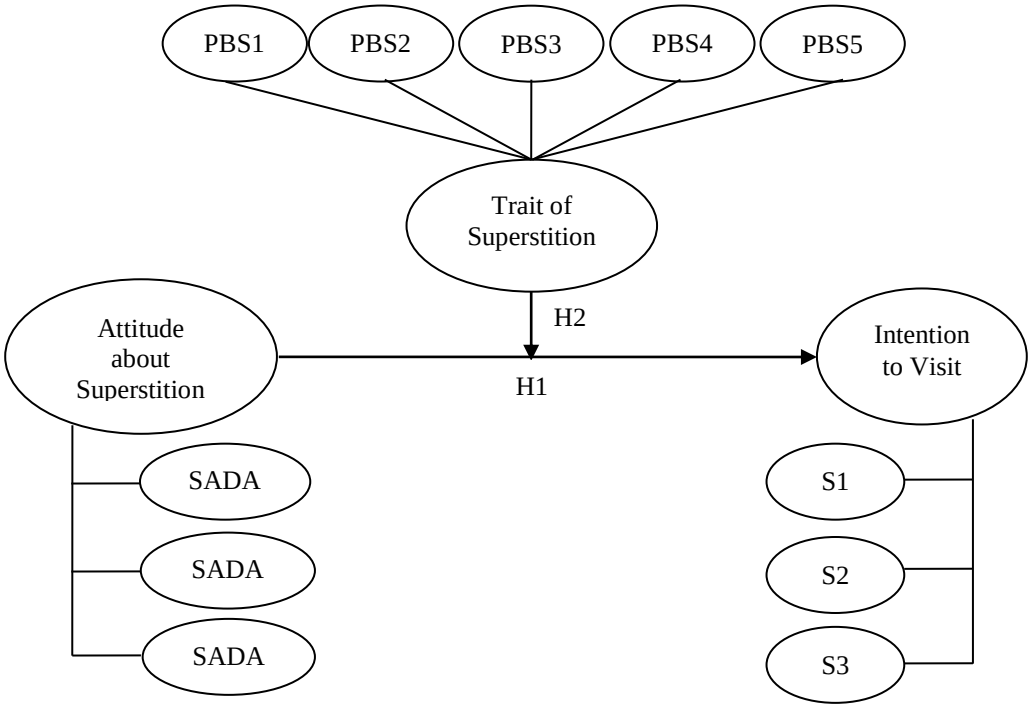

Figure 3 Extended Model Proposed for the Study (1st version)

The study first tested Hypothesis 1 using Intention to Visit as the dependent variable and SADA as the independent variable in the regression model. The summated scores of both variables were input. It is reported in Table 11 that SADA accounted for 43.5% of the variance (R^2=0.435) in respondents' general visit intention and yielded a significant prediction equation (F=232.001, p<0.05, p=0.000). SADA was

found to be a significant predictor of Intention to Visit ($p<0.05$). Thus, the more attracted a potential tourist feels by superstition as the major attractiveness of a destination ($\beta=0.660$, $t=15.232$, $p<0.05$, $p=0.000$), the higher intention the tourist will have to visit the destination. A further look at the table leads to the belief that multicollinearity is not a problem in view that the condition index are below 15 ($CI_{SADA}=4.049$) and that the range between the lower bound and the upper bound of the 95% of confidence internal for beta did not include zero for SADA. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Table 11 Regression Analysis Testing H1 (DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Condition Index
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
(Constant)	.788	.127		6.212	.000	.538	1.037	1.000
SADA	.748	.049	.660	15.232	.000	.652	.845	4.049

Dependent Variable: Intention to Visit; Predictor: SADA; $R^2=0.435$; Adjusted $R^2=0.433$; $F=232.001$; $p=0.000$.

One of the most important assumptions to run regression is residual normality. Unstandardized residual was saved for the purpose of normality check. The result of Shapiro-Wilk test rejected the null hypothesis that the data were normally distributed (statistic=0.924, $p<0.05$, p=000). The dependent variable Intention to Visit was thus transformed to a new variable which was the logarithm of Intention to Visit (LogS), the unstandardized residual of which was saved. Normality tests were conducted to check the distribution of the unstandardized residual of the transformed dependent variable. The result of Shapiro-Wilk test rejected the null hypothesis that the data were normally distributed (statistic=0.985, $p<0.05$, p=003), but it was noted that the Shapiro-Wilk statistic was increased. It is commonly held that the closer the Shapiro-Wilk statistic is to 1, the more likely that the residual is normally distributed. It was observed that the unstandardized residual was very close to normal distribution. Additionally, the distribution of standardized residual was plotted in Figure 4, which confirmed the closeness to normal distribution. Therefore, the study decided that the assumption of residual normality was not violated.

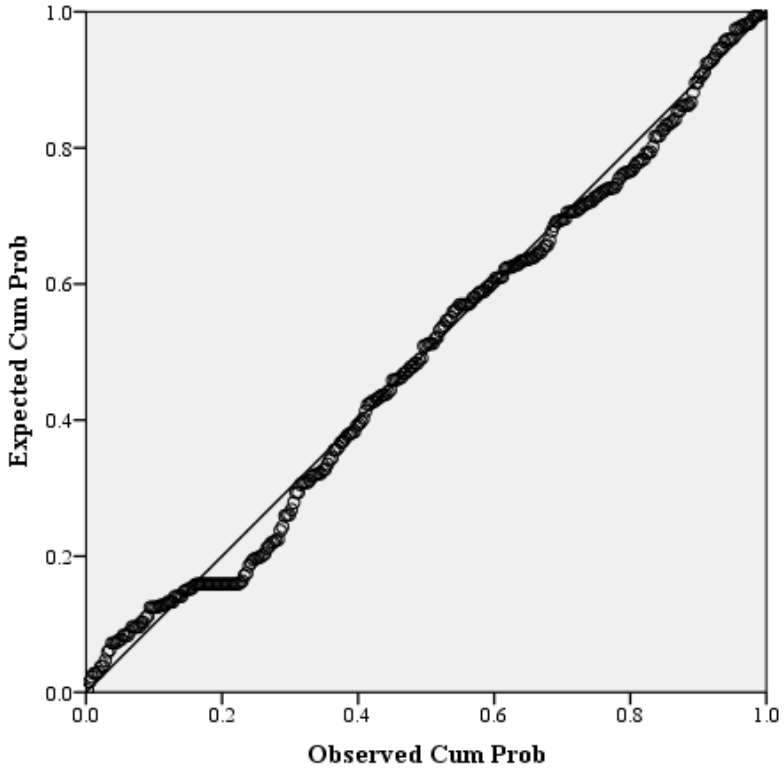

Figure 4 Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual (DV: LogS)

Another important assumption for regression results to stand is constant variance. Constant variance assumption was checked using the transformed Intention to Visit as the dependent variable. All the available transformed responses were plotted to investigate whether there was a certain pattern within the cases. As can be seen in Figure 5, the responses were randomly spread in a certain area, which led to the decision that the constant variance assumption was not violated.

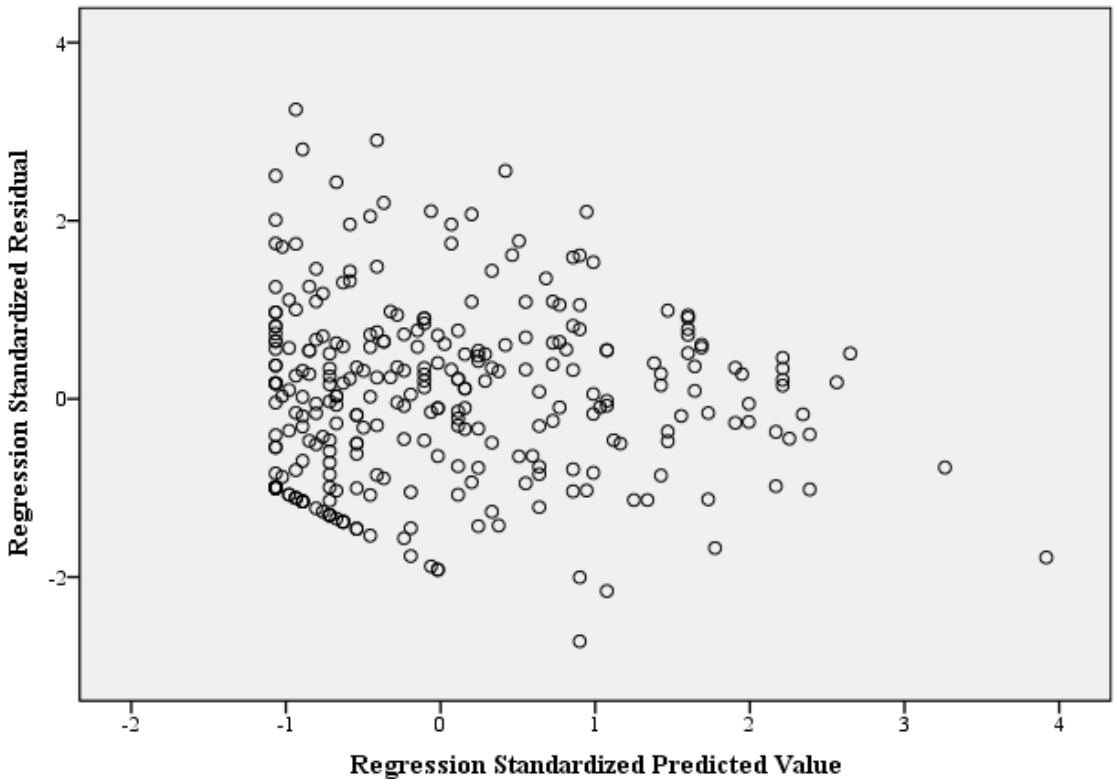

Figure 5 Scatterplot of Responses for Intention to Visit (DV: LogS)

To further examine whether potential tourists will tend to visit all kinds of destinations with superstition being the major attractiveness if they have positive attitudes about superstition or they will only have high intention to visit the type of destination with the type of superstition they are interested in, the study tested the relationship using the subscales of intention to visit as dependent variables separately and dimensions underlying SADA as independent variables. S1 was the first dependent variable to be examined. As can be seen in Table 12, the three independent variables (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) jointly explained 40.1% of the variance (R^2=0.401) in S1. The model was significant (F=67.853, p<0.05, p=0.000). SADA1 was a significant predictor of S1 (p<0.05), which revealed that the more attracted potential tourists feel by superstition revolving around witchcraft (β=0.486, p<0.05, p=0.000) as the major attractiveness of a destination, the higher intention they will have to pay a visit to a witchcraft themed destination. The range between the lower bound and the upper bound of the 95% of confidence internal for beta did not include zero for SADAA1. The tolerance value was above 0.1 (tolerance $_{SADA1}$=0.333), the VIF value was below

10 (VIF_{SADA1}=3.002), and the condition index was below 15 (CI_{SADA1}=4.410), leading to the decision that multicollinearity was not a problem. SADA2 and SADA3 were not significant regressors in the model (p>0.05). The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 12 Regression Analysis Testing H1 (DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.501	.146		3.442	.001	.215	.787			1.000
SADA1	.616	.097	.486	6.323	.000	.424	.808	.333	3.002	4.410
SADA2	.105	.056	.113	1.869	.063	-.006	.217	.541	1.849	6.195
SADA3	.090	.083	.081	1.086	.279	-.074	.254	.356	2.812	7.821

Dependent Variable: S1; Predictor: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3; R^2=0.401; Adjusted R^2=0.395; F=67.853; p=0.000.

The same process was applied to S2 as the dependent variable. It was presented in Table 13 that the same three independent variables (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) explained 36.2% of the variance (R^2=0.356) in S2. The model was significant (F=57.887, p<0.05, p=0.000). SADA1 was not found to be a significant regressor in the model (p>0.05, p=0.170). Both SADA2 and SADA3 were significant, and had a positive relationship with S2 (β_{SADA2}=0.565, p<0.05, p=0.000; β_{SADA3}=0.160, p<0.05, p=0.034). Therefore, the more attracted potential tourists feel by ghost stories and good-luck related activities as the major attractiveness of a destination, the higher visit intention they will have for those destinations. The range between the lower bound and the upper bound of the 95% of confidence internal for beta did not include zero for both SADA2 and SADA3. Both the tolerance values for SADA1 and SADA2 were above 0.1 (tolerance $_{SADA2}$=0.551; tolerance $_{SADA3}$=0.370), the VIF values were below 10 (VIF_{SADA2}=1.814; VIF_{SADA3}=2.704), and the condition indices were below 15 (CI_{SADA2}=6.190; CI_{SADA3}=7.782). All the above information led to the judgment that multicollinearity was not an issue. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 13 Regression Analysis Testing H1 (DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.791	.165		4.794	.000	.467	1.116			1.000
SADA1	-.152	.110	-.107	-1.377	.170	-.369	.065	.346	2.887	4.507
SADA2	.582	.063	.565	9.183	.000	.457	.706	.551	1.814	6.190
SADA3	.199	.093	.160	2.127	.034	.015	.382	.370	2.704	7.782

Dependent Variable: S2; Predictor: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3; R^2=0.362; Adjusted R^2=0.356; F=57.887; p=0.000.

The model using S3 as the dependent variable was significant (F=65.772, p<0.05, p=0.000) with the three independent variables (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) explaining 39.2% of the variance (R^2=0.392) in S3. SADA1 and SADA2 were not significant predictors of S1 (p>0.05). SADA3 was a significant regressor in the model. Based on the statistics summary in Table 14, it can be seen that the more attracted potential tourists feel by superstition related to bringing good luck being the major attractiveness of a destination (β=0.573, p<0.05, p=0.000), the higher intention they will have to visit such a destination. Multicollinearity was not a problem -- the range between the lower bound and the upper bound of the 95% of confidence internal for beta did not include zero for SADA3; the tolerance value was above 0.1 (tolerance $_{SADA3}$=0.355); the VIF value was below 10 (VIF $_{SADA3}$=2.819); and the condition index was below 15 (CI_{SADA3}=7.875). The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 14 Regression Analysis Testing H1 (DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.997	.159		6.283	.000	.684	1.309			1.000
SADA1	.042	.106	.030	0.391	.696	-.168	.251	.330	3.026	4.424
SADA2	.045	.062	.044	0.725	.469	-.077	.166	.540	1.853	6.225
SADA3	.695	.091	.573	7.658	.000	.516	.382	.355	2.819	7.875

Dependent Variable: S3; Predictor: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3; R^2=0.392; Adjusted R^2=0.386; F=65.772; p=0.000.

Based on the result of regression analysis run for Hypothesis 1, the proposed model of the study was further extended accordingly (Figure 6).

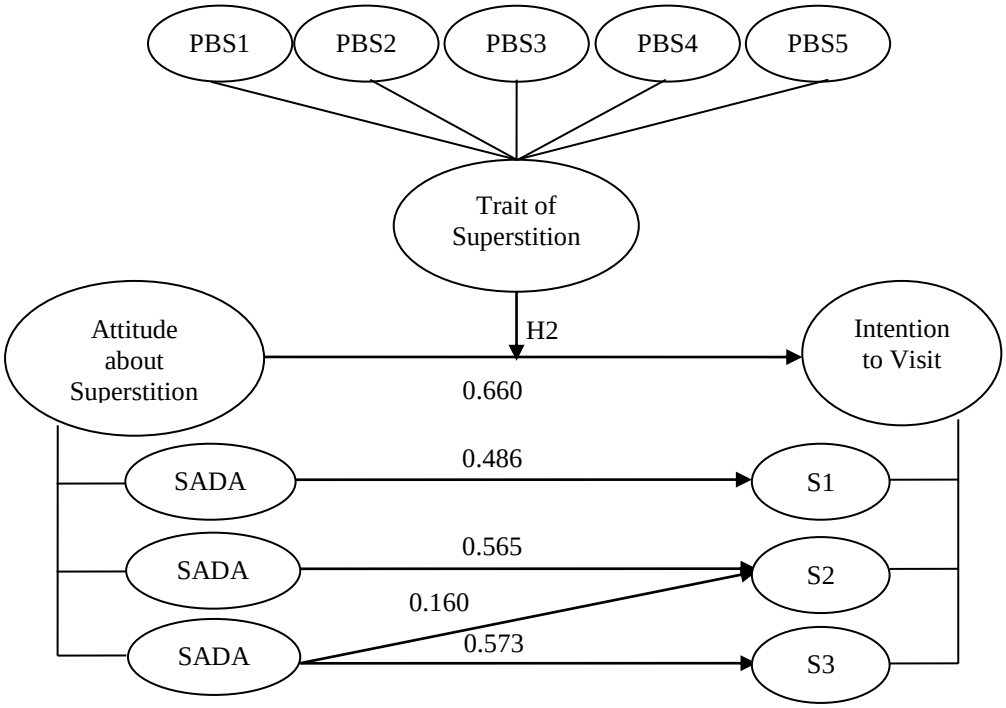

Figure 6 Extended Model Proposed for the Study (2nd version)

To test Hypothesis 2, a hierarchical multiple regression method was adopted. The variable PBS superstition was investigated as an independent variable along with the other independent variables examined in the previous analysis. The analysis was run to see whether the inclusion of the new independent variable (PBS) would increase the models' ability to explain the variance in the dependent variables. Table 15 provides a summary of the regression model. Both model 1 and 2 were significant (F_1=226.853, $p<0.05$, $p=0.000$; F_2=119.118, $p<0.05$, $p=0.000$). Model 1 explained 43.2% of the variance (R^2_1=0.432) in Intention to Visit while the explaining power of Model 2 increased 1.3% (R^2_2=0.445). The change of the F value was significant ($p<0.05$, $p=0.009$). Therefore, the inclusion of trait of superstition in the model significantly increased the model's explaining power with 1.3% difference.

Table 15 Regression Model Summary (DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA, PBS)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.432	.430	226.853	.000	.432	226.853	.000
2	.445	.441	119.118	.000	.013	6.895	.009

Model 1: DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA

Model 2: DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA, PBS

A review of the coefficients of the model (Table 16) confirmed the same decision. PBS in Model 2 was a significant predictor (β=-0.150, $p<0.05$, $p=0.009$). The analysis presented a consistent result in terms of SADA's significance in predicting Intention to Visit (β=0.560, $p<0.05$, $p=0.000$). Multicollinearity was not an issue since the 95.0% confidence interval for the betas didn't include 0, the tolerance statistics were above 0.1 ($tolerance_{SADA}=tolerance_{PBS}=0.576$), the VIF values were below 10 ($VIF_{SADA}=VIF_{PBS}=1.737$), and the condition indices were below 15 ($CI_{SADA}=4.921$, $CI_{PBS}=6.786$). The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 16 Regression Analysis Testing H2 (DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA, PBS)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.800	.128		6.248	.000	.548	1.052			1.000
SADA	.745	.049	.657	15.062	.000	.648	.842	1.000	1.000	4.052
(Constant)	.588	.150		3.915	.000	.292	.884			1.000
SADA	.635	.065	.560	9.831	.000	.507	.762	.576	1.737	4.921
PBS	.189	.072	.150	2.626	.009	.047	.331	.576	1.737	6.786

The result of the regression analysis supported Hypothesis 2. It was of the study's interest to examine separately the moderating effect that the factors of PBS might have on the relationships between SADA and Intention to Visit. Intention to Visit was investigated as the dependent variable while SADA was the independent variable in Model 1 and SADA, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5 were input as the

independent variables in Model 2. Table 17 suggested that the inclusion of the five PBS dimensions did not significantly increase the explaining power of the model ($p>0.05$, $p=0.070$). The five dimensions were thus examined separately to see their role in Model 2.

Table 17 Regression Model Summary
(DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.432	.430	226.853	.000	.432	226.853	.000
2	.452	.440	40.207	.000	.019	2.066	.070

Model 1: DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA

Model 2: DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5

It was presented in Table 18 that none of the five PBS dimensions was significant in predicting Intention to Visit (β_{PBS1}=-0.075, $p>0.05$, $p=0.291$, β_{PBS2}=0.072, $p>0.05$, $p=0.200$, β_{PBS3}=0.069, $p>0.05$, $p=0.342$, β_{PBS4}=0.084, $p>0.05$, $p=0.180$, β_{PBS5}=-0.046, $p>0.05$, $p=0.392$). SADA was reported to be the only independent variable that was significant in predicting Intention to Visit ($\beta=0.563$, $p<0.05$, $p=0.000$). Multicollinearity was not an issue for SADA in view that the 95.0% confidence interval for its beta ranged from 0.510 to 0.765, which did not include 0, its tolerance statistic was 0.573, above 0.1, its VIF value was 1.744, below 10, and its condition index was 5.408, below 15. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and the assumptions were not violated.

Table 18 Regression Analysis Testing H2
(DV: Intention to Visit; IV: SADA, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.800	.128		6.248	.000	.548	1.052			1.000
SADA	.745	.049	.657	15.062	.000	.648	.842	1.000	1.000	4.052
(Constant)	.495	.172		2.873	.004	.156	.835			1.000
SADA	.638	.065	.563	9.847	.000	.510	.765	.573	1.744	5.408
PBS1	-.082	.078	-.075	-1.058	.291	-.235	.071	.376	2.661	6.174
PBS2	.087	.068	.072	1.284	.200	-.047	.221	.598	1.672	7.146

PBS3	.061	.064	.069	.952	.342	-.065	.188	.358	2.794	7.676
PBS4	.085	.063	.084	1.343	.180	-.040	.210	.473	2.115	9.190
PBS5	.040	.046	.046	.857	.392	-.051	.130	.657	1.523	11.845

The study investigated the moderating effect PBS might have on the relationships between the dimensions of SADA and the subscales of Intention to Visit. It can be seen from Table 19 that the regression using S1 as the dependent variable, the three dimensions of SADA (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) as the independent variables in model 1 and both the three dimensions of SADA and PBS as the independent variable in model 2 reported that both model 1 and 2 were significant (F_1=66.680, $p<0.05$, p=0.000; F_2=51.798, $p<0.05$, p=0.000). The inclusion of PBS increased the explained variance from 39.9% (R^2_1= 0.399) to 40.9% (R^2_2=0.409), and the change of F value was significant ($p<0.05$, p=0.031). The regression coefficients were further investigated to see the effect of different independent variables had on the prediction of the model.

Table 4 Regression Model Summary
(DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.399	.393	66.680	.000	.399	66.680	.000
2	.409	.401	51.798	.000	.009	4.696	.031

Model 1: DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3

Model 2: DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS

It was discovered in Table 20 that both SADA1 and PBS were significant predictors of Model 2 (β_{SADA1}=0.453, $p<0.05$, p=0.000, β_{PBS}=0.132, $p<0.05$, p=0.031). The statistics did not find multicollinearity a problem since the 95% confidence interval for betas of SADA1 and PBS did not include 0, the tolerance statistics for SADA1 and PBS were above 0.1 ($tolerance_{SADA1}$=0.321, $tolerance_{PBS}$=0.531), the VIF values for SADA1 and PBS were below 10 (VIF_{SADA1}=3.117, VIF_{PBS}=1.882), and the condition indices were 4.867 and 8.792 for SADA1 and PBS, respectively, both of which were

below 15. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported

Table 20 Regression Analysis Testing H2 (DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.508	.147		3.453	.001	.218	.797			1.000
SADA1	.616	.098	.487	6.294	.000	.423	.809	.334	2.994	4.410
SADA2	.105	.057	.112	1.845	.066	-.007	.217	.543	1.842	6.187
SADA3	.089	.084	.080	1.068	.287	-.075	.254	.357	2.801	7.809
(Constant)	.303	.174		1.745	.082	-.039	.646			1.000
SADA1	.573	.099	.453	5.777	.000	.378	.769	.321	3.117	4.867
SADA2	.090	.057	.096	1.583	.115	-.022	.202	.535	1.869	6.668
SADA3	.034	.087	.030	.388	.698	-.138	.205	.326	3.067	8.416
PBS	.182	.084	.132	2.167	.031	.017	.347	.531	1.882	8.792

The moderating effect of PBS was examined by using scenario 2 as the dependent variable and the three factors of SADA (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) as independent variables in Model 1 and PBS together with the three SADA dimensions as independent variables in Model 2 (Table 21). Both models were significant (F_1=56.553, p<0.05, p=0.000, F_2=42.639, p<0.05, p=0.000). However, the change of F value indicated that the effect that the addition of PBS had on the model was not significant (p>0.05, p=0.335). Further investigation of the regression coefficients was conducted.

Table 21 Regression Model Summary
(DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.359	.353	56.553	.000	.359	56.553	.000
2	.361	.352	42.639	.000	.002	.932	.335

Model 1: DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3

Model 2: DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS

It can be seen from Table 22 that SADA2 was the only regressor that was significant in predicting the intention to visit a ghost themed destination (β=0.557, p<0.05, p=0.000), consistent with the

result found in the testing of Hypothesis 1. The 95% confidence interval for the beta of SADA2 ranged between 0.447 and 0.699, the tolerance statistic of SADA2 was 0.547, the VIF value was 1.829, and the condition index was 6.635. None of the statistics indicated possible multicollinearity for SADA2. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and the assumptions were not found to be violated.

Table 22 Regression Analysis Testing H2 (DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.804	.167		4.823	.000	.476	1.131			1.000
SADA1	-.151	.111	-.106	-1.361	.175	-.369	.067	.347	2.879	4.507
SADA2	.580	.064	.564	9.114	.000	.455	.705	.553	1.807	6.182
SADA3	.195	.094	.157	2.083	.038	.011	.380	.371	2.694	7.769
(Constant)	.697	.200		3.490	.001	.304	1.090			1.000
SADA1	-.170	.113	-.120	-1.513	.131	-.392	.051	.336	2.976	4.939
SADA2	.573	.064	.557	8.952	.000	.447	.699	.547	1.829	6.635
SADA3	.168	.098	.135	1.716	.087	-.025	.361	.340	2.937	8.349
PBS	.090	.093	.059	.966	.335	-.093	.273	.571	1.751	8.754

Table 23 summarized the statistics of the models using scenario 3 as the dependent variable and the three dimensions of SADA (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) as the independent variables in Model 1 and PBS along with the three factors of SADA as the independent variables in Model 2. It was reported that both models were significant (F_1=64.437, p<0.05, p=0.000, F_2=51.294, p<0.05, p=0.000). The change of F value suggested that the inclusion of increased the explaining power of the model significantly (p<0.05, p=0.006).

Table 23 Regression Model Summary
(DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.389	.383	64.437	.000	.389	64.437	.000
2	.405	.397	51.294	.000	.015	7.633	.006

Model 1: DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3

Model 2: DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS

A review of the regression coefficients of the independent variables suggested that both SADA3 and PBS were significant predictors in Model 2 (β_{SADA3}=0.510, p<0.05, p=0.000, β_{PBS}=0.165, p<0.05, p=0.006). Multicollinearity was not a problem for SADA 3 or PBS seeing that the 95% confidence interval for their betas did not include 0, their tolerance statistics were above 0.1 ($tolerance_{SADA3}$=0.327, $tolerance_{PBS}$=0.550), their VIF values were below 10 (VIF_{SADA3}=3.062, VIF_{PBS}=1.819), and their condition indices were below 15 (CI_{SADA3}=8.377, CI_{PBS}=8.828). The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported (Table 24).

Table 24 Regression Analysis Testing H2 (DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	1.012	.160		6.321	.000	.697	1.327			1.000
SADA1	.042	.107	.031	.392	.695	-.168	.252	.331	3.018	4.424
SADA2	.043	.062	.042	.694	.488	-.079	.165	.542	1.846	6.216
SADA3	.693	.091	.572	7.605	.000	.514	.872	.356	2.808	7.863
(Constant)	.727	.189		3.851	.000	.356	1.099			1.000
SADA1	-.015	.107	-.011	-.142	.887	-.227	.196	.319	3.134	4.869
SADA2	.025	.062	.024	.402	.688	-.096	.146	.535	1.868	6.659
SADA3	.618	.094	.510	6.568	.000	.433	.803	.327	3.062	8.377
PBS	.245	.089	.165	2.763	.006	.071	.420	.550	1.819	8.828

The effect that individual PBS dimensions had on the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit the three scenarios within Intention to Visit was further explored in the following part of the analysis.

It can be seen from Table 25 that the regression using S1 as the dependent variable, the three dimensions of SADA (SADA1, SADA2, SADA3) as the independent variables in model 1 and the five dimensions of PBS (PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5) as the added independent variable in model 2 reported that both model 1 and 2 were significant (F_1=66.680, p<0.05, p=0.000; F_2=26.504, p<0.05, p=0.000). The inclusion

of PBS increased the explaining power of the model under investigation from 39.9% (R^2_1= 0.399) to 41.7% (R^2_2=0.417). However, the change of F value was found not to be significant (p>0.05, p=0.105). The study examined the five dimensions individually to decide whether the five dimensions of PBS had a moderating effect on the relationship between the three dimensions of SADA and the witchcraft themed scenario in Intention to Visit.

Table 25 Regression Model Summary
(DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.399	.393	66.680	.000	.399	66.680	.000
2	.417	.402	26.504	.000	.018	1.840	.105

Model 1: DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3

Model 2: DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5

Table 26 indicated that none of the five factors of PBS was a significant regressor in Model 2 (β_{PBS1}=-0.061, p>0.05, p=0.420, β_{PBS2}=0.078, p>0.05, p=0.211, β_{PBS3}=0.024, p>0.05, p=0.751, β_{PBS4}=0.129, p>0.05, p=0.052, β_{PBS5}=-0.008, p>0.05, p=0.890). Some other findings in Table 26 were that the coefficients of the regression in model 2 were a consistent presentation of the result found in the analysis of Hypothesis 1 that SADA1 was the only significant predictor for scenario 1 (β=0.491, p<0.05, p=0.000). In addition to SADA1 with a 95% confidence interval for its beta between 0.426 and 0.831, a tolerance statistic of 0.298, a VIF value of 3.356, and a condition index of 5.713, none of which showed any clue to multicollinearity, the study found the other independent variables (SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5) in model 2 possibly problematic in multicollinearity in view of the inclusion of 0 in the 95% confidence interval for their betas, although the other statistics testing multicollinearity did not show potential problems. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 26 Regression Analysis Testing H2
(DV: S1; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.508	.147		3.453	.001	.218	.797			1.000
SADA1	.616	.098	.487	6.294	.000	.423	.809	.334	2.994	4.410
SADA2	.105	.057	.112	1.845	.066	-.007	.217	.543	1.842	6.187
SADA3	.089	.084	.080	1.068	.287	-.075	.254	.357	2.801	7.809
(Constant)	.142	.199		.717	.474	-.248	.533			1.000
SADA1	.629	.103	.491	6.109	.000	.426	.831	.298	3.356	5.713
SADA2	.086	.059	.091	1.455	.147	-.030	.201	.499	2.006	6.122
SADA3	-.005	.091	-.004	-.052	.959	-.184	.175	.297	3.369	6.740
PBS1	-.074	.092	-.061	-.807	.420	-.254	.106	.339	2.948	7.616
PBS2	.104	.083	.078	1.253	.211	-.059	.266	.502	1.991	9.709
PBS3	.024	.074	.024	.318	.751	-.123	.170	.344	2.908	10.968
PBS4	.144	.074	.129	1.954	.052	-.001	.290	.449	2.229	12.109
PBS5	-.007	.053	-.008	-.139	.890	-.112	.097	.634	1.577	13.953

The moderating effect of the five dimensions of PBS was tested in the model using ghost themed scenario (S2) as the dependent variable as well. Both model 1 and 2 were found to be significant (F_1=56.553, $p<0.05$, p=0.000; F_2=22.130, $p<0.05$, p=0.000). The explaining power increased from 35.9% in model 1 (R^2_1=0.359) to 37.3% in model 2 (R^2_2=0.373). However, the change of F value (see Table 27) suggested that the effect that the addition of the five PBS factors had on the model was not significant ($p>0.05$, p=0.261). The five dimensions were further examined individually to decide whether the five dimensions of PBS had a moderating effect on the relationship between the three dimensions of SADA and the ghost themed scenario in Intention to Visit.

Table 27 Regression Model Summary
(DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.359	.353	56.553	.000	.359	56.553	.000
2	.373	.356	22.130	.000	.014	1.306	.261

Model 1: DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3

Model 2: DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5

It can be seen from Table 28 that PBS5 was the only significant predictor of the five PBS dimensions in model 2 (β=0.118, $p<0.05$, p=0.039). Meantime, the coefficients in model 2 indicated that SADA2 was a significant regressor in predicting the intention to visit ghost themed destinations (β=0.540, $p<0.05$, p=0.000). Unlike the result reported for detecting the relationship between the dimensions of SADA and the intention to visit a ghost themed destination (i.e., S2), SADA3 was not found to be a significant predictor for S2 (β=0.144, $p>0.05$, p=0.082). No multicollinearity problems were detected for PBS5 or SADA2 since the 95% confidence interval for their betas ranged between 0.425 and 0.686 for SADA2, and between 0.005 and 0.241 for PBS5, their tolerance statistics were above 0.1 ($tolerance_{SADA2}$=0.510; $tolerance_{PBS5}$=0.651), their VIF values were below 10 (VIF_{SADA2}=1.959; VIF_{PBS5}=1.535), and their condition indices were below 15 (CI_{SADA2}=6.240; CI_{PBS5}=13.760). The other independent variables (SADA1, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4) that were found not to be significant regressors might have multicollinearity problems since all of their 95% confidence intervals for betas included 0 despite the fact that other indications (i.e., tolerance, VIF, and condition index) met the requirements not to have multicollinearity. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 28 Regression Analysis Testing H2
(DV: S2; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	.804	.167		4.823	.001	.476	1.131			1.000
SADA1	-.151	.111	-.106	-1.361	.175	-.369	.067	.347	2.879	4.507
SADA2	.580	.064	.564	9.114	.000	.455	.705	.553	1.807	6.182
SADA3	.195	.094	.157	2.083	.038	.011	.380	.371	2.694	7.769
(Constant)	.729	.226		3.227	.001	.284	1.173			1.000
SADA1	-.158	.116	-.111	-1.360	.175	-.387	.071	.313	3.190	5.578
SADA2	.556	.066	.540	8.403	.000	.425	.686	.510	1.959	6.240
SADA3	.179	.103	.144	1.746	.082	-.023	.381	.309	3.234	6.743
PBS1	-.125	.102	-.094	-1.223	.222	-.326	.076	.356	2.808	7.567
PBS2	-.008	.093	-.006	-.089	.929	-.192	.175	.528	1.893	9.612
PBS3	.104	.083	.097	1.259	.209	-.059	.267	.357	2.800	10.957
PBS4	-.024	.081	-.020	-.298	.766	-.185	.136	.469	2.134	11.977
PBS5	.124	.060	.118	2.075	.039	.006	.241	.651	1.535	13.760

The summary of regression model in Table 29 demonstrated that both model 1 and 2 were significant (F_1=64.437, p<0.05, p=0.000; F_2=25.774, p<0.05, p=0.000). The independent variables in model 2 explained 40.9% of the variance (R^2_2=0.409) in scenario 3, an increase from 38.9% in model 1 (R^2_1=0.389). The improved explaining power did not prove to be significant as shown by the significance of F change (p>0.05, p=0.084). The study examined the five dimensions individually to decide whether the five dimensions of PBS had a moderating effect on the relationship between the three dimensions of SADA and the good luck themed scenario in Intention to Visit.

Table 29 Regression Model Summary
(DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Sig.	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
1	.389	.383	64.437	.000	.389	64.437	.000
2	.409	.393	25.774	.000	.019	1.963	.084

Model 1: DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3

Model 2: DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5

Table 30 demonstrates that none of the five PBS dimensions was significant in predicting scenario 3 (β_{PBS1}=-0.025, p>0.05, p=0.742, β_{PBS2}=0.113, p>0.05, p=0.071, β_{PBS3}=0.065, p>0.05, p=0.392, β_{PBS4}=0.044, p>0.05, p=0.505, β_{PBS5}=-0.019, p>0.05, p=0.730). SADA3 was the only independent variable that was found to be significant in model 2 (β=0.479, p<0.05, p=0.000). Multicollinearity was not a problem for SADA3 given that the 95% confidence interval for its beta ranged from 0.385 to 0.775, which did not include 0, the tolerance statistic was 0.297, the VIF value was 3.367, and the condition index was 6.733. The study found that multicollinearity might be a problem for the other independent variables in view that 0 was included in the 95% confidence interval for their betas in spite of the fact that all other statistics aimed to detect multicollinearity did not report the same problem. The check of residual normality and constant variance was conducted using the same procedure described previously, and no violation of the assumptions was reported.

Table 30 Regression Analysis Testing H2
(DV: S3; IV: SADA1, SADA2, SADA3, PBS1, PBS2, PBS3, PBS4, PBS5)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for Beta		Collinearity Statistics		Condition Index (CI)
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	1.102	.160		6.321	.001	.697	1.327			1.000
SADA1	.042	.107	.031	.392	.695	-.168	.252	.331	3.018	4.424
SADA2	.043	.062	.042	.694	.488	-.079	.165	.542	1.846	6.216
SADA3	.693	.091	.572	7.605	.000	.514	.872	.356	2.808	7.863
(Constant)	.684	.216		3.172	.002	.260	1.109			1.000
SADA1	.012	.112	.008	.104	.918	-.208	.231	.297	3.363	5.626
SADA2	.033	.064	032	.508	.611	-.093	.158	.499	2.004	6.133
SADA3	.580	.099	.479	5.859	.000	.385	.775	.297	3.367	6.733
PBS1	-.032	.098	-.025	-.329	.742	-.226	.161	.339	2.948	7.561
PBS2	.162	.089	.113	1.814	.071	-.014	.337	.508	1.968	9.750
PBS3	.068	.079	.065	.857	.392	-.088	.224	.349	2.866	11.022
PBS4	.053	.079	.044	.668	.505	-.102	.207	.458	2.185	12.109
PBS5	.020	.057	.019	.345	.730	-.093	.133	.637	1.570	13.827

The model of the study was further extended as follows (Figure 7) after Hypothesis 2 was tested.

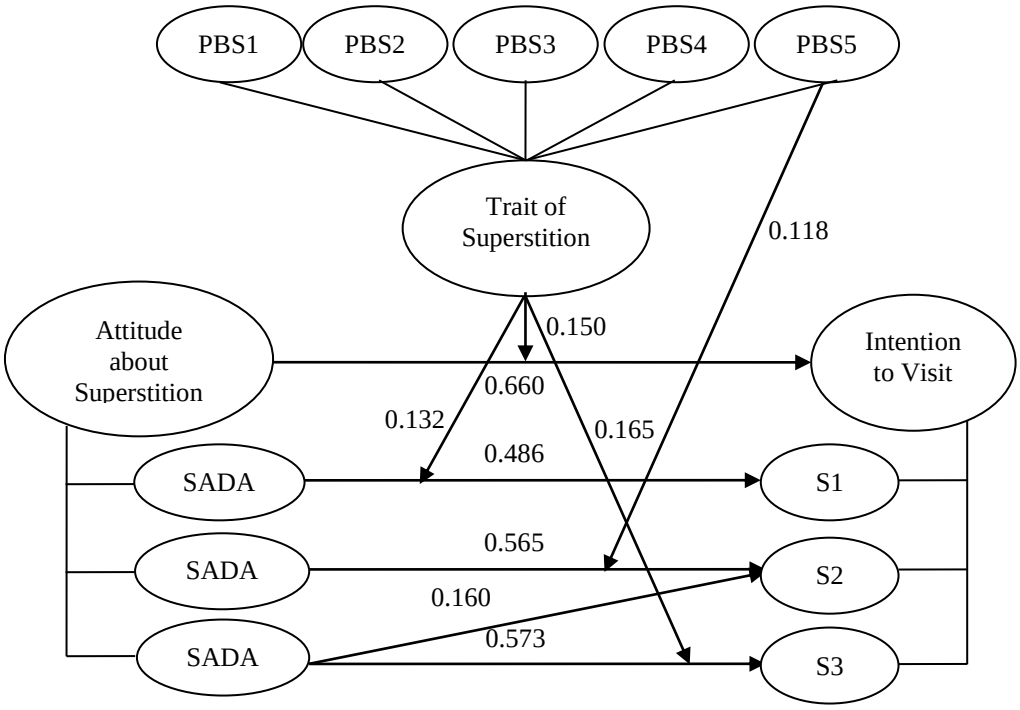

Figure 7 Extended Model Proposed for the Study (3rd version)

Summary

This chapter presents the results of data analysis. It starts from a summary of the descriptive statistics of respondents' demographics and travel experiences and ends with hierarchical multiple regression analysis of the hypotheses proposed in the study. The results of the data analysis demonstrate that both Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 are supported. Table 31 provides the results of the hypothesis testing.

Table 31 Result of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Hypothesis Content	Result
H1	Attitude about superstition -----> Intention to Visit (+)	Supported
H2	Trait of superstition moderates the relationship between attitude about superstition and intention to visit.	Supported

Chapter 5: Discussion

CONCLUSION

The study supports the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition; therefore, the more positive potential tourists' attitude is about superstition, the more likely they are to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness. More specifically, those who hold positive attitude about witchcraft have higher intention to pay a visit to a witchcraft themed destination (SADA1 ----> S1); those who hold positive attitude about ghost stories and good luck related activities have higher intention to visit a ghost themed destination (SADA2 ----> S2; SADA3 ----> S2); those who hold positive attitude about good luck related activities higher intention to visit a good luck themed destination (SADA3 ----> S3).

The study supports the hypothesis that the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination whose attractiveness is based on superstition is moderated by potential tourists' traits of superstition. In other words, the study supports that the more traits of superstition a potential tourist bears, the stronger the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their intention to visit a destination with superstition as its attractiveness. Specifically, the study finds that trait of superstition moderates the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about witchcraft and the intention to visit a witchcraft themed destination and the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about good luck related activities and their intention to visit a destination, the major attractiveness is good luck based. Additionally, the study finds that the dimension Extraordinary Life Forms of PBS moderates the relationship between potential tourists' attitude about witchcraft and the intention to visit a witchcraft themed destination.

IMPLICATIONS

The study has both theoretical and practical implications. Very limited research has been conducted to investigate the attractiveness of superstition for a destination. This study is dedicated to exploring a unique aspect of destination attractiveness that might lead to the development of a new type of tourism. The study develops a scale that measures respondents' attitude about superstition as it relates to destination attractiveness. With the combined use of the Paranormal Belief Scale, the study identifies the underlying dimensions of the constructs key to the hypothesis testing. A model delineating the hypotheses supported by the study has been proposed and extended, which contributes to the theory building in this area.

The study partially supports the theory of planned behavior proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen in 1975 that a person's attitude can be used to predict his/her behavioral intention. The study finds that personality traits function as a moderator in the interplay between attitude and behavioral intention, which provides some more evidence for academics to examine personality's functionality in human attitude and behavior. The study results also lends support to Kramer and Block's study in 2008 and Carlson and his colleagues' study in 2009 that superstitious beliefs influence decision making under risk. Additionally, the study confirms the practicality of adopting an ideographic approach toward destination attractiveness and looking at the attraction aspects of destination attractiveness.

In terms of the application of the study results, the study suggests that in order for a destination, the major attractiveness is superstition based (e.g., a haunted house), to increase the visitation of the destination, relevant destination management companies should target potential tourists who have positive attitude about superstition. The destination under investigation would be the most attractive to those who are high in trait of superstition and have positive attitude about superstition in the same time, and this is especially true for a destination that features witchcraft and bringing good luck to potential tourists. The destination management companies should target those who strongly believe in the existence of extraordinary life

forms such as the Loch Ness monster of Scotland and abominable snowman of Tibet and have positive attitude about ghost stories since they are mostly likely to pay a visit to a ghost themed destination.

In order to reach this particular target market, the destination management companies can utilize functions in social media which allow them to set up groups that involve people with superstitious attitude and initiate discussions with the group members. The marketing department of those organizations can gather the email addresses of the group members and create an email listserv that the company might be able to use to send those who are registered some more information about the destinations that feature superstition. Magazines that target similar markets might be a valid source of potential tourists who are high in trait of superstition and have positive attitude about superstition as well. The destination management companies can advertise in these magazines and collect information about the demographics of the magazines' readers. Television introductory series/advertisements might enable the destination management companies to largely increase public's awareness of destinations whose major attractiveness is superstition based and project the appropriate image. It is effective but costly as well. The destination management companies might consider the cooperation with TV series such as *Supernatural* to find out who are watching them and to explore potential opportunities for advertisement. Like TV introductory series/advertisements, this might be very expensive.

With the development of new technologies and improved quality of life, tourists will seek new adventures in tourism, experiencing superstition at a destination being one of many other examples. It is important for both practitioners and researchers to have their mind open to new trends in the industry. To keep scanning the environment, not only the hospitality and tourism environment, but also the developments and changes in other fields, such as the global economics, technologies, politics and policies, social and demographics, etc., helps practitioners to stay current and alert. In other cases, practitioners can go beyond and above that they develop creative tourism products themselves. In this sense, the study

supports the notion that destinations should develop unique products that can differentiate themselves in order to remain competitive and also increase their tourist market share.

LIMITATIONS

One of the limitations of the study relates to the sample. Data were collected from students at Virginia Tech only, which is a viable option in light of the focus of the study, namely to test the two hypotheses and the proposed model; thus, the use of students does not undermine the essence of the study, though the practicality of the study can be better investigated by surveying a different consumer segment other than students (e.g., potential tourists in general public).

In addition to potential tourists' attitude about superstition and their level on traits of superstition, other characteristics of potential tourists might come into play in their intention to visit a destination, the major attractiveness of which is superstition based, for example, age, past experience, ethnicity, etc. The inclusion of those characteristics might help to explain more variance in the models in multiple regression analysis. However, these points are beyond the boundaries of this current study.

The study did not capture the demographics of those who are especially likely to have high intention to visit a destination featuring superstition, which is one of the side effects of using student sample. The study did not identify the characteristics of those who are high in traits of superstition as well. A possible approach to the identification is to cluster the respondents into groups based on their responses to the R-PBS and see whether different cluster membership will result in different demographic characteristics and past travel experience preferences.

FUTURE STUDY

Further research can be conducted in order to better explore the phenomena of SADA. One of the possible options for further exploration can be to investigate why tourists visit a destination featuring superstition, and researchers can compare the motives of those who visit this type of destination with the motives of tourists who visit a general type of destinations to see whether the theories in explaining tourists travelling motives can be applicable to the superstition themed destination settings as well.

From a more practical standpoint, future research can address the satisfaction of those who have past experience with SADA to see where in their experience with SADA should be improved and whether this particular form of tourism has viable potential for growth and the estimated size of the niche market.

A review of the responses to past experience with SADA leads to the finding that oftentimes the attractiveness of superstition in a destination is not what a tourist originally expects to have with a place they visit. In other words, they have past experience with SADA not because they intended to experience SADA but because they visited the place for some other reason(s) (e.g., to visit Harry Potter Castle in Universal Studio in Orlando, Florida for entertainment). Future studies can look at how relevant organizations can develop a more distinct image for a destination with superstition as the core attractiveness and how superstition can be a driving force for a destination to attract tourists given that the destination has adequate superstition resources to develop unique tourism products.

Summary

This chapter provides closing remarks to the previous research with the interpretation of the results, the implications and limitations of the study, and some suggestions for future studies. The interpretation of the results is useful for marketing efforts of a destination management organization. The study suggests

both theoretical and practical implications. The suggestions for future studies are proposed from the perspective of both academics and industry. However, the study is not free from limitations, and the three major limitations have been pointed out in the discussion of limitations.

REFERENCE

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: a theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. Psychological bulletin, 84(5), 888-918.

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: a theory of planned behavior Action control: From cognition to behavior (pp. 11-39). Berlin and New York: Springer-Verlag.

Ajzen, I. (1988). Attitudes, personality and behavior. Chicago, IL, US: Dorsey.

Ajzen, I. (1998). Models of human social behavior and their application to health psychology. Psychology and Health, 13, 735-739.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 50(2), 179-211.

Ajzen, I., & Driver, B. L. (1992). Application of the theory of planned behavior to leisure choice. Journal of Leisure Research, 24(3), 207-224.

Akama, J. S., & Kieti, D. M. (2003). Measuring tourist satisfaction with Kenya's wildlife safari: a case study of Tsavo West National Park. Tourism Management, 24(1), 73-81.

Allport, G. (1961). Pattern and growth in personality. New York, NY, US: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Allport, G. W. (1935). Attitudes. In C. A. Murchison (Ed.), A Handbook of Social Psychology (pp. 798-844). Worcester, Massachusetts, US: Clark University Press.

Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: a meta-analytic review. British Journal of Social Psychology, 40(4), 471-499.

Backman, S. J., & Veldkamp, C. (1995). Examination of the relationship between service quality and user loyalty. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 13(2), 29-41.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1981). Attitudes, intentions, and behavior: a test of some key hypotheses. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 41(4), 607-627.

Baker, D. A., & Crompton, J. L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Annals of Tourism Research, 27(3), 785-804.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Axelsen, M. (2009). Trends in tourism research. Annals of Tourism Research, 36(1), 149-152.

Baloglu, S. (1998). An empirical investigation of attitude theory for tourist destinations: a comparison of visitors and nonvisitors. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 22(3), 211-224.

Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. Annals of Tourism Research, 26(4), 868-897.

Baum, T. (1993). Human resource issues in international tourism. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann Ltd.

Baum, T. (1995). Managing human resources in the European tourism and hospitality industry: a strategic approach. London: Chapman & Hall Ltd.

Baum, T. (1996). Images of tourism past and present. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 8(4), 25-30.

Beckwith, M. W. (1923). Signs and superstitions collected from American college girls. The Journal of American Folklore, 36(139), 1-15.

Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. Annals of Tourism Research, 31(3), 657-681.

Belk, R. W. (1975). Situational variables and consumer behavior. Journal of Consumer Research, 2(3), 157-164.

Bentler, P. M., & Speckart, G. (1979). Models of attitude-behavior relations. Psychological Review, 86(5), 452-464.

Bern, D. J. (1972). Self-perception theory. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 6, pp. 1-62). New York: Academic Press.

Berry, B. (2006). You and your superstitions. Whitefish, MT, US: Kessinger Publishing.

Berry, W. D., & Feldman, S. (1985). Multiple regression in practice. Newbury Park, CA, US: Sage

Publications.

Besculides, A., Lee, M., & McCormick, P. (2002). Residents' perceptions of the cultural benefits of tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(2), 303-319.

Best, S. J., Krueger, B., Hubbard, C., & Smith, A. (2001). An assessment of the generalizability of Internet surveys. Social Science Computer Review, 19(2), 131-145.

Biemer, P. P., & Lyberg, L. (2003). Introduction to survey quality. Hoboken, NJ, US: Wiley-Interscience.

Bisping, T. O., & Patron, H. (2008). Personality type as a determinant of student success in introductory general business courses. Academy of Educational Leadership Journal, 12(1), 35-50.

Blain, C., Levy, S. E., & Ritchie, J. (2005). Destination branding: Insights and practices from destination management organizations. Journal of Travel Research, 43(4), 328-338.

Blue, C. L. (1995). The predictive capacity of the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior in exercise research: an integrated literature review. Research in Nursing and Health, 18(2), 105-122.

Bonewits, P., & Bonewits, I. (2007). Real Energy: systems, spirits, and substances to heal, change, and grow. Pompton Plains, NJ, US: Career Press.

Bradley, N. (1999). Sampling for Internet surveys: an examination of respondent selection for Internet research. Journal of the Market Research Society, 41(4), 387-395.

Broad, C. D. (1953). The relevance of psychical research to philosophy. In J. Ludwig (Ed.), Philosophy and parapsychology (pp. 43- 63). Buffalo, NY, US: Prometheus.

Brown, T. J. (1999). Antecedents of culturally significant tourist behavior. Annals of Tourism Research, 26(3), 676-700.

Brugger, P., Dowdy, M., & Graves, R. (1994). From superstitious behavior to delusional thinking: the role of the hippocampus in misattributions of causality. Medical hypotheses, 43(6), 397-402.

Buckland, R. (2003). The fortune-telling book: the encyclopedia of divination and soothsaying: Visible Ink Pr.

Buss, D. M. (1991). Evolutionary personality psychology. Annual review of psychology, 42(1), 459-491.

Campbell, C. (1996). Half-belief and the paradox of ritual instrumental activism: a theory of modern superstition. British Journal of Sociology, 47(1), 151-166.

Campo, S., & Yagüe, M. J. (2008). Tourist loyalty to tour operator: effects of price promotions and tourist effort. Journal of Travel Research, 46(3), 318-326.

Caneen, J. M. (2003). Cultural determinants of tourist intention to return. Tourism Analysis, 8(2), 237-242.

Carlson, B. D., Mowen, J. C., & Fang, X. (2009). Trait superstition and consumer behavior: re-conceptualization, measurement, and initial investigations. Psychology and Marketing, 26(8), 689-713.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1990). Origins and functions of positive and negative affect: a control-process view. Psychological review, 97(1), 19-35.

Chaiklin, H. (2011). Attitudes, behavior and social practice. Journal of Sociology & Social Welfare, 38(1), 31-54.

Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. C. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions? Tourism Management, 28(4), 1115-1122.

Chen, J. S., & Uysal, M. (2002). Market positioning analysis: a hybrid approach. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(4), 987-1003.

Cheng, S., Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2005). Testing the sufficiency of the theory of planned behavior: a case of customer dissatisfaction responses in restaurants. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 24(4), 475-492.

Clements, C., Schultz, J., & Lime, D. (1993). Recreation, tourism, and the local residents: partnership or co-existence? Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 11(4), 78-91.

Cobanoglu, C., Warde, B., & Moreo, P. J. (2001). A comparison of mail, fax and web-based survey methods. International journal of market research, 43(4), 441-452.

Conklin, E. S. (1919). Superstitious belief and practice among college students. The American Journal of

Psychology, 30(1), 83-102.

Conner, M., & Armitage, C. J. (1998). Extending the theory of planned behavior: a review and avenues for further research. Journal of applied social psychology, 28(15), 1429-1464.

Cook, C., Heath, F., & Thompson, R. L. (2000). A meta-analysis of response rates in Web-or Internet-based surveys. Educational and psychological measurement, 60(6), 821-836.

Costa Jr, P., & McCrae, R. (1985). The NEO Personality Inventory manual. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Normal personality assessment in clinical practice: the NEO personality inventory. Psychological assessment, 4(1), 5-13.

Couper, M. P. (2000). Web surveys: a review of issues and approaches. The Public Opinion Quarterly, 64(4), 464-494.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. Annals of Tourism Research, 6(4), 408-424.

Cronin, J. J., Brady, M. K., & Hult, G. T. M. (2000). Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. Journal of retailing, 76(2), 193-218.

Crouch, G., & Ritchie, J. (1999). Tourism, competitiveness, and societal prosperity. Journal of Business Research, 44(3), 137-152.

CultureMap. (2010). Star crossed soccer: astrology leads French World Cup coach astray. Retrieved 04-10, 2011, from http://houston.culturemap.com/newsdetail/06-21-10-star-croosed-astrology-leads-french-world-cup-coach-astray/

Daly, J. M., Jones, J. K., Gereau, P. L., & Levy, B. T. (2011). Review Article: Nonresponse error in mail surveys: top ten problems. Nursing Research and Practice. Retrieved from http://www.hindawi.com/journals/nrp/2011/987924/cta/

Dann, G. (1981). Tourist motivation an appraisal. Annals of Tourism Research, 8(2), 187-219.

Davidson, A. R., & Jaccard, J. J. (1975). Population psychology: a new look at an old problem. Journal of

Personality and Social Psychology, 31(6), 1073.

De Leeuw, R. N. H., Engels, R. C. M. E., Vermulst, A. A., & Scholte, R. H. J. (2008). Do smoking attitudes predict behaviour? A longitudinal study on the bi-directional relations between adolescents' smoking attitudes and behaviours. Addiction, 103(10), 1713-1721.

Deutskens, E., De Ruyter, K., Wetzels, M., & Oosterveld, P. (2004). Response rate and response quality of internet-based surveys: An experimental study. Marketing letters, 15(1), 21-36.

Devenport, L. (1979). Superstitious bar pressing in hippocampal and septal rats. Science, 205(4407), 721-723.

D'Hauteserre, A. M. (2000). Lessons in managed destination competitiveness: the case of Foxwoods Casino Resort. Tourism Management, 21(1), 23-32.

D'Hauteserre, A. M. (2001). Destination branding in a hostile environment. Journal of Travel Research, 39(3), 300-307.

Diamond, J. (2001). Snake oil and other preoccupations. London, UK: Vintage.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: emergence of the five-factor model. Annual review of psychology, 41(1), 417-440.

Dillman, D. A. (1991). The design and administration of mail surveys. Annual review of sociology, 17, 225-249.

Dillman, D. A. (2007). Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ, US: John Wiley & Sons.

Dockery, T. M., & Bedeian, A. G. (1989). Attitude versus actions: LaPieres (1934) classic study revisited. Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal, 17(1), 9-16.

Dodds, W. B., Monroe, K. B., & Grewal, D. (1991). Effects of price, brand, and store information on buyers' product evaluations. Journal of marketing research, 28(3), 307-319.

Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: determinants and indicators. Current issues in tourism, 6(5), 369-414.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). The psychology of attitudes. Orlando, FL, US: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. (1993). The measurement of destination image: an empirical assessment. Journal of Travel Research, 31(4), 3.

Edwards, J. A., Lanning, K., & Hooker, K. (2002). The MBTI and social information processing: an incremental validity study. Journal of Personality Assessment, 78(3), 432-450.

Ekinci, Y., & Hosany, S. (2006). Destination personality: an application of brand personality to tourism destinations. Journal of Travel Research, 45(2), 127.

Ekinci, Y., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Baloglu, S. (2007). Host image and destination personality. Tourism Analysis, 12, 5(6), 433-446.

Engel, J. F., Black, H., & Miniard, P. (1993). Consumer behavior. Orlando, FL, US: Dryden Press.

Enright, M. J., & Newton, J. (2004). Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach. Tourism Management, 25(6), 777-788.

Enright, M. J., & Newton, J. (2005). Determinants of tourism destination competitiveness in Asia Pacific: comprehensiveness and universality. Journal of Travel Research, 43(4), 339-350.

Esman, M. (1984). Tourism as ethnic preservation: the Cajuns of Louisiana. Annals of Tourism Research, 11(3), 451-467.

Fazio, R. H. (1990). Multiple processes by which attitudes guide behavior: the MODE model as an integrative framework. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 23, pp. 75-109). New York, NY, US: Academic Press.

Fazio, R. H., Chen, J. M., McDonel, E. C., & Sherman, S. J. (1982). Attitude accessibility, attitude-behavior consistency, and the strength of the object-evaluation association. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 18(4), 339-357.

Fazio, R. H., Powell, M. C., & Herr, P. M. (1983). Toward a process model of the attitude–behavior relation: accessing one's attitude upon mere observation of the attitude object. Journal of Personality

and Social Psychology, 44(4), 723-735.

Fazio, R. H., Powell, M. C., & Williams, C. J. (1989). The role of attitude accessibility in the attitude-to-behavior process. Journal of Consumer Research, 16(3), 280-288.

Fazio, R. H., & Towles-Schwen, T. (1999). The MODE model of attitude-behavior processes. In S. Chaiken & Y. Trope (Eds.), Dual process theories in social psychology (pp. 97–116). New York: Guilford Press.

Fazio, R. H., & Williams, C. J. (1986). Attitude accessibility as a moderator of the attitude–perception and attitude–behavior relations: an investigation of the 1984 presidential election. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(3), 505-514.

Ferrario, F. F. (1979). The evaluation of tourist resources: an applied methodology. Journal of Travel Research, 17(4), 24-30.

Festinger, L. (1957). A theory of cognitive dissonance. Palo Alto, CA, US: Stanford University Press.

Fishbein, M. (1930). Shattering Health Superstitions. New York, NY, US: Horace Liveright.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: an introduction to theory and research. Boston, MA, US: Addison-Wesley.

Fiske, D. W., & Maddi, S. R. (1961). Functions of varied experience. Homewood, IL, US: Dorsey Press.

Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1997). Tourist information search. Annals of Tourism Research, 24(3), 503-523.

Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1998). A typology of tourist information search strategies. Journal of Travel Research, 37(2), 108-119.

Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1999). A model of tourist information search behavior. Journal of Travel Research, 37(3), 220-230.

Formica, S. (2000). Destination attractiveness as a function of supply and demand interaction. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg.

Formica, S., & Uysal, M. (2002). Segmentation of travelers based on environmental attitudes. Journal of

Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 9(3/4), 35-49.

Formica, S., & Uysal, M. (2006). Destination attractiveness based on supply and demand evaluations: an analytical framework. Journal of Travel Research, 44(4), 418-430.

Foster, K. R., & Kokko, H. (2009). The evolution of superstitious and superstition-like behaviour. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 276(1654), 31-37.

Frew, E. A., & Shaw, R. N. (1999). The relationship between personality, gender, and tourism behavior. Tourism Management, 20(2), 193-202.

Fudenberg, D., & Levine, D. K. (2006). Superstition and rational learning. The American economic review, 96(3), 630-651.

Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G., & Garcia, H. C. (2002). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(1), 56-78.

Galloway, G., Mitchell, R., Getz, D., Crouch, G., & Ong, B. (2008). Sensation seeking and the prediction of attitudes and behaviours of wine tourists. Tourism Management, 29(5), 950-966.

Gallup, G. H., & Newport, F. (1991). Belief in paranormal phenomena among adult Americans. Skeptical Inquirer, 15(2), 137-146.

Gartner, W. (1989). Tourism image: attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques. Journal of Travel Research, 28(2), 16-20.

Gearing, C. E., Swart, W. W., & Var, T. (1974). Establishing a measure of touristic attractiveness. Journal of Travel Research, 12(4), 1-8.

Gnoth, J. (1997). Tourism motivation and expectation formation. Annals of Tourism Research, 24(2), 283-304.

Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. Psychological assessment, 4(1), 26-42.

Goodrich, J. N. (1978). The relationship between preferences for and perceptions of vacation destinations: application of a choice model. Journal of Travel Research, 17(2), 8-13.

Gountas, J., & Gountas, S. (2001). A new psychographic segmentation method using Jungian MBTI variables in the tourism industry. In J. Mazanec, G. Crouch, B. Richie & A. Woodside (Eds.), Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure (Vol. 2, pp. 215-229). Oxford, UK: CABI.

Gunn, C. A. (1994). Tourism planning: basics concepts and cases. London, UK: Psychology Press.

Gursoy, D., & Terry Umbreit, W. (2004). Tourist information search behavior: cross-cultural comparison of European union member states. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 23(1), 55-70.

Hall, D. T., & Nougaim, K. E. (1968). An examination of Maslow' need hierarchy in an organizational setting. Organizational behavior and human performance, 3(1), 12-35.

Hampson, S. E., John, O. P., & Goldberg, L. R. (1986). Category breadth and hierarchical structure in personality: studies of asymmetries in judgments of trait implications. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(1), 37-54.

Han, H., Hsu, L. T. J., & Sheu, C. (2010). Application of the theory of planned behavior to green hotel choice: testing the effect of environmental friendly activities. Tourism Management, 31(3), 325-334.

Hansen, F. (1976). Psychological theories of consumer choice. Journal of Consumer Research, 3(3), 117-142.

Heaven, P., Stones, C., Nel, E., Huysamen, G., & Louw, J. (1994). Human values and voting intention in South Africa. British Journal of Social Psychology, 33(2), 223-231.

Heider, F. (1958). The psychology of interpersonal relations. New York, NY, US: John Wiley & Sons.

Helson, H. (1964). Adaptation-level theory. New York, NY, US: Harper.

Hira, K., Fukui, T., Endoh, A., Rahman, M., & Maekawa, M. (1998). Influence of superstition on the date of hospital discharge and medical cost in Japan: retrospective and descriptive study. Br. Med. J., 317, 1680-1683.

Homer, P. M., & Kahle, L. R. (1988). A structural equation test of the value-attitude-behavior hierarchy. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54(4), 638-646.

Hosany, S., Ekinci, Y., & Uysal, M. (2007). Destination image and destination personality. International

Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 1(1), 62-81.

Hou, J., Lin, C., & Morais, D. (2005). Antecedents of attachment to a cultural tourism destination: the case of Hakka and non-Hakka Taiwanese visitors to Pei-Pu, Taiwan. Journal of Travel Research, 44(2), 221-233.

Hoxter, A. L., & Lester, D. (1988). Tourist behavior and personality. Personality and Individual Differences, 9(1), 177-178.

Hsu, C. H. C., Cai, L. A., & Li, M. (2010). Expectation, motivation, and attitude: a tourist behavioral model. Journal of Travel Research, 49(3), 282-296.

Hu, Y., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). Measuring destination attractiveness: a contextual approach. Journal of Travel Research, 32(2), 25-34.

Huang, S. S. (2007). The effects of motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on tourist revisit intention. Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong.

Hwang, Y. H., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2004). Coverage error embedded in self-selected Internet-based samples: a case study of Northern Indiana. Journal of Travel Research, 42(3), 297-304.

Jahoda, G. (1969). The psychology of superstition. New York, NY, US: Penguin.

Jang, Y. J., Kim, W. G., & Bonn, M. A. (2011). Generation Y consumers' selection attributes and behavioral intentions concerning green restaurants. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 30(4), 803-811.

Jarvis, P. (1980). Towards a sociological understanding of superstition. Social Compass, 27(2-3), 285-295.

Jung, C. G. (1923). Psychological type. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company.

Jung, C. G., Hull, R. F. C., & Baynes, H. G. (1971). Psychological types. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press

Kaplowitz, M. D., Hadlock, T. D., & Levine, R. (2004). A comparison of web and mail survey response rates. Public opinion quarterly, 68(1), 94-101.

Kashyap, R., & Bojanic, D. C. (2000). A structural analysis of value, quality, and price perceptions of

business and leisure travelers. Journal of Travel Research, 39(1), 45-51.

Kassarjian, H. H. (1971). Personality and consumer behavior: a review. Journal of Marketing Research, VIII, 409-418.

Kaur, J. (1981). Methodological approach to scenic resource assessment. Tourism Recreation Research, 6(1), 19-22.

Keinan, G. (2002). The effects of stress and desire for control on superstitious behavior. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28(1), 102-108.

Kim, H. (1998). Perceived attractiveness of Korean destinations. Annals of Tourism Research, 25(2), 340-361.

Kim, M. S., & Hunter, J. E. (1993). Relationships among attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behavior. Communication research, 20(3), 331-364.

Kozak, M., & Rimmington, M. (1998). Benchmarking: destination attractiveness and small hospitality business performance. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 10(5), 184-188.

Kozak, M., & Rimmington, M. (1999a). Measuring tourist destination competitiveness: conceptual considerations and empirical findings. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 18(3), 273-283.

Kozak, M., & Rimmington, M. (1999b). Developing a benchmarking model for tourist destinations. In K. S. Chon (Ed.), The practice of graduate research in hospitality and tourism (pp. 23). London, UK: Psychology Press.

Kozak, M., & Rimmington, M. (2000). Tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination. Journal of Travel Research, 38(3), 260-269

Kramer, T., & Block, L. (2008). Conscious and nonconscious components of superstitious beliefs in judgment and decision making. Journal of Consumer Research, 34(6), 783-793.

Kristiansen, C. M., & Matheson, K. (1990). Value conflict, value justification, and attitudes toward

nuclear weapons. The Journal of Social Psychology, 130(5), 665-675.

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2004). Theory of planned behavior: potential travelers from China. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 28(4), 463-482.

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2006). Predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. Tourism Management, 27(4), 589-599.

Larsen, R. J., & Buss, D. M. (2008). Personality psychology: domains of knowledge about human nature. New York: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Lasne, S., & Gaultier, A. P. (1984). A Dictionary of Superstitions. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, US: Prentice-Hall.

Laws, E., & Prentice, R. (1995). Tourist destination management: issues, analysis and policies. London, UK: Routledge.

Lee, T. H. (2009). A structural model to examine how destination image, attitude, and motivation affect the future behavior of tourists. Leisure Sciences, 31(3), 215-236.

Lee, W. H., & Moscardo, G. (2005). Understanding the impact of ecotourism resort experiences on tourists' environmental attitudes and behavioural intentions. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 13(6), 546-565.

Leiper, N. (1990). Tourist attraction systems. Annals of Tourism Research, 17(3), 367-384.

Lepp, A., & Gibson, H. (2008). Sensation seeking and tourism: tourist role, perception of risk and destination choice. Tourism Management, 29(4), 740-750.

Lesser, A. (1931). Superstition. The Journal of Philosophy, 28(23), 617-628.

Leung, R., & Law, R. (2010). A review of personality research in the tourism and hospitality context. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 27(5), 439-459.

Levitt, E. E. (1952). Superstitions: twenty-five years ago and today. The American Journal of Psychology, 65(3), 443-449.

Lew, A. A. (1987). A framework of tourist attraction research. Annals of Tourism Research, 14(4), 553-

575.

Lindberg Rebecca L, K. (1997). Modeling resident attitudes toward tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 24(2), 402-424.

MacDonald, S. E., Newburn-Cook, C. V., Schopflocher, D., & Richter, S. (2009). Addressing nonresponse bias in postal surveys. Public Health Nursing, 26(1), 95-105.

Marzano, G., & Scott, N. (2009). Power in destination branding. Annals of Tourism Research, 36(2), 247-267.

Maslow, A. H. (1948). "Higher" and "lower" needs. The Journal of Psychology, 25(2), 433-436.

Maykovich, M. K. (1976). Attitudes versus behavior in extramarital sexual relations. Journal of Marriage & the Family, 38(4), 693-699.

Mayo, E. (1973). Regional images and regional travel destination. Paper presented at the The Fourth Annual Conference of TTRA., Salt Lake City UT.

Mayo, E., & Jarvis, L. (1981). The psychology of leisure travel: effective marketing and selling of travel services. Boston, MA, US: CBI Publishing Company, Inc.

McArthur, L. A., Kiesler, C. A., & Cook, B. P. (1969). Acting on an attitude as a function of self-percept and inequity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 12(4), 295-302.

McCain, G., & Ray, N. (2003). Legacy tourism: the search for personal meaning in heritage travel. Tourism Management, 24(6), 713-717.

McCarty, J. A., & Shrum, L. (1994). The recycling of solid wastes: personal values, value orientations, and attitudes about recycling as antecedents of recycling behavior. Journal of Business Research, 30(1), 53-62.

McClelland, D. (1951). Personality. New York, NY, US: William Slon Associates.

McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. Journal of Personality, 60(2), 175-215.

McGuire, W. J. (1985). Attitudes and attitude change. Handbook of Social Psychology, 2(3), 233-346.

Mehta, R., & Sivadas, E. (1995). Comparing response rates and response content in mail versus electronic mail surveys. Journal of the Market Research Society, 37(4), 429-440.

Middleton, V. T. C. (1989). Marketing implications for attractions. Tourism Management, 10(3), 229-232.

Mihalič, T. (2000). Environmental management of a tourist destination: a factor of tourism competitiveness. Tourism Management, 21(1), 65-78.

Millar, M. G., & Tesser, A. (1986). Effects of affective and cognitive focus on the attitude-behavior relation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(2), 270-276.

Mineka, S., & Kihlstrom, J. F. (1978). Unpredictable and uncontrollable events: a new perspective on experimental neurosis. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87(2), 256-271.

Mittal, V., Kumar, P., & Tsiros, M. (1999). Attribute-level performance, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions over time: a consumption-system approach. The Journal of Marketing, 63(2), 88-101.

Moberg, D. O., & Brusek, P. M. (1978). Spiritual well-being: a neglected subject in quality of life research. Social Indicators Research, 5(1), 303-323.

Mohsin, A. (2005). Tourist attitudes and destination marketing--the case of Australia's northern territory and Malaysia. Tourism Management, 26(5), 723-732.

Morgan, N., & Pritchard, A. (2002). Contextualizing destination branding. In N. Morgan, A. Pritchard & R. Pride (Eds.), Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition (pp. 11-41). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behaviour in tourism. European Journal of Marketing, 21(10), 5-44.

Mowen, J. C., & Carlson, B. (2003). Exploring the antecedents and consumer behavior consequences of the trait of superstition. Psychology and Marketing, 20(12), 1045-1065.

Nayha, S. (2002). Traffic deaths and superstition on Friday the 13th. American Journal of Psychiatry, 159(12), 2110-2111.

Newell, A., & Simon, H. A. (1972). Human problem solving. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, US: Prentice-Hall

Ng, T., Chong, T., & Du, X. (2010). The value of superstitions. Journal of Economic Psychology, 31(3),

293-309.

Nickerson, N. P., & Ellis, G. D. (1991). Traveler types and activation theory: a comparison of two models. Journal of Travel Research, 29(3), 26-31.

Nunnally J. (1978). Psychometric theory. New York, NY, US: McGraw-Hill.

Ostrom, T. M. (1969). The relationship between the affective, behavioral, and cognitive components of attitude. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 5(1), 12-30.

Park, C. W. (1978). A conflict resolution choice model. Journal of Consumer Research, 5(2), 124-137.

Patzer, G. (1985). The physical attractiveness phenomena. New York, NY, US: Plenum Press.

Pavlou, P. A., & Fygenson, M. (2006). Understanding and predicting electronic commerce adoption: an extension of the theory of planned behavior. Management Information Systems Quarterly, 30(1), 115-143.

Pavlov, I. P., & Gantt, W. (1928). Experimental psychology and psycho-pathology in animals (W. H. Gantt, Trans.). In I. P. Pavlov (Ed.), Lectures on conditioned reflexes: Twenty-five years of objective study of the higher nervous activity (behaviour) of animals (pp. 47-60). New York, NY, US: Liverwright Publishing Corporation.

Pearce, D. (1979). Towards a geography of tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 6(3), 245-272.

Petrick, J. F. (2004). The roles of quality, value, and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioral intentions. Journal of Travel Research, 42(4), 397-407.

Phillips, W., & Jang, S. (2008). Destination image and tourist attitude. Tourism Analysis, 13(4), 401-411.

Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis--a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. Tourism Management, 23(5), 541-549.

Pizam, A., Neumann, Y., & Reichel, A. (1978). Dimentions of tourist satisfaction with a destination area. Annals of Tourism Research, 5(3), 314-322.

Plog, S. (2001). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 42(3), 13-24.

Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 14(4), 55-58.

Plog, S. C. (1991). Leisure travel: making it a growth market.... again! New York, NY, US: John Wiley.

Plowright, T. (2010). The Wizarding World of Harry Potter-at Universal Orlando. Retrieved 09-21, 2011, from http://travelwithkids.about.com/od/familyfunplaces/a/Harry-Potter-Theme-Park.htm

Reddy, S. G., York, V. K., & Brannon, L. A. (2010). Travel for treatment: students' perspective on medical tourism. International Journal of Tourism Research, 12(5), 510-522.

Ritchie, J., & Crouch, G. (2000). The competitive destination: a sustainability perspective. Tourism Management, 21(2), 1-7.

Ritchie, J., & Zins, M. (1978). Culture as determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism region. Annals of Tourism Research, 5(2), 252-267.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2003). The competitive destination: a sustainable tourism perspective. Wallingford: CABI Publishing.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Ritchie, R. J. B. (1998). The branding of tourism destinations: past achievements and future challenges. Paper presented at the the 1998 Annual Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism, Destination Marketing: Scopes and Limitations, Marrakech, Morocco.

Rook, D. W. (1985). The ritual dimension of consumer behavior. Journal of Consumer Research, 12(3), 251-264.

Rosenberg, M. J. (1956). Cognitive structure and attitudinal affect. The Journal of abnormal and social psychology, 53(3), 367-372.

Russo, A., & Van Der Borg, J. (2002). Planning considerations for cultural tourism: a case study of four European cities. Tourism Management, 23(6), 631-637.

Saroglou, V. (2002). Religion and the five factors of personality: a meta-analytic review. Personality and Individual Differences, 32(1), 15-25.

Schaefer, D. R., & Dillman, D. A. (1998). Development of a standard e-mail methodology: Results of an experiment. Public opinion quarterly, 62(3), 378-397.

Scheibe, K. E., & Sarbin, T. R. (1965). Towards a theoretical conceptualisation of superstition. The British Journal for the Philosophy of Science, 16(62), 143-158.

Schmidt, W. C. (1997). World-Wide Web survey research: benefits, potential problems, and solutions. Behavior Research Methods, 29(2), 274-279.

Scott, D. R., Schewl, C. D., & Frederick, D. G. (1978). A multi-brand/multi-attribute model of tourist state choice. Journal of Travel Research, 17(1), 23-29.

Shaner, A. (1999). Delusions, superstitious conditioning and chaotic dopamine neurodynamics. Medical hypotheses, 52(2), 119-123.

Sheehan, K. B., & McMillan, S. J. (1999). Response variation in e-mail surveys: An exploration. Journal of Advertising Research, 39(4), 45-54.

Shermer, M. (1997). Why people believe weird things: pseudoscience, superstition, and other confusions of our time. New York, NY, US: W. H. Freeman & Co.

Shim, S., & Drake, M. F. (1990). Consumer intention to utilize electronic shopping: the Fishbein behavioral intention model. Journal of Direct Marketing, 4(3), 22-33.

Simmons, L. C., & Schindler, R. M. (2003). Cultural superstitions and the price endings used in Chinese advertising. Journal of International Marketing, 11(2), 101-111.

Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: toward an integrative model. Journal of Travel Research, 38(4), 340-352.

Skinner, B. F. (1948). "Superstition" in the pigeon. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 38(2), 168-172.

Smith, S. L. J. (1983). Restaurants and dining out: geography of a tourism business. Annals of Tourism Research, 10(4), 515-549.

Smith, S. L. J. (1995). Tourism analysis: a handbook (2nd ed.). Harlow, Essex, UK: Longman.

Smith, V. L. (1989). Hosts and guests: the anthropology of tourism. Philadelphia: Philadelphia University

Press.

Snyder, M. (1983). The influence of individuals on situations: implications for understanding the links between personality and social behavior. Journal of Personality, 51(3), 497-516.

Sparks, B. (2007). Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioural intentions. Tourism Management, 28(5), 1180-1192.

Stedman, R. C. (2002). Toward a social psychology of place: predicting behavior from place-based cognitions, attitude, and identity. Environment and Behavior, 34(5), 561-581.

Stone, P., & Sharpley, R. (2008). Consuming dark tourism: a thanatological perspective. Annals of Tourism Research, 35(2), 574-595.

Stone, P. D. (2006). A dark tourism spectrum: towards a typology of death and macabre related tourist sites, attractions and exhibitions. Tourism: An Interdisciplinary International Journal, 54(2), 145-160.

Sutton, S. (1994). The past predicts the future: Interpreting behaviour–behaviour relationships in social psychological models of health behaviour. In D. R. Rutter & L. Quine (Eds.), Social psychology and health: European perspectives (pp. 7 1-88). Aldershot, UK: Avebury.

Tam, J. L. M. (2000). The effects of service quality, perceived value and customer satisfaction on behavioral intentions. Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 6(4), 31-43.

Thach, S., & Axinn, C. (1994). Patron assessments of amusement park attributes. Journal of Travel Research, 32(3), 51-60.

Tian-Cole, S., Crompton, J. L., & Willson, V. L. (2002). An empirical investigation of the relationships between service quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions among visitors to a wildlife refuge. Journal of Leisure Research, 34(1), 1-24.

Time. (1988, 1988-05-16). Good heavens! An astrologer dictating the President's schedule? Retrieved 04-10, 2011, from http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,967389,00.html

Tinbergen, N. (1963). On aims and methods of ethology. Zeitschrift für Tierpsychologie, 20(4), 410-433.

Tobacyk, J., & Milford, G. (1983). Belief in paranormal phenomena: assessment instrument development

and implications for personality functioning. Journal of personality and social psychology, 44(5), 1029-1037.

Tobacyk, J. J. (2004). A revised paranormal belief scale. The International Journal of Transpersonal Studies, 23(23), 94-98.

Torgler, B. (2007). Determinants of superstition. Journal of Socio-Economics, 36(5), 713-733.

Truong, T. H., & Foster, D. (2006). Using HOLSAT to evaluate tourist satisfaction at destinations: the case of Australian holidaymakers in Vietnam. Tourism Management, 27(5), 842-855.

Tse, A. C. B. (1998). Comparing the response rate, response speed and response quality of two methods of sending questionnaires: E-mail vs. mail. Journal of the Market Research Society, 40(4), 353-361.

Tybout, A. M., & Hauser, J. R. (1981). A marketing audit using a conceptual model of consumer behavior: application and evaluation. The Journal of Marketing, 45(3), 82-101.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. Annals of Tourism Research, 17(3), 432-448.

UNWTO. (2008). UNWTO tourism highlights, 2011 edition. Retrieved 10-30, 2011, from http://mkt.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/unwtohighlights11enlr_1.pdf

Uysal, M., Chen, J. S., & Williams, D. R. (2000). Increasing state market share through a regional positioning. Tourism Management, 21(1), 89-96.

Uysal, M., Li, X., & Sirakaya-Turk, E. (2008). Push-pull dynamics in travel decisions. In H. Oh & A. Pizam (Eds.), Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management (pp. 413-439). Oxford, UK: Elsevier-BH.

Var, T., Beck, R., & Loftus, P. (1977). Determination of touristic attractiveness of the touristic areas in British Columbia. Journal of Travel Research, 15(3), 23-29.

Vengesayi, S., Mavondo, F., & Reisinger, Y. (2009). Tourism destination attractiveness: attractions, facilities, and people as predictors. Tourism Analysis, 14(5), 621-636.

Vyse, S. (1997). Superstition in the age of science. World Revieiv, 2(4), 13-15.

Vyse, S. A. (2000). Believing in magic: the psychology of superstition. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Wagner, G. A., & Morris, E. K. (1987). "Superstitious" behavior in children. The Psychological Record, 37(4), 471-488.

Wagner, M. E. (1928). Superstitions and their social and psychological correlatives among college students. Journal of Educational Sociology, 2(1), 26-36.

Walmsley, D., & Jenkins, J. (1992). Tourism cognitive mapping of unfamiliar environments. Annals of Tourism Research, 19(2), 268-286.

Warshaw, P. R. (1980). A new model for predicting behavioral intentions: an alternative to Fishbein. Journal of Marketing Research, 17(2), 153-172.

Waters, L., & Roach, D. (1979). Job satisfaction, behavioral intention, and absenteeism as predictors of turnover. Personnel Psychology, 32(2), 393-397.

Weible, R., & Wallace, J. (1998). The impact of Internet on data collection. Marketing Research, 10(3), 19-23.

West, S., Griffin, A., & Gardner, A. (2007). Social semantics: altruism, cooperation, mutualism, strong reciprocity and group selection. Journal of Evolutionary Biology, 20(2), 415-432.

Wheen, F. (2004). How mumbo-jumbo conquered the world. New York, NY, US: Harper Perennial.

Williams, D., Patterson, M., Roggenbuck, J., & Watson, A. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. Leisure Sciences, 14(1), 29-46.

Wilson, D. T., Mathews, H. L., & Harvey, J. W. (1975). An empirical test of the Fishbein behavioral intention model. Journal of Consumer Research, 1(4), 39-48.

Winter, D. G., John, O. P., Stewart, A. J., Klohnen, E. C., & Duncan, L. E. (1998). Traits and motives: toward an integration of two traditions in personality research. Psychological review, 105(2), 230-250.

Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination

loyalty: a structural model. Tourism Management, 26(1), 45-56.

Young, M. (1999). Cognitive maps of nature-based tourists. Annals of Tourism Research, 26(4), 817-839.

Yu, J., & Cooper, H. (1983). A quantitative review of research design effects on response rates to questionnaires. Journal of Marketing Research, 20(1), 36-44.

Zanna, M. P., Olson, J. M., & Fazio, R. H. (1980). Attitude–behavior consistency: an individual difference perspective. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38(3), 432-440.

Appendix 1: Scale Development (SADA): Pretest Questionnaire

Superstitions and Destination Attractiveness

This questionnaire examines superstition and your perceptions of destination attractiveness. The questionnaire is anonymous and confidential. Please consider each question or statement and circle the number that most closely reflects your opinions. If you have any questions, please raise your hand, and I will come and help you. Thank you!
~~~~~~

1. Superstitions as Destination Attractiveness
Please indicate your agreement with the statements below by circling one of the numbers that best describes your belief. “1” represents strongly disagree, “7” represents strongly agree, and “4” is neutral or no opinion.

Statement **I consider the destination attractive if**	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore geomancy (the study of patterns formed by tossed soil or sand).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet palmists (people who read palms).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is black magic (magic that is considered evil).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore astrology (e.g. destiny is caused by the position of planets).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet fortune tellers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore witchcraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet witches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can personally meet magicians.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore cartomancy (fortune-telling using a deck of cards).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can participate in magic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have magic power.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore phrenology (the study of relationships between a person’s character and the shape of skull).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Supernatural things happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet astrologists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have supernatural forces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore capnomancy (a method of divination using smoke).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Werewolf stories have been reported at the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet psychics (people who have extra sensory	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
~~~~~~

perceptions).							
Vampire stories have been reported at the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local residents practice superstitious behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The local culture has many superstitions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have mystical energy (ex. crystals used to heal).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is believed to have ghosts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet wizards (male witches).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination has a superstitious local culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can learn divinations (attempts to foretell the future).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can watch magic performances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can watch others perform rituals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to be haunted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore numerology (the study of mystical meanings of numbers).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are animals considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet clairvoyants (people who can see beyond the five human senses).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Demographics and Travel Behavior

Please answer the following questions:

1) What is your gender? □ Male □ Female

2) Which college are you studying at?

□ Agriculture & Life Sciences □ Architecture & Urban Studies □ Business

□ Engineering □ Liberal Arts & Human Sciences □ Natural Resources and Environment

□ Science □ Veterinary Medicine

3) Which year are you in? □ Freshman □ Sophomore □ Junior □ Senior

4) What's your ratio-ethnicity?

□ Asian (Those of Primarily Asian Descent) □ Black (Those of Primarily African Descent)

□ Hispanic/Latino (Those of Primarily Spanish Descent) □ Native American

□ White (Those of Primarily European Descent) □ Other

5) Do you prefer vacation packages when planning your vacations? □ Yes □ No □ I'm not sure.

6) Where do you usually get information when planning your vacations? (You can choose more than one items)

□ Website □ Print Media □ TV □ Radio □ Travel agent/professionals

□ Friends/relatives/acquaintance □ Other

This is the end of the questionnaire,
Thank you very much for completing the survey!

Appendix 2: Scale Development (SADA): Final Questionnaire

Superstitions and Destination Attractiveness

The questionnaire examines superstition and your perceptions of destination attractiveness. It is anonymous and confidential. If you have any questions, please raise your hand, and I will come and help you. Thank you!
~~~~~~

1. Superstitions as Destination Attractiveness

Please indicate your agreement with the statements below by circling one of the numbers that best describes your belief. “1” represents strongly disagree, “7” represents strongly agree, and “4” is neutral or no opinion.

Statement **I consider the destination attractive if**	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore astrology (e.g. destiny is caused by the position of planets).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore witchcraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet witches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can participate in magic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet astrologists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is believed to have ghosts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can watch magic performances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to be haunted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Traits of Superstitions

Please indicate your agreement with the statements below by circling one of the numbers that best describes your belief. 1 represents strongly disagree and 7 represents strongly agree. There is no right or wrong answer.

Statement	Strongly	Strongly
~~~~~~

	Disagree						Agree
The soul continues to exist through the body may die	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Black magic really exists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Black cats can bring bad luck	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The abominable snowman of Tibet (i.e., the Big Foot) exists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Astrology is a way to accurately predict the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a devil	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Witches do exist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If you break a mirror, you will have bad luck	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
During altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Loch Ness monster of Scotland exists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The horoscope accurately tells a person's future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe in God	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The number "13" is unlucky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reincarnation does occur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is life on other planets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some psychics can accurately predict the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a heaven and a hell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mind reading is not possible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are actual cases of witchcraft	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is possible to communicate with the dead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Demographics and Travel Behavior

Please answer the following questions:

1) What is your gender? □ Male □ Female

2) Which year are you in? □ Freshman □ Sophomore □ Junior □ Senior

3) What's your ratio-ethnicity?

□ Asian (Those of Primarily Asian Descent) □ Black (Those of Primarily African Descent)

□ Hispanic/Latino (Those of Primarily Spanish Descent) □ Native American

□ White (Those of Primarily European Descent) □ Other

4) Do you prefer vacation packages when planning your vacations? □ Yes □ No □ I'm not sure.

5) Where do you usually get information when planning your vacations? (You can choose more than one items)

□ Website □ Print Media □ TV □ Radio □ Travel agent/professionals

□ Friends/relatives/acquaintance □ Other

This is the end of the questionnaire,
Thank you very much for completing the survey!

Appendix 3: Pretest Questionnaire

The Effects of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness on Behavioral Intention

Dear respondent,
You are invited to complete a survey which is an essential part of a thesis research that will lead to a master's degree. The survey is anonymous and confidential. Thank you for your time. Your contribution to the study is highly appreciated.

Yunzhou (Carol) Zhang (zyz211@vt.edu)
Master Candidate of the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Tech

~~~~~~

Part I. Please circle a number for each item to indicate how much you agree or disagree with that item. There is no right or wrong answer. This is a sample of your own beliefs and attitudes. Thank you. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
The soul continues to exist through the body may die	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Black magic really exists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Black cats can bring bad luck	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The abominable snowman of Tibet (i.e., the Big Foot) exists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Astrology is a way to accurately predict the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a devil	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Witches do exist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If you break a mirror, you will have bad luck	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
During altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Loch Ness monster of Scotland exists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The horoscope accurately tells a person's future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe in God	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The number "13" is unlucky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reincarnation does occur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is life on other planets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some psychics can accurately predict the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a heaven and a hell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mind reading is not possible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are actual cases of witchcraft	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is possible to communicate with the dead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
~~~~~~

Some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part II. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your belief. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement **I consider the destination attractive if**	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore witchcraft	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to be haunted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet witches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is believed to have ghosts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can participate in magic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III. Intention to Visit
Please read Scenario 1.

Scenario 1.
Suppose there is a destination where you can explore many things related to witchcraft. For example, you can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil) or witches in person; watch them practice dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings), catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror), and palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm); buy things related to witchcraft (e.g. crystal ball), and talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).
Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your intention to visit the destination in scenario 1. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5= Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your probability and willingness to visit the destination in scenario 1 by circling one of the numbers in the scale. (1=Extremely Low; 2= Very Low; 3=Low; 4= Undecided; 5=High; 6=Very High; 7=Extremely High)

Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low						Extremely High
The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please read Scenario 2.

Scenario 2.
Suppose there is a destination where you can listen to ghost stories surrounding the destination. The destination is said to be haunted and believed to have ghosts. Things that happen there are beyond scientific explanation. Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration. Please consider the following statements.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your intention to visit the destination in scenario 2. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5= Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your probability and willingness to visit the destination in scenario 2 by circling one of the numbers in the scale. (1=Extremely Low; 2= Very Low; 3=Low; 4= Undecided; 5=High; 6=Very High; 7=Extremely High)

Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low						Extremely High
The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please read Scenario 3.

Scenario 3.
Suppose there is a destination, the theme of which is to bring good luck to visitors. As a visitor, you can

perform little rituals or buy charms to bring good luck. There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined) in the destination. You can make wishes following propitious signs.
Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration. Please consider the following statements.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your intention to visit the destination in scenario 3. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5= Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your probability and willingness to visit the destination in scenario 3 by circling one of the numbers in the scale. (1=Extremely Low; 2= Very Low; 3=Low; 4= Undecided; 5=High; 6=Very High; 7=Extremely High)

Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low						Extremely High
The probability that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part IV. Demographics and Travel Experience
1. What's your gender? □ Male □ Female
2. What's your age? _____
3. What's your major and college?
Your Major: _____
Your college:_____
4. Have you ever been to a destination, the major attractiveness is superstition-based, in the past 12 months?
□ Yes □ No □ I'm uncertain
If yes, please specify. _____
If uncertain, please explain. _____

Thank you very much for completing the survey!

Appendix 4: Formal Questionnaire

The Effects of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness on Behavioral Intention

Dear respondent,
You are invited to complete a survey which is an essential part of a thesis research that will lead to a master's degree. The survey is anonymous and confidential. Thank you for your time. Your contribution to the study is highly appreciated.

Carol Zhang (zyz211@vt.edu)
Master Candidate of the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Tech

~~~~~~

Part I. Please circle a number for each item to indicate how much you agree or disagree with that item. There is no right or wrong answer. This is a sample of your own beliefs and attitudes. Thank you. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
Some individuals are able to levitate (lift) objects through mental forces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Black magic really exists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Black cats can bring bad luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Your mind or soul can leave your body and travel (astral projection).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The abominable snowman of Tibet (i.e., the Big Foot) exists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Astrology is a way to accurately predict the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Psychokinesis, the movement of objects through psychic powers, does exist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Witches do exist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If you break a mirror, you will have bad luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
During altered states, such as sleep or trances, the spirit can leave the body.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Loch Ness monster of Scotland exists.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The horoscope accurately tells a person's future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A person's thoughts can influence the movement of a physical object.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Through the use of formulas and incantations, it is possible to cast spells on persons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The number "13" is unlucky.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reincarnation does occur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is life on other planets.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some psychics can accurately predict the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mind reading is not possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are actual cases of witchcraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is possible to communicate with the dead.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some people have an unexplained ability to predict the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
~~~~~~

Part II. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your belief. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement **I consider the destination attractive if**	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I can explore dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are ghost stories surrounding the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can perform little rituals to bring good luck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore witchcraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to have phantoms (a physical manifestation of the soul of a person who is dead).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy charms (objects considered to be able to bring good luck).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is said to be haunted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can make wishes following propitious signs (ex. wish upon a star).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can meet witches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The destination is believed to have ghosts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can participate in magic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Things that happen are beyond scientific explanation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mysterious things happen (e.g. something out of the ordinary).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can explore palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy things related to magic or witchcraft (e.g. wand, crystal ball).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can buy talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III. Intention to Visit
Please read Scenario 1.

Scenario 1.
Suppose there is a destination where you can explore many things related to witchcraft. For example, you can meet warlocks (male witches who are often considered to be evil) or witches in person; watch them practice dactyliomancy (a method of divination using rings), catoptromancy (a divination using a mirror), and palmistry (art of foretelling future through studying your palm); buy things related to witchcraft (e.g. crystal ball), and talismans (objects considered to possess magical powers).
Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your intention to visit the destination in scenario 1. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5= Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly						Strongly

	Disagree						Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your probability and willingness to visit the destination in scenario 1 by circling one of the numbers in the scale. (1=Extremely Low; 2= Very Low; 3=Low; 4= Undecided; 5=High; 6=Very High; 7=Extremely High)

Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low						Extremely High
The possibility that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please read Scenario 2.

Scenario 2.
Suppose there is a destination where you can listen to ghost stories surrounding the destination. The destination is said to be haunted and believed to have ghosts. Things that happen there are beyond scientific explanation.
Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.
Please consider the following statements.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your intention to visit the destination in scenario 2. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5= Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your probability and willingness to visit the destination in scenario 2 by circling one of the numbers in the scale. (1=Extremely Low; 2= Very Low; 3=Low; 4= Undecided; 5=High; 6=Very High; 7=Extremely High)

Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low						Extremely High
The possibility that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please read Scenario 3.

Scenario 3.
Suppose there is a destination, the theme of which is to bring good luck to visitors. As a visitor, you can perform little rituals or buy charms to bring good luck. There are plants considered to be propitious (favorably inclined) in the destination. You can make wishes following propitious signs.
Money, time, cost and other constraints of making a visit to the destination are not taken into consideration.
Please consider the following statements.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by circling one of the numbers that best describes your intention to visit the destination in scenario 3. (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Somewhat Disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5= Agree; 6=Somewhat Agree; 7=Strongly Agree)

Statement	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
It is very likely for me to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I want to visit such a destination within the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your probability and willingness to visit the destination in scenario 3 by circling one of the numbers in the scale. (1=Extremely Low; 2= Very Low; 3=Low; 4= Undecided; 5=High; 6=Very High; 7=Extremely High)

Probability and Willingness to Visit	Extremely Low						Extremely High
The possibility that I would consider visiting such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My willingness to visit such a destination is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part IV. Demographics and Travel Experience

1. What's your gender? □ Male □ Female
2. What's your age? _____
3. What's your major? _____
4. What's your college at Virginia Tech? _____
5. Have you ever been to a destination with superstition as one of the attractiveness attributes, in the past 12 months?
□ Yes □ No □ I'm uncertain
If yes, please specify. _____
If you are uncertain, please explain. _____
6. Have you ever been to a destination, the major attractiveness is superstition-based, in the past 12 months?
□ Yes □ No □ I'm uncertain
If yes, please specify. _____
If you are uncertain, please explain. _____

That's the end of the survey.
Thank you very much for completing the survey!

Appendix 5: IRB Approval Letter

VirginiaTech

Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 (0497)
Blacksburg, Virginia 24060
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
e-mail irb@vt.edu
Website: www.irb.vt.edu

MEMORANDUM

DATE: February 13, 2012

TO: Muzaffer Uysal, Yunzhou Zhang, Ken W. McCleary, Vincent Magnini

FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires May 31, 2014)

PROTOCOL TITLE: The Effects of Superstition as Destination Attractiveness on Behavioral Intention

IRB NUMBER: 12-070

Effective February 13, 2012, the Virginia Tech IRB Chair, Dr. David M. Moore, approved the new protocol for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm (please review before the commencement of your research).

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:
Approved as: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.101(b) category(ies) 2**
Protocol Approval Date: **2/13/2012**
Protocol Expiration Date: **NA**
Continuing Review Due Date*: **NA**
*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:
Per federally regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals / work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.