The Effect of Personal Values on Consumer Perceptions of Country Image and Destination Image: A Case Study Analysis of Indonesia

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

College of Business
Victoria University
Melbourne

2014

Abstract

Tourism is a popular market offering for many countries, however, in an increasingly competitive marketplace, countries seeking to promote tourism need to develop favourable images of their country as a tourist destination. To do this, the notions of both country image and destination image come into play. While country image and destination image are deemed to influence tourism behaviour, there is little understanding on how these two constructs interact to influence tourism behaviour. This research, using Indonesia as the focal country/destination, is aimed at addressing this gap in knowledge.

To guide this research, a framework was developed based on the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model. Specifically, this research investigated: (1) the relationship between country image and destination image involving the cognitive and the affective components of both country image and destination image; and (2) the mediating role of country image and destination image, as attitudes, on the relationship between values and behaviour. A series of relationships between country image, destination image, personal values, which are thought to be a guiding principle for behaviour, and behaviour probability were tested using data from an online sample of Australian residents. Structural equation modelling was employed to analyse the data.

The results of this research largely support the hypothesised relationships. The results revealed that country image influences destination image through the affective components of both country image and destination image, which in turn influences behaviour probability. The results also provide strong support for the role of destination image as a mediator on the relationship between personal values and behaviour probability.

This research makes a theoretical contribution to knowledge because it has clarified the relationship between country image and destination image, their internal structures and their relationships with behaviour probability. In addition, this research advances the literature in tourism because it is the first to investigate

the mediating role of country image and destination image on the relationship between personal values and behaviour. From a practical perspective, the results of this research highlight that Indonesia can use its image as a tourist destination to develop and manage its image as a country. Recommendations for further research are proposed including to replicate this study using different countries and incorporating other constructs in the research model such as social norms and familiarity with the country and destination.

Student Declaration

I, Agustinus Februadi, declare that the PhD thesis entitled "**The Effect of Personal Values on Consumer Perceptions of Country Image and Destination Image: A Case Study Analysis of Indonesia**" is no more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work.

Signature **Date**

Editor Declaration

I acknowledge the use of the editorial services of Dr Emma Curtin of Inkontext Writing, Editing and Research. The services provided were consistent with the Victoria University Guidelines developed with the Council of Australian Societies of Editors and the Australian Standards for Editing Practice for editing theses and dissertations (Standards D and E). Dr Curtin is a member of Editors Victoria.

Acknowledgement

Over the period of my PhD candidature many people have assisted me to bring my research and this thesis to completion. I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to a number of individuals and organisation, as without their guidance, supports and enthusiasms, this thesis would have never been completed.

I would like to convey my greatest gratitude to my principal supervisor, Professor Anne-Marie Hede, for her valuable guidance and support during this journey. I am deeply indebted, as her constructive criticism helped clear the cobwebs and kept me constantly focussed. I was very fortunate to be under her supervision, as she embraced every responsibility of a principal supervisor to guide my research.

I am grateful to my associate supervisors, Dr Maxwell Winchester and Dr Himanshu Shee, for providing proper guidance and comments on my thesis.

My sincere thanks are due to the Government of the Republic of Indonesia through the Ministry of Education and Culture; Directorate General of Higher Education for providing me with the scholarship that enabled me to undertake my PhD study at Victoria University, Melbourne.

I wish to extend my eternal gratitude to my father, Pius Baruno and my late mother, Siti Aminah who struggled against vast odd to provide me with a good education and who embedded me with the values and discipline necessary to complete this thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank my son, Robertus Februadi, my caring sister Tari Pramono and Fenny Marizka for their love and encouragement throughout the years.

Publications Associated with the Thesis

Februadi, A. (2012). *The effect of personal values on consumer perceptions of country image and destination image*. Paper presented at The 10th Asia Tourism Forum, Bandung, Indonesia

Februadi, A. (2012). *The effect of personal values on consumer perceptions of country image and destination image: A case study analysis of Indonesia*. Poster presented at The 2012 Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference (ANZMAC), Adelaide, Australia

Februadi, A., Hede, A. M., & Winchester, M. (2014). *Exploring for the relationship among country image, destination image, personal values and behaviour probability*. Paper presented at The Academy of Marketing Conference, Bournemouth, UK.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Tourism is a popular market offering for many countries, however; in order to be successful, it is important for those countries seeking to promote tourism that they develop a favourable image of their country as a tourist destination. To do this, the notion of both country image and destination image, as attitudes (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), and the relationship between them (Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, & Luk, 2008) come into play. Studies have confirmed that country image and destination image are two distinct constructs (see for example, Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005; Campo-Martinez & Alvarez, 2010). Country image refers to general associations with a country that are not related to any specific context (Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005). On the other hand, destination image refers to all associations with a country from a touristic perspective (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Nadeau et al., 2008).

Country image has long been recognised as being important for nations (Papadopoulos, 1993). Research has revealed that as a cue for information, country image influences consumers' evaluations of a country's products (Bloemer, Brijs, & Kasper, 2009; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2013; Veale & Quester, 2009; Verlegh, Steenkamp, & Meulenberg, 2005) and subsequent purchase intentions (Ahmed & d'Astous, 1996; Godey et al., 2012; Häubl, 1996; Kan, Cliquet, & Gallo, 2014; Nebenzahl, Jaffé, & Usunier, 2003). Similarly, research has shown that destination image plays a role in affecting consumers' intentions to visit a destination (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chew& Jahari, 2014; Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011).

While there is a considerable body of research on both country image and destination image, each has evolved as academic research streams independent of one another. Country image has evolved within the international marketing

literature, whereas destination image stems from the field of tourism.Elliot, Papadopoulos and Szamosi(2013) suggest that without an intersection of these literatures, no synergistic benefit can be gained. Hence, this gap generates a call for further research to examine the two image concepts simultaneously.

At the same time, there appears to be a connection between country image, destination image and personal values (Balabanis, Mueller, & Melewar, 2002; de Moura Engracia Giraldi & Ikeda, 2009; Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, & Gursoy, 2009). The study of personal values has received considerable attention in the social sciences, including that on e-shopping (Jayawardhena, 2004), fair trade consumption (Doran, 2009), cinema going (Marchand & Khallaayoune, 2010) and service quality (Ladhari, Pons, Bressolles, & Zins, 2011). The reason for this trend is the assumed relationship between personal values, attitude and behaviour (Mehmetoglu, Hines, Graumann, & Greibrokk, 2010).

In addition, a hierarchical relationship between personal values, attitudes and behaviours has been validated by Homer and Kahle (1988). Further, Homer and Kahle put forward that this hierarchical model should be investigated within other consumption situations. While the personal value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model has been explored within the context of recycling and waste minimising behaviour (Thøgersen & Grunert-Beckmann, 1997), shopping mall attitudes and behaviours (Shim & Eastlick, 1998), voting intentions for wild land preservation (Vaske & Donnelly, 1999) and cross-cultural studies (Milfont, Duckitt, & Wagner, 2010), little attention has been directed to the study of the personal value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model within the context of tourism. Hence, as suggested by Homer and Kahle (1988), an application of this hierarchy model in tourism provides a fertile ground for further research.

1.2 Research Problems

1.2.1 Country Image and Destination Image Relationship

The way country image relates to destination image has not been fully explored.The literature on international marketing and tourism shows a consensus

that country image and destination image are both conceptualised based on attitudinal theory [see for example reviews by Roth & Diamantopoulos (2009) and Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)]. Attitudes are comprised of cognitive (beliefs), affective (feelings or emotions) and conative (behaviour intentions) components (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Many researchers follow the three components (i.e. cognitive, affective, conative) view of attitudes (Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop, & Mourali, 2005; Nebenzahl et al., 2003; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994), whileother researchers follow a two component basis that comprise of only cognitive and affective components (Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Knight & Calantone, 2000; Knight, Spreng, & Yaprak, 2003; Lee & Ganesh, 1999) with the cognitive component as the antecedent of the affective component (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Brijs, Bloemer, & Kasper, 2011).

Despite a considerable body of empirical research (Heslop, Papadopoulos, Dowdles, Wall, & Compeau, 2004; Nebenzahl et al., 2003; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2003; Usunier, 2006; Wang, Li, Barnes, & Ahn, 2011), the role of country image in marketing is still debated (Brijs et al., 2011; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). One of the main issues is the lack of understanding of how the cues of country image influence consumers' attitude toward the country's market offerings (Brijs et al., 2011).As this research views destination image as a country's market offerings, without such understanding, destination marketers may not be able to identify country related images which are the antecedents to their country's image as a tourist destination. Hence, as suggested by Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim (2010), an investigation on how potential tourists use country image to form beliefs (cognitions) and feelings (affections) toward the same country as a tourist destination is warranted.

1.2.2 Country Image and Destination Image as a Mediator on the Relationship between Personal Values and Behaviour

The relationships between country image, destination image, personal values and behaviour requires further investigation. Previous research has demonstrated that, within the context of tourism, personal values influence consumer behaviour in

relation to: the usefulness of various media for tourists (Fall & Knutson, 2001), satisfaction at events (Hede, Jago, & Deery, 2005), tourist motivations (Woosnam, McElroy, & Van Winkle, 2009) and travel related decision-making (M. Li & Cai, 2012; Mehmetoglu et al., 2010; Pitts & Woodside, 1986). Given these findings, it is not unreasonable to expect that personal values will also be associated with consumer attitudes about tourist destinations.

Some progress has been made on this topic. For example, while Nadeau et al. (2008) found that country image influenced respondents' evaluations and intentions to revisit Nepal. They called for further research to refine their research model that included other constructs related to the image constructs. Considering Nadeau et al.'s (2008) call for further research in this area and the relevance of personal values to tourism decision-making, personal values have been included in the research model for the current study. Thus, this research investigates whether country image and destination image act as mediators on the relationship between personal values and behaviour to provide a more complete understanding of the role of personal values significance in tourism. While there is a strong rationale to include personal values in such a model, to date, no research has attempted to do so. Hence, the research has potential to make a contribution to knowledge and inform marketing practice in relation to tourism destinations.

1.3 Research Questions and Research Objectives

This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. To what extent do the cues used by potential tourists to evaluate images of a country influence their attitude towards the same country as a tourist destination?
2. To what extent do country image and destination image mediate the relationship between personal values and behaviour?

The objectives of this research were to test:

1. for the relationship between country image and destination image using a model that incorporates cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image; and

2. whether country image and destination image mediate the relationships between personal values and behaviour.

1.4 Research Context

This study was focussed on Indonesia. Indonesia is the world's largest archipelago and fourth most populous country (Sugiyarto, Blake, & Sinclair, 2003). With more than 17,000 islands and 336 different ethnic groups, Indonesia is a country with rich cultural diversity and natural resources (Sugiyarto et al., 2003). Indonesia's natural and cultural variety, combined with the well-known traditional hospitality of its people, makes the country a very attractive tourist destination (Rulistia, 2011). While in the same year, seven million tourists visited Indonesia, neighbouring countries attracted many more tourists. For example, in 2012 Singapore, Thailand and Malaysia attracted 14.4 million, 22.3 million and 25 million visitors respectively (ASEANSec, 2012).

A country's political instability, safety and security is thought to have a direct impact on the formation of negative images, which in turn influence consumers decisions as to whether they visit country as a tourist destination in the future (Sirakaya, Sheppard, & McLellan, 1997). Hence, these large differences in tourist arrivals may be attributed to the image international travellers have of Indonesia as a country. Indonesia has experienced political instability in 1998, a tsunami in 2004 and multiple terrorist attacks in the form of Bali bombings in 2002 and 2005 and Jakarta bombings in 2004 and 2009 (Indonesia-Investment, 2014).

For Indonesia, which is seeking to promote tourism (Franken, 2011), it is important to explore how potential tourists perceive both the country in general and as a tourist destination. As Indonesia has done little to develop its image as a country and as a tourist destination (Atmodjo, 2011) and there is little knowledge, if any, about the effect of its image on travellers' destination choices research on this topic will be insightful and have practical relevance to the nation.

1.5 Research Contributions

The current research contributes to the literature on tourism marketing from both the theoretical and practical perspectives.From a theoretical perspective, it contributes to the tourism marketing literature in several ways. First, this research tests a model that incorporates the cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image. This model is important as there is little understanding on how the country image phenomenon really works (Brijs et al., 2011). Addressing this gap in knowledge is important because gaining information about the relationship between country image and destination imagewill provide a fuller understanding of its significance for tourism. Second, the research offers an understanding on the intervening roles of country image and destination image on the relationship between personal values and behaviour. This information is important as the application of a value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model has been given little attention in tourism literature, yet it is integral to the understanding of consumer behaviour within the context of tourism.

From a practical perspective, the tourism industry plays a major role in the economic development of Indonesia (WTTC, 2014). The total contribution of travel and tourism industry in 2014, including its wider economic impacts, is forecasted 8.4 percent of the gross domestic product (WTTC, 2014). It is imperative that Indonesia's tourism authorities and its destination marketers have an understanding of the image that potential target markets hold of Indonesia as a country and its influence on the appeal as a tourist destination.

1.6 Outline of Thesis

This thesis is comprised of seven chapters. Chapter 1 has presented an introduction to the research.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature relevant to this research including a review about the development, the structure and the measurement issues of the country image construct. This is followed by a review on the theory, the formation and the structure of the destination image construct. Finally, a review on the study of personal values and the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model is provided.

Chapter 3 presents the research model. This incorporates personal values, cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image and behaviour probability. In this chapter, a series of hypotheses are postulated.

Chapter 4 describes the research method used to empirically test the model under investigation. The chapter includes the justification of the quantitative method, research approach, research instrument, data collection techniques and methods of data analysis.

Chapter 5 presents the research results including preliminary data analysis, the measurement model and the results of the structural model.

Chapter 6provides a discussion of the research results and their relationship with the literature.

Finally, Chapter 7 presents the implications, limitations of the research, suggestions future research and conclusion.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature related to destination image, country image and personal values as discussed in Chapter 1. Section 2.2 of this chapter presents a review of the literature related to country image. The review focuses on the historical development, the conceptualisation, the structure and the measurement issues related to country image. Section 2.3 presents a review of the literature on destination image. In addition to reviewing its theory, conceptualisation and structure of destination image, its similarities, differences and relationship with country image are also reviewed. Section 2.4 presents a review of the literature to examine the conceptual and empirical studies on personal values generally and within the context of tourism. Section 2.5 presents a review of the literature on the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model and concentrates on empirical studies that have supported the indirect relationship between personal values and behaviour through mediating attitudes. Section 2.6 summarises the chapter.

2.2 Country Image

The theoretical basis of country image was derived from the concept of country of origin (CoO). This concept has gained attention of marketing scholars since the 1960s. One of the early CoO investigators, Dichter (1962), argued that CoO might have an enormous impact on the acceptance and success of products in a market. Schooler (1965) empirically tested the effect of CoO on fabrics and fruit juices. He found "significant differences in the evaluation of products, identical in all respects except the name of the country appearing on the label […]" (Schooler, 1965, p. 396). Since Schooler's seminal research, the CoO has been the subject of a well over 1000 of studies with at least 400 of them published in peer-reviewed journals (Usunier, 2006). This large body of research shows that the country origin of products acts as a cue for product quality and preferences (Han,

1989)and also affects perceived risk, perceived value and purchase intentions (Liefeld, 1993).

Over the course of time, the emphasis within CoO literature has gradually advanced from evaluating dissimilarities in product evaluation based on the country origin of the products to a more complex construct, namely the country of origin image (CoI) (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). While traditional CoO studies focused on the question of whether consumers prefer products from one country over another, CoI enables researchers to analyse why they have those preferences (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

CoI is, therefore, viewed as perceptions, associations, stereotypes, or schemas (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). These various views create a plethora of terminological alternatives. Papadopoulos (1993), for example, uses the term "product-country image" (PCI), but O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy (2000) argue that PCI covers two conceptually distinct but related constructs, namely country image and product image. It is also thought that PCI offers a restrictive view as image of a country may not only influence the evaluation of the products from that country, as other aspects such as investments and tourist visitations may also influence (Heslop et al., 2004). In addition, Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) introduced a number of alternative terms for CoI based on whether the country is a source of design, production location of components, or location of assembly. The introduction of these various terms has created some confusion in the literature and to avoid further misunderstanding, Mossberg and Kleppe (2005) proposed a three level model consisting of country, product class and specific product levels. The model is graphically presented in the Figure 2-1.

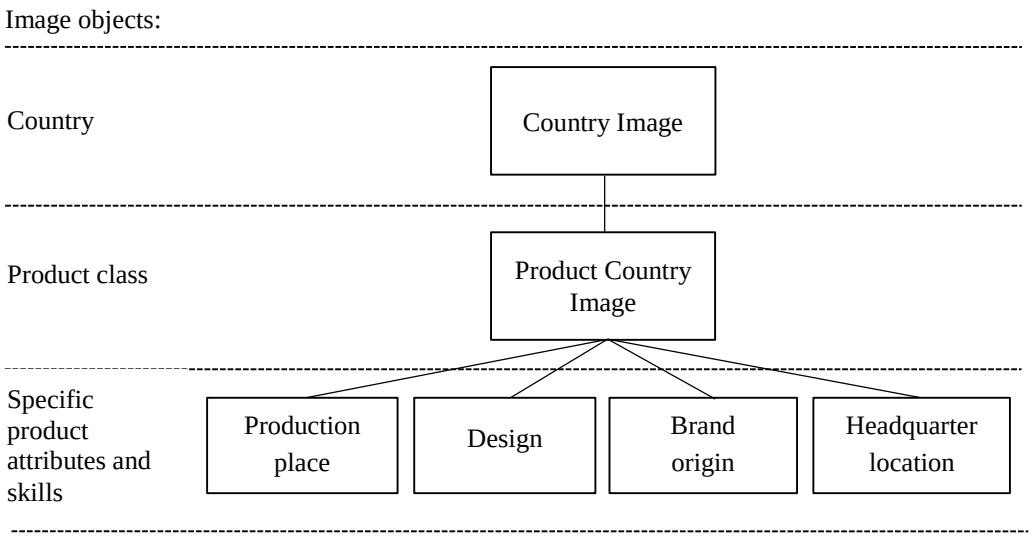

Figure 2-1: A Three Level Model of Origin Image Constructs

Source: adapted from (Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005)

In the first level of the model, country image is considered the most abstract construct and described as "the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country" (Martin & Eroglu,1993, 193). The country is the image object and is distinct from attitudes toward that country's products. In the next level, PCI captures the match between country image associations and specific product categories. The image object in this concept is a product class from a certain country. For example, a preference for German cars may be related to the idea that Germany is a technologically advanced country. The last level of the model represents the notions that are related to specific stages in the production or value chain process. This concept is in line with the global sourcing trend. A product can have multiple sourcing countries. Hence, the concepts made/assembled in, location of headquarters and brand's origin, refer to the various sourcing countries which may affect the image of the product.

Mossberg and Kleppe (2005) posit that classifying country image constructs using the three-level model provides a framework to determine the field of each origin construct and how they relate to each other. In this framework the concept of country image can be perceived as a generic pool of a large number of

associations. While some countries have an abundance of associations, other countries have very limited number of associations (Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005). Thus, country image is simply all associations linked to a country.

With the aim of addressing the confusion in the literature, Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) undertook a review of country image (CoI) definitions, classifying them into three groups: (1) general country image; (2) the image of countries and their products; and (3) the images of products from a country. With regard to the first group, the general country image is defined as a general image of a country created not only based on the products from that country but also on other country specific aspects. This recognises country image "results from its geography, history, proclamations, art and music, famous citizens and other features" (Kotler & Gertner, 2002, p. 251). Similarly, Allred et al. (1999, p. 36) suggest that country image is:

> the perception or impression that organizations and consumers have about a country. This impression or perception of a country is based on the country's economic condition, political structure, culture, conflict with other countries, labour condition and stand on environmental issues.

Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999, p. 525) define country image more simply as "mental representations of a country's people, products, culture and national symbols."

The second group definition of CoI concentrates on the image of countries as perceived by the country of origin of products, namely PCI. Nebenzahl et al. (2003, p. 388) define PCI as:

> consumers' perceptions about the attributes of products made in a certain country; emotions toward the country and resulting perceptions about the social desirability of owning products made in the country.

When taking a closer look at this definition, it suggests that, first, PCI consists of country image and product image, which are two distinct but related concepts and, second, country image may influence the image of product from that country

(Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). This implication is consistent with Roth and Romeo (1992) who found that a favourable country image may lead to a positive product image and reinforce the willingness to buy products from that country.

Finally, the third group focuses on the images of the products instead of the country of origin. This concept was first introduced by Nagashima (1970, p. 68) when he defined country image as:

> the picture, the reputation and the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background, history and traditions.

Although the term *country* is used, this definition is referring to the products of a country. Product image is a more accurate term for this definition (Martin & Eroglu, 1993). Many other researchers (Han, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992) proposed a similar conceptualisation that concentrates on product image rather than country image.

2.2.1 Country Image Conceptualisation

A noticeable feature of the above-mentioned definitions is that most refer only to factors concerning beliefs toward a particular country. Most studies on country image focus on the cognitive assessment of a country and they propose a number of dimensions for this assessment such as politics, economic and technological development (see for example: Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Li et al., 1997; Allred et al., 1999; Pappu et al., 2007). Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) also remark on a lack of scales to measure country image that adequately capture country-related emotions. Meanwhile, as early as five decades ago Boulding (1959, p. 120) suggested that image must be seen as "the total cognitive, affective and evaluative structure of a behaviour unit". Moreover, "country of origin is not merely a cognitive cue for product quality, but also relates to emotions, identity, pride and autobiographical memories" (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 523). Therefore, in order to fully capture country image, as a construct, it is necessary to include both cognitive and affective (emotion) evaluations.

The inclusion of both cognitive and affective evaluations in defining the country image construct leads to attitude theory. It has been suggested that attitudes are comprised not only of cognitive (beliefs) component, but also include affective (specific feelings or emotions) and conative (behavioural intention) components (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p. 6) define attitude as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object". Thus, as a concept, attitude has the ability to describe favourable or unfavourable country evaluations. It is thought, therefore, that in the case of tourism, attitude is an appropriate construct to explain country image and destination image because it can explain what beliefs and emotions international travellers may have towards a country and how this information affects their reactions toward that country (Nadeau et al., 2008).

Laroche et al. (2005), for example, use a three dimensional conceptualisation, consisting of a cognitive, an affective and conative components. In terms of consumers' perceptions of a country, Laroche et al. (2005) suggest that in addition to cognitive beliefs about the level of development of industries and technologies, consumers also have an evaluative affect towards the people of the country. They also found that the total effect of country image on product evaluations was equally substantial whether the image was based on affect or cognition. This is in line with the previous study by Nebenzahl et al. (2003), who also used cognitive, affective and conative dimensions to test the effects of country image on product evaluation.

Although many researchers adopt the three-component (i.e. cognitive, affective, conative) view of attitudes (e.g. Laroche et al., 2005; Nebenzahl et al., 2003; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994), other researchers describe attitudes on a two-component basis including the cognitive and affective components(Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Knight & Calantone, 2000; Knight et al., 2003; Lee & Ganesh, 1999). The researchers suggest that cognitive, affective and conative components of attitudes are not independent of each other but rather sequentially related. For example, a consumer could like a certain handbag (affect) *because* they believe that the handbag is of good quality (cognitive) and *therefore* they

have an intention to buy that handbag (conative). The two-component view assumes that:

> Self-reported behaviour and stated intentions to respond have frequently been treated as dependent effects of affective and/or cognitive variables. Intentions seem to be at a lower level of abstraction (i.e., closer to observable behaviour) than cognitions or affect (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979, p. 914).

This view is consistent with the tourism literature where there is a noticeable consensus with regard to the conceptualisation of destination image as consisting of a cognitive and an affective component only (see for example Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006).

Sources of information about a country are numerous and complex. Papadopoulos (1993) emphasises that the general image of a country is conceived through school lessons, media and acquaintances, as well as by personal experience when visiting the country. This general knowledge about the country is utilised to influence potential future purchases. A positive image about a country can result in favourable attributions to products from that country (Paswan & Sharma, 2004). In contrast, an unfavourable perception towards a country can lead to rejections to the products of that country. This effect has been highlighted by Gunn (1988) within the tourism context. He presents the findings of the image study of India. He argued that American travellers did not incorporate India in their destination choice although, as a tourism destination, India has positive images. The travellers' perception of the political conditions, poverty and inadequate hygiene in India had a contradictory impact on destination choices. Thus, in line with Han's (1989) image as a halo concept, tourists make inferences about the quality of prospective tourism destinations from their images of that country in general.

2.2.2 Country Image Structure

In an attempt to explain the structural relationship between the cognitive and affective components of country image, several authors posit that the cognitive component is an antecedent to the affective component of country image (see for

example, Elliot et al., 2013; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). This view is supported by Brijs et al. (2011) who identified a sequential pattern within the country image construct that follows the cognitions-affects-conations/behaviour sequence.

A hierarchy of effects sequence, which assumes that "a fixed sequence of steps occurs en route to an attitude" and places emphasis on "the interrelationships among knowing, feeling and doing" (Solomon, 2006, p. 237), provides a framework on how the three components are interrelated. The sequence cognitions-affects-conations, or the standard learning hierarchy (Solomon, 2006), is the most frequently used hierarchy in the area of consumer behaviour(De Pelsmacker, Geuens, & Van den Bergh, 2007). The standard learning hierarchy is aligned with the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) which when applied to the notion of a country assumes that consumers first form beliefs about the country by building up information regarding relevant characteristics. Consumers might use the country's political circumstances or culture to form their beliefs about the country. Based on the knowledge acquired, the consumers then develop feelings about that country. Finally, consumers become involved in behavioural consequences activities, such as visiting the country or buying products from that country. The hierarchy is presented graphically in the figure below.

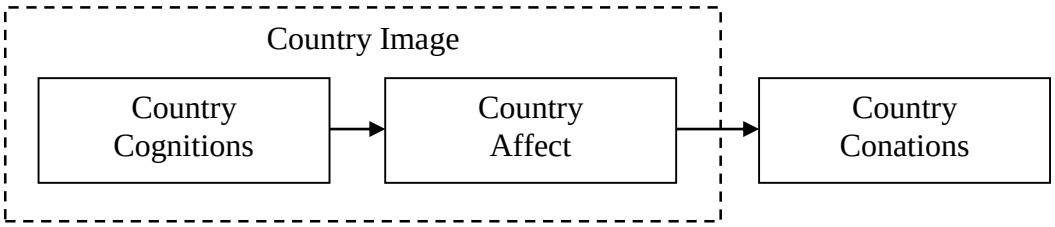

Figure 2-2: The Standard Learning Hierarchy for Country Image

Source: Solomon (2006)

In the standard learning hierarchy, consumers are assumed to be highly involved in making their decisions. Typically, they actively seek out information, evaluate several alternatives and at the end make thoughtful consumption decisions

(Lastovicka & Gardner, 1978; Solomon, 2006). The standard learning hierarchy is viewed as the most frequent way that consumers process country image information because: (1) most attitudes are constructed in that way (De Pelsmacker et al., 2007; Solomon, 2006); and (2) most of the behavioural consequences (country visits, purchase of products etc.) are considered to be high involvement decisions (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

Two other types of hierarchy of effects models have been proposed in the literature namely the low involvement hierarchy and the experiential hierarchy (Lastovicka & Gardner, 1978; Ray et al., 1973; Solomon, 2006). The low involvement hierarchy follows the sequence cognitions-conations-affect. In this hierarchy, consumers do not have a strong affect toward an object or product but act based on their cognitions. Thereafter, they form feelings following their actual behaviour (Lastovicka & Gardner, 1978; Ray et al., 1973; Solomon, 2006). For example, in the case of a weekend trip to a new country destination, potential visitors may have limited knowledge about or have no clear evaluations toward, the country but form their feelings about the country *after* their actual visit. The low involvement hierarchy is presented in Figure 2-3.

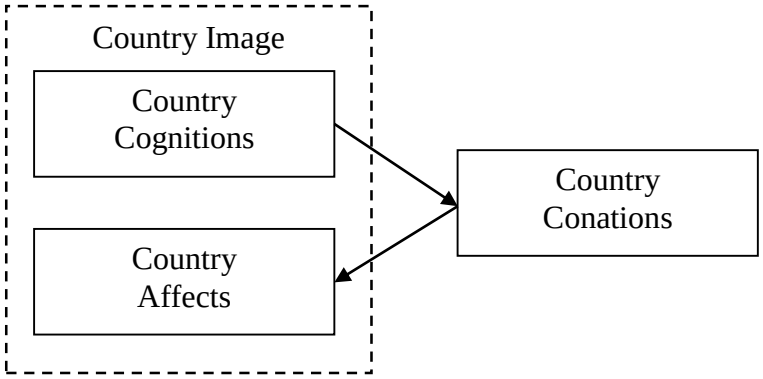

Figure 2-3: The Low Involvement Hierarchy for Country Image

Source: Solomon (2006)

The last hierarchy of effects model is the experiential hierarchy. This hierarchy is based on hedonic consumption where consumers are assumed to act purely based on their feelings (Solomon, 2006). For instance, a person might like Korean drama simply because they like romantic stories. However, a different association

or belief may emerge after viewing a whole series of the drama. For example, the person may think that Korea has beautiful landscapes and romantic cities. The experiential hierarchy is presented in Figure 2-4.

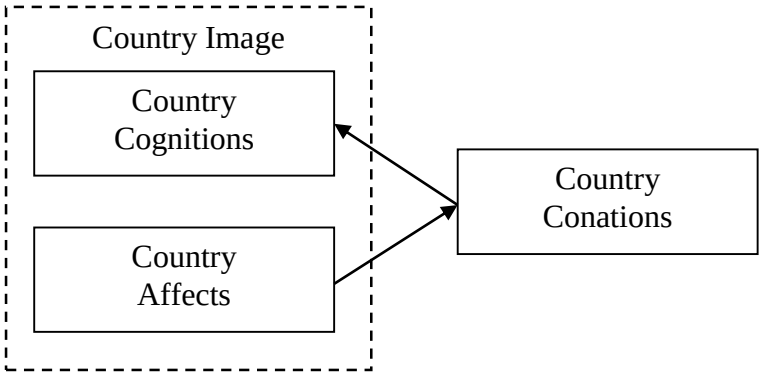

Figure 2-4: The Experiential Hierarchy

Source: Solomon (2006)

Previous studies show that country image is mostly constructed analogous to the standard learning hierarchy and behavioural consequences are considered to be associated with high involvement (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

2.2.3 Country Image Measurement Issues

Having discussed the alternative theoretical models of country image information processing, the next step is to explore how to operationalise the country image construct. Following the two-component view of attitudes (e.g. Zajonc, 2000), the country image construct comprises only a cognitive component and an affective component. The conative component represents an outcome of the other two components. Therefore, it is a separate construct (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

2.2.3.1 Country Cognitions

Regarding the operationalisation of country cognitions, country belief has been measured based on a number of dimensions mentioned in the literature such as: a people dimension and a country dimension (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). The people dimension consists of factors such as people competence, creativity, standards of living, training and labour (e.g., Pameswaran and Yaprak, 1987; Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994; Papadopoulos et al., 2000; Heslop et al., 2004). The country dimension, on the other hand, is typically based on factors such as the economy (e.g., Wang and Lamb 1980, 1983; Martin and Eroglu, 1993), politics (e.g., Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Knight et al., 2003), culture (e.g., Wang and Lamb, 1983; Allred et al., 1999; Brijs, 2006), technology (e.g., Desborde, 1990; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993), landscape and climate (e.g., Allred et al., 1999; Verlegh, 2001; Ittersum et al., 2003;).

A number of researchers (Javalgi, Thomas, & Rao, 1992; Um & Crompton, 1990; Van Ittersum, Candel, & Meulenberg, 2003; Verlegh, 2001) proposed different cognitive factors for different study contexts. For example, in a study evaluating future visits to a country, cognitive factors such as climate and landscape may be important antecedents for country visits. However, the same factors may not be relevant when the study context is, for example, evaluating industrial products from that country. Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) noted that this context-specificity might be the reason why researchers do not find consistent effects of country beliefs on different outcome variables.

Regarding the measurement of country cognition, Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003) suggest that country cognitions can be modelled as either reflective or formative factors. In a reflective model, country cognition is manifested by its dimensions. In other words, country cognition influences the dimensions. In contrast, in the formative model, instead of influencing the dimensions, country belief is influenced *by* its dimensions. In this case, country cognition "is formed through the summation of reactions to multiple experiences with a country or its people" (Lu & Heslop, 2008, p. 298). While most studies on

this topic have conceptualised country cognitions as reflective factors (dimensions), the studies of Laroche et al. (2005) and Lala, Allred and Chakraborty (2009) are the only studies that have formulated country cognitions as formative factors.

Edwards (2001), however, suggested that the decision as to whether to adopt a reflective or formative model to measure a construct should be based on the objectives of the study. They suggested that if the main objective, for example, is to identify the major factors that make up a construct such as country cognition, a formative model is considered to be appropriate. On the other hand, if the emphasis of the study is to identify the major antecedents of country belief, a reflective model with interrelated dimensions is more suitable.

2.2.3.2 Country Affects

The inclusion of country emotion in the measurement of country image has been suggested by a number of scholars (Laroche et al., 2005; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993). However, several items used to measure the affective component of country image do not evoke respondents' emotions toward the country (Papadopoulos et al., 2000; Yaprak & Parameswaran, 1986). Other items clearly represent cognitive beliefs rather than emotions toward the country (see for example Papadopoulos et al., 1990; Laroche et al., 2005). As emotions can be positive or negative (Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999; Casciaro, Carley, & Krackhardt, 1999; Clore, Ortony, & Foss, 1987). Consequently, emotions about a country have been mainly measured with reference to positive and negative country affects (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Based on their research on country image, Verlegh (2001) and Brijs et al. (2011) claimed that country affect consists of positive and negative emotions. Although various emotion scales have been developed in the consumer behaviour and psychology disciplines (see for example, Holbrook & Westwood, 1989; Izard, 1977; Plutchik, 1980), Richins (1997) noted that those scales could not be directly adopted to measure country emotions as they contain items that might not be relevant or that do not fully capture consumers' affects towards a country.

Nevertheless, when taking Cacioppo and Gardner's (1999) review on the diversity of emotion constructs into consideration, it is questionable whether the affective component of CoI only consists of positive and negative affects. In this respect, several authors proposed to include arousal as one of the components of emotions. Moore and Isen (1990), for example, maintained that affect is often seen as including a complex dimension of arousal. In addition, Bagozzi et al, (1999, p. 193) contend that "arousal is the key part of emotional functions in the brain that underlies much of its automaticity." Moreover, arousal is included in Russell's (1980, p. 1163) frequently adopted circumplex model, in which "the horizontal (east-west) dimension in this spatial metaphor is the pleasure-displeasure dimension (i.e. positive versus negative affect) and the vertical (north-south) dimension is arousal-sleep (i.e. arousal versus non-arousal)." Thus, the insertion of arousal items is advisable to fully capture the emotions component of country image.

2.3 Section Summary

Key findings of the literature review on CoO indicate that early conceptualisations of CoO have evolved into more complex and dynamic processes of country image which consist of cognitive image and affective image. A hierarchy of effects sequence provides a framework on how the two components and behaviour consequence are interrelated. While country cognition has been measured based on the people dimension and the country dimension, country affect was mostly measured by a circumplex model. The chapter now proceed with a review of the literature on destination image.

2.4 Destination Image

Investigations on destination image have assumed that a destination image has both direct and indirect effects on consumers' travel related decision-making (Chon, 1990; Weaver & Oppermann, 2000). They have also assumed that the comparison between consumers' initial subjective image of a destination and their objective reality based on their experience in the destination will determine whether they are satisfied/dissatisfied with the visit to the destination (Chon,

1990). This phenomenon is premised on the understanding that a trip to a destination is regarded as a high involvement purchase in which a great amount of time and money is spent prior to a trip to a destination (Goodrich, 1978; Weaver & Oppermann, 2000).

Two decades ago, Echtner and Richie (1993) extensively reviewed a number of destination image studies and concluded that these pioneering studies in the field present a number of ambiguous definitions. The main focus of the ambiguity is the meaning of the term 'image'. This was pointed out by Pearce (1988), who stated that "image is one of those terms that won't go away... a term with vague and shifting meanings." Similarly, Jenkins (1999) posited that *image* has been the subject of a wide range of studies with different approaches, in different contexts and disciplines, at different times. Regarding the definition of destination image, Gallarza et al. (2002) noted that a consensus has not been reached on how to define destination image.

With this background, it is not surprising to see different researchers proposing different definitions of destination image (see Table 2-1). Crompton (1979, p. 18) provides one of the most cited definitions of destination image: "the sum of belief, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination", whereas Gartner's (1986) definition, also well cited, is "one's perception of attributes or activities available at a destination".

Table 2-1: Destination Image: Definitions in the Literature

Author	Definition
Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977)	An expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific place
Crompton (1979)	Sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination
Phelps (1986)	Perceptions or impressions of a place
Gartner (1986)	One's perceptions of attributes or activities available at a destination
Gartner and Hunt (1987)	Impressions that a person holds about a state in which they do not reside
Moutinho (1987)	An individual's attitude toward the destination attributes based on their knowledge and feelings
Calanton et al. (1989)	Perceptions of potential tourist destinations
Chon (1990)	Results of the interactions between a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination
Fakeye and Crompton (1991)	The mental construct developed by a potential tourist on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions
Milman and Pizam (1995)	Visual or mental impression of a place, a product, or an experience held by the general public
MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997)	A composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression
Baloglu and McCleary (1999)	An individual's mental representation of knowledge, feeling and global impressions about a destination
Coshall (2000)	The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations
Tapachai and Waryszak (2000)	Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefit or consumption values
Bigne et al. (2001)	The subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist
Kim & Richardson (2003)	Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations and feelings accumulated towards a place over time
Tasci et al. (2007)	An interactive system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, visualisations and intentions toward a destination

When the two definitions were evaluated based on the consumer involvement theory (Poiesz, 1989), it became apparent that these two definitions follow two different approaches to consumer involvement theory (Tasci et al. 2007). The high involvement theory assumes that consumers are rational, able to make thoughtful decisions by evaluating objects attribute by attribute in a sequential manner. This is consistent with Gartner's (1986) definition in which he assumes that consumers will evaluate a destination based on attributes and activities each time.

On the other hand, the low involvement theory assumes that instead of evaluating the attributes each and every time, the consumer simplifies their evaluation process by using different criteria for different situations. This is the fundamental assumption of Crompton's (1979) definition: the sum of beliefs and impressions, a total rather than its parts (Tasci et al, 2007). Thus, in processing image information, some destination image researchers assume that some consumers take effortful processing and some other assume limited processing.

In addition, Tasci et al. (2007) maintained that many of the proposed definitions are not comprehensive and do not fully capture the complexity of destination image. Instead, they only define a certain aspect of destination image. Gartner's (1986) definition, for instance, has been seen as focusing on the attributes of the destination that are frequently measured in many destination image studies. This means that this definition focusing, therefore, on the cognitive component of attitude only. In contrast, Baloglu and McCleary's (1999) definition is considered to capture the nature of the destination image construct comprehensively, as it also covers the affective element of the construct.

Destination image is a complex concept described as impressions, ideas, belief, feelings, identity or perceptions and it is an important construct for tourism research for two key reasons. First, destination image is considered to be an antecedent of decision-making behaviour for potential tourists (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Bigne et al. 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007).Second, it relates to the level of satisfaction with the destination experience (Chon, 1990). Mayo (1975), maintained that while tourists may have limited knowledge about destinations they have never visited, they have secondary images about several alternative

destinations. These secondary images lead them to choose a destination that they perceive will provide optimum satisfaction. Indeed, Bornhorst et al (2010) asserted that the stakeholders of a destination must understand that the real battle is for space in the minds of consumers, as the image perceived by the prospective tourists will affect their behaviour and attitudes towards the destination (Ahmed et al, 2006). Furthermore, with an effective destination positioning strategy, destinations can be favourably differentiated from their competitors in the mind of potential visitors (Pike & Ryan, 2004).

The consequences of a positive destination image on behavioural intentions have been investigated in several studies (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Gartner, 1993; Nadeau et al., 2008). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) suggest that destination image is an integral part of a traveller's decision-making process, influencing consequent travel behaviour, potential travel intentions and consumption patterns. Hence, tourist perceptions of destinations provide some signs indicative of destination choice. Chen and Kerstetter (1999) suggest that destinations with more positive images tend to be prioritised in the decision-making process. Further, Milman and Pizam (1995) posit that tourists who have a positive image toward a destination are inclined to revisit a destination.

2.4.1 Destination Image Formation

How destination image is formed is important. It is, however, not the product of a single moment in time. Several destination image scholars (Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005) suggest that the study of destination image, as initiated from the work of Gunn (1972), is comprised of both an organic image and an induced image. Organic image is formed based on information from non-touristic, non-commercial sources such as television, radio, books on history or geography, newspapers, magazines, or by the opinions of family or friends. In contrast, induced image is shaped by commercial sources of information such as travel guidebooks and brochures as part of the destination's marketing efforts (Gunn, 1972, 1988).

Other authors proposed similar interpretations of destination image. Mansfeld (1992), for example, proposed an informal image (akin to Gunn's organic image) that is derived independent of the destination's marketing efforts and the formal image (akin to Gunn's induced image) built from the destination's promotional activities. Phelps (1986) made a distinction between primary image as the label for the image formed after visiting the destination and secondary image as the image built before visiting the destination. A typology of destination image based on Phelps (1986), Gunn (1988) and Mansfeld (1992) was integrated by Lopes (2011) and is presented in Table 2-2.

Table 2-2: Destination Image Typology

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Authors</td><td colspan="2">Pre-destination visit</td><td>Post-destination visit</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Secondary image</td><td>Primary image</td></tr>
<tr><td>Organic/Informal</td><td>Induced/Formal</td><td rowspan="2">The perceived image of the destination</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Phelps (1986)
Gunn (1988)
Mansfeld (1992)</td><td>Based on non-commercial sources of information</td><td>Based on persuasive commercial messages</td></tr>
<tr><td>Independent of the destination operator</td><td>Promotions by the destination operator</td><td>The recall of the experience</td></tr>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Lopes (2011)

Based on this typology, Fakeye and Crompton (1991) developed a path model that exemplifies the way potential tourists search for information prior to visiting a destination. They suggest that potential tourists have a secondary organic image of a set of prospective destinations. Once the desire to take a holiday emerges and is driven by motivations, potential tourists actively engage in an information seeking process. Alternative destinations are evaluated against information from family or friends and their personal organic and commercial induced image. Reynolds (1965, p. 69) described this evaluation process as the time when "impressions are selected, elaborated, embellished and ordered by the individual." This process results in improved images of the prospective destination. Based on these improved images, the potential travellers then select a destination that they believe will provide them with the most desired benefits. Then, upon visiting the selected

destination, a primary image will be formed that, in turn, will influence the future evaluation and selection process.

The aforementioned model implies that the images held by non-visitors, potential visitors and returning visitors will differ. Several studies support this notion by noting that images perceived by returning visitors tend to be more realistic and differentiated in their views (Awaritefe, 2004; Phillips & Jang, 2010). Kim et al. (2009) document tourists' image perceptions of a destination from pre-departure up to return to the place of origin using the same sample. Unlike other studies where the data were collected at the destination (see for example, Kim & Morrsion, 2005; San Martin & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2008), before arrival (Lin et al. 2007), or after departure (Castro et al. 2007), Kim et al. (2009) measured the image of Australia as a tourist destination as perceived by Korean tourists on three separate occasions, before, during and after the tours. The findings indicate that their image of Australia as a destination varied over time and the affective component of their image was more unstable than the cognitive component. Kim et al. (2009) explained that the affective images were more sensitive to emotional conditions or situations during the tour whereas cognitive images tended to be more stable because cognitive images are formed based on the knowledge and information related to a destination that was acquired earlier.

Overall, the studies on destination image formation suggest three key points. First, while the majority of consumer product images are based on largely commercial information, destination image can be generated from a wider spectrum of information sources (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). For example, it has been acknowledged that there is a relationship between a destination image and its country image (Kotler, 1987). This indicates that general past and current information concerning historical, political, economic, sports, social affairs and natural or man-made disasters are incorporated into destination image (Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Gartner & Shen, 1992; Mansfeld, 1999; Milo & Yoder, 1991; Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, & Tarlow, 1999; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002). In commenting on the formation of biased destination images, Mansfeld (1999) explains that people rely on the images reflected in the media

because many consumers are reluctant to conduct an extensive information search to find out the objective reality.

Second, image formation is a constant modification process. A potential tourist can have a personal organic image of a destination that they have not visited. Induced image will improve the image of the destination and a visit to the destination will transform the improved secondary image into a more realistic primary image, which may be the basis for future visits.

Third, stimulus and personal factors play important roles in the image formation process (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martin, 2004). According to Hawkins, Best and Coney (2003) perception formation involves exposure, attention and interpretation activities. These activities depend on the stimulus characteristics and the individual's internal factors. In the tourism context, potential tourists' perceptions of a destination are generally formed based on stimuli processing, which may also be influenced by the internal factors relevant to the potential tourists.

2.4.2 Destination Image Structure

Since the early work of Boulding (1956) and Martineau (1958), a number of scholars have argued that human behaviour is based on visual perception rather than objective reality. Mayo (1973) concluded that destination image is a multidimensional construct which can significantly affect travel experiences and destination choice. However, most empirical studies have analysed only the cognitive component of destination image with the use of a structural technique or a multi-attribute method (Chon, 1991; Echtner &Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner & Shen, 1992). Cognitive image has most often been measured by factors such as the natural environment, cultural heritage, tourist infrastructures or atmosphere.

There has, however, been a growing trend to include cognitive and affective components in the measurement of destination image (Baloglu, 2001; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Wang & Hsu, 2010). Baloglu and McCleary (1999)

suggested that destination image is an evaluative attitudinal judgment that consists of both cognitive and affective elements. Employing both components may explain the image a tourist has of a destination in a better way since the destination image is not entirely determined by its physical attributes (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997).

Cognition and affect are mental responses to stimuli in the environment, which form a dynamically interactive and "reciprocal system" (Peter and Olson, 1999, p. 23). When clarifying cognitive and affective components of attitudes Quester et al. (2011) defined the cognitive component as a consumer's beliefs and knowledge about an object. They further explained that consumers may have a number of beliefs about an object and each of these beliefs (whether they are true or not) reflects knowledge about the attributes of the object. Most beliefs about attributes are evaluative and the evaluation can be objective or subjective. The more favourable the cognitive evaluations, the more positive each belief is.

The affective component of attitudes, on the other hand, is defined as a consumer's feelings or emotional reaction to an object. A consumer saying, for example, "The beach is beautiful", is communicating the results of their affective evaluation of a destination. In addition, knowledge about an object is mostly an associated affective evaluation and the feeling or emotion attached to a given belief depends on the consumer and the situation. Thus, image measurement involves personal beliefs, emotional evaluations and personal context.

2.4.3 The Measurement of Destination Image

A number of destination image researchers have relied on the use of an attribute-based approach to capture the cognitive component of destination image (Gallarza et al. 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). Beerli and Martin (2004, p. 658), however, asserted that "there is a lack of homogeneity with respect to the attributes which define an individual's perceptions" of a destination. This statement is supported by Tasci et al. (2007) in their extensive review of the literature on this topic. They identified that cognitive image has been measured using a number of unique attributes ranging in numbers from 12 and 48. In

addition, Walmsley and Young (1998) noted that the affective component of images appears to have been overlooked. This is critical because "…it cannot be assumed that destination attributes on their own and in themselves are motivationally adequate to explain why individuals or groups gravitate towards one place and not to another" (Dann, 1996, p. 42).

To remedy this deficiency in the way in which destination image is measured, some researchers have studied both cognition and affect toward environments and destinations (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Lin et al., 2007; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Pike & Ryan, 2004). In particular, Russell and Pratt's (1980) circumplex model based on four semantic differential scales: pleasant - unpleasant, relaxing - distressing, arousing - sleepy and exciting - gloomy, has been used to measure affective images of destinations (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu &McCleary, 1999; Pike& Ryan, 2004; Lin et al.2007; Son and Pearce, 2005). This approach, however, is thought fail to capture the holistic and unique characteristics of destination image as proposed by Echtner and Ritchie (1991).

Images of destinations can range from those based on "common" functional and psychological traits to those based on more distinctive or even unique features, events, feelings or auras (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991). Echtner and Ritchie (1993) used open-ended questions and a combination of structured and unstructured interviews in order to capture the holistic components and more distinctive or unique features of the destination image. They asserted that the open-ended image questions provide responses that described the more holistic functional and psychological characteristics of the destination image and allowed the unique images of destinations to be elicited by respondents.

Echtner and Ritchie (1993, p. 12) claimed that their approach "can be used to compare and contrast images of most, if not all, tourist destinations". Govers (2003), however, asserted that since activities in the destinations can be classified into many different categories such as city trips, cultural or historical tours, wilderness trails, active holidays, winter sports and hiking trails, each category has its own long list of common and unique image characteristics. Morgan (1999),

for instance, developed a rating system for the beach category, which consists of 49 items. Gallarza et al. (2002) maintained that the categorisation of destination is usually set by the researcher, but consumers' perceptions of what type of destination is being considered may not be so clear. Furthermore, Gallarza et al. (2002) asserted that many studies showed that unstructured methods produce similar results as structured methods. While many researchers suggest to use unstructured methods, they have not been found to be any more effective than structured methods (Gallarza et al., 2002).

2.4.4 Differences and Relationships between Country Image and Destination Image

While country image and destination image have both been conceptualised on cognitive and affective components of attitudes, the two concepts are distinct from each other (Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005). The fundamental distinction between country image and destination image is that country image represents a mixture of various generic associations, independent of a particular context (Mossberg & Kleppe, 2005), while destination image refers to the tourist's perspective of a destination and may even indicate a specific area, a city, a region or a country (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Nadeau et al., 2008).

Furthermore, the country image formation process may be different from that of the destination image. Country image is influenced by a variety of information sources accumulated over time. Thus, historical and present events, the degree of economic development, political stability, the culture and traditions and the level of industrialisation, may lead to country image as a stereotyped evaluation (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). However, in the destination image formation process, different kinds of information may be relevant, such as videos and photographs focussed on the destination and created as part of tourism or institutional promotional activities. These might lead to a more personal impression of the destination (Gallarza et al., 2002).

Despite the differences between the two concepts, country image and destination image are thought to be related. As a product of the country, the tourism

destination may be affected by the image of that country (Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010). Indeed, the literature confirms that the image of a country infers beliefs and opinions and generates attitudes toward the market offerings of that country (Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Kleppe, Iversen, & Stensaker, 2002; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). This view has been researched empirically: Zhou, Murray and Zhang (2002) tested the relationship between country image and foreign hotel chains in China. They presented research participants with a similar format of hotel advertisements from different countries: Hong Kong, Japan and the United States. They found that country stereotyping has significant effects on the perceptions about a hotel's service quality. The link between country image and destination image has also been explored in a survey of visitors to Nepal by Nadeau et al. (2008). They tested a model in which country image is expected to indirectly influence tourist behavioural intentions through the beliefs about the destination and the affects toward the destination. They found that country image influenced respondents' evaluations of Nepal as a tourist destination.

2.5 Section Summary

While there remain some concerns about the clarity of the destination image construct, its conceptualisation and structure can be more readily understood through the adoption of attitude theory. Destination image researchers conclude that the image of a destination influences travel related decision-making. It has also been suggested that destination image formation is influenced by several personal factors and the general image of the country. However, the link between personal values, country image and destination image has not yet been empirically tested. Thus, the need to examine these relationships is apparent. The next section reviews the notion of personal values with a view to including personal values in a framework to provide a more complete understanding of the role of personal values significance in tourism.

2.6 Personal Values

The underlying foundation of much of the personal values related research across many disciplines is based on the seminal work of Milton Rokeach (1968; 1973). Most authors seem to agree that the major elements of values definitions are a belief, enduring and of an abstract nature (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1994; Shrum, McCarty, & Loeffler, 1990). Having a rich history of empirical investigations, the study of human values has been cited as far back as 1931 when Allport and Vernon published *A Study of Values* (Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey, 1960). While the study of values arose in the fields of psychology, anthropology and sociology, it was not until the 1970s that personal values emerged in the marketing literature (Chan & Rossiter, 1998). Rokeach (1973, 1979) is credited for conceptualising, defining and investigating values on an individual basis. Rokeach (1979, p. 5) specifically defines a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence."

Braithwaite and Law (1985, p. 252) state that values "are usually based on what genuinely matters most to us as people and are things that are of intrinsic worth to us". Values are about who we are and what is important to us (Peterson, 2006) and shape the core of personal identity (Hitlin, 2003). Values "reflect an essential, inalienable aspect of what it means to be human" (Bain, Kashima, & Haslam, 2006, p. 355), function as principles that direct thought and action (Feather, 2002; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) and provide justifications for action selection and feeling (Kristiansen & Zanna, 1994).

The role of values in human behaviour can be seen at two different levels: the social and the individual levels. At the social level, the values that a person holds are thought to bind and coordinate their relationship with others (Spates, 1983). Tetlock (1986) maintained that acknowledging other's values can help reduce group conflict by allowing a sense of predictability. For example, people gain more trust when they act in ways that support others' values (Devos, Spini, & Schwartz, 2002). Values also provide criterion to determine "which beliefs,

attitudes and actions of others are worth challenging, protesting, arguing about, or worth trying to influence or change" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 13).

At the individual level, values perform several roles. "Values are multifaceted standards that guide conduct in a variety of ways. They lead us to take particular positions on social issues and they predispose us to favour one ideology over others" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 13). Long and Shiffman (2000, p. 216) state that "values serve to guide actions, attitudes, judgments and comparisons across specific objects and situations." Following one's personal values provides a sense of consistency in one's life and to some extent defines a person (Hayes & Pierson, 2005). Values guide life towards the realisation and achievement of personal goals (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

According to Kahle's (1983) social adaptation theory, values are a type of social cognition that functions to promote adaptation to one's environment. Further Kahle (1983) argued that values are like attitudes in that both are adaptation abstractions that emerge continuously from the assimilation, accommodation, organisation and integration of environmental information. They encourage interchanges with the environment which facilitate the continuation of an optimum function.

Values are considered to be organised and stable over time. Each person has a highly organised belief-attitudes-value system which guides behaviour (Rokeach, 1973; 1979). While values represent abstract ideals, positive or negative, independent of any context, attitudes are thought to be connected to specific objects and situations (Rokeach, 1973). Further, Rokeach (1973) states that values are more stable over time than attitudes because they are deeply rooted in a person's cognitive system. He noted that:

> Once a value is internalized it becomes, unconsciously, a standard or criterion for guiding action, for developing and maintaining attitudes toward relevant objects and situations, for justifying one's own and others' actions and attitudes, for morally judging self and others and for comparing self with others(Rokeach, 1968, p. 550).

Consequently, values are thought to serve as predictors of a person's behaviour.

Although Rokeach maintained that values are an antecedent to attitudes, he noted that they are two distinct constructs. The distinctions are on several points: (1) a value refers to a single belief of a certain thing whereas an attitude refers to a group of several beliefs related to a specific object or situation; (2) a value prevails over these objects or situations whereas an attitude is tied to specified objects or situations; (3) A value represents an internal standard whereas an attitude does not; (4) people possess a limited number of values and a greater number of attitudes; (5) values serve as determinants of attitudes and behaviour because they are deeply rooted within one's cognitive system; (6) a value has a more direct link to motivation than an attitude, due to its dynamism; and (7) the content of a value may directly relate to ego defence, knowledge, adjustive and self-actualizing functions whereas the content of an attitude may be related inferentially (Rokeach, 1973).

Regarding the direction of influence, it is generally argued that values are distal determinants of behaviour that can only affect behaviour through a number of less abstract determinants like attitudes and beliefs (Goldsmith, Frieden, & Henderson, 1997; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Maio & Olson, 1995; Shim & Eastlick, 1998; Thøgersen & Grunert-Beckmann, 1997). In the case of the current research, the way potential tourists perceive a country generally and as a prospective destination specifically, is expected to mediate the relationships between personal values' and behaviour.

2.6.1 The Measurement of Personal Values

Four value scales that dominate the social science literature are Rokeach's Value Survey (RVS); the Value and Lifestyles Survey (VALS); Schwartz's Value Survey (SVS); and the List of Values (LOV). In this section, each of these will be discussed.

2.6.1.1 Rokeach's Value Survey

Rokeach's (1973) theory and measurement of values werebased on five assumptions: (1) the total number of values that a person possesses is relatively small; (2) all people everywhere possess the same values, but in differing degrees;

(3) values are organised into value systems; (4) the antecedents of human values can be traced to culture, society and its institutions and personality; and (5) the consequences of human values will be manifested in virtually all phenomena that social scientists might consider worth investigating and understanding.

Rokeach (1973) conceptualised values as two groups of beliefs in hierarchical order. The first group was termed "instrumental values" and referred to values such as politeness, honesty and obedience. The second group referred to "terminal values" that reflect desired end states, such as freedom, equality, peace and salvation. From these two sets of the RVS emerged as an instrument to measure values. The RVS is presented in Table 2-3.

Table 2-3: The Rokeach Value Survey

Instrumental values	No	Terminal values
Ambitious (hard-working aspiring)	1	A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
Broad-minded (open-minded)	2	A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
Capable (competent, effective)	3	A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
Cheerful (light-hearted joyful)	4	A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)
Clean (neat, tidy)	5	Cheerful (light-hearted, joyful)
Courageous (standing up for the welfare of others)	6	An exciting life (a stimulating life, active life)
Forgiving (willing to pardon)	7	Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
Helpful (working for the welfare of others)	8	Family security (taking care of loved ones)
Honest (sincere, truthful)	9	Freedom (independence, free choice)
Imaginative (daring, creative)	10	Happiness (contentedness)
Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	11	Inner harmony (free of war and conflict)
Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)	12	Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
Logical (consistent, rational)	13	National security (protection from attack)
Loving (affectionate, tender)	14	Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
Obedient (dutiful, respectful)	15	Salvation (saved, eternal life)
Polite (courteous, well-mannered)	16	Self-respect (self-esteem)
Responsible (dependable, reliable)	17	Social recognition (respect, admiration)
Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)	18	True friendship (close companionship)

When applying the RVS to measure values, each group of 18 values items is rank-ordered in terms of their importance as guiding principles in the respondent's lives. The purpose of the procedure is to encourage the respondents to identify priorities among competing values.

Some of the major criticisms of Rokeach's survey instrument centre around the difficulty concerned with ranking so many items, the time required to complete the task, the impossibility of ties and the lack of relevance of some of the values to everyday life at that time (Clawson & Vinson, 1978; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994). In terms of its application to consumer behaviour, Beatty et al (1985) argued that not all values included in RVS are relevant to all consumers. Moreover Madrigal and Kahle (1994, p. 84) noted that "(the RVS) is too general and includes some values that have too little to do with consumption".

2.6.1.2 Schwartz's Value Survey

Schwartz (1994) questioned Rokeach's distinction between terminal and instrumental values and noted that the RVS provided little explanation regarding the structure of relationships among different types of values. Schwartz (1994) also questioned whether all values included in RVS are exhaustive of all values relevant in daily life and whether each value has relationships with other constructs such as attitudes and behaviours. These concerns about the RVS prompted Schwartz to develop the SVS.

SVS is based on 56 single values which can be grouped into ten dimensions namely: self-direction; universalism; benevolence; conformity; tradition; security; power; achievement; hedonism; and stimulation (see Table 2-4). These 10 value dimensions are considered by Schwartz to represent three universal requirements of human existence: the needs of biological organisms; the need for social interactions; and the need for group survival and welfare (Schwartz, 1992).

Table 2-4: Schwartz's Values and Values Dimensions

Value Dimension	Values
Power	Social power, authority, wealth, preserving my public image, social recognition
Achievement	Successful, capable, ambitious, influential, intelligent
Hedonism	Pleasure, enjoying life
Stimulation	Daring, a varied life, an exciting life
Self-direction	Curious, creativity, freedom, choosing own goals, independent, self-respect
Universalism	Protecting the environment, unity with nature, a world of beauty, broad-minded, social justice, wisdom, equality, a world at peace, inner harmony
Benevolence	Helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, responsible, a spiritual life, true friendship, mature love, meaning in life
Tradition	Accepting my portion in life, devout, humble, respect for tradition, moderate, detachment
Conformity	Obedient, honouring of parents and elders, politeness, self-discipline
Security	Clean, national security, reciprocation of favours, social orders, family security, sense of belonging, healthy

Source: Schwartz (1992, Table IV, p. 28)

Lawson et al. (1996, p. 87) stated that "there are high levels of consistency in Schwartz's results, which suggest we may be able to identify a number of core values with a common structure that can be measured across very different cultures". Although SVS may offer a more comprehensive and theoretically sound alternative to RVS, the results of a number of cross-cultural studies have questioned the universal meaning of some values items (Struch, Schwartz, & Van Der Kloot, 2002). Of the 56 value items, 11 do not have cross-culturally stable meanings. These items are: inner harmony, a spiritual life; sense of belonging; meaning in life; self-respect; mature love; detachment; social recognition; true friendship; healthy and intelligent. Furthermore, like the RVS, the SVS is criticised for its extensive number of values items and the time associated with responding to the questionnaire (Struch et al., 2002).

2.6.1.3 List of Values

LOV was initiated by Veroff, Douvan and Kulka (1981) and further developed by Kahle (1983) to address the limitations of the RVS. The LOV was developed

principally from Feather's (1975) theoretical base of values, Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1987) and Rokeach's 18 terminal values (1973). The LOV is comprised of nine personal values scales, namely self-fulfilment; self-respect; sense of accomplishment; being well respected; security; sense of belonging; warm relationships with others; fun and enjoyment in life; and excitement.

Previous studies utilising the LOV have discovered that the nine items fall into three value domains: internal, external and fun and enjoyment (Batra, Homer, & Kahle, 2001; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986; Kahle & Kennedy, 1989). Internally-oriented people (those who value self-fulfilment, self-respect and accomplishment) believe that they can control value fulfilment. In contrast, externally-oriented people (those who value being well respected, security, sense of belonging and warm relationships with others) emphasise fulfilment beyond the control of the individual person. The fun and enjoyment values domain (excitement, fun and enjoyment) imply that the person holds elements of both internal and external values because they can experience fun either through interaction with other people or by themselves.

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) agreed that the LOV items may be better represented at a more abstract level by value domains that reflect either an internal or external locus of control. Chan and Rossiter (1998) believed that consumers who are primarily influenced by internally-oriented values tend to be more individualistic, while those who are primarily influenced by externally-oriented values are more concerned with their social group and its reception.

Research using LOV has confirmed that the scale has better reliability and validity compared with the RVSand also offers greater parsimony (Beatty et al. 1985). It has also been found that the LOV offers advantages in terms of easier administration (Beatty, Kahle, & Homer, 1991; Kahle et al., 1986), translation and application in crosscultural studies, as well as being a less time-consuming task for respondents to complete than other measures of values (Soutar et al. 1999).In their study Kahle, Beatty and Homer (1986) compared theLOV and the VALSfor measuring personal values and life styles. They found that "LOV significantly predicts consumer behaviour trends more often than does the VALS scoring

system" (1986, p. 409). LOV's applicability in cross-cultural research is also supported by a number of studies that compare the personal values of individuals from different countries (Grunert and Scherhorn, 1990; Soutar et al.1999; Shim and Eastlick, 1998; Goldsmith et al.1993).

The LOV has been applied to various aspects of consumer behaviour, including mall shopping behaviour (Swinyard, 1998), advertising preferences (Kennedy, Best, & Kahle, 1988), gift-giving (Beatty et al., 1991), brand choice decisions(Orth & Kahle, 2008), conformity in dress (Rose, Shoham, Kahle, & Batra, 1994), older consumer behaviour (Sudbury & Simcock, 2009), perceived brand values (Limon, Kahle, & Orth, 2009) and service quality (Ladhari et al., 2011). The LOV has also been used in a number of countries, including Australia, Denmark, France, Japan, Norway, Russia, Singapore, Taiwan and the United States (Kahle, Rose, Shoham, 1999; Soutar, Grainger, Hedges, 1999).

2.6.2 Personal Values and Tourist Behaviour

Müller (1991 p. 68) notes that it is crucial to understand the role of personal values in tourist behaviour. He wrote:

> When the consumer is free to choose, personal values determine the choice of vacation destination and influence foreign travel for pleasure. These same values are reflected in the attributes by which consumers evaluate travel.

A number of studies on personal values have been conducted within the tourism context. For example, research has focussed on the relationship between personal values and tourist motivation (Kau & Lim, 2005; Thrane, 1997a; Woosnam et al., 2009). These studies showed that differences in travel motivation were found among personal values segments. One of the earliest papers to examine personal values and travel behaviour was Vinson and Munson's (1976) study. They found that segments which attached the greatest importance to the values 'an exciting life' and 'pleasure' were more likely to be interested in travel. Similarly, Pitts and Woodside (1986) applied personal values to leisure behaviour. They examined whether the leisure choice criteria of locals could be linked to a number of values.

Their findings suggested that personal values were related to variations in choice criteria and to actual behaviour.

Müller's (1991) study segmented visitors to Toronto based on the importance they attached to various city attributes. Using Kahle's (1983) List of Values (LOV), Müller (1991) found three segments with different value orientations. Segment one were those tourists who valued security, a sense of belonging and being well respected. They also appeared to enjoy a safe, familiar and friendly destination. Segment two placed the lowest priority on personal values of self-respect, warm relationships with others, a sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment, enjoyed being strangers in unfamiliar destinations. Segment three, contrary to segment two, assigned a high priority to personal values of self-respect, warm relationships with others, a sense of accomplishment and self-fulfilment and came to the destination to experience its uniqueness and learn something new by interacting with local people.

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) used a different approach to Müller (1991) and tested whether value domain based segments differed in term of importance ratings of vacation activities. Using factor analysis, they reduced down the nine LOV items to four factors and used these new value domains as the basis for segmentation. The results revealed that vacation activities were found to be significantly different among the value-domains based segments. The study also indicated that value-domains based segments were better predictors of activity preference than demographics. Madrigal and Kahle concluded that tourism destination marketers should consider tourists' personal values when segmenting markets. This concurs with Pitts and Woodside's (1986) earlier study which found that knowledge of personal values provides an indication of the motives and needs to be satisfied by a destination. Indeed, Madrigal and Kahle (1994, p. 27) stated that "It appears personal values may be an important set of variables to be considered in predicting what lures tourists to a destination."

Hede, Jago and Deery (2004) examined the relationship between personal values, satisfaction and post-consumption behavioural intentions in relation to a theatre event. The research participants were clustered based on their personal values.

Although not all statistical differences were identified between clusters in terms of their level of satisfaction, the behavioural intention measures were found to be significantly different between clusters. Recently, Mehmetoglu et al (2010) investigated the relationships between personal values and tourist behaviour. They grouped their respondents, based on their personal values, into four distinct segments. After comparing the segments, the results suggest that the segments will likely exhibit different pattern of tourism behaviour.

The studies mentioned above are based on the personal values and behaviour relationship. These studies emphasise the relationship between personal values and behavioural consequences, omitting other important variables that might mediate the personal values and behaviour relationship.

2.7 Section Summary

Personal values are important because they are thought to be drivers of how people think and behave. Although a number of researchers agreed that personal values influence behaviour, the relationship has been found to be indirect with attitudes playing a mediating role between personal values and behaviour. Most personal values studies in the tourism context have focussed on behavioural consequences, excluding the role of other variables that might be mediating the relationships. Understanding the relationship between personal values, attitudes and behaviour in the tourism context can provide an important basis for offering high quality tourism products in line with the needs and values of potentials visitors. Thus, further examination of this issue is warranted. The next section reviews the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model as a foundation to examine the relationships between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour.

2.8 Value/Attitude/Behaviour

There are two schools of thought on how values affect consumer behaviour (Jayawardhena, 2004). The first is predicated on means-end chain theory. Values are thought to function as grounds for behavioural decisions whereby consumer behaviour is viewed as a means to achieve desired end states (Carman, 1978;

Reynolds & Gutman, 1988; Williams, 1979). The second is predicated on the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model. It has been argued that values have an indirect effect on consumer behaviour mediated by attitudes. According to this model, values first influence attitudes and then specific behaviours (Kahle, 1980).

Despite attempts to establish a direct relationship between personal values and consumption behaviour, previous empirical investigations have demonstrated that the relationship is not always strong (Munson, 1984). In response to this, means-end chain researchers have consistently concluded that the relationship is best represented via an indirect connection through various mediating constructs (Goldsmith, Frieden, & Henderson, 1997; Gutman, 1997; Hofstede, Steenkamp, & Wedel, 1999; van Raaij & Verhallen, 1994). In addition to this argument for the relationship, the value/attitudes/behaviour hierarchy model appears to have enjoyed greater supports since Pitts and Woodside (1983) reported that there is a strong relationship between values and attitudes, but a weak relationship between values and behaviour.

Homer and Kahle (1988) also found support for this hierarchical relationship in the context of natural food shopping. Shim and Eastlick (1998) found that there is some evidence of a hierarchical relationship when investigating the relative importance of personal values on the attitudes and behaviour in the context of mall shopping. Brunso, Scholderer, &Grunert (2004) predicted the absence of a direct relationship between values and behaviour and that lifestyle is a mediator of the relationship. The results of their study confirmed their hypothesis. Indeed, Milfont, Duckitt, & Wagner (2010) recently tested whether environmental attitudes mediate the influence of both altruistic and self-enhancement values on ecological behaviour. The results reaffirmed the argument that attitudes mediate the relationship between personal values and behaviour.

Research on the application of this hierarchy model within the context of tourism has been limited. For this reason, Homer and Kahle (1988) suggested that this hierarchy model be verified in different situations, including tourism.

2.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of extant literature on country image, destination image and personal values. The literature shows that image is conceptualised based on attitude theory which encompasses cognitive and affective image. Thus, country image and destination image are measured based on cognitive and affective image. Studies on destination image show that its country image may affect its formation.

The literature also reveals that personal values are important because they influence behaviour. Recent studies, however, have reported that both constructs are linked indirectly through attitudinal mediating variables.

Thus, how personal values affect a multi-dimensional country image and destination image and how country image shapes destination image need to be examined. Lastly, while the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy has been studied in many areas, its application in the tourism context has been limited. Thus, further examination of this hierarchy model in the tourism context is necessary. The next chapter discusses the conceptual framework and hypotheses development of this thesis.

CHAPTER 3
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual framework adopted for this research. It consists of seven sections and presents the hypotheses to be tested. In Section 3.2 the foundation hierarchy model used in this current research is presented. Section 3.3 focusses on the relationship between cognitive and affective components of the image construct. Section 3.4 discusses the structural relationship between country image and destination image constructs. Section 3.5 concentrates on the personal values domains based on the LOV. Section 3.6 focuses on the mediating roles of country image and destination image in the values-behaviour relationship. Finally, Section 3.7 presents a summary of the chapter.

3.2 Value/Attitude/Behaviour Hierarchy Model

In Chapter 2, it was identified that personal values, attitudes and behaviour have been integrated hierarchically into the value/attitude/behaviour model. This model is an important foundation for this research. The relationship in the hierarchy model is presented in Figure 3-1.

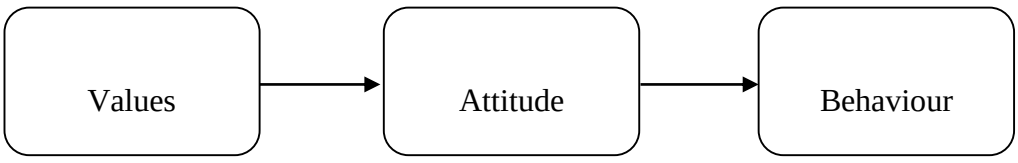

Figure 3-1: Value/Attitude/Behaviour Hierarchy Model

The literature review presented in Chapter 2 highlighted that attitude theory is an appropriate means to understand the image of a place. As both country image and destination image represent attitudes (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Brijs et al., 2011), this research extends the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model as it incorporates country image and destination image into the attitude component of

the hierarchy. In doing so, the current research seeks to recognise: (1) the effects of country image on destination image, by incorporating the cognitive and affective components of both image constructs and the extent to which both image constructs influence the probability to visit the country as a tourist destination, (2) the effects of country image and destination image as mediating variables in the personal values and behaviour relationships. The framework is presented in Figure 3-2.

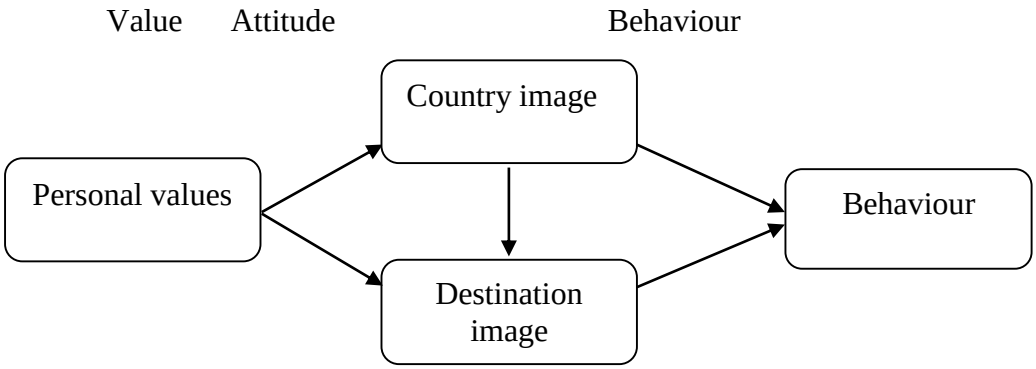

Figure 3-2: Conceptual Framework

Prior to explicating the role of country image and destination image as mediating variables in a value-behaviour relationship, the next section discusses the relationship between the cognitive and affective component of image, followed by the relationship between country image and destination image.

3.3 Cognitive-Affective Sequence

Although the literature on attitude provides alternative models on the structure and components of attitude (the three-component view, the two-component view and the hierarchy-of-effects model), this study adopts the two-component view of attitudes for both the country image and destination image constructs for two primary reasons. First, the two-component model, which is comprised of cognitive image and affective image, has been widely applied in tourism and assisted in addressing gaps in knowledge (e.g. Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hosany et al., 2006). Second, an extensive review on country image (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) suggests that conation, the third component of attitude, is an output of the other two components. Therefore,

conation is treated as a separate construct. Consequently, country image is now generally regarded to comprise cognitive country image and affective country image. Third, since cognitive and affective image "may vary independently and may independently affect intentions and behaviour" (Liska, 1984, p. 66), adopting the two-component view offers an opportunity to reveal their effects on other variables independently.

Regarding the direction of the link between cognitive and affective components of image, country image and destination image, researchers seem to have reached a consensus on this matter. Cognitive country image has been found to be an antecedent of affective country image (Brijs et al., 2011; Heslop et al., 2004). This sequence follows the standard learning hierarchy which is the most frequently used hierarchy in consumer behaviour research (De Pelsmacker et al., 2007). A similar sequence has been found in a number of studies related to the destination image construct (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Ryan & Cave, 2005; Vogt & Andereck, 2003). This direction was proffered by Russell (1980) who suggests that information is first interpreted and made meaningful by consumers followed by the formation of feelings or emotions. Figure 3-3 presents the direction of the link between the cognitive component and the affective component of country image and destination image respectively.

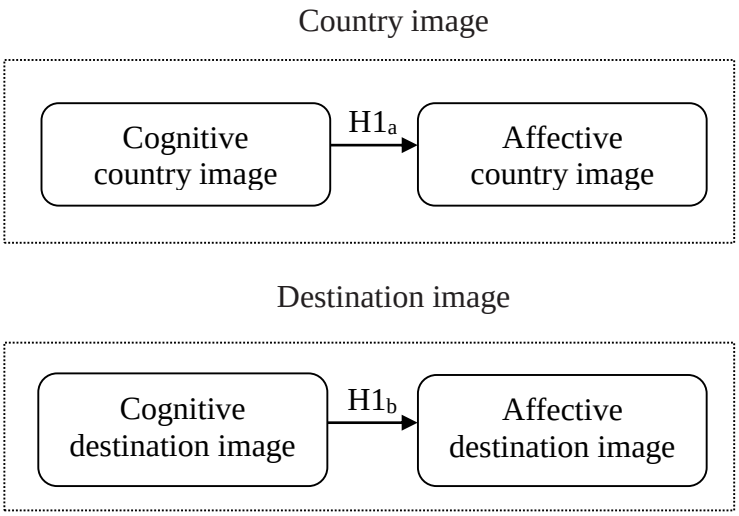

Figure 3-3: Cognitive and Affective Components Relationship

As can be seen from Figure 3-3, two hypotheses are postulated:

$H1_a$: Cognitive country image is positively related to affective country image.
$H1_b$: Cognitive destination image is positively related to affective destination image.

3.4 The Country Image and Destination Image Relationship

The effects of country image on destination image were discussed in Chapter 2. Since country image and destination image are measured by cognitive and affective components, this section discusses the structural relationships between country image and destination image. This relates to the first research objective.

The literature on country image indicates that product image may be affected by the image of the country of origin. Roth and Romeo (1992), for example, suggest that consumers are more likely to buy products from a foreign country if the image of the country matches with the important features of the product category. Similarly, Heslop et al. (2004) claim that country image has a major impact on consumers' purchase decisions. This claim supports the contention of Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994, p. 45) who state that "consumers' willingness to purchase a product is related to economic, political and cultural characteristics of the product's country of origin". In this sense, several studies suggest that as a product of its country, a country's destination image may be influenced by the image of that country (Nadeau et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2002).

In the case of destination image formation, Echtner and Ritchie (1991) assert that the information gathered from non-commercial sources relating to a range of historical, political, economic and social factors is incorporated into destination image. This assertion has been supported by several researchers who maintained that negatively formed images of a destination may be due to negative natural, social or political incidents within the country (Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Gartner & Shen, 1992; Mansfeld, 1999; Milo & Yoder, 1991; Sönmez et al., 1999; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002).

While the effects of country image on destination image have been demonstrated (see for example, Elliot et al., 2013; Nadeau et al., 2008), the way in which country image determines consumers' attitudinal dispositions toward the country as a tourist destination still needs to be explored (Brijs et al., 2011; Elliot et al., 2010).

With this information, the following hypotheses have been postulated:

$H2_a$: If a consumer uses country images to form belief (cognition) about that country as a tourist destination, the relationship of the cognitive component of country image is stronger than its affective component.
$H2_b$: If a consumer uses country images to form feeling (affection) about that country as a tourist destination, the relationship of the affective component of country image is stronger than its cognitive component.

Hypotheses $H2_a$ and $H2_b$ test the relationships between country image and destination image using a model that incorporates cognitive and affective components of both country and destination image. These hypotheses were formulated following the work of a number of scholars including Brijs et al. (2011), Shakoori et al. (2013) and Carter and Maher (2014).

H2a will be supported if the relationship between cognitive country image (CCI) and cognitive destination image (CDI) is stronger than the relationship between affective country image (ACI) and cognitive destination image (CDI). H2b will be supported if the relationship between affective country image (ACI) and affective destination image (ADI) is stronger than the relationship between cognitive country image (CCI) and affective destination image (ADI).

Figure 3-4 presents a detailed model of the relationship directions from country image to destination image.

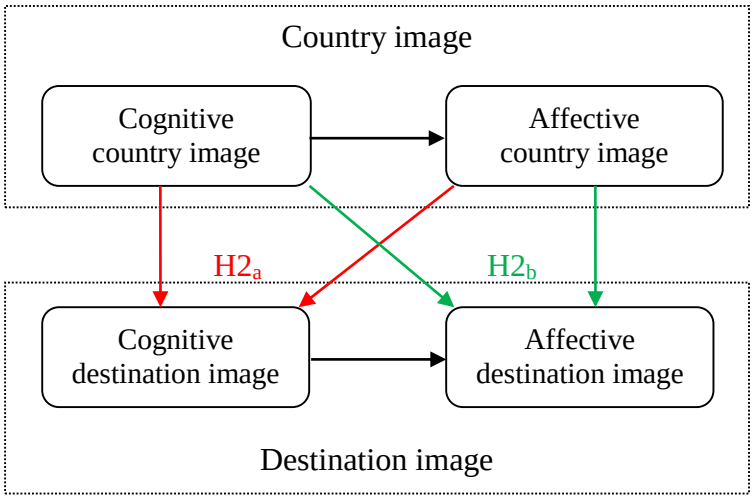

Figure 3-4: Country Image and Destination Image Relationships

These hypotheses are also derived from Martin and Eroglu (1993), Nadeau et al. (2008) and Brijs et al. (2011), who found that country image had an effect on perceptions of the products of that country, including tourism products.

3.5 The Country Image, Destination Image and Behaviour Relationship

The literature review confirmed the importance of country image and destination image as key concepts to be analysed as a positive country image and destination image can increase the intention and the likelihood to visit the country (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Heslop et al., 2004). Therefore, the following hypotheses are postulated to test the proposed relationships. The hypotheses are in line with the two-component model of attitude adopted by the current research.

$H3_a$: Cognitive country image is positively related to behaviour.
$H3_b$: Affective country image is positively related to behaviour.
$H3_c$: Cognitive destination image is positively related to behaviour.
$H3_d$: Affective destination image *is positively related to behaviour.*

These hypotheses are also based on Han (1990), Gartner (1993), Oppermann (1999), Baloglu (2001) and Elliot et al. (2010) whose findings provide strong support for the significant influence of the image of a place on consumer behaviour. A detailed model that shows the direction of the relationships between country image and destination image components and the likelihood of visiting is presented in Figure 3-5.

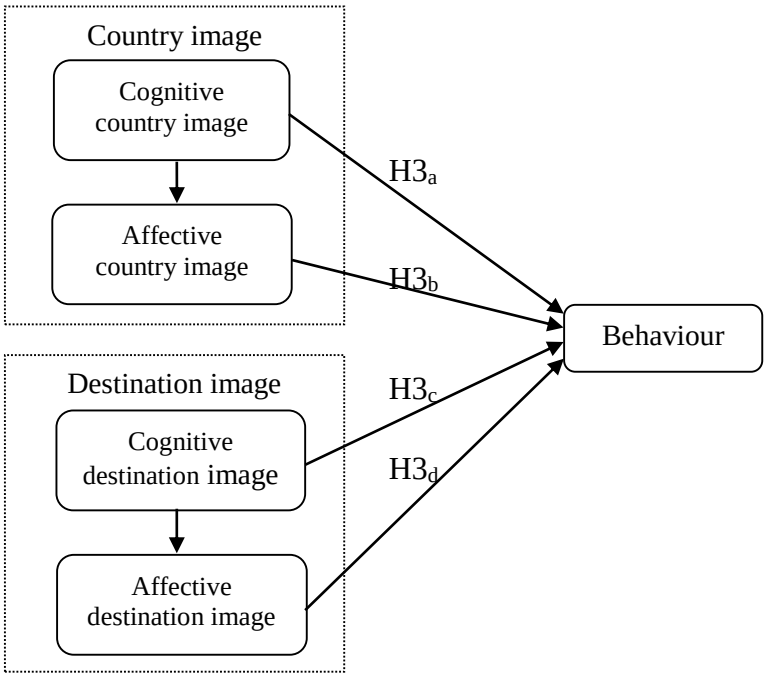

Figure 3-5: Country Image and Destination Image Relationships with Behaviour

Hypotheses 1_a, 1_b, 2_a, 2_b, 3_a, 3_b, 3_c and 3_d are related to the first research objectives that seek to recognise the effects of country image on destination image and the extent to which both image constructs influence the likelihood to visit the country as a tourist destination.

Following discussions on the relationship between the two components of country image and destination image toward behaviour, which represents the attitude-behaviour part of the hierarchy, the next section discusses personal value domains.

3.6 Personal Value Domains

Previous research within the tourism context has provided evidence of the existence of primary value domains based on personal values measurement. Studies that focus on personal values and behavioural and motivational variables such as vacation activity preferences (Madrigal, 1995), vacation motives (Thrane, 1997b) and media usage (Fall & Knutson, 2001) have found internal and external value domains in their studies. Recently, internally-oriented and externally-oriented value domains have also been identified in culturally diverse users of parks and recreation areas (Li, Chick, Wu, & Yen, 2010) and in travel motivation and behavioural intention (Li & Cai, 2012).

Guided by these previous empirical findings, the hypotheses on personal value domains are formulated as follows:

$H4_a$: The values that comprise the LOV are represented by a smaller number of personal value domains.
$H4_b$: Internally-oriented and externally-oriented value domains will represent the values that comprise the LOV.

The next section focuses on the role of country image and destination image as mediating variables in value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model.

3.7 Country Image and Destination Image as Mediating Variables

Although personal values have been found to effect consumer behaviour (Homer & Kahle, 1988), the existing literature supports the idea that personal values have only an indirect effect on behaviour (e.g. Milfont et al., 2010; Shim & Eastlick, 1998). The extant literature suggests that values, which are relatively abstract, influence behaviour indirectly through a number of less-abstract mediating variables (e.g. Homer & Kahle, 1988; Milfont et al., 2010) such as attitudes. Hence, there is an indirect link between personal values and behaviour (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Shim & Eastlick, 1998; Vaske & Donnelly, 1999). The attitudes'

mediating role in the current research will be investigated through the following hypotheses:

$H5_a$: Country image mediates the relationship between personal value domains and behaviour.
$H5_b$: Destination image mediates the relationship between personal value domains and behaviour.

Figure 3-6 represents the mediating roles of country image and destination image in the relationship between personal value domains and behaviour.

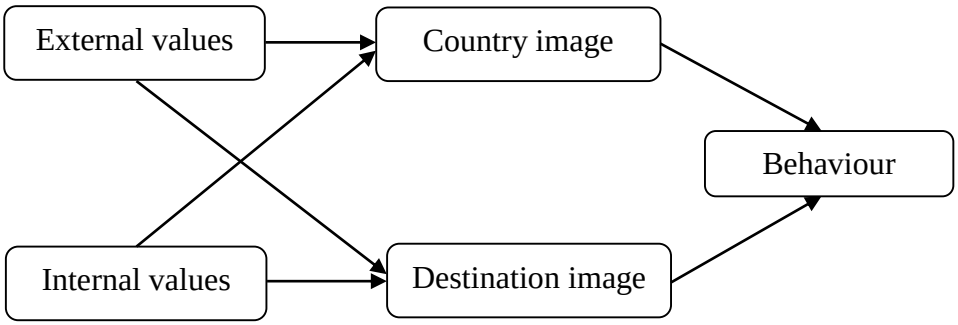

Figure 3-6: Mediating Roles of Country Image and Destination Image

Hypotheses 4_a, 4_b, 5_a and 5_b are related to the second research objective that seeks to recognise the effects of country image and destination image as mediating variables in personal values and behaviour relationships.

3.8 Research Model

The proposed research model and hypotheses are presented in Figure 3-7. Note: Hypotheses 4_a, 4_b, 5_a and 5_b cannot be depicted in Figure 3-7 but are embedded in the research model.

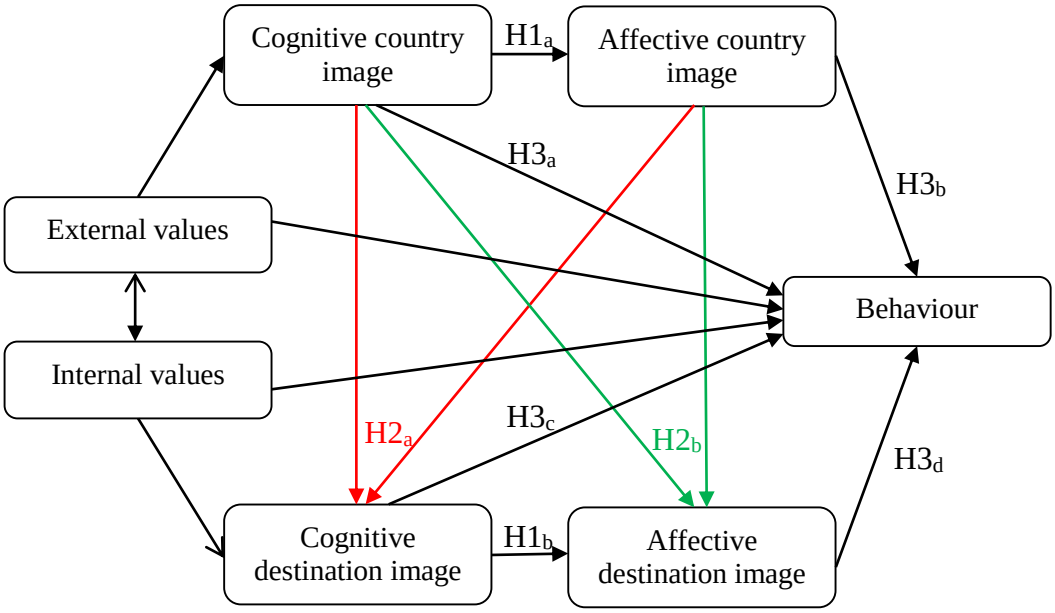

Figure 3-7: Proposed Research Model and Hypotheses

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the proposed model of the relationship between personal values, country image and destination image and behaviour probability. A detail structural relationship of country image and destination image components was presented in Figure 3-3. Following discussions on the relationship among the constructs involved, several hypotheses were postulated to reflect those proposed relationships. Testing these hypotheses will assist in addressing a gap in the existing literature, suggest effective image strategies for practitioners and provide avenues for further research for academics in tourism disciplines. The methods to test these hypotheses are discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods used to examine the theoretical model and test the hypotheses developed in Chapter 3. Section 4.2 explains the methodological approach and justification for using a quantitative approach. Section 4.3 discusses the deductive research approach adopted for the current research. Section 4.4 describes the data collection techniques and the administration of data collection approaches. Section 4.5 discusses sampling design and sampling size. The research instruments are discussed in Section 4.6. Next, Section 4.7 details the data analysis procedure, including factor analysis and structural equation modelling. Finally, Section 4.8 clarifies the ethical issues related to this research. Section 4.9 presents a summary of Chapter 4.

4.2 Research Paradigm

The research paradigm chosen by a researcher will define the ontology - the nature of reality and the nature of social beings; the axiology, that is the fundamental goal of research; and the epistemology - the relationship between the knower and what can be known (Bryman & Bell, 2007). These in turn guide the methodology and the techniques used by the researcher to investigate the research questions. Among the three basic paradigms of social science (positivism, post-positivism and interpretivism) (Corbetta, 2003), the positivism paradigm, with its central ideas that "the social world exists externally and that its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensations, reflection or intuition" (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 1994, p. 77) is considered the most popular research paradigm in the physical and social sciences for the past three centuries (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

The positivist paradigm sees social science as a "method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour, in order to

discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activities" (Neuman, 2002, p. 66). This study aims to investigate the relationship between personal values, country image, destination image and travel probability via empirical observations and using deductive logic to confirm the assumed relationships. As such, it predisposes a positivist epistemological and ontological stance. These stances are directly linked with the selection of research methodology and approach (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

In this research, measures of the constructs required for the hypothesis testing predisposes a quantitative approach. A quantitative data technique condenses the data so that the researchers are able to see the big picture (Neuman, 2002).Quantitative approach is considered appropriate for evaluating relationships between several variables (Punch, 2013). This research focuses on testing a model assuming relationships among several variables and entails a deductive approach in testing those relationships.

While quantitative research has been seen as failing to provide in-depth explanations based on interpretations available through qualitative research, Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar and Newton (2002) contend that employing quantitative research enable researchers to establish statistical evidence on the strength of the relationships. They also maintain that reliability and validity may be determined more objectively than in qualitative techniques. Hence, a quantitative approach was applied to the current research.

4.3 Research Approach

In explaining the inductive and deductive research approach, Blaike (2009, p. 101) posits that the aim of the inductive approach is "to establish universal generalisations to be used as pattern explanations", while the deductive approach is "to test theories, to eliminate the false one and to corroborate the survivor". Accumulated observations or data is the starting point of the inductive approach ending up with use of 'laws' as patterns to explain further observations. In comparison, the starting point for the deductive approach is to borrow or construct a theory and express it as an argument with the end point testing the hypotheses

by matching them with data. The current research adopts a deductive approach as this study involves the development of a conceptual framework that will be tested rigorously later.

Robson (2002) lists five stages through which deductive research will proceed: (1) deducing a hypothesis from the theory; (2) expressing the hypothesis in operational terms which proposes the relationship between two variables; (3) testing this operational hypothesis; (4) examining the specific outcome of the inquiry; and finally (5) modifying the theory, if necessary, in line with the findings. Contrary to the inductive approach sequence which begins with observation or description, and then proceeds to analysis arriving at explanation/theory/hypothesis, Veal (2011) maintains that the deductive approach sequence begins with explanation/theory/hypothesis. It then, progresses to observation or description, gathering data to test the hypothesis and then arrives at analysis, which is testing the hypothesis against the data.

According to the above explanation, the sequence in the current research begins with developing hypotheses with reference to the relationship between personal values, country image, destination image and travel probability. The next step is gathering data based on the measurement of all the constructs. Finally, through statistical analysis, new knowledge is gained.

4.4 Research Instrument

Since the purpose of the current research is not to develop new measures but to test for relationships among the established constructs that have not been tested before, suitable measurement scales for country image, destination image, personal values and behaviour probability were derived from the literature as recommended by Collis and Hussey (2009). Hair, Bush, and Ortinau (2006b) suggested a similar approach provided that literature has a sufficient discussion on the topic. The main advantages of finding an existing scale are that the validity of the measure is likely to have been tested and it allows the researcher to compare the results with others based on the same construct (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

The following steps were taken to develop the questionnaire used in this research. First, as the focus of this study is country image and destination image, the relevant literature in the tourism context was reviewed and thoroughly examined. Second, the items that measure the content and represent definitions and dimensions of the constructs were adopted. Hence, the current research adopted the scale of personal values, cognitive and affective country image, cognitive and affective destination image and behaviour probability based on the review of the literature. The details of the measurement scale items of these constructs are explained and discussed in the following subsections.

4.4.1 Cognitive Country Image

This research adopted country image as a halo rather than a summary. Based on this conceptualisation, the scales that measure cognitive country image were developed after a review of the previous relevant studies.

Previous literature indicates that there are two different views of country image at a conceptual level (Lila, Allred, & Chakraborty, 2009): country image as a halo; and as a summary construct (Han, 1990). Scales that conceptualised country image as a halo, measure the construct based on the characteristics of the country (Martin Eroglu, 1993; Martin & Alvarez, 2010). Scales that regard country image as a summary measure the construct using the characteristics of the products from the country (Roth & Romeo, 1992; Jaffe Nebenzahl, 1984).

Country image conceptualised as a summary construct has been highlighted in Section 2.2.2. In this conceptualisation, the definition of country image focuses on the product image instead of the country of origin. Measuring the country image construct relies on the image of products from a country to infer the image of that country (Han, 1990; Roth & Romeo, 1992). This can be considered as an indirect way of measuring country image. Moreover, such a measure is inconsistent with the country image definition proposed by Martin and Eroglu (1993, p. 193) as "the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country." Thus, summary construct is deemed inappropriate for this research.

The scale items of cognitive country image and their sources are presented in table 4-1.

Table 4-1: Cognitive Country Image Scale Items

No.	Scale item	Source
	Indonesia is...	
1	An important country	Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
2	A well-known country	
3	A country with a good reputation	
4	A secure country	
5	A peaceful country	Lala et al. (2009); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
6	An economically developed country	Wang et al. (2011); Lala et al. (2009); Martin and Eroglu (1993)
7	An economically stable country	Martin and Eroglu (1993); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
8	An industrialised country	
9	A technologically developed country	Martin and Eroglu (1993); Elliot and Papadopoulos (2011); Wang et al. (2011)
10	A country that respects liberties	Lala et al. (2009); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
11	A country that respects human rights	Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
12	A country that respects international laws	Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)

The 12 items were adopted as they reflect the concept of country image conceptualised as a halo (Han, 1990). Additionally, the items' high factor-loadings indicate that they are robust indicators of the country image construct when tested in two previous major country image studies (Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Campo-Martinez & Alvarez, 2010).

4.4.2 Affective Country Image

The purpose of affective measures is to capture the feelings and emotion facets of country image. In previous product-country image studies, measures including competence, creativity, standard of living, training and labour have been used to

represent the affective component of country image (Papadopoulos et al., 1990; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Laroche et al., 2005). These items however, tend to represent the cognitive country image rather than the affective evaluation of a country (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

In addition, several authors used a 'people facet' in measuring the affective component of country image (Laroche et al., 2005; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994). Items such as "people are friendly and likeable" or "people are trustworthy" are examples of people facet statements used to measure the affective component of country image. However, these statements do not directly reflect respondents' feelings toward a country because one may think that people from a country are friendly and likeable but still not like the country (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Thus, 'people facet' measures are considered to be unsuitable for this research.

Unlike 'people facet' measures, Wang, Li, Barnes, and Ahn, (2011) measure the focus on a 'country's behaviour' including its social, political and international relationships with other countries. These measures are considered to reflect respondents' feelings toward a country. The results of an empirical testing show that the scales are valid and reliable as indicated by their high score of factor loadings (Wang et al., 2011). The current research adopts the four-item measure of the affective component of country image based on Wang et al., (2011) as shown in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2: Affective Country Image Scale Items

No	Scale item	Source
	Indonesia is...	Wang et al. (2011)
1	a peace loving country	
2	friendly towards us	
3	cooperative with us	
4	a likeable country	

4.4.3 Cognitive Destination Image

The cognitive component of destination image is the knowledge about the destination's objective attributes (Genereux, Ward, & Russel, 1983). Hanyu

(1993) suggested that the cognitive quality refers to the appraisal of physical features of the destination. Previous studies provided many attributes to measure cognitive destination image. A list of attributes used in 14 previous studies was compiled by Echtner and Ritchie (1993). The list was then adopted by many researchers in their destination image studies (Jenkins, 1999; Govers & Go, 2003; Son & Pearce, 2005; Lin et al., 2007; Kim & Yoon, 2003). The attributes most commonly used are: scenic beauty; people friendliness; good climate; good value for money; nightlife; relaxation; accommodation; different culture; recreational activities and personal safety.

In measuring the cognitive destination image construct, the current research adopted the measures that have been commonly used and showed high factor loadings across previous studies (Lin et al., 2007; Govers & Go, 2003; Tasci et al., 2007; Campo-Martinez and Alvarez, 2010). The cognitive destination image scale is presented in Table 4-3

.

Table 4-3: Cognitive Destination Image Scale Items

No	Scale Item	Source
	Indonesia....	
1	offers a lot in terms of natural scenic beauty	Baloglu and McCleary (1999); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010); Lin et al. (2007); Tasci et al. (2007)
2	has unique cultural attractions	
3	is a destination that offers good value for money	
4	has high quality accommodations options	
5	has a good nightlife	
6	has a pleasant climate	Baloglu and McCleary (1999); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
7	offers a restful/relaxing atmosphere	Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010); Jenkins (1999); Kim and Yoon (2003)
8	provides a variety of recreational activities	Lin et al. (2007); Tasci et al. (2007)
9	has many sites to visits	Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010); Lin et al. (2007)
10	is a popular tourist destination	Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010)
11	offers a high level of personal safety	Baloglu and McCleary (1999); Campo-Martinez and Alvarez (2010); Tasci et al. (2007)
12	has friendly/hospitable people	

4.4.4 Affective Destination Image

Most studies in the tourism destination areas refer to the work of Russell (1980) and Russell and Pratt (1980) when considering the scale to measure the affective evaluations of destination image (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Lin et al., 2007; Son & Pearce, 2005).

Russel and Pratt (1980) suggest that the affective component of place image can be defined by two orthogonal bipolar scales of pleasant–unpleasant and arousing–sleepy. According to the authors, these two scales are theoretically adequate to model the affective image. However, to increase the reliability of the scale the authors suggest adding two more bipolar scale of exciting-gloomy and relaxing-distressing. So that exciting is a combination of pleasant and arousing, gloomy sits in the quadrant of between unpleasant and sleepy (see Figure 4-1).

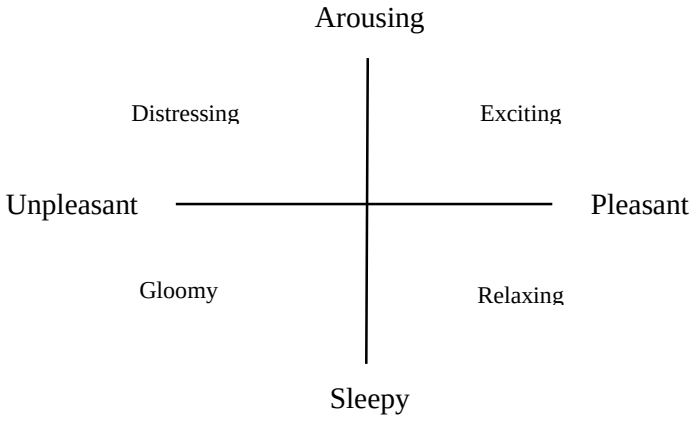

Figure 4-1: A circumplex Model of Affective Destination Image

Source: Russell and Pratt (1980, p. 313)

The scales have been tested in a number of studies involving several diverse destinations. The results showed that the eight semantic differential scales are robust indicators of the affective image construct (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Lin et al., 2007; Son & Pearce, 2005). The current research, therefore, adopted these scales in seven point

semantic differential form to measure the affective component of the destination image.

4.4.5 Personal Values

In Section 2.4.2 three personal values scales were reviewed. It is apparent that Kahle's LOV has several advantages over the other two measures. First, the LOV is brief and simple. Although the LOV scale was derived from RVS, the list of values was reduced from 36 items to 9 items. It has been acknowledged that having a larger number of items, such as the 56 items in the SVS, reduces its usefulness in larger studies (Soutar, Grainger& Hedges, 1999). Second, the LOV has no specifically Western-oriented concepts (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988), therefore it is more transferable across cultures than RVS (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). Although Schwartz (1994) suggested that the SVS was developed as a universal value scale to permit value assessment across cultures, its length is the main obstacle for employing the scale in consumer research. Overall, the LOV offers brevity, simple procedure and is comprehensible for respondents in many cultures. Thus, the current research used the LOV to measure the personal values construct.

Regarding the procedure of applying the LOV, literature on personal values demonstrates a rich discussion on how the LOV is measured. Many of the debates pertain to the ranking versus rating approach (e.g. Alwin & Krosnick, 1985; Miete, 1985). Some researchers (e.g. Kamakura & Mazzon, 1991; Kohn, 1989) prefer ranking because "a central manifestation of value is to be found in choice" (Kohn, 1989, p. 19) and this choice aspect is implicitly conceived in the ranking procedure. However, ranking procedures do not allow ties between values. The ranking task is also considered to be more difficult to administer than a rating procedure.

The proponents of a rating procedure (McCarty & Shrum, 1994; Sagie & Elizur, 1996) argue that not only is the rating task easier for respondents to complete; it provides data that is accessible for the parametric statistical analysis. Rating methods, however, have their own drawbacks. Notably, the respondents tend to

end-pile their rating by putting high ratings to all of the items in the set since all the value inventories are positively worded (McCarty & Shrum, 2000).

Given that both procedures have their own advantages and disadvantages, an alternative procedure, namely a rank-and-rate procedure, has been used in some studies (Crosby, Bitner, & Gill, 1990; Shrum, McCarty, & Loeffler, 1990). In this method the respondents are first asked to rank the values in terms of their relative importance. Respondents are then requested to allocate a rating to each of the value items on a scale of importance. However, a complete ranking task is considered to be laborious. For example, when a rank-and-rate procedure was assigned to the 18 values terminal set of the RVS; it took more than twice as long as a simple rating task for the same set of values (McCarty & Shrum, 1997).

In order to overcome the problem, McCarty and Shrum (2000) proposed a most-least rating procedure, a modified version of the rank-and-rate procedure. Instead of ranking the value items in the set, the respondents were asked to indicate the most important value item and the least important one before they rate them. According to the authors this method forces respondents to compare and contrast all the value items in a similar way to the rank-and-rate procedure but with less effort. The results of two investigations utilising this approach showed that the most-least rating task decreases the level of end-piling and raises the discrimination of values ratings (McCarty & Shrum, 2000).

To raise the discrimination of values ratings and minimise the incidence of end-piling, the current research used the most-least rating approach of the LOV as proposed by McCarty and Shrum (2000). The measurement of personal values construct in this research was administered in the following manner.

First, respondents were asked to look through all the value items and specify the most important value for them. Second, respondents were requested to scan the entire set of values for the second time and indicate the value that was least important to them. Finally, respondents were asked to rate each of the value items using seven point scales (1= very unimportant, 7 = very important).

4.4.6 Behaviour Probability

Behavioural intentions scales have been commonly used in many destination image studies (Chen & Tsai, 2007, Prayag, 2009, Lee, 2009, Byon & Zhang, 2010). However, it has long been understood that purchase intention scales suffer from severe theoretical and empirical problems (Day, Gan, Gendall, & Esslemont, 1991; Brenan & Esslemont, 1994; Wright & MacRae, 2007). The main drawback of purchase intention scales lies in the inability to predict the large number of actual purchases by the large proportion of respondents who did not intent to purchase (Day et al., 1991). Numerous attempts to improve the predictive power of the intention scales showed inconclusive results (e.g. Armstrong, Morwitz, & Kumar, 2000; Hsiao, Sun, & Morwitz, 2002; Lee, Elango, & Schnaars, 1997; Morwitz, 2001). Recent results from a study testing the bias and variability in purchase intention scales compared to probability scales (Wright &MacRae, 2007) indicate that the scales are unbiased and their variability is much less than previously assumed. Although the performance of intention scales has improved, its prediction accuracy, however, is still lower than probability scales (Wright & MacRae, 2007).

The greater precision of probability scales suggests that they may be more useful as direct measures of intended behaviour. Many previous studies empirically tested the effectiveness of Juster probability scale in predicting the consumers' future purchasing behaviour (Day et al., 1991; Hamilton-Gibbs, Esslemont, & McGuinness, 1992; Seymour, Brennan, & Esslemont, 1994; Parackal & Garland, 2006). The results of these studies indicate that Juster probability scales are better predictors of future behaviour than purchase intention scales.

Thus, in order to better predict the likely behaviour, the 11-point Juster probability scale is used in this research to measure the behaviour probability variable.

4.4.7 The Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed to survey respondents that was comprised of five parts (Appendix 1). Part I encompasses two open questions to capture the respondents' perception toward Indonesia as a tourist destination and as a country

in general and three questions to identify the number of visits and the purpose of visits. In this part, Indonesia is referred as "Indonesia which includes Bali" to remind the respondents that Bali is part of Indonesia. A poll in 2013 showed that almost 52 percent of Australians visiting Bali did not know that Bali is part of Indonesia (Taylor, 2015). Therefore, it is important to remind respondents that Bali is part of Indonesia. Part II consists of the measurement of country image and destination image. Part III measures personal values, while behaviour probability is measured in Part IV. Finally, the demographic questions were included in Part V.

4.5 Data Collection

This study deployed a survey method for collecting data. The survey method has numerous advantages. Besides its ability to gather a large number of responses at a relatively low cost, the survey method provides a fast, efficient and accurate means of assessing information about a population (Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2006b; Zikmund & Babin, 2010; Zikmund, Ward, Lowe, Winzar & Babin, 2011). In addition, the survey method enables the collection of data which allows advanced statistical analysis (Zikmund et al., 2011). Malhotra (2010) asserts that the major advantage of surveys are: (1) questionnaires are simple to administer; (2) the data collected are reliable because the response are limited to the alternatives provided; (3) the use of fixed response questions reduces the potential misunderstanding due to differences in interviewers; (4) coding, analysis and interpretation of data are relatively simple. Another advantage of the survey method that is particularly suitable for this research is its ability to capture concepts that are directly unobservable, such as attitudes, feelings, preferences and personality traits (Hair et al 2006b). Thus, when properly conducted, surveys can provide valuable data for the researcher (Zikmund et al. 2011).

Survey questionnaires can be administered via telephone, personal interview, mall intercepts, mail surveys and increasingly via online platforms (Malhotra, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2011; McDaniel & Gates, 2012). Considering that this research requires a large, nationally-derived sample, an online approach was adopted because of its ease of administration and distribution. Thus, the current research

used an online survey, a survey method that utilised the internet for developing and distributing the questionnaires (McDaniel & Gates, 2012).

The major advantages of online surveys include: (1) they enable the researcher to broadcast the surveys to thousands of potential participants simultaneously; (2) they are more time efficient for participants than telephone interviews; and (3) they can be completed at the respondents' convenience (McDaniel & Gates, 2012). However, although having many advantages, online surveys also have drawbacks. The most common objection about using online survey is that internet users are not representative of the population as a whole (Evans & Mathur, 2005). However, recent studies have found that the online survey mode elicits higher data quality in terms of item responses to both closed- and open-ended questions (Shin, Johnson, & Rao, 2012; Messer, Edwards, & Dillman, 2011). Grandjean, Nelson and Taylor (2009), for example, conducted a survey using two survey modes, online and paper-based. The results indicate that an estimate derived from a probability-based internet-panel survey is likely to be as accurate as that obtained from a well-designed mail survey.

Another recent empirical study indicates that data generated by online survey and paper-based survey produce insignificant differences with respect to factor structures, factor loadings and variances of the factors (Martins, 2010). This is an indication that online surveys can produce data that can be considered equivalent to that collected via paper-based surveys. Furthermore, online surveys are convenient and accessible to a large number of households because more people have access to the internet through personal computers than in the past (Case & Yang, 2009).

4.5.1 Administration of Data Collection

This research employed an online survey. The questionnaire was designed by the research student using Qualtrics survey software. A professional market research firm sourced the respondents via their online panel. The panel provider claimed that the panel is representative of the Australian population. The research student hosted the online survey.

4.5.2 Sampling Design

McDaniel and Gates (2012) posit that any sampling that does not meet the requirement of a probability sampling can be considered as a non-probability sampling. The most notable disadvantage of non-probability sampling is that it often creates a non-representative sample (Neuman, 2006). However, convenience sampling (one of non-probability sampling methods) is the most common technique used by marketing scholars (Neuman, 2006). The reason for this popularity is that convenience sampling is easy, low cost and quick to obtain (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003).

This research used convenience sampling for several reasons. First, for ethical reasons, measuring research participants' attitudes and values by way of surveys requires their consent. In online research, the participation of the respondents in this survey is an indication that they have provided informed consent. This self-selected approach predisposes to a convenience sampling method. Second, the objective of this research is to test whether personal values influence both country image and destination image and subsequently whether both constructs influence behaviour probability. If the objective is to test a theory, Calder (1981) claimed that the use of non-probability sampling is acceptable. Likewise, Leary (2012) contended that non-probability sampling is legitimate for a study with the objectives to test hypotheses concerning relationships between certain variables and behaviour.

4.5.3 Sampling Frame

The current research used a sampling frame of Australian residents aged 18 and above for several reasons. First, 83 percent of Australian households have access to the internet. Second, three out of four Australian internet users shop online (ABS, 2014). The two most popular types of online purchases were travel and accommodation (ABS, 2014). Indeed, the top three online shopping categories in Australia by total spend were airline tickets, travel accommodation and online travel agents (Visa, 2009). Finally, Australia is the third largest market for the Indonesia tourism sector and the largest market for the island of Bali (MCTRI, 2011).

4.5.4 Sample Size

A number of rules have been suggested for determining the sample size in quantitative research. Hair et al. (2006a), for example, suggest that for a study involving structural equation modelling (SEM), as is the case of this research, determining sample size should be based on a set of factors including the number of constructs involved, item communalities and estimation techniques. In addition, the normality of data and missing data affect the decision on sample size. Several authors proposed methods in determining sample size based on fit index, including that of Comparative Fit Index (Bentler, 1990), Root Mean Square Error of approximation (Steiger &Lind, 1980), McDonald's fit index (McDonald, 1989) and the Steiger Gamma (Steiger, 1989).

Different methods in determining a sample size have resulted in various opinions on the adequacy of sample size. Some believe that SEM can be used with sample sizes between 50 to 150 cases (e.g. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), others suggested that a sample size of at least 400 or 500 is needed (Tanaka, 1984; Harlow, 1985). Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (2006a) maintained that a sample size between 150 to 400 cases is needed for the maximum likelihood estimation. In determining sample size for research activities, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) indicated that as the population increases, the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remain relatively constant at 384 cases.

Importantly, Hair et al. (2006a) advise that the sample size issue should go beyond being able to estimate a model with a high fit index. The sample size, just as with any other statistical inference, must be adequate to represent the population of interest. Considering the diverse approaches to determine the sample size and following Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommendation, a minimum sample size of 400 is deemed to be needed for this research.

4.6 Data Analysis

The data analysis process was arranged into several steps: First, the preliminary data analysis. In this step the raw data was prepared for the measurement model analysis by addressing issues with missing data, outliers and normality. Second,

the measurement model examination. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using a one-factor congeneric model, were conducted to determine the unidimensionality, reliability and validity of all constructs. Finally, the structural model examination. Figure 4-2 present a graphical representation of the steps taken in the data analysis.

Step 1

Preliminary data analysis	• To address several issues of missing data, outliers and normality.

Step 2

The measurement model analysis: Exploratory factor analysis and Confirmatory factor analysis	• To test unidimensionality, reliability and validity of the constructs involved in this research. • To test hypotheses 4_a and 4_b.

Step 3

The structural model analysis	• To test hypotheses 1_a, 1_b, 2_a, 2_b, 3_a, 3_b, 3_c, 3_d, 5_a and 5_b.

Figure 4-2: Steps in Data Analysis

4.6.1 Preliminary Data Analysis

Prior to conducting statistical analysis for testing the hypotheses, the data collected was screened and preliminary data analysis including missing data treatments, detecting for outliers and testing for normality were performed. The missing data were replaced by using the Expectation Maximisation (EM) method. The univariate outliers were identified by running the frequency distributions of z score, whereas multivariate outliers were detected using the Mahalanobis distance (D) statistic as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Testing if the data were normally distributed was conducted by running the skewness and kurtosis tests. Finally, the descriptive analyses on the construct of personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour probability were presented. In this process, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was used.

4.6.2 Factor Analysis

EFA was conducted to determine the appropriate numbers of common factors and to uncover which measured items were reasonable indicators of the various latent factors (Brown, 2006). The latent factors were then used for further statistical analysis such as CFA and SEM (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

The extraction method employed for the current research was the principal component with orthogonal Varimax rotation. In extracting the common factors, several methods are available, such as principal component, maximum likelihood, unweighted least squares, generalised least squares, principal axis factoring and alpha factoring, to name just some. However, if the sample is large and there are many items with high communalities, (e.g. greater than 0.40, as in the case of the current research), little differences are often obtained in the results regardless of the extraction method used. This assertion has been demonstrated in several empirical studies comparing various types of factor analyses (Browne, 1968; Hubbard & Allen, 1987; Tucker, Koopman, & Linn, 1969). It was argued that when communalities are high, there are virtually no differences in the solutions among several extraction methods.

The rotation method used in the current research is the Varimax rotation. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) point out that Varimax rotation is the most commonly used rotation method and aims at simplifying factors by making high loading higher and low loading lower on each factor, thus offering ease of interpretation of the results. Although other rotation methods, such as direct oblimin, promax, quartimax and equamax are accessible, there is evidence that different rotation methods tend to give similar results if the correlation pattern in the data is quite clear (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, Varimax has been shown to be the best among orthogonal rotation procedures (Dielman, Cattell, & Wagner, 1972; Gorsuch, 1983).

The appropriateness of factor analysis was assessed by examining the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO measure is an index showing whether the correlations between pairs of variables can be explained by other variables – a condition for the existence of a common factor structure. Kaiser (1974) describes the KMO index greater than 0.9 as marvellous, 0.8-0.9 as meritorious, 0.7-0.8 as middling, 0.6-0.7 as mediocre, 0.5-0.6 as miserable and an index less than 0.5 as unacceptable. Bartlett's test of sphericity investigates the null hypothesis that there are no correlations among the variables. If the hypothesis is accepted (sig.> .05), the use of factor analysis would not be appropriate.

4.6.3 Structural Equation Modelling

The latent variables identified from EFA were then used for the relationship analysis among the variables involved. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique that allows researchers to assess the relationships between several dependent variables and several independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, multiple regression does not allow researchers to explore relationships among the dependent variables (Holmes-Smith, 2013). Since the current research focused on the relationships that include several dependent variables, the current research used SEM for data analysis.

SEM is a multivariate technique that includes investigations of bothmeasurement models and structural models. SEM is often considered the preferred method of analysis for several reasons. First, SEM allows researchers to assess the pattern of a series of interrelated dependent relationships simultaneously among the measured variables and latent constructs, as well as between several latent constructs (Hair et al., 2006a; Schumacher& Lomax, 2004). Second, SEM provides "a comprehensive means for assessing and modifying theoretical models" (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p. 411).Third, SEM has many advantages over the more conventional regression and path analysis approaches. For example, multiple exogenous variables, multiple endogenous variables and multiple mediator variables can be included in the model (Holmes-Smith, 2013). For these reasons, a SEM was used in the current research to test the various hypotheses as proposed in the research model.

According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) SEM can be conducted using either a one-stage or a two-stage approach. In the one-stage approach the process of estimating of both measurement and structural models is done simultaneously. In the two-stage approach, the measurement model is assessed first and then in the second stage the structural model is estimated using a number of goodness-of-fit indices. The two-stage approach was considered an appropriate method for the current research for two reasons. First, the two-stage approach avoids unnecessary interaction between the measurement and the structural models (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Second, it is a matter of logical necessity that a satisfied measurement model is a condition for analysing the causal relationships in the structural models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi, 1983).

Hence, the first stage of the analysis used in the current research was testing the measurement model. The analysis of the measurement model was employed by specifying the causal relationships between the observed variables (indicators) and the underlying theoretical constructs (latent variables). The purpose of this step was to verify the unidimensionality of the latent variable, that is to confirm the indicators of a construct have an acceptable fit on a single-factor model (Hair et al., 2010). This was done by conducting one-factor congeneric models for all

latent variables. Achieving unidimensionality is crucial as it is a necessary condition for assigning meaning to the latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Three criteria were used in assessing unidimensionality: goodness-of-fit of the model, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Once the tests on the three criteria were satisfied, the second stage was conducted to test the structural model. In this stage, the hypothesised relationships were tested against a number of goodness-of-fit indices.

4.6.3.1 Evaluating the Fit of the Model

In SEM, evaluation takes place on how well the model being tested is supported by the data. The purpose of this evaluation is to determine the goodness-of-fit between the proposed model and the data (Hair et al., 2010). There are many goodness-of-fit indices that are applicable in SEM. The fit indices are grouped into three categories of model fit: absolute, incremental and parsimonious fits (Hair et al., 2010). Although there is no consensus among scholars as to which fit indices should be reported, Bollen and Long (1993), Hair et al. (2010) and Holmes-Smith (2013) recommend the use of at least three fit indices including one in each of the categories of model fit.

The first category of fit indices is the absolute fit indices. These measures are direct measures of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data (Hair et al., 2010). Among the absolute fit indices Bollen (1989) posits that the Chi-square (χ^2) is considered the most fundamental measure of overall fit. However, several scholars do not recommend using the χ^2 as a goodness-of-fit index since it is vulnerable to sample size (Byrne, 2013; Cheng, 2001; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Thus, the χ^2 was used in the current research in conjunction with other absolute fit indices: the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), to assess the overall fit.

The GFI, devised by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1984), measures the relative amount of variance and covariance explained by the model (Byrne, 2013). The GFI value is calculated by comparing the discrepancy values for the model being tested and

the discrepancy value for the saturated version of the model. A GFI value greater than 0.90 is considered good (Hair et al., 2010). Others argued that 0.95 should be used (Chin, 2000; Holmes-Smith, 2013). The RMSEA assists in correcting the tendency of χ^2 to reject the specified models. While Holmes-Smith (2013) recommended that a RMSEA value of less than 0.05 is an indication of the fit of the model, a value ranging from 0.05 to 0.08 is commonly acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). The SRMR is a measure of the mean absolute correlation residual; that is the overall difference between the observed and the predicted correlations (Kline, 2005). Lower values of SRMR represent better fit and higher values represent worse fit. A value of less than 0.06 is indicative of a well-fitting model (Holmes-Smith, 2013).

The second category of fit indices is the incremental fit indices which assesses how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model or null model (Hair et al., 2010). For fit indices in this category, the current research used the Comparative Fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). CFI compares the covariance matrix predicted by the model to the observed covariance matrix. TLI takes into account a measure of parsimony into a comparative index between the proposed and the baseline models. CFI and TLI were used in the current research due to their ability to provide non-biased indications of model fit at all sample sizes (Finch & West, 1997). The commonly recommended level for CFI and TLI is 0.90 or greater (Bentler, 1990).

The third category of fit indices is the parsimony fit indices. The parsimony fit indices are designed to provide information about which model among a set of competing models is the best (Hair et al., 2010). A parsimony fit index is improved either by a better fit or by a simpler model. In this category, the current research used the Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df). The Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df) is a simple ratio of χ^2 to the degrees of freedom for a model (Hair et al., 2010). A range of acceptable values for the χ^2/df is 3 to 1 (Carmines & McIver, 1981). Other researchers suggest a more generous limit of less than 5.0 (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Table 4-4 summarised the goodness-fit-index used in this research.

Table 4-4: Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Index

Index	Level of Acceptance	Note
Absolute Fit Index:		
Chi-square (χ^2)	$p > 0.05$	Test of significance $p > 0.05$
Goodness of Fit (GFI)	> 0.90	Value 0 is a poor fit, value 1 is a perfect fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.08	Value less than 0.05 is perfect fit, between 0.05 to 0.08 is considered an acceptable fit
the Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	< 0.06	The smaller the better, value less than 0.10 indicates a good fit
Incremental Fit Index:		
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	> 0.90	Value close to 0 indicate a poor fit, value close to 1 indicate a perfect fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)		
Parsimonious Fit Index:		
Normed Chi-square	$1.0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5.0$	Lower limit 1.0, upper limit as high as 5.0

4.6.3.2 Reliability and Validity

Once unidimensionality has been established (by way of one-factor congeneric model analysis), the underlying constructs were assessed for their reliability and validity. A measure may be consistent (reliable) but not accurate (valid) or may be accurate but not consistent (Bollen, 1989). That is, an instrument is valid if the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure and reliable if the instrument is consistent and stable (Sekaran, 2005). Thus, in order to ensure the robustness of the current research, both reliability and validity were assessed.

The current research used the Cronbach‘s coefficient alphas to test the reliability of the constructs as this method is one of the most common methods used in evaluating reliability (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2006). Nevertheless, the current research also included CFA as an extension of the scale reliability test because CFA provides a better estimate of reliability than the coefficient alpha (Steenkamp & Van Trijp, 1991). The CFA can examine the stability of the factor structure in the scale construction (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al. 2006a). To assess

reliability using CFA, the current research used the approach suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) including Construct Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) with a reliability threshold of 0.60 for CR and 0.50 for AVE (Hair et al., 2010).

In terms of validity, the current research tested both convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity examines whether the measures of the same construct are correlated highly, whereas discriminant validity determines that the measures of a construct are not correlated highly (> 0.85) with other constructs (Kline, 2005; Sekaran, 2006). To demonstrate convergent validity, the magnitude of the relationship between the items and latent construct should be statistically different from zero (Holmes-Smith, 2013) and have a factor loading of 0.50 or greater (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). As for discriminant validity, two methods were used in the current research. The first method suggests that the estimated correlations between two constructs should not be excessively high (e.g. < 0.85) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2005). The second method, a SEM-based method recommended by Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips (1991), involves the use of a constrained and an unconstrained model of two constructs. If constraining the constructs worsens the model fit (indicated by the difference between the two χ^2 being statistically significant), it can be concluded that the two constructs are different. The reason for using this method is that it is considered a better test compared to the first method (Holmes-Smith, 2013).

4.6.3.3 The Mediation Effect

The current research proposes the mediation effect of a certain variable on the relationship between two variables. This study applied the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) to examine the mediation effect of a variable. According to these authors, a researcher can test the mediation effect using a SEM model, including the paths of predictor variable (P) to mediator variable (M) and mediator variable (M) to criterion variable (C). If the model suggests that the sequence path of P-M-C is fit, the mediation role of the M variable is supported. Researchers can compare the goodness-of-fit P-M-C model with the second model

including the path of P-C. If the addition of the P-C path in the second model improves the fit of the model significantly, as indicated by the $\Delta\chi^2$, the mediation role of M is not supported. However, if the two models produce similar fits, the result indicates that the mediation is supported (Hair et al. 2006a).

4.7 Ethical Considerations

According to Polonsky and Waller (2005), the researcher should understand the basics of ethical research and how this might affect the research project. In accordance with this, as part of Victoria University requirements and prior to conducting fieldwork, all research projects involving human subjects must have approval from the University Human Research Ethics Committee. In response to this, several consideration were adopted to protect all of the research stakeholders from negative ethical issues. First, the research was designed to ensure that there were no potential risks related to the procedures of collecting, analysing and presenting the data. Second, a professional market research firm notified and invited the potential research participants involved in this research. Information about the project was provided on the first page of the questionnaire. As this research was built on an online survey, the potential participants' decision to participate in the research implies that they have provided informed consent. Third, the potential research participants who needed more information before participating in the research were given the option to contact the researcher's supervisors to obtain such information. Finally, no respondent's personal information, such as name and email address, was required in the questionnaire. As a result, the Human Research Ethics Committee of Victoria University granted approval to conduct the current research.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the research methods used in this study. The methodological approach was reviewed, particularly in relation to the justification of using quantitative and deductive approach and online survey technique for data collection. Next, the development of the scale and the research instruments were discussed. Following this discussion was a review of the statistical data analyses

used to test the hypotheses. Finally, ethical issues relating to collecting, analysing and reporting the results of this research were explained. The next chapter presents the results of the data analysis and hypotheses testing.

CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter the research method for this current study was described and justified. In this chapter the results of the survey, data analysis and testing of the hypotheses are presented. In the following section, the response rate, the respondents' demographic characteristics, the results of EFA, one-factor congeneric models, CFA, constructs reliability and validity, the structural model and the mediating effects are presented. The chapter is then summarised before the results are discussed in Chapter 6.

5.2 Response Rate

This study focused on the relationships between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour probability. Australian residents were surveyed about their image of Indonesia as a country and as a tourist destination using an online panel. The online survey, which was hosted by the doctoral candidate using Qualtrics, was sent via email to 2700 randomly selected panel members of a professional market research firm between 26 February 2013 and 28 February 2013.

A total of 477 responses were collected. While this response rate (17.6 percent) may be considered low, a number of studies have reported that response rates for online surveys are much lower than the response rates for mail surveys. Shih and Fan (2009), for example, examined results of35 studies that directly compared the response rate of online versus mail surveys. They found that while individual studies reported inconsistent findings regarding the response rate between online and mail surveys, generally online surveys have on average 20 percent lower response rate than mail surveys. Hence, a response rate of 17.6 percent appears to be an acceptable result. In addition, the sample size exceeds the minimum requirement to conduct a SEM analysis as discussed in Section 4.5.4. In addition,

the characteristics of the respondents' demographics (see Appendix 5) correspond with the Australian population (ABS, 2015). Males make up 57 percent of the sample. Respondents' aged 45 and above represent approximately three-quarters of the sample. The number of respondents who categorised themselves as unemployed was 5.3 percent, which is similar to the current Australian unemployment figure of 6.3 percent (ABS, 2015). In addition, the States and Territories in which the respondents resided resembles that of the Australian population as measured by the ABS (2015). The highest proportion of the sample (28.3 percent) resides in New South Wales, the most populous state in Australia. The smallest proportion of the sample (2.2 percent) resides in the least populous state, Australia Capital Territory.

5.3 Preliminary Data Analysis

Prior to conducting EFA, CFA and testing the structural model, data were subject to preliminary assessment of missing data, outliers and normality. These preliminary assessments are discussed next.

5.3.1 Missing Data

As is common with many surveys, respondents may fail to respond to individual items on a questionnaire (Burns & Bush, 2003). The online questionnaire used for the current research did not permit respondents to submit their responses without answering all the questions on the questionnaire. Several respondents chose 'Don't know' on a number of questions since 'Don't know' response were provided for the country image and destination image measures. This implies that these respondents did not have enough information to answer those items on the questionnaire. Consequently, all 'Don't know' responses were recoded as missing data (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

Following the recommendation of Sekaran and Bougie (2010), all respondents in the analysis who completed at least 75 percent of the questions were retained in the sample. This resulted in 28 respondents being removed from the sample leaving 449 respondents deemed useful for further analysis.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested evaluating the patterns in the missing data. They argued that evaluating the pattern of missing data is more important than addressing the amount of missing data, even though the latter is still essential. Assessing the patterns in the missing data can identify whether or not the missing data occurs in a random manner or related to specific variables.

Screening the data using SPSS indicated that in total, only 0.9 percent of the data were missing and there were no variables with more than 5 percent of missing data. Since less than 5 percent of missing data is considered acceptable (Churchill & Iacobucci, 1995), evaluation of any pattern in the missing data was not required but it was still necessary to address the issue of missing data. Considering this issue, the Expectation Maximisation (EM) method was used to replace the missing data, which involves a two-steps (the E and M steps) iterative method. The E step makes the best possible estimates of the missing data, given the observed values and the current estimates of the parameters. The M step makes maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters as if the missing data were replaced. The two-step iteration continues until the change in the estimated values is negligible and missing data are replaced (Hair et al., 2010). This method was considered to be appropriate for the following reasons. First, it has been demonstrated to work effectively on studies using random and non-random missing data (Hair et al., 2010). Second, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) posited that with less than 5 percent of missing data, nearly any procedure for treatment of missing data produces similar results.

5.3.2 Outliers

Following the replacement of missing data using the EM method, the data were analysed to detect for univariate and multivariate outliers. Outliers are cases having scores for variables substantially higher or lower than the rest of the cases (Kline, 2005). Outliers should be viewed within the context of the analysis. Hair et al. (2010) posit that outliers are not necessarily problematic but can be beneficial because they may be an indication of the population characteristics that would not be discovered in the normal course of analysis. On the other hand,

outliers are problematic when they are not representative of the population and may seriously mislead statistical tests (Hair et al., 2010).

To identify the existence of univariate outliers, that is across one variable, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest running the frequency distributions of z scores. Cases with scores greater than three standard deviations above the mean are considered to be outliers. Multivariate outliers, that is across a number of variables, can be detected using the Mahalanobis distance (D) statistic which indicates the distance between a set of scores for a case and the sample means for all variables in standard deviation units (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A low p value (e.g., $p < .001$) of D^2 may indicate outliers. The results of the frequency distributions of z-score and the Mahalanobis distance analysis indicated that there were seven cases of univariate and 23 cases of multivariate outliers. Hence, 30 outliers were removed from the data leaving 419 cases ready for further analysis.

5.3.3 Assessment of Normality

Following the previous steps of handling missing data, univariate and multivariate outliers were conducted to prepare the data for a multivariate analysis. The next step was testing the compliance of the data with the statistical assumptions required by multivariate analysis. In multivariate analysis assumption of normality is essential (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is important to evaluate the impact of violating this normality assumption since statistical tests that require normally distributed data may be invalid.

When data distribution is different from the normal distribution, the degree of the normality can be detected by two measures: skewness and kurtosis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Skewness is a measure of symmetry, whereas kurtosis is a measure of the peakedness of the distribution (Hair et al., 2010). For a distribution to be considered normal, the skewness must fall within a range of -3.0 and +3.0 and the kurtosis less than 10.0 (Kline, 2005). Kline advised that "absolute values of the kurtosis index greater than 10.0 may suggest a problem and values greater than 20.0 may indicate a more serious one"(2005, p. 50).

The normality assessment conducted on the data through SPSS generated indices for skewness and kurtosis for all variables, revealed that the indices for skewness ranging from +1.92 to -1.20 fell within the recommended range of +3.0 to -3.0 and the kurtosis indices were less than 2.76. This suggests that the data was normally distributed and met the assumption conditions for SEM (see Tables 5-2, 5-3 and 5-4).

Table 5-1: Descriptive Statistics for Country Image

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Cognitive Country Image	**3.38**			
Indonesia is…				
an important country (cci1)	4.67	1.53	-0.47	-0.37
a well-known country (cci2)	5.45	1.21	-0.88	0.69
a country with a good reputation (cci3)	3.27	1.31	0.34	-0.07
a secure country (cci4)	2.82	1.27	0.52	-0.12
a peaceful country (cci5)	3.22	1.40	0.32	-0.59
an economically developed country (cci6)	3.23	1.29	0.28	-0.42
an economically stable country (cci7)	3.30	1.24	0.17	-0.19
an industrialised country (cci8)	3.24	1.27	0.29	-0.26
a technologically developed country (cci9)	3.11	1.21	0.40	0.11
a country that respects liberties (cci10)	2.68	1.25	0.50	-0.12
a country that respects human rights (cci11)	2.60	1.25	0.63	0.22
a country that respects international laws (cci12)	3.00	1.40	0.35	-0.44
Affective Country Image	**3.96**			
Indonesia is…				
a peace loving country (aci1)	3.69	1.41	-0.11	-0.60
friendly toward us (aci2)	4.11	1.45	-0.31	-0.62
cooperative with us (aci3)	3.97	1.41	-0.24	-0.60
a likable country (aci4)	4.06	1.52	-0.17	-0.51

Table 5-2: Descriptive Statistics for Destination Image

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Cognitive Destination Image	**5.06**			
As a tourist destination Indonesia…				
offers a lot in terms of natural scenic beauty (cdi1)	5.49	1.12	-0.74	0.51
has unique cultural attractions (cdi2)	5.51	1.08	-0.74	0.64
has friendly/hospitable people (cdi3)	5.06	1.29	-0.71	0.45
has a pleasant climate (cdi4)	4.64	1.40	-0.48	-0.21
is a destination that is good value for money (cdi5)	5.52	1.22	-0.98	1.20
offers restful/relaxing atmosphere (cdi6)	4.96	1.27	-0.43	-0.04
has high quality accommodation options (cdi7)	5.07	1.23	-0.52	0.15
has good nightlife (cdi8)	4.78	1.28	-0.38	0.33
provides a variety of recreational activities (cdi9)	5.19	1.11	-0.52	0.32
has many sites to visit (cdi10)	5.52	1.03	-0.47	0.06
is a popular tourist destination (cdi11)	5.86	1.03	-0.90	0.86
offers a high level of personal safety (cdi12)	3.06	1.41	0.36	-0.38
Affective Destination Image	**4.36**			
Unpleasant-Pleasant (adi1)	4.34	1.56	-0.34	-0.44
Gloomy-Exciting (adi2)	4.53	1.26	-0.34	0.39
Sleepy-Arousing (adi3)	4.53	1.12	-0.06	0.70
Distressing-Relaxing (adi4)	4.03	1.52	-0.15	-0.44

Table 5-3: Descriptive Statistics for Personal Values and Behaviour Probability

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Personal Values	**5.40**			
To be self-fulfilled (pv1)	5.11	1.38	-0.64	0.20
To have security (pv2)	5.76	1.15	-0.78	0.21
To have a sense of accomplishment (pv3)	5.44	1.20	-0.77	0.63
To have a sense of belonging (pv4)	5.40	1.21	-0.71	0.56
To be in warm relationships (pv5)	5.65	1.23	-0.88	0.34
To be well respected (pv6)	5.40	1.26	-0.90	0.92
To have excitement (pv7)	4.37	1.42	-0.17	-0.43
To have self-respect (pv8)	6.06	1.04	-1.20	1.37
To have fun and enjoyment in life (pv9)	5.38	1.21	-0.69	0.24
Behaviour Probability	**2.88**			
Probability to visit Indonesia as a tourist (behave_1)	2.57	2.59	1.92	2.76
Chance to recommend to your friends (behave_2)	3.18	2.81	1.30	0.60

Note: N=419. SD = Standard deviation.

5.4 Respondents Demographic Characteristics

The demographic profile of the sample included gender, age group, marital status employment status and income is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5-4: Respondent Demographic Characteristics

Demographic profile	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	239	57.0
Female	180	43.0
	419	100.0
Age		
18-24	5	1.2
25-44	90	21.5
45-64	184	43.9
65+	140	33.4
	419	100.0
Marital status		
Single, never married, divorced, separated,	120	28.6
Married, de facto couple, living together	296	70.6
Declined to answer	3	0.7
	419	100.0
Employment status*)		
Employed	201	47.9
Not employed	218	52.1
	419	100.0
Income		
Less than $30,000	72	17.2
$30,001-$50,000	76	18.1
$50,001-$76,000	67	16.0
$76,001-$107,000	66	15.8
Over $107,000	88	21.0
Refused to answer	50	11.9
	419	100.0
Location		
New South Wales	120	28.6
Australia Capital Territory	10	2.4
Victoria	91	21.7
Tasmania	20	4.8
South Australia	43	10.3
Western Australia	44	10.5
Northern Territory	3	0.7
Queensland	87	20.8
	419	100.0

*) Employed encompass various employment categories. Not employed encompass student, retiree, and unemployed categories.

The sample population comprised 57.0 percent (n=239) male and 43.0 percent (n=180) female. The employment status of the respondents was as follow: 47.9 percent were employed (manager, professional, trades-person and clerical worker)

and 52.1 percent not employed (student, retiree and unemployed). In terms of the respondents' income 21.0 percent of the sample earned $107,000 or more. The geographical distribution of the respondents showed that 28.6 percent were living in New South Wales, 20.8 percent in Queensland and 21.7 percent in Victoria.

5.5 Split-Data

The practice of conducting EFA and CFA on the same sample is generally not advisable (Kline, 2011; Olorunniwo, Hsu, & Udo, 2006), as it may lead to a model that is not necessarily generalisable (Wang & Hsu, 2010). In order to minimise this problem and following Hair et al.'s (2010) recommendations, the data were randomly split creating two subsamples: S1 (n=204) and S2 (n=215). EFA was run on S1, while the two-stage SEM was conducted on S2 to test the measurement and the structural models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Moreover, if similar factor structures were obtained from each randomly split sample, this suggests that the measurement is comparable and robust and increases confidence in the derived solutions due to improved ability to estimate the variability of specific parameter estimates (Muliak, 2009).

5.6 Exploratory Factor Analysis

In EFA information about the observed variables was quantified by examining the correlation between each of the observed variables and the underlying factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, the underlying factors replaced the original set of variables and were used for further statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2006). Each set of variables for each construct, specifically cognitive country image, affective country image, cognitive destination image, affective destination image and personal values, was analysed to identify the underlying factors.

5.6.1 Cognitive Country Image

To identify the underlying factors or dimensions of this construct, all 12 items were entered in an EFA using principal component extraction method with orthogonal Varimax rotation.

The KMO test showed an index of 0.90 which according to Kaiser (1974), is 'meritorious' and greater than the acceptable value of 0.60 as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The Bartlett test of sphericity had a significance value of $p < 0.01$. It has been suggested that there are large correlations among the variables when the Bartlett's test of sphericity values is significant. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indices suggest it was appropriate to employ a factor analysis technique for data examination.

Table 5-5: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Cognitive Country Image

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.90
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2011.5
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

The criteria to determine the number of factors to be retained were based on Eigen values, scree plots, percentage of variance, factor loadings and items evaluation based on theory (factors were maintained when they were in line with theory and removed when they become uninterpretable). Using Eigen values of 1.0 or greater as a criterion, an initial three-factor solution was extracted. However, two items (*an important country* and *a well-known country*) were removed from the analysis due to high cross-loading and low loading within a factor. Following this, the analysis was repeated. This process produced a two-factor solution explaining 79.45 percent of the variances. This cumulative percentage of variance indicated an acceptable result as it is greater than the 50 percent criteria recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1993). The factor loadings, ranging from 0.72 to 0.90, were greater than the decisional rules of at least 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). This indicated that the factors were well-structured. The Cronbach's alpha for Factor 1 (0.94) and Factor 2 (0.92) exceeded the 0.70 criteria (Nunnally, 1978), thus demonstrating acceptable scale reliability.

As indicated in Table 5-6, items including *a country with a good reputation*, *a secure country*, *a peaceful country*, *a country that respects human rights*, *a*

country that respects liberties and *a country that respects international laws* were loaded onto Factor 1, which was labelled Governance.

Factor 2 comprised the following items: *an economically developed country*, *an economically stable country*, *an industrialised country* and *a technologically developed country*. These items suggest the factor relates to level of development in economy, industry and technology. Hence, Factor 2 was labelled Economic-technological development.

Table 5-6: Factor Analysis Results for Cognitive Country Image

Indicators	Factors	
	Governance	Economic-technological development
Cognitive Country Image		
Indonesia is…		
a country with a good reputation	0.79	
a secure country	0.80	
a peaceful country	0.83	
a country that respects human rights	0.87	
a country that respects liberties	0.85	
a country that respects international laws	0.81	
an economically developed country		0.78
an economically stable country		0.72
an industrialised country		0.90
a technologically developed country		0.88
Variance explained (percent)	46.65	32.79
Cumulative variance explained (percent)		79.45
Cronbach's alpha	0.94	0.92

5.6.2 Affective Country Image

To identify the underlying factors for this construct, all four items were entered in EFA using a principal component extraction method with orthogonal Varimax rotation. The KMO test showed an index of 0.836 which according to Kaiser (1974) is 'meritorious' and greater than the acceptable values of 0.60 as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significant value of $p < 0.01$. The KMO and Bartlett's tests of sphericity indices suggest it was appropriate to employ factor analysis techniques for data examination (see Table 5-7).

Table 5-7: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Affective Country Image

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.836
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	575.468
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Principal component analysis identified a one-factor solution with high factor loadings (>0.87) and explaining 78 percent of the total variance. This percentage of variance indicated an acceptable result as it is greater than the 50 percent criteria recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1993). The factor loadings, ranging from 0.87 to 0.92, were greater than the decisional rules of at least 0.50 (Hair et al. 2010). In addition, the Cronbach alpha was 0.91 demonstrating the reliability of the unidimensional construct. These results are presented in Table 5-8.

Table 5-8: Factor Analysis Results for Affective Country Image

Indicators	Factor Affective Country Image
Affective Country Image	
Indonesia is…	
friendly toward us	0.92
cooperative with us	0.91
a likable country	0.87
a peace loving country	0.87
Variance explained (percent)	0.78
Cumulative variance explained (percent)	0.78
Cronbach's alpha	0.91

5.6.3 Cognitive Destination Image

To identify the underlying factors or dimensions of this construct, all 12 items were entered in an EFA using the principal component extraction method with orthogonal Varimax rotation.

The KMO test showed an index of 0.901 which according to Kaiser (1974), is 'marvellous' and greater than the acceptable value of 0.60 as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significance value of $p < 0.01$.The results of these two tests suggest that the data was appropriate for an EFA.

Table5-9: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Cognitive Destination Image

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.901
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1124.11
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

The orthogonal Varimax rotation yielded an initial two factor solution. However, four items (*has friendly/hospitable people, has a pleasant climate, offers*

restful/relaxing atmosphere and offers a high level of personal safety) were removed from the analysis due to high cross-loadings and low loading within a factor. Following this, the analysis was repeated. This process produced a single factor solution which explained 64.83 percent of the variance. This percentage of variance indicated an acceptable result as it is greater than the 50 percent criteria recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1993). The factor loadings, ranging from 0.71 to 0.88, were greater than the decisional rules of at least 0.50 (Hair et al. 2010). In addition, the Cronbach alpha was 0.91 demonstrating the reliability of the unidimensional construct. These results are presented in Table 5-10.

Table 5-10: Factor Analysis Results for Cognitive Destination Image

Indicators	Factor Cognitive Destination Image
Cognitive Destination Image	
Indonesia…	
offers a lot in terms of natural scenic beauty	0.78
has unique cultural attractions	0.83
is a destination that is good value for money	0.80
has high quality accommodation options	0.83
has good nightlife	0.71
provides a variety of recreational activities	0.86
has many sites to visit	0.88
is a popular tourist destination	0.75
Variance explained (percent)	64.83
Cumulative variance explained (percent)	64.83
Cronbach's alpha	0.91

5.6.4 Affective Destination Image

To identify the underlying factors for this construct, all four items were entered in EFA using the principal component extraction method with orthogonal Varimax rotation. The KMO test showed an index of 0.779 which according to Kaiser (1974) is 'middling' and greater than the acceptable values of 0.60 as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significant value of $p < 0.01$. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indices suggest it was appropriate to employ a factor analysis technique for data examination (see Table 5-11).

Table5-11: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Affective Destination Image

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.779
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	407.667
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

Principal component analysis identified a one-factor solution explaining 84 percent of the total variance. This percentage of variance indicated an acceptable result as it is greater than the 50 percent criteria recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1993). The factor loadings, ranging from 0.78 to 0.88, were greater than the decisional rules of at least 0.50 (Hair et al. 2010). In addition, the Cronbach alpha was 0.86, greater than the minimum value of 0.70 suggested by Nunnally (1978), demonstrating the reliability of the unidimensional construct. These results are presented in Table 5-12.

Table 5-12: Factor Analysis Results for Affective Destination Image

Indicators	Factor
	Affective Destination Image
Affective Destination Image	
Gloomy-Exciting	0.88
Unpleasant-Pleasant	0.86
Distressing-Relaxing	0.86
Sleepy-Arousing	0.78
Variance explained (percent)	0.84
Cumulative variance explained (percent)	0.84
Cronbach's alpha	0.86

5.6.5 Personal Values

To identify the underlying factors or dimensions of this construct, all nine items were entered in an EFA using the principal component extraction method with orthogonal Varimax rotation.

The KMO test showed an index of 0.818 which according to Kaiser (1974) is 'meritorious' and greater than the acceptable value of 0.60 as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significance value of $p < 0.01$. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indices suggest it was appropriate to employ a factor analysis technique for data examination (see Table 5-13).

Table 5-13: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Personal Values

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.818
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	662.736
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

The orthogonal Varimax rotation yielded a two-factor solution explaining 59.38 percent of the variance. This percentage of variance indicated an acceptable result as it is greater than the 50 percent criteria recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (1993). The factor loadings, ranging from 0.55 to 0.88, were greater than the decisional rules of at least 0.50 (Hair et al. 2010). In addition, the Cronbach's alpha for Factor 1 (0.84) and Factor 2 (0.74) exceeded the 0.70 criteria (Nunnally, 1978), thus demonstrating acceptable scale reliability. These results are presented in Table 5-14.

The first factor comprised of seven items: *to be self-fulfilled*, *to have security*, *to have a sense of accomplishment*, *to have a sense of belonging*, *to be in the warm relationships*, *to be well respected* and *to have self-respect* were labelled 'Externally-oriented values'. The second factor comprised the following items: *to have excitement* and *to have fun and enjoyment in life*. This factor was labelled 'Internally-oriented values'.

Table 5-14: Factor Analysis Results for Personal Values

Indicators	Factors	
	External values	Internal values
Personal Values		
To be self-fulfilled	0.59	
To have security	0.75	
To have a sense of accomplishment	0.82	
To have a sense of belonging	0.73	
To be in warm relationships	0.55	
To be well respected	0.69	
To have self-respect	0.75	
To have excitement		0.88
To have fun and enjoyment in life		0.86
Variance explained (percent)	38.62	20.76
Cumulative variance explained (percent)		59.38
Cronbach's alpha	0.84	0.74

5.7 One-Factor Congeneric Model

Once EFA was conducted for each of the constructs, CFA, by way of one-factor congeneric models, was conducted to test the measurement model of all latent variables (factors) generated by EFA. The purpose of undertaking one-factor congeneric models was to confirm the unidimensionality of the latent variables. The one-factor congeneric model represents the regression of a set of observed variables on a latent variable. In SEM, the goodness-of-fit of a one-factor congeneric model is also regarded as a confirmatory test of the content validity of the factor. In the current research, six one-factor congeneric models were examined: Governance; Economic-technological development; Affective country image; Cognitive destination image; and Affective destination image. Two latent factors that represent the personal values construct, labelled externally-oriented values and internally-oriented values were examined simultaneously due to one of

the factor (internally oriented values) having less than three observed variables (items).

5.7.1 Governance

A two-factor solution of the cognitive country image construct was obtained from EFA results labelled Governance and Economic-technological development. Based on the EFA results Governance was measured by six items. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the model was misspecified as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 248.089$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 27.565$, GFI = 0.817, CFI = 0.898, TLI = 0.830, RMSEA = 0.252 and SRMR = 0.0594.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that three items: *a secure country*, *a peaceful country* and *a country with a good reputation* were responsible for the model misspecification. SEM scholars (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Byrne, 2010; Chin, Peterson, & Brown, 2008; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) suggest that the improvement of the model can be conducted by removing the problematic items if justified by the modification indices. Similarly, Hair et al. (2010, p. 713) posit that "an item that does not perform well with respect to the model integrity, model fit, or construct validity" can be deleted.

The removal of the three items resulted in a revised model comprised of three items. In the case of a one-factor congeneric model containing only three items, a pair of parameters have to be constrained so that the model can be identified (Byrne, 2010). To determine which parameters to constrain, the critical ratio differences (CRDIFF) method was used. This method generates a table of critical ratios for the pairwise parameter estimates. According to Byrne (2010) any pairs of parameters with CRDIFF values less than 2 may be equally constrained to identify the model. In this case, the CRDIFF indicated that parameters associated with the item *a country that respects liberties* (par_2) and *a country that respects international laws* (par_3) (CRDIFF = 0.242) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified (see Table 5-15).

Table 5-15: CRDIFF for Governance

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	0.000					
par_2	-2.172	0.000				
par_3	-1.367	**0.242**	0.000			
par_4	-20.457	-21.726	-18.378	0.000		
par_5	-19.955	-15.614	-14.332	3.553	0.000	
par_6	-9.349	-7.631	-6.982	9.153	7.465	0.000

This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 0.059$, $p = 0.809$, $\chi^2/df = 0.059$, GFI = 1.000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.002, RMSEA = 0.000 and SRMR = 0.0010. All factor loadings exceeded the minimum value of 0.40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) ranging from 0.82 to 0.98 (see Figure 5-6).

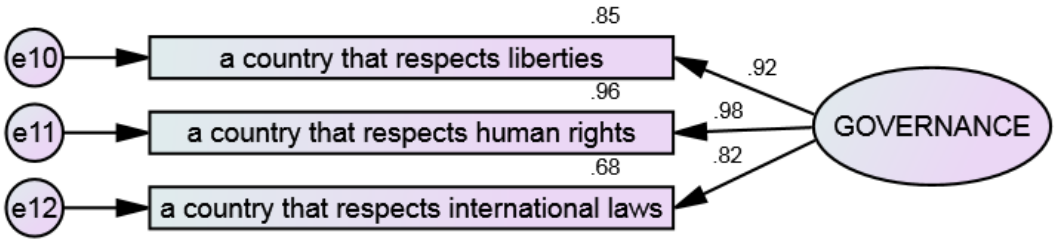

Figure 5-1: One-Factor Congeneric Model: Governance

5.7.2 Economic-Technological Development

The fit indices for the one-factor congeneric model for Economic-technological development revealed that the data did not fit with the model very well by $\chi^2 = 76.933$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 8.467$, GFI = 0.818, CFI = 0.865, TLI = 0.594, RMSEA = 0.457 and SRMR = 0.0651. Hence, an improvement to the model was needed.

The modification indices showed high covariances between the measurement errors of items *an industrialised country* and *a technologically developed country*. According to Byrne (2010), these high measurement error covariances represent an overlap in items content. Hence, the item *an industrialised country* was deleted. This process resulted in a new model comprised of three items. A pair of parameters was then equally constrained to identify the model. Table 5-16 shows that it was valid to constrain parameters associated with the item *an economically*

developed country (par_5) and the item *an economically stable country* (par-6) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified (CRDIFF = 1.704).

Table 5-16: CRDIFF for Economic-Technological Development

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	5.740	.000				
par_3	3.687	-2.321	.000			
par_4	-3.831	-8.648	-6.739	.000		
par_5	-11.251	-13.384	-15.760	-6.058	.000	
par_6	-8.820	-15.594	-10.832	-4.930	**1.704**	.000

This resulted in a moderately good fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 5.403, p = 0.020, χ^2/df = 5.403, GFI = 0.992, CFI = 0.995, TLI = 0.984, RMSEA = 0.103 and SRMR = 0.0098. While RMSEA and χ^2/df were slightly over the threshold of 0.08 and 5 respectively, other fit indices were within the recommended threshold levels, indicating an acceptable fit. An inspection of the modification indices indicated that the model was saturated. Hence, there was no need for further modification to the model. All items loaded highly on this factor ranging from 0.76 to 0.92 (see Figure 5-7).

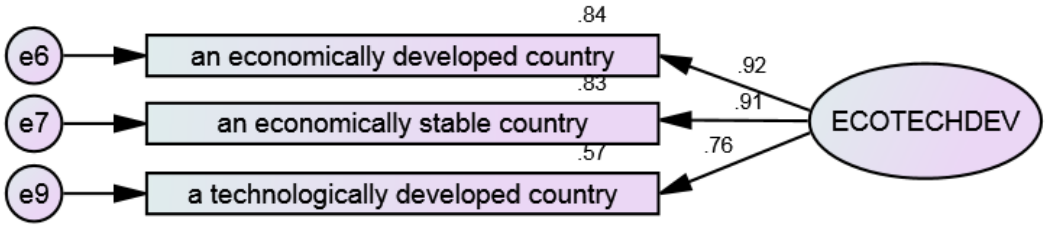

Figure 5-2: One-Factor Congeneric Model: Economic-Technological Development

5.7.3 Affective Country Image

The one-factor congeneric model for Affective country image revealed a moderately good fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 6.945, p = 0.031, χ^2/df = 3.473, GFI = 0.983, CFI = 0.993, TLI = 0.980, RMSEA = 0.107 and SRMR = 0.0144.

An inspection of the modification indices indicated that the model could be respecified by removing the item *a likable country* as the measurement error of this item was highly correlated with the measurement error of the item *peace loving country*. The removal of item 'a likable country' resulted in a new model comprised of three items. A pair of parameter was then equally constrained to allow the model to be identified.

Table 5-17 indicated that it was valid to constrained parameters associated with item 'cooperative with us' (par_1) and item 'friendly toward us' (par-2) (CRDIFF = 1.385).

Table 5-17: CRDIFF for Affective Country Image

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	0.000					
par_2	**1.385**	0.000				
par_3	-2.269	-3.541	0.000			
par_4	-7.995	-10.620	-6.991	0.000		
par_5	-11.153	-9.824	-8.721	-1.191	0.000	
par_6	-5.469	-6.533	-3.723	2.936	3.873	0.000

The specification of equality of constrained parameters resulted in a good fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 1.921, p = 0.166, χ^2/df = 1.921, GFI = 0.994, CFI = 0.998, TLI = 0.994, RMSEA = 0.066 and SRMR = 0.0066. All factor loading exceeded 0.80 (see Figure 5-8).

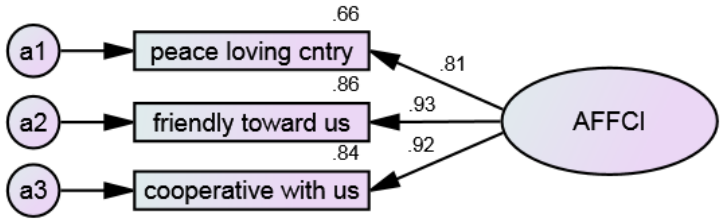

Figure 5-3: One-Factor Congeneric Model: Affective Country Image

5.7.4 Cognitive Destination Image

A one-factor congeneric model for cognitive destination image revealed a poor fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 117.103, p = 0.000, χ^2/df = 8.855, GFI = 0.822, CFI

= 0.855, TLI = 0.797, RMSEA = 0.192 and SRMR = 0.0144. An inspection of the modification indices indicated that the measurement errors of four items appeared to be highly correlated with other items' measurement errors. These items were: *has a unique cultural attraction, offers a lot in term of natural scenic beauty, has good nightlife* and *is a destination that is good value for money*. In an effort to address this problem, the model was respecified with the four items deleted. The removal of these items resulted in a good fit model: $\chi^2 = 4.326$, $p = 0.115$, $\chi^2/df = 2.163$, GFI = 0.991, CFI = 0.995, TLI = 0.984, RMSEA = 0.074 and SRMR = 0.0160. All factor loadings exceeded 0.63 (see Figure 5-9).

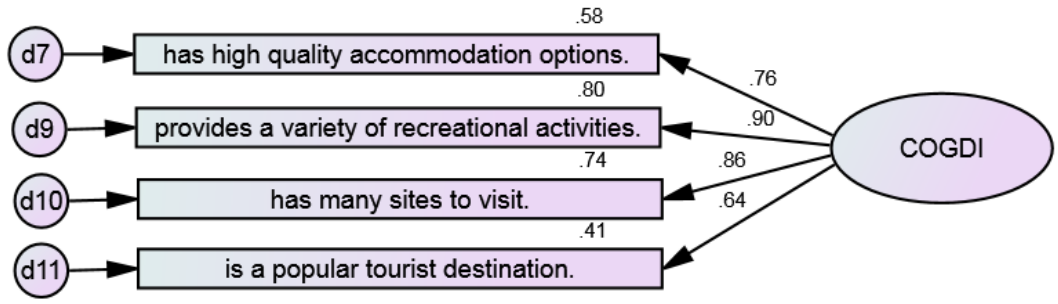

Figure 5-4: One-Factor Congeneric Model: Cognitive Destination Image

5.7.5 Affective Destination Image

The initial one-factor congeneric model for affective destination image revealed that the measurement errors for items 'Unpleasant-Pleasant' and 'Distressing-Relaxing' were highly correlated resulting in a poor fit model to the data: $\chi^2 = 27.898$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 13.949$, GFI = 0.938, CFI = 0.932, TLI = 0.797, RMSEA = 0.246 and SRMR = 0.0467. According to Jöreskog and Sörbom (1996, p. 306),

> …when the correlation among the observed variables caused by the construct [in this case, *affective destination image*] has been accounted for, there seems to be a correlation left between the two items associated with these error terms. This correlation can be interpreted as an indication that [in this case, *Unpleasant-Pleasant* and *Distressing-Relaxing*] correlate more than can be explained by [in this case, *affective country image*].

In other words, while 'Unpleasant-Pleasant' and 'Distressing-Relaxing' may be indicators of affective destination image, they may also be measuring another factor. Methods for re-specifying the model include removing one of the items or co-varying the error terms (Holmes-Smith, 2013). This model was respecified by removing the *Distressing-Relaxing* item. As a result, the model was comprised of three items. A pair of parameters was then equally constrained using a critical ratio for differences method. According to Byrne (2010), any pairs of parameters with CRDIFF values less than 2 may be equally constrained to identify the model. Table 5-18 shows that it was valid to constrain parameters associated with par_1 (Unpleasant-Pleasant) and par-2 (Gloomy-Exciting) to be equal (CRDIFF value = 0.884).

This specification of equality constraints resulted in a good fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 0.817, p = 0.366, χ^2/df = 0.817, GFI = 0.997, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.002, RMSEA = 0.000 and SRMR = 0.0132. All factor loadings exceeded 0.68 (see Figure 5-10).

Table 5-18: CRDIFF for Affective Destination Image

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	**.884**	.000				
par_3	-4.039	-5.149	.000			
par_4	.660	.216	2.903	.000		
par_5	-8.489	-6.393	-5.607	-4.769	.000	
par_6	-3.324	-6.331	-.551	-3.948	3.407	.000

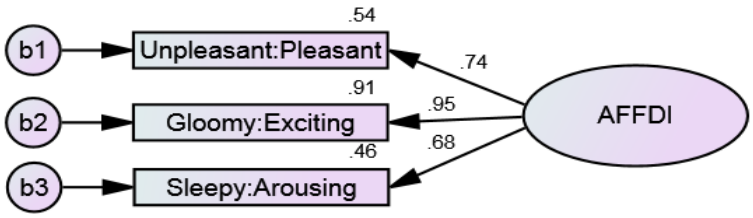

Figure 5-5: One-Factor Congeneric Model: Affective Destination Image

5.7.6 Personal Values

The previous EFA for personal values resulted in a two-factor solution labelled externally oriented values with seven items (indicators) and internally oriented values with only two items (indicators). As a one-factor congeneric model with only two items will result in an unidentifiable model (Byrne, 2013), the measurement model analysis for these two factors was conducted simultaneously. The initial analysis for this measurement model indicated that the model did not adequately fit the data: χ^2 = 25.055, p = 0.000, χ^2/df = 4.810, GFI = 0.889, CFI = 0.867, TLI = 0.815, RMSEA = 0.133 and SRMR = 0.0631. An inspection of the modification indices revealed that three items: *To have a sense of accomplishment*, *To be in warm relationships* and *To have self-respect* were responsible for the model's poor fit. After re-specifying the model by removing the three problematic items, the result indicated a good fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 11.503, p = 0.175, χ^2/df = 1.438, GFI = 0.983, CFI = 0.990, TLI = 0.981, RMSEA = 0.045 and SRMR = 0.0277. All factor loadings exceeded the minimum value of 0.40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) ranging from 0.59 to 0.86 (see Figure 5-11).

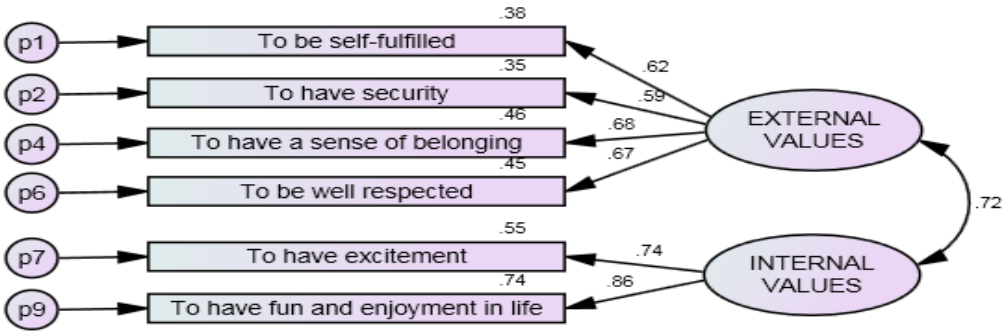

Figure 5-6: Measurement Model for Personal Values

The modified model above provides evidence to support Hypothesis 4_a that the values that comprise the LOV are represented by a smaller number of personal value domains and Hypothesis 4_bthat the values that comprise the LOV are represented by internally oriented and externally oriented value domains.

5.7.7 Behaviour Probability

As the behaviour probability construct comprised only two items (indicators), an application of a one-factor congeneric model would lead to an unidentifiable model. However, Kline (2005, p. 172) posits that

> If a standard CFA model with a single factor has at least three indicators, the model is identified. If a standard model with two or more factors has at least two indicators per factor, the model is identified.

Therefore, the behaviour probability construct was examined using CFA together with other constructs, as outlined in the next section.

5.8 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Following the assessments of the one-factor congeneric model, a CFA was performed to determine the distinctiveness and the discriminant validity of all latent variables: Governance; Economic-technological development; Affective country image; Cognitive destination image; Affective destination image; Externally-oriented values, Internally-oriented values and Behaviour probability.

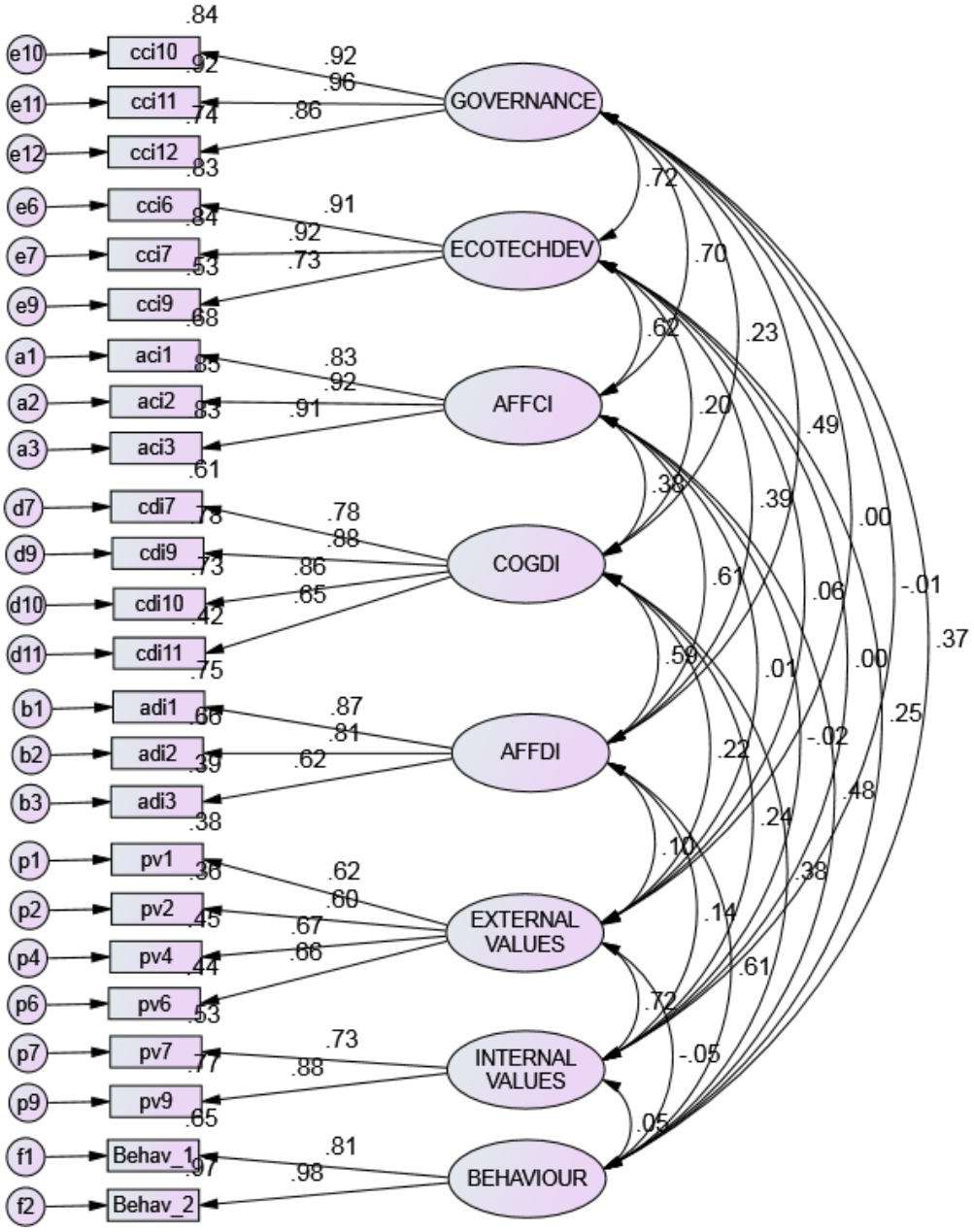

Figure 5-7: Initial Confirmatory Factor Analysis for all Constructs

The CFA revealed a moderately good fit of the data to the model: χ^2 = 436.702, *p* = 0.000, χ^2/df = 1.950, GFI = 0.856, CFI = 0.937, TLI = 0.922, RMSEA = 0.067 and SRMR = 0.0586.

An inspection of the modification indices in the model indicated that the measurement error of items *Sleepy-Arousing* and *Gloomy-Exciting* of Affective destination image were highly correlated. The model was then re-specified by removing the item *Sleepy-Arousing*. The removal of the problematic item changed

the number of items in the Affective destination image. As a result the Affective destination image comprised only two items (indicators). While some authors prefer to use at least three items to measure one factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), Bollen (1989) and Kline, (2005) found that two items are sufficient. In addition, Kenny's (1979, p. 143) rule of thumb about the number of items is: "two might be fine, three is better, four is best and anything more is gravy". Hence, the Affective destination image was retained in the model.

After the model was re-specified, the goodness-of-fit indices indicated a better fit of the data to the model compare to the initial model with $\chi^2 = 363.350$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 1.800$, GFI = 0.878, CFI = 0.950, TLI = 0.937, RMSEA = 0.061 and SRMR = 0.0570. An investigation on the solution presented in Figure 5-13 indicates that all constructs had factor loadings greater than the minimum value of 0.40 as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), ranging from 0.60 to 0.98. Moreover, the coefficient correlations between the constructs were under the maximum value of 0.85 (Kline, 2005), which indicated the distinctiveness of the constructs.

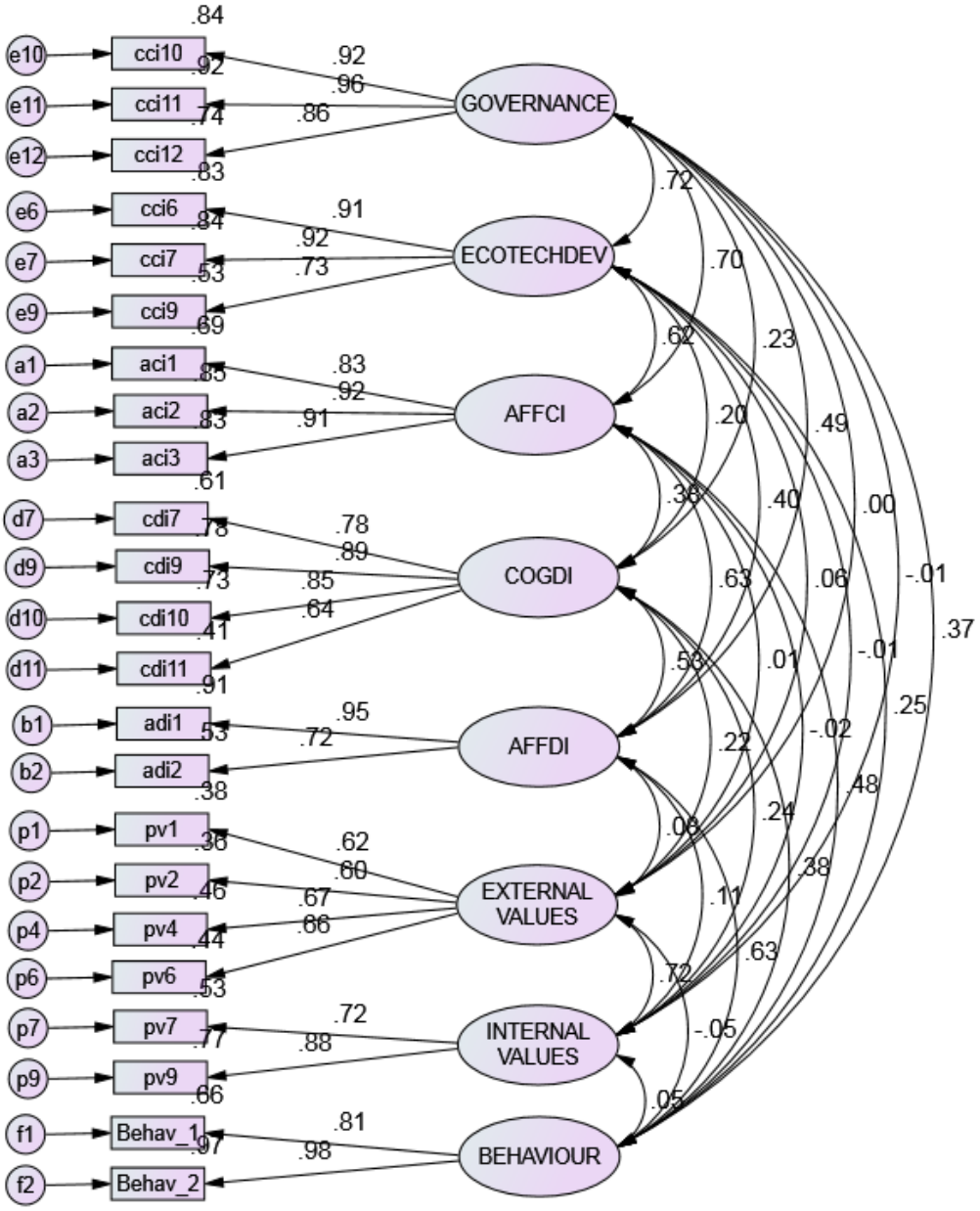

Figure 5-8: Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis for all Constructs

In the next section, the testing for reliability and validity of all constructs were discussed.

5.9 Reliability and Validity of the Constructs

Before testing the hypothesis in the structural model (stage two), the reliability and validity of the underlying constructs were assessed. The current research assessed reliability using Cronbach's alpha and Fornell and Larckel's (1981)

construct reliability (CR). Table 5-15 highlights that the Cronbach's alpha for all the constructs exceeded the cut-off level of 0.70. The reliabilities of all constructs were also above the minimum value of 0.60 with borderline exception of the behaviour probability. These results indicated that the constructs were reliable.

Table 5-19: Reliability and Validity Test

Construct	Indicator	Standardised Loadings	Cronbach α	C R
Governance	cci10	0.915	0.931	0.894
	cci11	0.958		
	cci12	0.861		
Economic-Technological Development	cci6	0.911	0.887	0.836
	cci7	0.916		
	cci9	0.729		
Affective Country Image	aci1	0.829	0.915	0.838
	aci2	0.922		
	aci3	0.912		
Cognitive Destination Image	cdi7	0.782	0.864	0.845
	cdi9	0.885		
	cdi10	0.855		
	cdi11	0.642		
Affective Destination Image	adi1	0.953	0.804	0.743
	adi2	0.725		
Externally - oriented Values	pv1	0.619	0.730	0.642
	pv2	0.601		
	pv4	0.675		
	pv6	0.662		
Internally-oriented Values	pv7	0.725	0.771	0.679
	pv9	0.878		
Behaviour Probability	Behav_1	0.810	0.886	0.538
	Behav_2	0.983		

The current research assessed the validity of the constructs using convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is achieved when estimated coefficients for all the indicators (factor loadings) on the underlying constructs are significantly different from zero (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Holmes-Smith, 2013). Table 5-19 illustrates that all items had factor loadings greater than 0.60 and were statistically significant. These high factor loadings indicated that the items measure their respective factors well. The goodness-of-fit measures for the one-factor congeneric models reported in Section 5.7 can also be regarded as confirming the convergent validity of the constructs in this study.

Discriminant validity was assessed using two methods. The first method suggests that the estimated correlations between two constructs should not be excessively high (e.g. < 0.85) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2005). As can be seen in Table 5-20, all estimated correlations between constructs are below 0.85.

Table 5-20: Correlation Matrix for the Measurement Model

Construct	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Governance	2.68	1.22	1.00						
2. Eco-tech development	3.18	1.15	0.72	1.00					
3. Affective country image	3.87	1.38	0.70	0.62	1.00				
4. Cognitive destination image	5.38	0.94	0.23	0.20	0.38	1.00			
5. Affective destination image	4.35	1.31	0.49	0.40	0.63	0.53	1.00		
6. Externally-oriented values	5.45	0.93	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.22	0.08	1.00	
7. Internally-oriented values	4.99	1.15	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	0.24	0.11	0.72	1.00
8. Behaviour probability	2.82	2.59	0.37	0.25	0.49	0.39	0.63	-0.05	0.05

The second method, a SEM-based method recommended by Bagozzi et al. (1991), involved the use of constrained and unconstrained model of two constructs. If the correlation between two constructs is 1.00, then it is concluded that the two constructs are essentially one construct. To determine the discriminant validity, first, the unconstrained is tested and the χ^2 is noted. Second, the correlation between the two constructs is constrained to 1.00 and the corresponding χ^2 is noted. If constraining the constructs worsens the model fit (indicated by the difference between the two χ^2 being statistically significant), it can be concluded that the two constructs are different. Table 5-21illustrates that all χ^2 differences

were significant at $p< 0.000$. In other words, constraining the correlations between constructs to 1.00 had significantly worsened the model. Thus, all the two pair constructs were different. In other words, the discriminant validity among the constructs was achieved.

Table 5-21: χ^2 differences between Constrained and Unconstrained Model

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Governance (GOV)							
2. Eco-tech development (ETD)	180.6						
3. Affective country image (ACI)	240.7	238.1					
4. Cognitive destination image (CDI)	544.6	392.8	422.2				
5. Affective destination image (ADI)	110.7	122.9	94.6	88.4			
6. Externally-oriented values (EXT)	163.6	161.3	159.0	155.7	137.4		
7. Internally-oriented values (INT)	111.0	112.2	111.1	108.4	108.3	34.0	
8. Behaviour probability (BP)	197.2	197.2	180.9	199.4	91.4	215.5	110.7

Note: All χ^2 differences were significant at $p< 0.001$

5.10 The Structural Model

After all constructs in the measurement model were validated (the first stage) and satisfactory fits were achieved, the structural model was then tested as a second stage of the analysis (Holmes-Smith, 2013; Kline, 2005). Rocha and Chelladurai (2012) maintain that the goodness-of-fit indices in a structural model depend on the number of parameters to be estimated and the sample size. Bentler and Chow (1987) suggest that the ratio of estimated parameters to sample size should be at least 5:1. As the ratio of estimated parameters (q=62) to sample size (n=215) was low (n/q=3.5), this study used a parcelling approach to improve the estimated parameter to sample size ratio (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). Observed variables (items) for each construct were averaged creating composites of items as the indicators of the constructs. This approach reduces random errors, increases the stability of the parameter estimates (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998) and generates a more parsimonious model (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002) leading to results that are more generalisable than if this issue is not addressed (Cunningham, 2008).

The structural model analysis was used to test the relationships as proposed in Hypotheses 1_a, 1_b, 2_a, 2_b, 3_a, 3_b, 3_c, 3_d, 5_a and 5_b. Figure 5-14 presents the results of the initial structural model analysis with the standardised estimate.

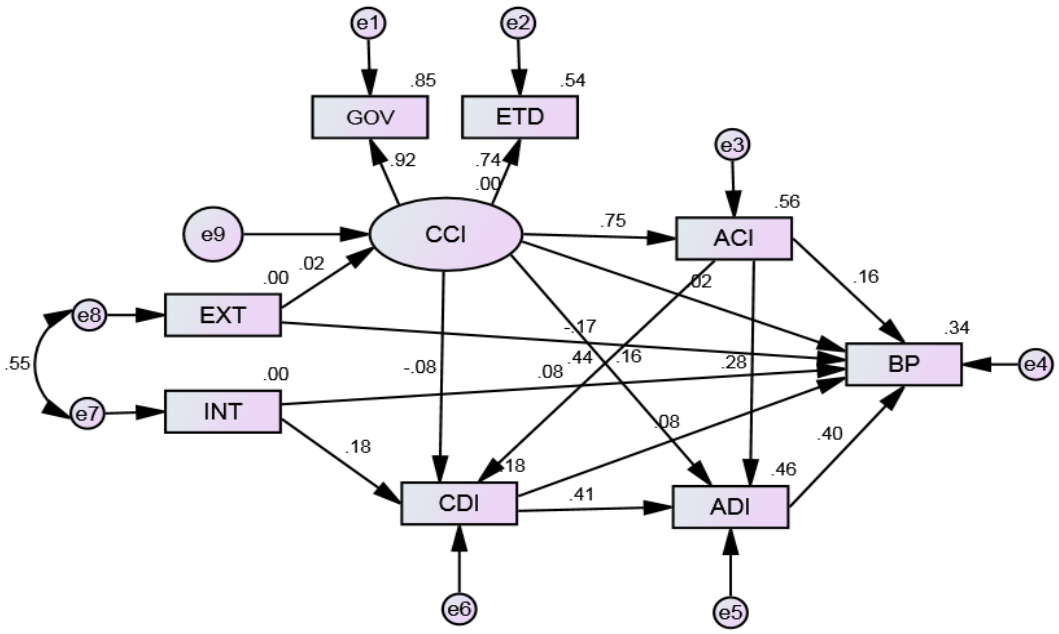

Figure 5-9: Results of the Initial Structural Model Analysis

The goodness-of-fit indices of the initial structural model indicated that the data fit the model well: $\chi^2 = 8.364$, $p = 0.680$, $\chi^2/df = .760$, GFI = 0.990, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.011, RMSEA = 0.000 and SRMR = 0.0228. The results of the initial structural model analysis also indicated that a number of relationships were not statistically significant. Table 5-22 summarises the relationship paths as a result of the initial structural model analysis.

Table 5-22: Relationship Paths in the Initial Structural Model

Relationships			STD Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*	Label
CCI	--->	ACI	0.748	0.115	10.543	0.000	Significant
CDI	--->	ADI	0.412	0.076	7.524	0.000	Significant
CCI	--->	CDI	-0.081	0.120	-0.751	0.453	Not significant
ACI	--->	CDI	0.441	0.070	4.334	0.000	Significant
ACI	--->	ADI	0.278	0.083	3.176	0.001	Significant
CCI	--->	ADI	0.157	0.138	1.762	0.078	Not significant
CCI	--->	BP	0.016	0.302	0.162	0.871	Not significant
ACI	--->	BP	0.159	0.184	1.637	0.102	Not significant
CDI	--->	BP	0.084	0.191	1.215	0.224	Not significant
ADI	--->	BP	0.401	0.151	5.299	0.000	Significant
EXT	--->	CCI	0.018	0.066	0.252	0.801	Not significant
EXT	--->	BP	-0.167	0.187	-2.511	0.012	Significant
INT	--->	CDI	0.178	0.051	2.881	0.004	Significant
INT	--->	BP	0.083	0.152	1.234	0.217	Not significant

Table 5-22 illustrates that seven out of 14 relationship paths were not statistically significant. A number of scholars ((Bentler & Chou, 1987; Byrne, 2013; Kline, 2005) suggest that re-specifying the model by removing the non-significant paths would possibly provide a better fit to the data. Following this suggestion, a modified structural model was created by removing the non-significant paths, allowing the most parsimonious structural model to be defined. The model re-specification procedure was conducted by removing non-significant hypothesised paths. As removing one hypothesised path would change the goodness-of-fit indices of the model and the coefficient of the other paths, the non-significant paths were removed one at a time based on the descended *p*-value.

The process of re-specifying the structural model resulted in the most parsimonious modified structural model, as shown in Figure 5-15.

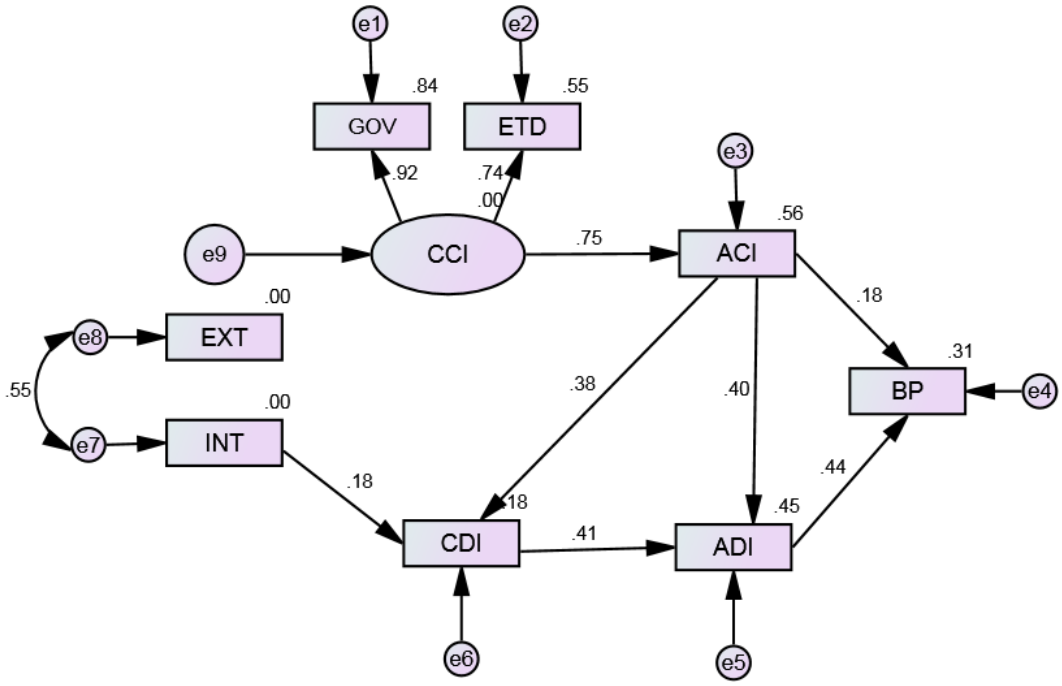

Figure 5-10: Results of the Modified Structural Model Analysis

The goodness-of-fit indices of the modified structural model indicated the model fit the data well: χ^2 = 18.987, p = 0.393, χ^2/df = 1.055, GFI = 0.979, CFI = 0.998, TLI = 0.997, RMSEA = 0.016 and SRMR = 0.0311. Table 5-23 summarises the statistically significant relationship paths based on the modified structural model.

Table 5-23: Relationship Paths in the Modified Structural Model

Relationships			STD Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*
CCI	--->	ACI	0.75	0.115	10.587	0.000
CDI	--->	ADI	0.41	0.077	7.379	0.000
ACI	--->	CDI	0.38	0.042	6.132	0.000
ACI	--->	ADI	0.40	0.052	7.227	0.000
ACI	--->	BP	0.18	0.128	2.581	0.010
INT	--->	CDI	0.18	0.051	2.861	0.004
ADI	--->	BP	0.44	0.135	6.537	0.000

Table 5-24 shows the squared multiple correlation of the endogenous variables in the modified model.

Table 5-24: Squared Multiple Correlations

Construct	R^2
CDI	0.18
ACI	0.56
ADI	0.45
BP	0.31

Based on the modified structural model, Hypotheses 1_a, 1_b, 2_a, 2_b, 3_a, 3_b, 3_c and 3_d were tested. The results are presented in Table 5-25.

Table 5-25: Testing the Hypotheses

Hypothesised Relationship				S/NS	Hypothesis
H1a	CCI	--->	ACI	Significant	Supported
H1b	CDI	--->	ADI	Significant	Supported
H2a	CCI	--->	CDI	Not significant	Not supported
	ACI	--->	CDI	Significant	
H2b	CCI	--->	ADI	Not significant	Supported
	ACI	--->	ADI	Significant	
H3a	CCI	--->	BP	Not significant	Not supported
H3b	ACI	--->	BP	Significant	Supported
H3c	CDI	--->	BP	Not significant	Not supported
H3d	ADI	--->	BP	Significant	Supported

5.11 Validation of the Modified Model

To determine whether the modified model has the best fit, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggest evaluating the model by comparing the goodness-of-fit of the model with a series of alternate nested models that removed one of the links between constructs. The results of this process are summarised in Table 5-26.

Table 5-26: Comparison of Alternate Models

Model	$\chi 2$	*p* -values	$\chi 2$/df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Proposed model	18.987	0.393	1.055	0.979	0.998	0.997	0.016	0.031
Alt 1: Remove the link ACI → BP	25.558	0.143	1.345	0.973	0.989	0.984	0.040	0.043
Alt 2: Remove the link ACI → CDI	53.618	0.000	2.822	0.945	0.941	0.913	0.092	0.031
Alt 3: Remove the link ADI → BP	57.951	0.000	3.050	0.940	0.934	0.903	0.098	0.068
Alt 4: Remove the link ACI → ADI	65.840	0.000	3.465	0.935	0.921	0.883	0.107	0.092
Alt 5: Remove the link CDI → ADI	67.497	0.000	3.552	0.935	0.918	0.879	0.109	0.076

Table 5-26 illustrates that removing a link between constructs one at a time had worsen the model fit. Removing the links between CDI - ADI, ACI - ADI, ADI - BP and ACI - CDI had resulted in poor fit models (indicated by $p< 0.05$ and RMSEA > 0.08). Removing the link between ACI – BP, however, did not worsen the model fit that much as all the fit indices were within the fit criteria. To determine whether the proposed model should be accepted compared to the alternate models, sequential Chi-square difference tests were conducted by comparing the Chi-square values for the proposed model and each of the alternate models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). A statistically significant result would indicate that removing an estimated link (parameter) in the alternate model had reduced the explanation given by the proposed model. Thus, the proposed model would be accepted. The Chi-square difference test results are presented in Table 5-27.

Table 5-27: Chi-square Difference Tests

Model	$\chi 2$	df	$\Delta \chi 2$	Δ df	*p*	Label
Proposed model	18.987	18				
Alt 1: Remove the link ACI → BP	25.558	19	6.570	1	0.010	Significant
Alt 2: Remove the link ACI → CDI	53.618	19	34.631	1	0.000	Significant
Alt 3: Remove the link ADI → BP	57.951	19	38.963	1	0.000	Significant
Alt 4: Remove the link ACI → ADI	65.840	19	46.853	1	0.000	Significant
Alt 5: Remove the link CDI → ADI	67.497	19	48.509	1	0.000	Significant

As all the Chi-square differences were significant, the proposed model was accepted compare to the alternate models.

5.12 Mediation Effects

Regarding the mediation roles of country image and destination image, the proposed modified structural model (Figure 5-15) indicates that country image did not mediate the relationship between personal values domains and behaviour probability. Hence Hypothesis 5a was not supported. On the other hand, the results of the structural model analysis demonstrated that destination image was indeed mediating the relationship between personal values domains and behaviour probability. Thus, Hypotheses 5b was supported. The sizes of the direct, indirect

and total effect of the relationships among the constructs in the proposed modified structural model are presented in Table 5-28.

Table 5-28: Standardised Direct, Indirect and Total Effects

Exogenous Variables	Effects	Endogenous Variables			
		ACI	CDI	ADI	BP
CCI	Direct	0.75	-	-	-
	Indirect	-	0.29	0.41	0.32
	Total	0.75	0.29	0.41	0.32
ACI	Direct	-	0.38	0.40	0.18
	Indirect	-	-	0.15	0.25
	Total	-	0.38	0.55	0.42
INT	Direct	-	0.18	-	-
	Indirect	-	-	0.07	0.03
	Total	-	0.18	0.07	0.03
CDI	Direct	-	-	0.41	-
	Indirect	-	-	-	0.18
	Total		-	0.41	0.18
ADI	Direct	-	-	-	0.44
	Indirect	-	-	-	-
	Total	-	-	-	0.44
All effects are significant at $p < 0.01$					

5.13 Summary of the Hypotheses Testing

The measurement and the structural model analysis (the first stage and the second stage) provide insights into the hypothesised relationships between the constructs. While Hypotheses 4_a and 4_b were tested in the measurement model stage, the other hypotheses (1_a, 1_b, 2_a, 2_b, 3_a, 3_b, 3_c, 3_d, 5_a and 5_b) were tested in the structural model stage. The results of all hypothesis testing are summarised in Table 5-29.

Table 5-29: Summary of the Hypothesis Testing

$H1_a$: Cognitive country image is positively related to affective country image.	*Supported*, cognitive country image has a positive relationship with affective country image.
$H1_b$: Cognitive destination image is positively related to affective destination image.	*Supported*, cognitive destination image has a positive relationship with affective destination image.
$H2_a$: If consumer uses country images to form belief (cognition) about	*Not supported*, The relationship between cognitive country image and

that country as a tourist destination, the relationship of cognitive component of country image is stronger than its affective component.	cognitive destination image is not significant. The relationship between affective country image and cognitive destination image is significant instead.
$H2_b$: If consumer uses country images to form feeling (affection) about that country as a tourist destination, the relationship of affective component of country image is stronger than its cognitive component.	*Supported*, The relationship between affective country image and affective destination image is significant and the relationship between cognitive country image and affective destination image is not significant.
$H3_a$: Cognitive country image is positively related to behaviour probability	*Not supported*, the relationship is insignificant.
$H3_b$: Affective country image is positively related to behaviour probability.	*Supported*, the relationship is significant.
$H3_c$: Cognitive destination image is positively related to behaviour probability.	*Not supported*, the relationship is insignificant.
$H3_d$: Affective destination image is positively related to behaviour probability.	*Supported*, the relationship is significant.
$H4_a$: The values that comprise the LOV are represented by smaller number of personal value domains.	*Supported*, the LOV are represented by two personal values domains.
$H4_b$: Internally-oriented and externally-oriented value domains will represent the values that comprise the LOV.	*Supported*, the LOV are represented by internally and externally oriented values domains.
$H5_a$: Country image mediates the relationship between personal values domains and behaviour	*Not supported*, the relationships between country image and personal values domains and country image and

probability.	behaviour probability are insignificant.
$H5_b$: Destination image mediates the relationship between personal values domains and behaviour probability	*Supported*, the mediating effects are significant.

5.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter tested for the hypothesised relationships proposed in Chapter 3. In testing the hypotheses, a two stage of SEM was used to examine the measurement models and the structural model. After confirming that all the constructs involved are reliable and valid, the structural model was tested. The results revealed that country image influenced destination image through their affective components. The cognitive components of both country image and destination image indirectly influenced behaviour probability via their affective counterparts. Furthermore, destination image was found to mediate the relationship between personal values and behaviour probability. This thesis now continues with a discussion of the results in relation to the literature in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the results of the data analysis which tested the hypothesised relationships proposed in the research model. In this chapter the results that were reported in Chapter 5 are discussed in relation to the literature. In the following sections, discussions related to country image relationship with destination image and the mediating role of country image and destination image on the relationship between personal values and behaviour are presented. The chapter is then summarised before the contributions of the research and the conclusion are presented in Chapter 7.

6.2 Summary of Results

The results of this research largely support the hypothesised relationships proposed in the research model. In particular, the results demonstrate that the cognitive and affective components of destination image are indirectly influenced by the cognitive component of country image through the affective component of country image. Behaviour probability was found to be indirectly influenced by the cognitive component of country image and destination image via the affective components of both image constructs. In addition, it was found that the relationship between personal values and behaviour was mediated by destination image but not mediated by country image. These results illustrate that personal values influence destination visitation via destination image.

6.3 Country Image Relationship with Destination Image

This section discusses the results of testing the hypotheses relating to the relationships between country image and destination image and between these two image constructs and behaviour probability. These hypotheses aimed to fulfil the

first research objective to test the relationships between country image and destination image using a model that incorporates cognitive and affective components of both country and destination image.

In the proposed model, the relationships between the two components (cognitive and affective) of both country image and destination image were hypothesised. Three groups of hypotheses were postulated: The first group comprised of two hypotheses (Hypotheses 1_a and 1_b) representing the links from cognitive country image and cognitive destination image to affective country image and affective destination image respectively. The second group of hypotheses included two hypotheses (Hypotheses 2_a and 2_b) representing the influence of the two components (cognitive and affective) of country image toward the cognitive and the affective components of destination image respectively. The last group of hypotheses relating to the first research objective comprised of four hypotheses (Hypotheses 3_a, 3_b, 3_c and3_d) representing the influence of cognitive country image, affective country image, cognitive destination image and affective destination image toward behaviour probability respectively.

The overall results indicate mixed support for the relationships between country image, destination image and behaviour probability. The cognitive components of both country image and destination image were found to have strong positive relationships with their affective counterparts providing support for the first group of hypotheses (Hypotheses 1_a and 1_b). This results support Russell's (1980) assertion that information is first interpreted and made meaningful by consumers which is then followed by the formation of feelings or emotions. The positive effects of the cognitive components of both country image and destination image on their affective counterparts also support the view that the cognitive component is an antecedent of the affective component (see for example, Brijs et al., 2011; Elliot et al., 2013; Maher & Carter, 2011 for country image and Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Boo & Busser, 2006; Lin et al., 2007 for destination image).

6.3.1 Cognitive – Affective – Conative/Behaviour

Regarding the influence of country image and destination image toward behaviour probability (Hypotheses 3_a, 3_b, 3_c and3_d), the current research found that while the affective component of both country image and destination image were found to have positive relationships with behaviour probability, the cognitive components of the two image constructs did not. These findings provide support for Hypotheses 3_b and 3_d but do not offer support for Hypotheses 3_a and 3_c. These findings suggest that the affective components of country image and destination image mediate the relationships between the cognitive components of both country image and destination image and behaviour probability. In other words, the cognitive components of country image and destination image indirectly influence behaviour probability via their affective components.

The results of testing the hypotheses 1_a, 1_b, 3_b and 3_d demonstrate that the direction of the cognitive-affective-behaviour link follows a hierarchy of effect sequence namely the standard learning hierarchy (Solomon, 2006). The standard learning hierarchy found in this research is also consistent with previous research in other contexts including in organic food consumption (Lee & Goudeau, 2014), online shopping behaviour (Martínez-López, Luna, & Martínez, 2005) and in mobile telecommunication service provider selection (Mohsin & Ahmad, 2012). Indeed, this sequence is the most frequently used in the area of consumer behaviour (De Pelsmacker et al., 2007).

These findings suggest that prospective tourists first form a belief about the country by building up information regarding the relevant characteristics of the country in terms of, for example, political circumstances and/or economic development. Based on the knowledge they acquire prospective tourists then develop feelings about that country as a country in general and as a tourist destination. Finally, prospective tourists then express their probability of visiting the country as a tourist destination.

In addition, the cognitive-affective-behaviour sequence was found to be relevant to country image, which concurs with Elliot et al.'s (2013) findings that cognitive

country image has an indirect effect on destination receptivity (a measure of behaviour) via affective country image. In addition, this sequence is also consistent with Maher and Carter's (2011) study on the Kuwaitis' willingness to buy American products. In the case of destination image, the sequence provides support for Agapito, Oom do Valle and da Costa Mendes (2013) and Wang and Hsu's (2010) studies which found a hierarchy of effect from cognitive to affective destination image to form overall destination image and, subsequently, to influence behavioural intentions.

A further notable finding related to the cognitive-affective-conative/behaviour sequence on country image and destination image is that affective destination image is stronger in predicting the probability of visiting the country as a tourist than affective country image. This result highlights the importance of the affective component of destination image, indicating that the willingness to visit the destination is stronger when the prospective tourists associate positive feelings toward the destination, such as pleasure, excitement, and arousal. The important role of the affective component of image construct in relation to behaviour has also been highlighted in previous destination image research (Li et al., 2010; Dora Agapito, 2013; Cai et al., 2004; Um at al., 2006) and country image research (Wang et al, 2011; Maher & Carter, 2011; Zeugner-Roth & Zabkar, 2015). This finding suggests that, in the case of Indonesia, prospective tourists are more likely to be influenced by the image of the country as a destination image than its image as a country in general.

6.3.2 Country Image – Destination Image Relationship

In trying to understand how people use country image to form attitudinal dispositions toward a country as a tourist destination, two hypotheses were postulated. First, it was expected that the relationship between cognitive country image and cognitive destination image would be stronger than the relationship between affective country image and cognitive destination image (hypothesis 2_a). Contrary to this expectation, the results indicate that cognitive country image was not related to cognitive destination image, but that affective country image was significantly related to cognitive destination image. In other words, the effect of

cognitive country image on cognitive destination image was found to mainly through affective country image. Therefore, hypothesis 2_a was not supported. A potential explanation for this might be that the beliefs that prospective tourists have about a country act as reinforcements to their feelings (affects) which are then used to form beliefs (cognitive) and feelings (affect) about that country as a tourist destination. As suggested by Hoffman (1990), affect provides a motivating force to start, dismiss or enhance the processing of information. Thus, affective country image may influence the retrieval and evaluation of cognitive beliefs related to the country as a tourist destination (Isen, 1984).

Second, it was hypothesised that the relationship between affective country image and affective destination image would be stronger than the relationship between cognitive country image and affective destination image (Hypothesis 2_b). As expected, the findings indicate that affective country image was significantly related to affective destination image, whereas cognitive country image was not significantly related to affective destination image. Therefore, hypothesis 2_b was supported. These findings suggest that prospective tourists' feelings related to a country influence their feelings related to that country as a tourist destination. This significant relationship is consistent with Nadeau et al.'s (2008) study which found support for the link between country character and people character (a measure of cognitive country image) and destination evaluation (a measure of affective destination image).

Moreover, the descriptive statistics results (Table 5-2 and 5-3) suggest that the respondents evaluated Indonesia as a tourist destination more favourably than as a country in general. These results provide support for scholars who suggest that there is a paradox in the fact that while many developing countries are perceived in a negative manner, they are viewed positively as a tourist destination (Alvarez & Campo, 2011; Alvarez & Korzay, 2008; Campo-Martínez & Alvarez, 2010; Echtner, 2002).

To conclude this section, this research has clarified several issues relating to how country image and destination image are internally structured and how country image can be used to form attitudinal dispositions toward a country as a tourist

destination. First, this research found that the cognitive components of country image and destination image are antecedents to the affective components of country image and destination image respectively. Second, the pattern of the relationship within the two image constructs follows the standard learning hierarchy. Finally, affective country image mediates the relationship between cognitive country image and both the cognitive and affective components of destination image.

6.4 The Mediating Role of Country Image and Destination Image on Personal Values – Behaviour Relationships

This section discusses the results of testing the hypotheses relating to personal value domains and the mediating roles of country image and destination image in the relationship between personal value domains and behaviour. The hypotheses were used to fulfil the second research objective, to test if country image and destination image mediate the relationship between personal values and behaviour.

6.4.1 Personal Value Domains

In the proposed model it was assumed that when personal values domains, country image, destination image and behaviour probability were represented in a value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model, this would provide a deeper understanding of the relationship between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour in the tourism area. For this purpose, hypotheses 4_a, 4_b, 5_a and5_b were postulated.

The results, which were presented in section 5.7.6, confirmed that the values that comprise the LOV can be represented by two value domains (Hypothesis 4_a): namely externally-oriented and internally-oriented value domains (Hypothesis 4_b). The first value domain comprised: *to be well respected*; *to have a sense of belonging*; *to have security* and *to be self-fulfilled*, labelled by Homer and Kahle (1988) and Madrigal and Kahle (1994) as the externally-oriented value domain. The second value domain (*to have excitement* and *to have fun and enjoyment in life*) reflects a hedonic (Arambewela & Hall, 2011) or enjoyment/excitement

(Jayawardhena, 2004; Madrigal & Kahle, 1994) value domain that does not necessarily involve other people (Madrigal & Kahle, 1994). Hence, this was labelled as the internally-oriented value domain. These results provide additional support for researchers who found that the LOV can be represented by externally-oriented and internally-oriented value domains (Li et al., 2010; Li & Cai, 2012).

6.4.2 Values/Attitude/Behaviour

The results of this research indicate that it is only the internally-oriented values domain that significantly influences destination image. A favourable destination image, in turn had a direct influence on behaviour probability which operationalised by the probability to recommend and to visit the destination. The rationale behind this finding may be due to the fact that this study was conducted with a sample of consumers from Australia, a western country with individualistic cultural values unlike collectivist cultures (Hofstede, 1984). Consumers from individualistic cultures are considered to be more hedonistic than those from collectivistic cultures (Kacen & Lee, 2002; Schwartz, 1992). Therefore, visiting a country as a tourist from an individualistic culture reflects recreational activities that prompt pleasure, enjoyment and excitement. The more favourable image the consumers have toward a destination, the more likely they will visit the destination which is in line with their hedonic-driven values. Another possible explanation could be that internally-oriented consumers tend to want more control over all aspects of their lives (Homer & Kahle, 1988) and tend not to rely on other people in terms of their travel consumptions (Li & Cai, 2012). This control would include decisions related to where to go and what to do in the destination and would focus on destination that will give them excitement and enjoyment.

The absence of a significant relationship between the externally-oriented value domain and country image may be explained because it is understood that consumers who place more importance on externally-oriented values tend to be passive and more sensitive to external events (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Li & Cai, 2012). They may not be influenced by country image or destination image because they tend to place more importance on a sense of security in their daily

lives. In view of this, they may not want to be exposed to new and unfamiliar countries or destinations (Li & Cai, 2012).

The insignificant paths between the two value domains and country image, however, are not necessarily surprising. This finding supports previous research that has sought to identify a relationship between personal values and country image. Based on the concept of individualism and collectivism, de Moura Engracia Giraldi, Ikeda and Viana (2013) found that there was almost no dependent relationship between consumers' personal values and their evaluation of a country's image. In addition, the non-significant path between the two value domains and behaviour probability support Homer and Kahle's (1988) contention that attitudes, in this case destination image, completely mediate the relationship between personal values and behaviour. This finding also concurs with Cai and Shannon's (2012) finding that there was an insignificant path between the personal value domains and behaviour intention in the context of mall shopping behaviour among Chinese and Thai consumers.

To conclude this section, this research provides support that destination image has a mediating role on the relationship between values and behaviour. This finding provides additional support for a number of studies including Homer and Kahle (1988), Jayawardhena (2004) and Shim and Eastlick (1998) which have suggested that the influence flows from abstract values to mid-range attitudes, and then to behaviour and that values have only an indirect effect on behaviour via attitudes. Although this study did not find that country image plays a mediating role on the relationship between personal value domains and behaviour probability, this research has found that country image has both a direct and indirect relationship with behaviour probability via destination image.

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the findings of this research. The relationship between country image and destination image was discussed with a focus on the interrelationship between the cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image. The significant relationships which follow

cognitive-affective-behaviour sequence for country image, destination image and behaviour probability were discussed. Finally, a discussion on the mediating role of country image and destination image on the relationship between personal values and behaviour probability was presented. This thesis concludes with Chapter 7 where the contributions and limitations of the research and recommendations for further research are presented.

CHAPTER 7
CONTRIBUTIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the findings of this research in relation to the literature. This concluding chapter presents the theoretical and practical contributions of the research. Limitations of the research are recognised and directions for further research are also made. Finally, conclusions drawn based on the discussion of the findings are presented.

7.2 Summary of the Research

Tourism is a popular market offering for many countries, however, in an increasingly competitive marketplace, countries seeking to promote tourism need to develop favourable images of their country as a tourist destination. To do this, the notions of both country image and destination image come into play. While country image and destination image have been viewed to influence related consumer behaviours, there is little understanding on how these two constructs interact to influence consumer behaviour. This research, using Indonesia as the focal country/destination, aimed to address this gap in knowledge.

To guide this research, a framework was developed based on the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model. Specifically, this research investigated: (1) the relationship between country image and destination image involving the cognitive and the affective components of both country image and destination image; and (2) the mediating role of country image and destination image, as attitudes, on the relationship between values and behaviour. A series of relationships between country image, destination image, personal values and behaviour were tested using data (n = 419) from an online sample of Australian

residents. A two-stage structural equation modelling was employed to analyse the data.

The results of this research largely support the hypothesised relationships. The results revealed that country image influences destination image through the affective components of both country image and destination image, which in turn influences behaviour probability. The results also provide strong support for the role of destination image as a mediator on the relationship between personal values and behaviour probability.

This research makes a theoretical contribution to knowledge because it has clarified the relationship between country image and destination image, their internal structures and their relationships with behaviour probability. In addition, this research advances the literature because it is the first to investigate the mediating role of country image and destination image on the relationship between personal values and behaviour. In terms of practical perspective, the results of this research highlight that Indonesia can use its image as a tourist destination to develop and manage its image as a country. Recommendations for further research are proposed including to replicate this study using different countries and incorporating other constructs in the research model, such as social norms and familiarity with the country and destination.

7.3 Contributions of the Research

7.3.1 Theoretical Implications

First, this research provides further insights into the internal structures of country image and destination image and offers support for the view that they are each comprised of two components, namely the cognitive and affective components. In this research, the conative or behavioural component was treated as an outcome of the cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image. This approach has assisted to clarify the relationship between country image and destination image, their internal structures and their relationship with conation. While a number of previous studies on country image used only the cognitive component (Allred et al., 1999; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Pappu, Quester,

& Cooksey, 2007; Pereira, Hsu, & Kundu, 2005), the results of this research have shed light on how the cognitive and the affective components of country image and destination image relate to each other in a structural manner.

Second, while previous research on country image has focused on the effects of country image on product evaluations (Cheng, Chen, Lai, & Li, 2014; Laroche et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2013; Li & Wyer Jr, 1994; Nebenzahl & Jaffe, 1996; Wang et al., 2011) and purchase intentions (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, & Palihawadana, 2011; Wang, Li, Barnes, & Ahn, 2012), linking the general image of a country to the probability of visiting the country as a tourist destination extends our understanding of the determinants of tourist behaviour. This is in accordance with recommendations suggested by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009).

Third, identifying how prospective tourists use country image to form attitudinal dispositions toward the country as a tourist destination makes a substantial contribution to knowledge. This finding reveals that affective country image is a key antecedent of destination image. It suggests that cognitive country image functions to qualify a country as a tourist destination. If a country is not developed enough to provide certain standards of travel accommodation, for example, the prospective tourists may not consider that country as their next travel destination. At the same time, affective country image serves as a means to satisfy the positive feelings toward a destination. Prospective tourists choosing between two countries with similar standards are likely to select the country they like better. Prior to this research empirical evidence about how country image relates to destination image has been under-researched and inconclusive.

Finally, this research is a first attempt to incorporate country image and destination image into the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model and empirically test the relationship between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour probability. Previous research on personal values in the tourism area has mainly focused on examining the effect of personal values on tourism behaviour (Madrigal & Kahle, 1994; Mehmetoglu et al., 2010; Pitts & Woodside, 1986), satisfaction at events (Hede, Jago, & Deery, 2005), travel

motivation (Kau & Lim, 2005; Li & Cai, 2012; Woosnam et al., 2009) and as a means to segment the tourism market (Ekinci & Chen, 2001; Mehmetoglu et al., 2010; Müller, 1991; Thrane, 1997b). The integration of country image and destination image, which are representative of attitudes, in the value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model provides a deep understanding of the influence of personal values on country image and destination image and, in turn, on the probability of travelling to the country as a tourist.

7.3.2 Practical Implications

From a practical perspective for Indonesian tourism authorities, this research highlights the importance of developing and managing the image of their country as a tourist destination through marketing and promotional campaigns. Given the distinct role of the affective components of country image and destination image in generating higher probability to visit the country, it is important to focus campaigns on both country and destination attributes that evoke emotions and positive feelings towards Indonesia as a tourist destination. Specifically, marketing efforts should focus on the attributes that transmit positive feelings and associate the destination to a place as that is "pleasant" and "exciting". Thus, a favourable destination image may be gained, while the probability of visiting the country may also increase, with potential economic benefits for Indonesia.

The results show that Indonesia has a more favourable image as a tourist destination than as a country. Since tourism promotional activities have potential to impact not only on tourism but also on other aspects such as economic or international relations (Campo & Alvarez, 2014), Indonesia may also use its tourism promotional activities to improve the somewhat negative image it has, particularly in relation to, economic, political situations and international relations. The improvement of Indonesia's image as a tourist destination may result in the transfer of the positive affect to the country image.

The sequence of value/attitude/behaviour confirmed in this research suggests that Indonesian destination marketers can positively influence prospective tourists' behaviour by developing marketing strategies aimed at appealing to

excitement/enjoyment values. These values in turn will have a direct influence on prospective tourists' attitudes toward the destination as well as an indirect influence on the probability of visiting the destination.

7.4 Limitations of the Research

While the current research makes a theoretical contribution to the tourism marketing literature, limitations of the research need to be acknowledged.

First, the research sample was collected via an online survey and sourced via a professional market research company. Some scholars may take the view that using panel data has its limitations because participants are not always representative of the target population.

Second, this research was explored the views of Australians of Indonesia as a country and as a tourist destination. Hence, the results are limited in term of the generalisability to other countries. Attempts to generalise the findings to other markets and sources should be made with caution.

Third, this research adopted a cross-sectional research design which makes it difficult to establish causal relationships between the constructs involved in this study. While SEM analysis assists to identify correlated variables, determining whether the relationship is causal is not possible. For example, the structural model, in Section 5.10, indicates that the affective destination image has a positive relationship with behaviour probability. It is not possible, however to say that the affective destination image caused behaviour probability. Bollen (1989) posits that temporal priority is a condition of causality. That is, the assumed cause must precede the effect. Since a cross-sectional design is unable to accommodate this temporal priority condition, it is not possible to conclude that the statistically significant relationships tested in the research model prove causality. However, it is possible to conclude whether the constructs are associated with each other or not.

Fourth, structural equation models do not test the directionality of relationships. The direction of arrows in the structural model of this research (Figure 5-14, page

110) represents the hypotheses of relationships within the model. However, the variables and pathways used in the model limit the SEM ability to reproduce the sample covariance and variance patterns. Consequently, SEM can provide confirmation for a proposed model, but cannot exclude other models that may explain the data equally well. In spite of this shortcoming, the SEM approach remains useful in understanding relationships in multivariate systems. The abilities of SEM to distinguish between indirect and direct relationships, among variables and to analyse relationships between latent variables differentiate SEM from other relational modelling techniques.

Fifth, while this research tested the relationships between country image and destination image using a model that incorporates cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image, overall image component of country image and destination image were not included. Thus, this research lacks a discussion on how these overall image components relate to the other components.

Finally, while the tourism literature indicates that there are a number of possible constructs, such as familiarity and social norms (Nadeau et al., 2008; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), that may mediate or moderate the relationship between country image, destination image and behaviour probability, these were not included in the research model.

7.5 Directions for Further Research

While this research has confirmed the links between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour probability within the context of Indonesia with Australian sample, it has also opened up opportunities for further research.

First, given that the results of this research are limited to Indonesia, the applicability of the results to other countries should be investigated. Furthermore, since the results of this research reflect Australians' perceptions toward Indonesia, findings could be different when the views of other nationalities are sought. Thus,

testing the research model using different focal countries/destinations and different sample nationalities or culture groups would be beneficial.

Further research undertaking to extend our understanding of the relationships between country image and destination image would also be beneficial. Light (2007) suggests that tourism and the marketing of tourism activities may be used to develop a country's foreign policies and relations. This suggests a need for further investigations to consider the extent to which destination image may influence country image. This is important for those countries that suffer negative country images. Qualitative research will provide deep insights into how this relationship emerges in practical terms.

Further research should consider including overall measurement of country image and destination image - in order to gain greater insights into how these overall image components relate to cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image.

In this research, an unexpected result was obtained relating to the relationship between cognitive country image and cognitive destination image. While in the literature the positive effect of cognitive country image on cognitive destination image has been confirmed (Elliot et al., 2013; Nadeau et al., 2008), the results of this research show that the effect is insignificant. Therefore, it would be useful to replicate this study even with different countries as the focus and different source markets to test if similar findings can also be obtained.

It is also recommended that further research incorporates other variables into the research model. Moderating variables, such as familiarity (Nadeau et al., 2008) and social norms (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) could potentially provide a more comprehensive explanation of factors that affect the relationships between country image, destination image and behaviour probability.

7.6 Conclusion

This research makes a significant contribution to the literature on tourism marketing and personal values. This was enabled via the adoption of the

value/attitude/behaviour hierarchy model to investigate empirically the relationships between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour probability. The research model, which incorporates cognitive and affective components of both country image and destination image, demonstrates that prospective tourists use country image to form attitudinal dispositions toward the country as a tourist destination and in turn toward behaviour probability. In addition, it demonstrates the mediating roles of country image and destination image on the personal values-behaviour relationship. Finally, this study extends the research on personal values as it investigates their influence on country image and destination image. The results revealed that the internally-oriented values domain influences destination image and favourable destination image, in turn, influences behaviour probability.

This research is the first to contribute to the literature in finding significant relationships between personal values, country image, destination image and behaviour probability. The findings provide additional support for researchers who found that: the cognitive component of country image and destination image is an antecedent of its affective counterpart (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Elliot et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2007; Maher & Carter, 2011), country image influences destination image (Elliot et al., 2013; Nadeau et al., 2008) and, exclusive to the current research, destination image mediates the relationship between personal value domains and behaviour probability.

In conclusion, it is evidenced that while seemingly unrelated, personal values and country image appear to influence perceptions of a destination which, in turn, influences the probability of visiting the country as a tourist. This suggests that a successful tourism marketing strategy can be developed from building a favourable destination image and taking into consideration the personal values of target markets. This is particularly important information for those countries that view tourism as an activity that can assist in developing their economies but which suffer negative country images in target markets.

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Appendix 1

Script of the Online Questionnaire

Thank you for your participation in this important survey. This survey is being conducted by a student researcher Agustinus Februadi as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Associate Professor Anne-Marie Hede and Dr Maxwell Winchester from the School of International Business, Faculty Business and Law, Victoria University, Melbourne.

You will be asked to respond to a set of questions on personal values, country image of Indonesia, destination image of Indonesia, and your demographics. All responses will be treated confidentially and will not be able to identify your name with your responses. This online survey will take less than 10 minutes to complete.

Your contribution in this survey is valuable as the findings of this research can be used by the Indonesian tourism authorities to better understand how Australian perceived Indonesia as a country in general and as a tourist destination. All information obtained from this survey will be used for research purposes. The data and findings of this study will be published in a thesis and in academic journals.

If you have any questions about the research please contact:

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Part I

1. What is the first thing that comes into your mind when you think about Indonesia which includes Bali as a tourist destination? (open question)
2. What is the first thing that comes into your mind when you think about Indonesia which includes Bali as a nation?
3. Have you ever visited Indonesia which includes Bali? Yes ☐ No ☐
4. How many times have you visited Indonesia which includes Bali in the last 10 years?

1	Once
2	Twice
3	Three times
4	Four times
5	Five times
6	Five to 10 times
7	More than 10 times

5. Please indicate the purpose of your last visit to Indonesia which includes Bali.

1	Business
2	Visiting friends & relatives
3	Holiday
4	Employment
5	Others

Part II

6. Thinking about what you know about Indonesia as a country, please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements: Indonesia is…

an important country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a well-known country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a country with a good reputation.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a secure country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a peaceful country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

an economically developed country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

an economically stable country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

an industrialized country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a technologically developed country.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a country that respect liberties.

Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree | 8 | Don't know

a country that respects human right.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

a country that respects international laws.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

7. Still thinking about Indonesia as a nation, please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements: Indonesia is…

a peace loving country.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

friendly toward us.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

cooperative with us.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

a likable country.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

8. Please indicate your general opinion of Indonesia as a nation.

Strongly negative	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Strongly positive

9. Now, thinking Indonesia as a tourist destination, please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements: Indonesia…

offers a lot in terms of natural scenic beauty.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

has a unique cultural attractions.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

has friendly/hospitable people.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

has a pleasant climate.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

is a destination that is good value for money.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

offers restful/relaxing atmosphere.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

has high quality accommodation options.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

has a good nightlife.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

provide a variety of recreational activities.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

has many sites to visit.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

is a popular tourist destination.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

offers a high level of personal safety.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Agree	8	Don't know

10. Still, thinking about Indonesia as a tourist destination, please indicate your perception of Indonesia. Indonesia is…

Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
Sleepy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Arousing
Distressing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Entertaining

11. Please indicate your general opinion of Indonesia as a tourist destination.

Strongly negative	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	Strongly positive

Part III

The following three questions relate to personal values. Personal values are values that guide people in what they do.

In the next two questions you are asked to indicate which personal value, out of a set of predefined personal values, is the most important to you and then, from that same set of personal values, which is the least important to you.

12. Now please indicate which personal values below is the **most important** to you? (Choose one)

To be self-fulfilled	1
To have security	2
To have a sense of accomplishment	3
To have a sense of belonging	4
To be in warm relationship	5
To be well respected	6
To have excitement	7
To have self-respect	8
To have fun and enjoyment in life	9

13. And now please indicate which is the **least important** to you? (Choose one)

To be self-fulfilled	1
To have security	2
To have a sense of accomplishment	3
To have a sense of belonging	4
To be in warm relationship	5
To be well respected	6
To have excitement	7
To have self-respect	8
To have fun and enjoyment in life	9

14. Now using the same set of values, please rate how important each of the following personal values are in guiding you in YOUR life. Please try to distinguish as much as possible between the values.

	Not at all important						Extremely important
To be self-fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have a sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have a sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be in warm relationship	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be well respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have fun and enjoyment in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part IV

15. Thinking about the probability that you would visit Indonesia as a tourist, on scale 0 to 10 below, what are the chances that you would visit Indonesia as a tourist in the next twelve months?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
No chance, almost no chance	Very slight possibility	Slight possibility	Some possibility	Fair possibility	Fairly good possibility	Good possibility	Probable	Very probable	Almost sure	Certain, practically certain
1 in 100	1 in 10	2 in 10	3 in 10	4 in 10	5 in 10	6 in 10	7 in 10	8 in 10	9 in 10	99 in 100

16. On scale 0 to 10 below, what are the chances that you would recommend your friends or relatives to visit Indonesia as tourists in the next twelve months?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
No chance, almost no chance	Very slight possibility	Slight possibility	Some possibility	Fair possibility	Fairly good possibility	Good possibility	Probable	Very probable	Almost sure	Certain, practically certain
1 in 100	1 in 10	2 in 10	3 in 10	4 in 10	5 in 10	6 in 10	7 in 10	8 in 10	9 in 10	99 in 100

Part V

And now we would like to ask you a few questions about yourself.

17. In what age group do you belong?

18 – 24 years	1
25 – 44 years	2
45 – 64 years	3
65 years plus	4

18. Which of the following applies to you?

Male	1
Female	2

19. Which of the following applies to you?

Single, never married, divorced, separated, widowed	1
Married, de facto couple living together	2
Declined to answer	3

20. Which of the following applies to you?

Manager and administrators	1
Professional	2
Trades-person and related worker	3
Advanced clerical and service worker	4
Intermediate clerical and service worker	5
Elementary clerical and service worker	6
Labourer and related worker	7
Student	8
Retired	9
Unemployed	10
Others…….	11

21. Which of these groups cover the combined annual income of everyone in your household?

Less than $30,000	1
$30,000 or more, but less than $50,000	2
$50,000 or more, but less than $76,000	3
$76,000 or more, but less than $107,000	4
$107,000 or more	5
Refused to answer	6
Don’t know	7

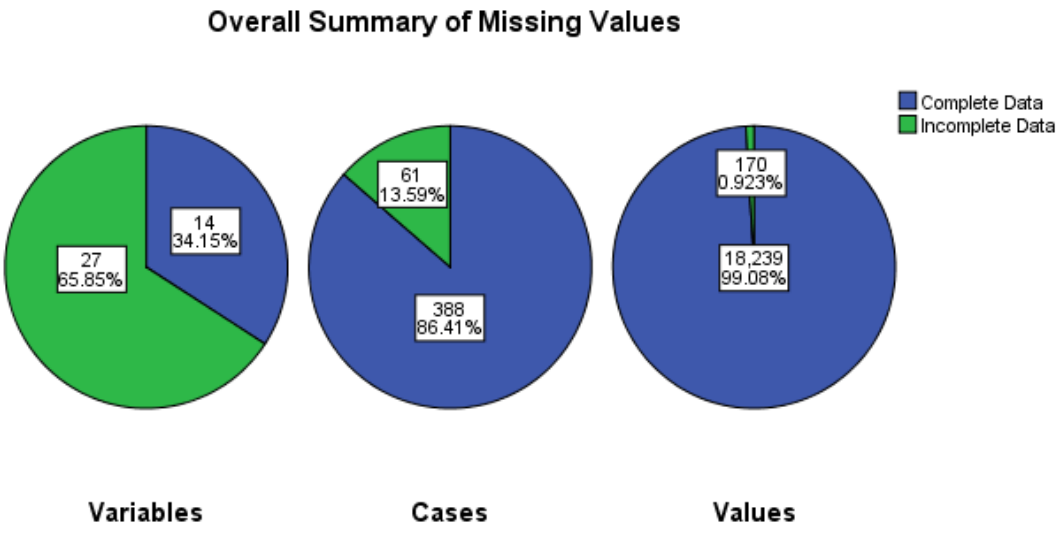
22. Where do you live?

New South Wales	1
Australian Capital Territory	2
Victoria	3
Tasmania	4
South Australia	5
Western Australia	6
Northern Territory	7
Queensland	8

Thank you for your participation in this survey

Appendix 2

Missing Values Analysis



	Missing		Valid N	Mean	Std. Dev
	N	Percent			
cdi8 has good nightlife.	19	4.20%	430	4.69	1.34
cdi7 has high quality accommodation options.	17	3.80%	432	4.98	1.31
cdi9 provides a variety of recreational activities.	16	3.60%	433	5.11	1.19
cdi10 has many sites to visit.	11	2.40%	438	5.43	1.15
cdi6 offers restful/relaxing atmosphere.	10	2.20%	439	4.90	1.32
cci9 a technologically developed country.	10	2.20%	439	3.10	1.22
cci7 an economically stable country.	10	2.20%	439	3.29	1.26
cdi5 is a destination that is good value for money.	9	2.00%	440	5.44	1.29
cdi12 offers a high level of personal safety.	8	1.80%	441	3.05	1.42
cci8 an industrialised country.	8	1.80%	441	3.22	1.28
cdi1 offers a lot in terms of natural scenic beauty.	7	1.60%	442	5.41	1.21
cdi3 has friendly/hospitable people.	6	1.30%	443	4.98	1.37
cci12 a country that respects international laws.	6	1.30%	443	2.98	1.40
cdi4 has a pleasant climate.	5	1.10%	444	4.59	1.43
cdi2 has unique cultural attractions.	4	0.90%	445	5.42	1.19
cci11 a country that respects human rights.	4	0.90%	445	2.61	1.25
aci3 cooperative with us.	3	0.70%	446	3.91	1.43
cci1 an important country.	3	0.70%	446	4.63	1.54
aci2 friendly toward us.	2	0.40%	447	4.06	1.47
cci10 a country that respects liberties.	2	0.40%	447	2.69	1.25
cci6 an economically developed country.	2	0.40%	447	3.23	1.30
cci5 a peaceful country.	2	0.40%	447	3.21	1.41
cci3 a country with a good reputation.	2	0.40%	447	3.27	1.32
cdi11 is a popular tourist destination.	1	0.20%	448	5.76	1.15
aci4 a likable country.	1	0.20%	448	4.01	1.53
a Maximum number of variables shown: 25					
b Minimum percentage of missing values for variable to be included: .1%					

Appendix 3

Initial Structural Model

Regression Weight

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
C_C_I	<---	EXTERNAL	0.019	0.101	0.188	0.851
A_C_I	<---	C_C_I	0.901	0.087	10.392	***
C_D_I	<---	INTERNAL	0.254	0.075	3.38	***
C_D_I	<---	A_C_I	0.375	0.112	3.357	***
C_D_I	<---	C_C_I	-0.089	0.132	-0.673	0.501
A_D_I	<---	C_D_I	0.53	0.099	5.342	***
A_D_I	<---	A_C_I	0.518	0.143	3.626	***
A_D_I	<---	C_C_I	0.178	0.163	1.089	0.276
GOVERNANCE	<---	C_C_I	1			
ECOTECH	<---	C_C_I	1			
BEHAVIOUR	<---	A_D_I	0.917	0.186	4.925	***
BEHAVIOUR	<---	A_C_I	0.399	0.28	1.429	0.153
BEHAVIOUR	<---	C_C_I	-0.108	0.304	-0.355	0.723
BEHAVIOUR	<---	C_D_I	0.175	0.212	0.825	0.409
BEHAVIOUR	<---	EXTERNAL	-0.596	0.366	-1.628	0.103
BEHAVIOUR	<---	INTERNAL	0.308	0.305	1.011	0.312

Appendix 4

Revised Structural Model

Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
A_C_I	<---	C_C_I	0.907	0.087	10.474	***
C_D_I	<---	INTERNAL	0.253	0.075	3.372	***
C_D_I	<---	A_C_I	0.311	0.061	5.133	***
A_D_I	<---	C_D_I	0.533	0.097	5.49	***
A_D_I	<---	A_C_I	0.644	0.081	7.957	***
GOVERNANCE	<---	C_C_I	1			
ECOTECH	<---	C_C_I	1			
BEHAVIOUR	<---	A_D_I	1.19	0.12	9.923	***

Direct and Indirect Effects

Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)				
	ACI	CDI	ADI	BP
CCI	0.75	0.00	0.00	0.00
INT	0.00	0.18	0.00	0.00
ACI	0.00	0.38	0.40	0.18
CDI	0.00	0.00	0.41	0.00
ADI	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.44

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)				
	ACI	CDI	ADI	BP
CCI	0	0.29	0.41	0.32
INT	0	0.00	0.07	0.03
ACI	0	0.00	0.15	0.25
CDI	0	0.00	0.00	0.18
ADI	0	0.00	0.00	0.00

Standardized Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)				
	ACI	CDI	ADI	BP
CCI	0.75	0.29	0.41	0.32
INT	0.00	0.18	0.07	0.03
ACI	0.00	0.38	0.55	0.42
CDI	0.00	0.00	0.41	0.18
ADI	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.44

Appendix 5

Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Demographic profile	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	257	57.2
Female	192	42.8
Age		
18-24	5	1.1
25-44	97	21.6
45-64	201	44.8
65+	146	32.5
Marital status		
Single, never married, divorced, separated,	129	28.7
Married, de facto couple, living together	318	70.8
Declined to answer	2	0.4
Job		
Manager and administrators	47	10.5
Professional	82	18.3
Trades-person and related worker	21	4.7
Clerical and service worker	54	12.1
Labourer and related worker	9	2.0
Students	11	2.4
Retired	172	38.3
Unemployed	24	5.3
Others	29	6.5
Income		
Less than $30,000	79	17.6
$30,001-$50,000	81	18
$50,001-$76,000	73	16.3
$76,001-$107,000	71	15.8
Over $107,000	92	20.5
Refused to answer	53	11.8
Location		
New South Wales	127	28.3
Australia Capital Territory	10	2.2
Victoria	97	21.6
Tasmania	20	4.5
South Australia	47	10.5
Western Australia	47	10.5
Northern Territory	3	0.7
Queensland	98	21.8

Appendix 6

Results of Other Questions

Ever visited Indonesia

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	128	30.5
No	291	69.5
Total	419	100

Number of times visited Indonesia

	Frequency	Percent
Missing values	13	3.1
Once	78	18.6
Twice	16	3.8
Three times	10	2.4
Four times	3	0.7
Five times	3	0.7
Five to 10 times	3	0.7
More than 10 times	2	0.5
Total	128	30.5

Purpose of last visit to Indonesia

	Frequency	Percent
Business	9	2.1
Visiting friends & relatives	4	1.0
Holiday	104	24.8
Employment	6	1.4
Others	5	1.2
Total	128	30.5

General opinion of Indonesia as a nation

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly negative -3	31	7.4
-2	60	14.3
-1	94	22.4
Neither negative nor positive 0	95	22.7
1	103	24.6
2	30	7.2
Strongly positive +3	6	1.4
Total	419	100

General opinion of Indonesia as a tourist destination

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly negative -3	35	8.4
-2	59	14.1
-1	73	17.4
Neither negative nor positive 0	78	18.6
1	98	23.4
2	61	14.6
Strongly positive +3	15	3.6
Total	419	100

Appendix 7

Summary of Related Studies

Source	Variables	Findings
Baloglu & McCleary (1999)	-Cognitive image -Affective image -Overall Image -Tourist demographic characteristics	-Tourist demographic characteristics directly influence cognitive and affective image and indirectly influence overall image. -Cognitive image directly and indirectly influence overall image through affective image. -Affective image directly influence overall image.
Bigne, Sanchez, Sanchez (2001)	-Destination Image -Perceived Quality -Satisfaction -Behavioural variables	-Destination image has direct and indirect effect on behavioural variables. -Destination image has direct effect on satisfaction and perceived quality.
Balabanis, Mueller, Melewar (2002)	-Personal Values +Individualist Values +Collectivist Values +Security +Universalism -Country of Origin Image	-Values do not have a consistent effect on country of origin image. -The predictive ability of values is slightly higher than that of demographic and other variables for all aspects of country of origin image.
Kim & Yoon (2003)	-Cognitive Image -Affective Image	-Confirmed that destination image can be operationalised as a second-order factor model that encompass cognitive and affective images. -Affective image component has more impact in developing destination image than do cognitive image.
Jayawerdhena (2004)	-Personal Values +Self-Direction Value +Enjoyment Values +Self-Achievement Value -Attitudes toward e-Shopping -Desire to Browse -Repatronage Intentions -Switching Intentions	-Personal values domains directly influence attitudes toward e-shopping. -Attitudes toward e-shopping directly influence e-shopping behavior. -Support the values-attitude-behaviour hierarchy model.
Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop, Mourali (2005)	-Country beliefs -People Affect -Desired Interaction -Country Image -Product Beliefs -Product Evaluation	-Confirmed that country image is a second-order factor model encompass country beliefs (cognition), people affect (affect), and desired interaction (conation). -Country image significantly influenced product beliefs and product evaluation.

Lee & Back (2007)	-Destination Attribute Strength -Destination Attribute Evaluation -Destination Image -Participation Intention	-Destination attribute strength and destination attribute evaluation significantly influence destination image. -Destination image significantly influence convention participation intention.
Chen & Tsai (2007)	-Destination Image -Trip Quality -Perceived Value -Satisfaction -Behavioural Intention	-Destination image appears to have the most important effect on behavior intention, as it influences behavior intention directly and indirectly.
Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, Hou (2007)	-Cognitive Image -Affective Image -Overall Destination Image -Destination Preferences	-The influence of cognitive image and affective image on overall destination image were vary according to the type of the destinations (natural, developed destination, and theme parks). -Overall destination image significantly influence destination preferences.
Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly, Luk (2008)	Destination Image Portion -Natural Environment Beliefs -Built Environment Beliefs -Destination Evaluation -Travel Intentions Country Image Context -Country Character -Country Competence -People Character -People Competence -Desired Association	-The first study that link country image and destination image. -Country image influences respondents' evaluation of Nepal as a tourist destination.
San Martin & Rodriguez del Bosque (2008)	-Socio-economic Environment -Natural Environment -Cultural Environment -Atmosphere -Affective Image	-Confirmed that Destination image is a second order factor encompass socio-economic, natural and cultural environment, atmosphere, and affective image.
Li, Cai, Lehto, Huang (2010)	-Cognitive image -Affective Image -Travel Motivation -Intellectual -Belonging -Escape -Revisit Intention	-None of the three motivational factors has a significant influence on revisit intention. -Affective image directly influence revisit intention. -Affective image mediates the relationship between cognitive image and revisit intention.
Martinez & Alvarez (2010)	-Cognitive Country Image -Affective Country Image -Cognitive Destination Image -Affective Destination	-Highlighting that the country image and destination image are related and yet significantly different from each other. -Confirmed that country image and destination image are second-order

	Image	factor model encompass cognitive and affective component of images.
Mehmetoglu, Hines, Graumann, Greibrokk (2010)	-Personal Values +Materialism-Idealism +Traditionalism-Modernism -Tourism Behaviour	-Personal values can be used as a basis for segmenting tourist. -People segmented based on personal values exhibit different patterns of tourism behavior.
Brijs, Bloemer, Kasper (2011)	-Cognitive Country Image -Affective Country Image -Conative Country Image -Product Beliefs -Product Evaluation -Purchase Intention	-Support the cognitive-affective-conative hierarchy of effect sequence. -The components of product attitude most significantly influence by conative country image.
Elliot, Papadopoulos, Kim (2011)	-Cognitive Country Image -Affective Destination Image -Destination Beliefs -Destination Familiarity -Destination Receptivity -Product Beliefs -Product Familiarity -Product Receptivity	-Cognitive country image did not influence affective country image. -Affective country image significantly influence product receptivity and destination receptivity. -Destination beliefs influence destination receptivity.
Maher & Carter (2011)	-Cognitive Country Image -Affective Country Image -Product Country Image -Willingness to buy	-Only affective country image influence willingness to buy.
Li & Cai (2011)	-Personal Values +Internal Values +External Values -Travel Motivation -Behavioural Intentions	-Internal value has a direct and indirect relationships with behavior intentions. -Only novelty and knowledge component of travel motivation relates to behavior intentions
Cai &Shannon (20120	-Personal Values (Schwartz Value Survey) -Attitude toward Shopping Mall -Behaviour Intentions	-Personal values directly influence attitude toward shopping mall, these attitude, in turn, influence shopping behavior.
Wang, Li, Barnes, Ahn (2012)	-Cognitive Country Image -Affective Country Image -Product Image -Purchase Intention	-Cognitive country image has only indirect relationship with purchase intention via product image. -Affective country image has both direct and indirect relationship with purchase intention via product image.
Agapito, Valle, Mendez (2013)	-Cognitive Destination Image -Affective Destination Image -Conative Destination Image	-Support the multi-dimensional construct of destination image. -Support the cognitive-affective-conative hierarchy of effect sequence.
Alvarez &	-Cognitive Country Image	-Cognitive country image does not

Campo (2014)	-Affective Country Image -Overall Country Image -Conative Country Image (Intention to visit)	influence overall country image. -Affective country image has significant direct and indirect relationships with intention to visit via overall country image.
Chew & Jahari (2014)	-Physical Risk -Socio-psychological Risk -Financial Risk -Cognitive Destination Image -Affective Destination Image -Intention to Revisit	-Both socio-psychological risk and financial risk have direct relationships with cognitive destination image and affective destination image. -In turn, both cognitive and affective destination image have direct relationships with intention to revisit.
Zeugner-Roth & Zabkar (2015)	-Country Cognitions -Country Affect -Country Personality -Behaviour Intentions	-Country personality better predicts behavior intentions than country cognitions. -Country affect impact on behavior intentions are consistently stronger than country personality.