Unlocking Souvenir Shopping Tourism in Indonesia:
A Cross-Cultural Study

Lusianus Kusdibyo

BBA, Brawijaya University, Malang, Indonesia

MBA, Waikato University, Hamilton, New Zealand

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Victoria Graduate School of Business

College of Business

Victoria University

Melbourne

2015

Abstract

Souvenir shopping has emerged as a critical component of the Indonesian tourism industry because it helps small home industries to survive and develop. The aims of this study was to gain an understanding of souvenir tourists' behaviour across three groups – Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian - in relation to their shopping preferences, travel patterns and demographic characteristics. This research was to identify the key determinants of the motivational push and pull factors of shopping tourists, their travel experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention from different cultural backgrounds. Further, this study examined the relationship between tourists' travel motivation and other behavioural constructs in relation to future behavioural intention in the Indonesian souvenir shopping tourism context.

A research framework developed in this study represents further advancement from the existing frameworks in the literature. It facilitates the investigation of the relationship between travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir shopping tourists. The framework examines characteristic behaviour across the three cultural tourist groups through pre-consumption, during consumption and post consumption stages. The empirical study was conducted to test the applicability of the framework.

A quantitative approach was applied using a survey-based method for collecting data for this study. Questionnaires were distributed to both domestic and international tourists who had just finished shopping for souvenirs in traditional markets in Indonesia. Statistical techniques were used to test the proposed hypotheses, including Chi-squared tests, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and two-stage Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

The study found that souvenir differences in demographics, travel patterns, shopping preferences, travel motivation and behavioural constructs exist between the three souvenir shopping tourist groups. The results indicate that the identified factors of push motivation are *shopping*, *vacation* and *adventure*, while the underlying factors of pull

motivation are *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery*. *Novelty* and *enjoyable* are the two known experience quality factors. Three factors of satisfaction were also identified: *tourist information*, *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination*. Souvenir tourists showed differences in their behavioural intention. The findings suggest that destination marketers may combine these factors for tourism planning and marketing strategies.

The findings indicate that a positive relationship exists between souvenir shoppers' push and pull motivations, and between push motivation and satisfaction. Pull motivation has a positive connection to experience quality and satisfaction. A positive association exists between experience quality and satisfaction. Satisfaction has a direct positive association with tourist behavioural intention. Satisfactory souvenir shopping tourists' experience is an important determinant of subsequent behavioural intention. The results suggest that tourists are more likely to recommend a destination to others and return to the destination when their shopping experience is satisfied.

The results contribute to tourism marketing theory by providing a deeper understanding of the multiple aspects of souvenir shopping tourists' travel motivation, experience and satisfaction in determining future behavioural intention. The results add to the literature by providing further knowledge of the actual behaviour of tourists' shopping for souvenirs as indicated by the findings in relation to the demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences across cultural groups.

The research framework has been empirically tested and offers a vigorous foundation for undertaking subsequent empirical research. Further research may use a longitudinal research design, which enables following the three stages in the pre-, during and post consumption.

Student Declaration

I, Lusianus Kusdibyo, declare that the DBA thesis entitled *"Unlocking Souvenir Shopping Tourism in Indonesia: A Cross Cultural Study"* is no more than 65,000 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.

Lusianus Kusdibyo   Melbourne, 30 November 2015

Acknowledgements

To have completed this study is an important feat in my life. It was exceptionally challenging for me to achieve this, and could not have been accomplished without receiving valuable support and encouragement from several people and organisations. I would like to convey my greatest gratitude to my Principal Supervisor, Dr Thu-Huong Nguyen, for her valuable guidance, encouragement and support during this journey. Her constructive supervision over the past few years has led to the submission of this thesis. I would also like to express my sincere thanks to my Associate Supervisor, Dr Leanne White for her encouragement and for providing appropriate guidance and comments on my thesis.

I would like to thank Professor Lindsay Turner for his review and constructive and invaluable comments on this thesis.

I would like to thank the Director Research and Research Training, College of Business, Victoria University, Professor Anne-Marie Hede, for providing proper guidance to research students through many opportunities of research training provided within the College of Business.

My appreciation is also due to the Government of the Republic of Indonesia through the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Directorate General of Higher Education for providing me with scholarship that enabled me to undertake my Doctorate study at Victoria University, Melbourne. I also wish to extend my gratitude to the Bandung State Polytechnic for the opportunity given to me to study overseas.

I also wish to thank Dr Emma Curtin of Inkontext Writing Editing Research who edited my thesis according to Standards D and E of the Australian Standards for Editing Practice.

I extend my deep gratitude to my mother, Bernadeta Hartini who continually encourages me to complete this study. Her endless love has given me strength to finish

this journey. I would like to thank my sister Francisca Fitri for her love and support in completing this thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank the parish of St. Francis Catholic church, the place where I have always been received well. Thank you Lord Jesus, I need You for every step I take throughout my life.

Contents

Tables

Figures

Abbreviations

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
BPS	Biro Pusat Statistik (Central Bureau of Statistics)
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GFI	Goodness Fit Indices
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRMR	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The development in tourism markets is shifting from mass tourism toward niche tourism (Kim and Ritchie, 2012). This growth is in line with the emergence of unique tourist demands in which tourists seek to satisfy their special travel needs and wants (McKercher and Chan, 2005). Among others, one new form of niche tourism is shopping tourism (Timothy, 2005). The development of shopping destinations around the world is evidence that shopping is an important part of tourists' experience (Rosenbaum and Spears, 2009; UNWTO, 2014). While it is generally accepted that shopping is the most popular tourist activity and for many tourists may become the main motivation to travel (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Kent, Shock and Snow, 1983; Moscardo, 2004; Timothy, 2005), studies on shopping tourism have been given little attention recently (Kinley, Forney and Kim, 2012).

In order to respond to tourists' specific needs and wants in shopping tourism, destination marketers need to have a better knowledge of tourist behaviour and motivation. Motivation and behaviour have become the main focus of study in tourism research (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Fodness, 1994). In this research domain, the push and pull framework is possibly the most recognised theory in explaining tourist motivation (Bright, 2008). The push factors are mainly socio-psychological motives which reflect the needs and inner desires of tourists to travel, while the pull factors are the external drivers that affect a person's decision to travel to fulfil his/her needs and desires. Pull factors are destination attributes that can provide benefits to tourists in order to satisfy their desires. Thus, it is imperative for destination marketers to understand tourists' behaviour and motivation in order to provide value to the destination that delivers benefits to tourists.

The growing number of international tourists visiting a variety of destinations warrants better knowledge of cultural influences in the context of tourism. Culture has become an

important factor influencing travel consumption (Li and Cai, 2012; Reisinger, 2009a). Tourists from diverse cultural backgrounds may seek different travel benefits and have different preferences for tourism products and services (You, O'Leary, Morrison and Hong, 2000). Indeed, tourist behaviour and motivation frequently differ across nations as tourism behaviour is culture specific (Reisinger, 2009b). The difference in cultural orientation presents challenges for destination marketers in meeting the needs and expectations of international tourists. An improved knowledge on how tourists across cultures consume tourism products may help to establish effective marketing strategies and provide them with better tourism destination offerings.

Offering shopping attractions is one way for destination marketers to attract more tourists (Murphy, Moscardo, Benckendorff and Pearce, 2011). This is a way to generate more spending from tourists without increasing the number of tourists (Mak, Tsang and Cheung, 1999). Therefore, shopping tourism has played an important role as a component of destination attraction (Moscardo, 2004). For some tourists, shopping is the main motivation to visit a destination (Timothy, 2005). Tourists shop for souvenirs to remind themselves of their journey (Graburn, 1989). Souvenirs have been perceived as having a symbolic meaning and prestige, and play an important role in a society as an essential part of gift-giving cultures (Park, 2000).

Earlier studies that explore travel motivation using the push and pull tourism framework in souvenir shopping tourism are deficient, although the push and pull framework has been widely used in other tourism studies (Bright, 2008). Little research has examined the push and pull motivations of shopping tourists from different cultural backgrounds. Only a limited number of studies such as Kinley, Josiam and Kim (2003) and Swanson and Horridge (2004, 2006) have examined push and pull travel motivation in the souvenir shopping tourism context. A gap exists in this field in relation to travel behaviour and the motivation of tourists across cultures. This study therefore sought to bridge the gap in the literature and contribute to the knowledge of travel motivation and the behaviour of souvenir shopping tourists from cultural perspectives. The focus of the study is Indonesia.

This chapter presents a thesis overview providing both the background of, and the justification for, the research, followed by an outline of the research problems. Following this, the research aims are discussed, as well as the research questions and the research objectives. Contributions and the significance of the study are then highlighted. The final section presents the organisation and structure of this study.

1.2 Background and Justification

Tourism in Indonesia is generally based on cultural and natural heritage attractions. The country consists of six major islands: Java, Bali, Sumatra, Kalimantan, Sulawesi, and Papua (refer Figure 1.1) and more than 17,000 islands in total, 336 different ethnic groups and 719 local languages, offering an enormous number of tourist attractions (Sugiyarto, Blake and Sinclair, 2003). Indonesian culture is influenced by a mixture of cultures: Hinduism, Buddhism, Islamic, Confucian, and European. Local culture is reflected in various aspects of community life in all regions of Indonesia. The culture is expressed in terms of traditional houses, dances, songs, music, pictures, statues, clothing, literature, food and local language. These unique cultural expressions are important for tourism and can be offered to tourists to enhance their tourism experience (Graburn, 1989).

Figure 1.1 - Map of Indonesia

Source: www.permacultureremain.org

The tourism sector in Indonesia is imperative for the country's economic development, ranked third in 2009 after oil and gas, and palm oil (Menparekraf, 2012). However, it appears that the economic contribution from the tourism sector can be increased by developing more specialised or niche tourism, such as souvenir shopping tourism. The main target segments for this niche are 'culturalist shoppers' - tourists who engage in both shopping and cultural or heritage tourism (McKercher and Chan, 2005); shopping tourists - tourists who shop as their main reason for travelling; and tourist shoppers - tourists who participate in shopping as a complementary activity during their journey (Timothy, 2005).

The Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS, 2013) reports, as illustrated in Table 1.1, that the average growth of tourist arrivals has been 8.9% in the past six years (BPS, 2013).The countries of origin of these tourists are mainly from the Asia Pacific region covering Singapore, Malaysia, Australia, Japan, China, South Korea, Taiwan and India. Additionally, European visitors are mostly from the United Kingdom (UK), France, the Netherlands, and Germany (BPS, 2011). Around 59% of tourists travel for a holiday, while 38% travel for business purposes (Menparekraf, 2012). These two types of tourists are potential customers for various niche tourism attractions in the country, including shopping tourism. Tourists are frequently in search of an opportunity to shop for gifts and souvenirs in the destination visited, regardless of their purpose of visit. As indicated in Table 1.1, there has been a steady increase in the number of tourists who visited Indonesia from 2007 to 2012 and predictions propose an increase of 10% annually due to the growth of global tourism (Menparekraf, 2012). This information suggests an opportunity to target these potential markets through more intensive marketing campaigns for different types of tourism.

Table 1.1 - Total Number of International Tourists Visiting Indonesia 2007 – 2012

| Year | Visitor Arrivals | Growth (%) | Average Expenditure Per Person (USD) | | Average Length of Stay | Tourism Receipts (Million USD) | Growth (%) |
			Per Visit	Per Day			
2007	5,505,759	13.02	970.98	107.70	9.02	5,345.98	20.19
2008	6,234,497	13.24	1,178.54	137.38	8.58	7,377.39	37.44
2009	6,323,730	1.43	995.93	129.57	7.69	6,302.50	-14.29
2010	7,002,944	10.74	1,085.75	135.01	8.04	7,603.45	20.73
2011	7,649,731	9.24	1,118.26	142.69	7.84	8,554.39	12.51
2012	8,044,462	5.16	1,133.81	147.22	7.70	9,120.85	6.62

Source: The Indonesian Bureau of Statistics (2013).

According to the research, tourists not only enjoy spending considerable time on shopping, they also spend approximately one third of their total tourism expenditure on shopping (Littrell et al., 1994). Others suggest as much as 50% of total tourism expenditure is dedicated to shopping (Wong and Law, 2003). Law and Au (2000) state that shopping is an influential force for tourism in terms of actual consumption of goods purchased and as a source of enjoyment and satisfaction.

Timothy (2005) states that shopping is the number one tourist activity anywhere a tourist visits a destination. A visit is not complete without shopping for a large number of travellers (Heung and Qu, 1998; Turner and Reisinger, 2001). Many travel guides offer different shopping opportunities in a certain destination, although they do not offer shopping as the only tourist experience (Bauer and Meier, 2011). Shopping has become an important part of the tourist experience while serving also as a motivating factor for travel (Timothy, 2005; Timothy and Butler, 1995). It is also currently accepted that shopping opportunities are an indispensable part of tourism supply and have a vital role in the success of most tourist destinations (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009). A substantial economic contribution for the local economy may be derived from shopping tourism (Murphy et al., 2011; Timothy and Butler, 1995; Yüksel, 2004). However, despite the significant economic contributions to the local destination, souvenir shopping tourism as a subset of shopping tourism has only been given attention in recent years and hence is under-represented in the academic literature(Chang and Kong, 2012; Kinley et al., 2012; Oh, Cheng, Lehto and O'Leary, 2004; Swanson and Horridge, 2006; Timothy, 2005).

Tourists could spend a significant amount of their travel budget on shopping for gifts and souvenirs (Heung and Cheng, 2000). Purchasing souvenirs as presents for other people is a major part of tourist shopping (Park, 2000). An empirical study by Cai, Lehto and O'Leary (2001) indicates that Chinese leisure travellers exhibit strong gift shopping behaviour in the United States (US), while Littrell, Anderson and Brown (1993) found that nearly 70% of Midwestern US travellers purchased gifts for family and friends during a trip. Souvenir shopping is also influenced by the culture and customs of society (Park, 2000). For example, Japanese and Korean tourists use souvenirs as a means of supporting a relationship with others. Japan and Korea have a culture ritual of presenting a gift upon returning from vacations which is known as 'Omiyage' in Japan and 'Sunmul' in Korea (Park, 2000). Therefore, it is important for destination marketers to target souvenir shopping tourists from different cultural backgrounds.

Although shopping functions as a leisure tourist activity, it also creates a significant opportunity for travellers to become exposed to the local host culture. In particular, the host culture is opened through locally made handicrafts and souvenirs designed as tourism products that reflect elements of indigenous cultures (Tosun, Temizkan, Timothy and Fyall, 2007). These items can become symbols of local culture (Cohen, 1988). There is a distinct group of tourists who choose a destination because of a local textile production technique, such as batik or ikat (Hitchcock and Teague, 2000). These two textiles are traditional fabrics of Indonesia that reflect local culture. Thus, tourists visit those specific destinations partly to satisfy their specific needs and partly because they are attracted by the destination.

Four cultural arts in Indonesia have been awarded status by UNESCO as Masterpieces of Oral and Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity. These are batik, wayang, keris and angklung (UNESCO, 2012). Further details of these four arts are provided in Appendix A. Besides these four art products, each Indonesian ethnic group produces different cultural arts. These cultural heritage expressions can be offered to tourists in the form of performances and/or souvenirs. Recently, 18 Indonesia handicrafts gained the UNESCO Award of Excellence for Handicrafts 2012 (Prihatiyani, 2012). This

shows that Indonesian handicraft souvenirs are highly regarded and recognised internationally.

Various Indonesian main souvenirs as displayed in Appendix A, Table 1.1 – 1.5 show that Indonesian souvenirs cover materials made from fabric, leather, woods, silver, bamboo, and rattan. These materials are ease to get in Indonesia; however, the government laws regulate the use of wood and rattan to certify that the materials are not from illegal logging

Generally, Indonesian souvenirs are produced by craft souvenir small industries, mostly home industries scattered across the country and involving large numbers of people who cover everything from production to market. Some souvenir producers may also supply to souvenirs sellers. These industries have existed for decades as craftspeople inherited jobs from their ancestors (Zulaikha and Brereton, 2011). Therefore, these industries are traditional in nature, inherited from generation to generation and have roots in the past. Consequently, Indonesian craft souvenir creation is strongly influenced by culture and ethnicity, inherited from parents. As a result, Indonesian souvenirs are mostly the expression of local cultures.

Products created by these craft makers range from items for daily use to souvenirs (Zulaikha and Brereton, 2011). Prices range from only a dollar to millions of dollar for a piece of batik depends on the quality, type and culture value. Craft souvenir products have the potential to attract both local and global tourist markets. Indonesia has a large number of diverse ethnic groups spread across 34 provinces, so the country has the potential to become the largest ethnic art souvenir producer in the region, as each ethnic group has unique art products that can be offered to tourists (Menparekraf, 2012). To attract tourism markets, destination marketers and tourism authorities need to understand tourists' preferences toward Indonesian souvenirs in order to provide them with their preferred souvenirs.

The souvenir for tourists has been recognised as having an important symbolic value related to the tourist's pleasurable travel experience (Littrell, Baizerman, Kean,

Gahring, Niemeyer, Reilly and Stout, 1994), to help memory of the experience as well as to prove that the experience took place (Gordon, 1986; Littrell et al., 1994; Swanson, 2004). Although Indonesia has incredible cultural richness, with various souvenirs from the different ethnic groups, studies related to tourist souvenir shopping are lacking.

Studies by Anderson and Littrell (1995) and Littrell et al. (1994) suggest that textile crafts and apparel items constitute a substantial portion of products sought by tourists. In the context of developing souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia, it is important to promote these unique traditional textiles such as batik and ikat and other heritage arts to preserve the Indonesian cultural heritage and identity. This can be achieved through a better understanding of tourist motivation, behaviour and preferences of souvenir products.

Motivation is considered to be the main cause of human behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Fodness, 1994). It is, therefore, a considerably important factor in understanding tourist behaviour (Li and Cai, 2012). Motivation has been studied extensively, covering: the examination of travel motivation measurements (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Fodness, 1994); the sociology of travel motivation (Dann, 1977); travel motivation of different niche markets (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991; Hsu, Cai and Wong, 2007; Rittichainuwat, Qu and Mongkhonvanit, 2008); differences in motivation among tourists with number of visits (Lau and McKercher, 2004); destinations and origins (Kozak, 2002); and socio-demographic characteristics (Jang and Wu, 2006). However, few studies have examined travel motivations related to other behavioural constructs, for example, satisfaction and behavioural intention (Hsu, Cai and Li, 2010). There is a need for further study to investigate travel motivations linked to experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention in the context of souvenir shopping.

The need to understand tourists' travel motivation is made even more crucial by considering the cultural diversities of tourists across groups who may seek different travel benefits and have different preferences for tourism products and services. Importantly, destination marketers need to understand to what extent tourists across

cultures are similar and dissimilar in their travel motivation and behaviours. Prior studies indicate that differences do exist in travel motivation and consumption behaviour with respect to: push and pull travel motivations (Kozak, 2002; You et al., 2000);satisfaction with the destination (Campo and Garau, 2008; Kozak, 2001); perceived value, service quality and intention to return (McCleary, Weaver and Hsu, 2007); destination image (Kozak, Bigné and Andreu, 2004); travel risk perception (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005); information search behaviour (Chiang, King and Nguyen, 2012); and tourism activities (Andriotis, Agiomirgianakis and Mihiotis, 2007).However, in the tourism literature, cross-cultural studies have been conducted by a limited number of researchers (Campo and Garau, 2008; Jönsson and Devonish, 2008; Kozak et al., 2004; Ozdipciner, Li and Uysal, 2012). There is a need for undertaking a study on souvenir shopping in a cultural context.

The importance of travel motivation, consumption behaviour and different cultural perspectives has been acknowledged in various academic studies (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Kozak, 2002; Lehto et al., 2004; Oh et al., 2004; You et al., 2000). However, to date there is no conceptual model in the literature integrating those three important elements. To address this gap, this study attempts to develop a comprehensive conceptual model which investigates the interrelationships between tourist travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir shopping tourists in Indonesia. Souvenir shopping tourist behaviour will be investigated across three cultural groups: non-Asian, Asian and Indonesian tourist groups.

In this research, extensive studies of shopping behaviour and travel motivations theories and concepts were reviewed and analysed in order to understand three shopping tourism aspects. Firstly, to explain tourist souvenir shopping preferences, demographic characteristics, and travel patterns of tourists across cultures; secondly, to illuminate the push and pull factors of tourists shopping across cultures; and thirdly, to understand the relationship of travel motivation with other behavioural constructs of experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions of souvenir tourist shopping.

1.3 The Research Problems

The tourism sector in Indonesia is managed under the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy. The recent Ministry's policy states that the government is developing special interest tourism to promote the nation's unique shopping and culinary assets (Menparekraf, 2012). These two sectors are sub sectors of the creative industry, which is lucrative in Indonesia and covers a wide range of industries, including handicrafts and fashion (Pangestu, 2012). The Indonesian Government provides special attention to the development of creative industry and specifically formed the National Crafts Council to oversee the Indonesian craft industry, which produces Indonesian souvenirs (Zulaikha and Brereton, 2011). While there is a potential opportunity for Indonesian souvenirs to attract wider markets through the tourism industry, the knowledge of the destination marketers about tourists' behaviour and motivation needs to be improved (Menparekraf, 2012). It is important for destination marketers to understand tourists' behaviour and motivation in order to develop effective marketing strategies for promoting souvenir products.

While the production skills of Indonesian people who produce various quality authentic souvenirs are very good as indicated by the awards endorsed by the UNESCO and the acceptance of the Indonesian souvenirs in international markets, the notable current problem of souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia is that it lacks of marketing skills to promote the products as niche tourism attractions. It is hoped that the findings will assist the industry practitioners to promote the destinations by using souvenir shopping tourism products.

This study assists industry practitioners by identifying tourists' demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences of souvenir shopping across the three cultural groups. It helps the Indonesian souvenir industry understanding the key underlying factors of souvenir tourist motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention that may be used to develop marketing strategies.

This study aimed to identify: (a) the push and pull motivations of tourists shopping for souvenirs in Indonesia; (b) the experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir shopping tourists; (c) the behaviour and preferences of tourist shopping for souvenirs; and (d) the relationships between travel motivation and other behavioural constructs such as experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention.

Through the review of tourism and marketing related literature, three research gaps were identified, as follows:

1. An absence of research on travel motivations in the souvenir shopping tourism context, particularly push and pull motivation factors of souvenir tourists from different cultural backgrounds.

A review of the tourism literature indicates that tourists have differences in push and pull motivations in carrying out vacations and selecting certain destinations (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Jang and Cai, 2002; Kim, Lee and Klenosky, 2003; Kinley et al., 2003; Kozak, 2002; Uysal, Li and Sirakaya-Turk, 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; You et al., 2000). International tourists from different nationalities and cultural backgrounds may have different motivations related to their travel decisions compared to domestic tourists (Kozak, 2002; Ozdipciner et al., 2012; You et al., 2000).

The above studies have been linked to the evaluation of current research in tourism, marketing and souvenir shopping tourism, which reveals that travellers are not homogenous and hence need to be categorised into groups of similar characteristics, predominantly utilising socio-psychological travel motivations (Josiam, Kinley and Kim, 2005; Kinley et al., 2003; Swanson and Horridge, 2006). Tourist segmentation using socio-psychological factors is represented relatively well in the literature, however, very little research has given attention to tourist segmentation on the basis of cultural differences. This may be due to the fact that only a few researchers have given their attention to tourism research across cultures (Campo and Garau, 2008; Jönsson and Devonish, 2008; Kozak, 2003; Ozdipciner et al., 2012; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; You

et al., 2000). There is a paucity of research on different cultures, particularly in the context of international tourist behaviour and marketing.

To date, there has been scant research into souvenir shopping tourism that has acknowledged the travel motivations of souvenir shopping tourists. In particular, there is no empirical research into the motivation of the tourist shopping for souvenirs which involves the cultural perspectives of tourists from different nationalities and cultural backgrounds. Hence, there is no evidence obtainable on the cultural perspectives of souvenir tourists' behaviour.

Therefore, there is a need to conduct an empirical study on souvenir shopping tourist motivations. The push and pull motivations of souvenir shopping tourists should be identified based on the tourist's cultural background in order to better understand the underlying factors of travel motives and benefits sought by each cultural group. Every single cultural group should be profiled with key demographic characteristics, shopping preferences and travel patterns to define similarities and dissimilarities among culturally different tourist souvenir shopping groups. Marketing strategies can be developed based on the findings of differences and similarities in behavior and preference toward tourism products and services amongst cultural groups.

2. A limited number of studies have examined the relationship between travel motivation and other behavioural constructs (satisfaction and behavioural intention) for revisit intentions in the context of souvenir shopping tourism.

A review of tourism motivation literature indicates that motivation is an important element of travel behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Fodness, 1994; Hsu et al., 2010; Kau and Lim, 2005) and has been widely studied in many different contexts. These include the motivation for pleasure vacations (Crompton, 1979);the motivation of sight-seeing (Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991);the motivation of cruise selection (Qu and Ping, 1999); motivation toward a tourist destination (Rittichainuwat et al. 2008); and motivation-based benefit segmentation (Park & Yoon 2009). However, studies on the relationships between motivation and other behavioural constructs are considerably

scarce (Hsu et al., 2010). To bridge this gap this study examined the relationship of tourists' motivation with experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention in the souvenir shopping tourism context.

A review of marketing literature indicates that customer satisfaction is categorised as post-purchase behaviour and an important determinant for the organisation because of its impact on customer loyalty (Hoffman and Bateson, 2010; Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler, 2006).Consumer satisfaction is a key to future purchase intentions and customer loyalty, market share and word-of-mouth communication (Weber, 1997). It is important to increase the level of tourists' satisfaction because it is a good indicator of the financial results of business and also for the tourist destination's economic developments (Campo and Garau, 2008). Petrick's (2004) study shows that satisfaction is a significant predictor of repurchase intentions. Organisations pursue consumer satisfaction and loyalty, as this has significant influence on the organisation's long-term profitability and revenue growth (Heskett and Sasser, 2010; Hoffman and Bateson, 2010).

In the tourism context, tourists' favourable behavioural intention frequently represents customer's loyalty (Chen and Chen, 2010). Indicators of customer loyalty are characterised by repeat customer visitation and recommendations of a destination to others (Chen and Chen, 2010; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). Generally, satisfied tourists will recommend the visited destination to other travellers and share positive experiences about the destination through word-of-mouth recommendations (Kozak and Remmington, 2000; Petrick, 2004; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). A number of studies have exposed the benefit of satisfied customers and have suggested that increased customer satisfaction could lead to repeat visits to the destination (Alegre and Cladera, 2006; Hui, Wan and Ho, 2007; Kozak, 2003, 2001). Therefore, an improved understanding of the various determinants that impact tourist satisfaction and behaviour intentions can offer valuable knowledge for developing comprehensive marketing strategies and is important for destination managers and marketing organisations (Campo and Garau, 2008; Kozak, 2001; Žabkar, Brenčič and Dmitrović, 2010).

A number of studies have explored shopping satisfaction in relation to service quality (Heung and Cheng, 2000; Tosun et al., 2007; Yeung, Wong and Ko, 2004; Yüksel, 2004). However, little research has highlighted experience quality constructs in the shopping tourism context in relation to customer satisfaction. In fact, some argued that experience quality has not been fully explored in the research (Chen and Chen, 2010; Cole and Chancellor, 2009; Zouni and Kouremenos, 2008). Additionally, experience quality measures both service attributes and attributes brought by customers, while service quality measures service attributes only (Chen and Chen, 2010). Few studies indicate that tourist experience quality influences satisfaction (Chen and Chen, 2010; Cole and Chancellor, 2009; Zouni and Kouremenos, 2008). Therefore, a better understanding of tourist experience quality will enable destination marketers to improve tourist satisfaction.

This thesis sought to identify push and pull motivational factors and experience quality of tourists shopping for souvenirs in Indonesia and how those factors affect tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intentions. In view of the impact of travel experience on future travel intention, it is plausible to suggest that tourists develop knowledge of the visited destination from experiences that are linked to their involvement in shopping tourism related activities during their vacations. Therefore, a proposed research model was developed to examine the relationship of tourists' travel motivations on experience quality and satisfaction leading to behavioural intention in a souvenir shopping tourism context.

3. An absence of studies on souvenir shopping tourist behaviour in relation to demographic profiles, shopping preferences and travel patterns across cultures.

A review of tourism literature indicates that tourist shopping behaviour during vacations is different and distinct from daily consumer buying behaviour at home (Butler, 1991; Timothy and Butler, 1995). Travellers generally perceived their shopping experience as more hedonic and novel, while everyday purchases are generally more utilitarian (Christiansen and Snepenger, 2002; Timothy and Butler, 1995). Therefore, exploring

tourist purchasing behaviour requires different research approaches compared to that focused on ordinary consumer behaviour, as tourism shopping is a hedonic recreational activity stimulated by the 'consumption of place'(Oh et al., 2004). Shopping in this context is a way of experiencing local culture and of interacting with local people at the destination (Oh et al., 2004; Tosun et al., 2007). Accordingly, destination marketers need to gain a better understanding of the buying behaviour of tourists (Kent et al., 1983).

Some studies have indicated the importance of understanding tourist behaviour in the shopping tourism context that include the role of demographic profiles with propensity for shopping (Oh et al., 2004), the role of age, gender and trip typology as predictor variables for tourists' shopping behaviour(Oh et al., 2004); the role of demographic versus socio-psychological factors in explaining cross-border shopping (Dmitrovic and Vida, 2007); and a comparison of nationalities to understand different shopping behaviour and preferences (Rosenbaum and Spears, 2005; Wong and Law, 2003). Despite the importance of understanding shopping consumption behaviour, a limited number of studies have explored shopping behaviour in the souvenir shopping tourism context. However, these studies have not incorporated cultural aspects in the souvenir shopping tourism behaviour research.

This study sought to identify shopping tourist travel behaviour in relation to tourists' demographic characteristics, shopping preferences and travel patterns across cultural backgrounds. This has not yet been fully addressed in souvenir shopping tourism studies. Profiling customers by demographic profiles, shopping preferences and travel behaviour factors based on their cultural backgrounds will enable destination marketers to develop effective marketing programs for customers.

1.4 Research Aims

The aim of this research was to gain better understanding of souvenir shopping behaviour of tourists from different cultural backgrounds by examining their

demographic characteristics, shopping preferences and travel patterns, motivation, experience, satisfaction and behavioural intention.

1.5 Research Questions

The fundamental assumption of this research was that souvenir shopping tourists are not homogeneous in relation to their cultural backgrounds. In this respect, this research argues that souvenir shopping tourist groups who are classified on the basis of their cultural background may have different push and pull motivations. This research further argues that they may have different consumption behaviours with respect to their demographic characteristics, shopping preferences and travel patterns. Therefore, the key research questions addressed in this study are as follows:

1. To what extent are souvenir tourists' travel motivations, demographics profiles, shopping preferences, and travel patterns similar or dissimilar across cultural groups?
2. To what extent are souvenir tourists' travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention different across cultural groups?
3. Are there any relationships between travel motivation and experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention for souvenir tourists?

1.6 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study was to develop a comprehensive research framework of souvenir tourists' shopping behaviour across cultures. The specific objectives were:

1. To identify the similarities of, and differences in, the demographic profiles, travel patterns and shopping preferences of souvenir tourists across cultural groups.
2. To determine the underlying dimensions of push factors, pull factors, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions of souvenir tourists for different cultural groups.

3. To examine the relationship of travel motivation, experience quality and satisfaction on behavioural intention for future leisure purposes.

The findings of this study contribute to identifying multiple factors for tourists' travel motivation and behavioural constructs, and could help develop effective marketing and branding strategies of shopping attractions in general and of souvenir shopping destinations in Indonesia in particular.

1.7 Contribution to Knowledge

This research contributes to the tourism marketing body of knowledge in the following three ways. Firstly, this study offers a comprehensive research model, providing a deeper understanding into the relationships of tourist shopping travel motivations with experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. Secondly, this research examined travel motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention across of souvenir shopping tourists from different cultural backgrounds. This represents an area of research that has not been fully explored in previous studies. The documentation of similarities and differences in the constructs under investigation also offers a valuable foundation for marketing strategy development, by addressing the needs of current and prospective shopping tourists across cultural backgrounds. Lastly, this study expands our knowledge of souvenir shopping tourist behaviour by profiling demographic characteristics, shopping preferences, and travel patterns across cultural groups. The identification of these behavioural characteristics should provide deeper knowledge of tourists' specific needs and wants within their cultural groups.

1.8 Significance of the Study

This study provides a practical contribution to the Indonesian tourism industry in the following two ways. Firstly, as indicated, the findings relating to travel motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention can be used to assist in designing marketing strategies and destination promotion. Secondly, the results of this study provide first-hand information on tourist demographics, shopping preferences,

travel patterns and future visit intentions. This information might be used to improve tourist attractions and their related services in relation to the souvenir shopping tourism sector.

1.9 Organisation and Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters, as illustrated in Figure 1.2. Chapter 1 has provided a background to this study, and discussed the problems and current state of tourism shopping research. The purpose and objectives of this study have also been stated, as well as the contribution and significance of the study.

Chapter 2 presents a review of souvenir shopping tourism literature and related literature on souvenir tourist shopping behaviour.

Chapter 3 reviews travel motivation literature and its relationship with the constructs under investigation, discussing the critical aspects.

Chapter 4 develops the conceptual framework, model and hypotheses.

Chapter 5 discusses the methodology employed for this study, the data collection process and methods utilised to test the conceptual framework.

Chapter 6 presents the results and discussion of the hypotheses testing.

Finally, Chapter 7 consists of five sections. The first section presents the summary of key findings of this study. The second section discusses the theoretical and practical implications of this research. The third section presents the limitations of this study. The fourth section presents directions for future research based on the findings and results of this study. The last section presents a conclusion for this study.

```
           ┌─────────────────┐
           │   Chapter 1     │
           │  Introduction   │
           └─────────────────┘
        ┌───────────┴───────────┐
        ▼                       ▼
┌─────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────┐
│   Chapter 2     │   │   Chapter 3     │
│ Souvenir Shopping│   │ Souvenir Shopping│
│    Tourism      │   │ Tourist Behaviour│
└─────────────────┘   └─────────────────┘
        └───────────┬───────────┘
                    ▼
           ┌─────────────────┐
           │   Chapter 4     │
           │   Conceptual    │
           │   Framework     │──────┐
           └─────────────────┘      │
                    │               ▼
                    ▼      ┌─────────────────┐
           ┌─────────────────┐ │   Chapter 6     │
           │   Chapter 5     │ │  Results and    │
           │   Research      │ │  Discussion     │──────┐
           │  Methodology    │─┘ └─────────────────┘     │
           └─────────────────┘                           ▼
                                               ┌─────────────────┐
                                               │   Chapter 7     │
                                               │  Conclusion     │
                                               └─────────────────┘
```
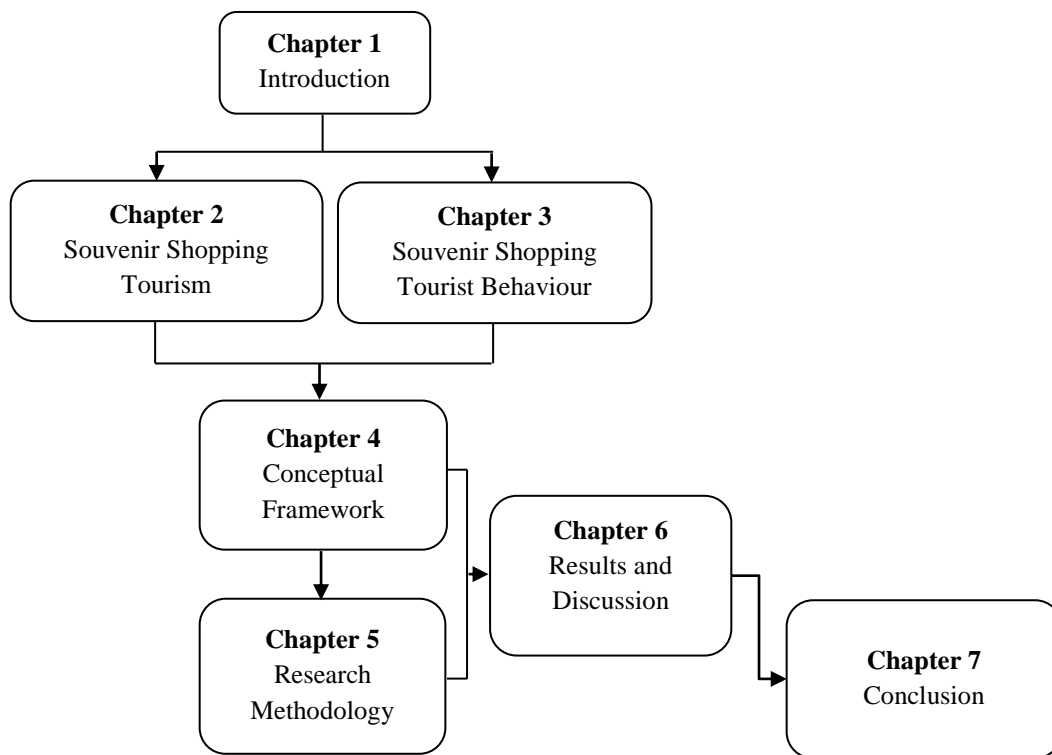
Figure 1.2 - Structure of the Thesis

CHAPTER 2
SOUVENIR SHOPPING TOURISM

2.1 Introduction

This chapter's main purpose is to review the extant literature on souvenir shopping tourism that is relevant to the research objectives raised in Chapter 1. In particular it relates to the research question on souvenir shopping tourist behaviour, covering souvenir tourist shopping preferences, travel patterns and demographic characteristics. This chapter also focuses on shopping tourism. It begins by exploring the importance of shopping tourism and examining definitions. This is followed by a discussion on shopping tourism research in non-Asian and Asian countries. The next section presents an analysis of souvenir shopping tourism and discusses souvenir shopping tourist behaviour in a cultural context. The final section represents a chapter summary.

2.2 Shopping Tourism

Shopping has been acknowledged by a number of researchers as a popular tourism activity (Kinley et al., 2012; LeHew and Wesley, 2007; Timothy, 2005). The recent development of shopping as a tourism activity has been highlighted by Rabbiosi (2011), who looked at how tour operators have developed package tours, under the label of shopping tours, aimed not strictly at visiting a place for its cultural, natural or anthropological sights but also for shopping needs. A decade earlier, Mak et al. (1999) noted that shopping tourism could be developed both as a single tourism attraction and as an activity which complements other attractions in a package tour. These researchers advocated that the latter purpose would enable tourist destinations to capture the money spent by tourists as part of other attractions.

Most tourist activity is inseparable from some form of shopping, whether through souvenir purchases, or through culinary and beverage consumption and activity choices (Lehto et al., 2004; Moscardo, 2004). However, shopping as leisure tourism goes beyond mere acquisition of products. Shopper needs, according to Tauber (1972),

Fodness (1994) and Tosun et al. (2007) include a desire to meet people, feel wanted, spend leisure time with friends and relatives, have fun, and experience local culture. It is argued that shoppers' search for a leisure experience is more important than the acquisition of goods (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994; Christiansen and Snepenger, 2002). Thus, shopping during travel time is significantly different from shopping to fulfil everyday necessities. One of the major characteristics that might distinguish tourist shopping from everyday shopping is that tourists are largely leisure-oriented shoppers (Jansen-Verbeke, 1991, 1998).

Timothy (2005) notes that shopping is a multifaceted activity encompassing social relations, economic interchange and, frequently, involvement in non-purchasing activities. Hirschman (1980) has identified a crucial part of the shopping experience which covers novelty-seeking and innovativeness. Tourists look for novel stimuli through the entire shopping experience, which may be predominantly enhanced when new places are visited, new locations are introduced, new friends are made, and new merchandise is observed.

Some studies have attempted to determine the types of shopping activity that are tourism-related. A review of shopping tourism literature indicates that there are four different perspectives of shopping tourism-related activity based on studies conducted by Yu and Littrell (2003), Cole and Scott (2004), Littrell et al. (1994), and Moscardo (2004). Firstly, shopping is as an ancillary function of the visitor attraction. In this context, shopping is an additional attraction of the main tourism attractions, for example, the gift shop or shops at the heritage sites that sell souvenirs or goods associated with the tourism sites. Secondly, shopping is viewed as an activity for travel and relates closely to tourism products within retail sectors that are influenced by seasonality. An illustration of this is retailers that rely on the season, for example, retailers of swimming clothes, tents and travel accessories. Thirdly, shopping is a distinct tourism activity, with a destination designed specifically for shopping. For example, this might entail the creation of a shopping village in a remote area that requires people to travel for shopping. Lastly, shopping is an activity associated with experiencing local culture through an acquaintance with local products, local

craftspeople and a desire to purchase something which truly 'belongs' to and is 'from' the destination.

In relation to shopping to experience local culture, shopping tourism literature has revealed various topics on the role of the souvenir and souvenir purchasing related to culture (Anderson and Littrell, 1995; Chang and Kong, 2012; Littrell et al., 1994; Park, 2000; Swanson and Horridge, 2006; Wilkins, 2011).For example, Littrell et al. (1994) note that reading books about the destination, which are bought during travelling, and using the craft souvenirs on a daily basis may function to enhance ties with the local culture upon returning home.

Chang and Kong (2012) investigated how Macau may develop a niche tourism market based on souvenir shopping and suggested ways to market souvenir products to various tourist segments. The results of their study indicated that tourists spent relatively small amounts on souvenir shopping in Macau. However, Chang and Kong argued that, with appropriate tourism planning, souvenir shopping might become a growing revenue generating activity and as an integral part of tourism products. The results of Chang and Kong's study (2012) may also be adapted for Indonesia, helping to identify tourists' shopping preferences and behaviours.

2.2.1 Defining Shopping Tourism

Most of the literature on shopping has been written from the perspective of economics, sociology, and marketing (Bergadaa, Faure and Perrien, 1995). Shopping as an economic activity allows consumers to maximise their utility function, while as a social activity, shopping is considered to be a leisure pursuit. Solomon, Askegaard and Barmossy (2002) define shopping as a way to acquire needed product and services, but acknowledge that social motives for shopping are also important. Reisinger (2006) asserts that shopping is the act of purchasing goods. It can be an act of necessity or a utilitarian act, an act of pleasure, desire or even fun. Thus, shopping may be considered a leisure activity as well as an economic one. The leisure aspect of the shopping

experience is relevant to tourist purposes when consumers decide to embark on tourism adventures.

Several researchers have tried to describe shopping tourism (Butler, 1991; Friedrich, 2007; Timothy, 2005). Hsieh and Chang (2006) claimed that tourism and shopping are inseparable. One explanation of shopping tourism was proposed by Bauer and Meier (2011) who posited that when researchers try to define this special tourism sector (shopping tourism) only one facet can be defined clearly, namely that this kind of tourism includes the purchase of goods, most typically clothes, shoes, leather goods and luxury foodstuff.

Other scholars have investigated the relationship between shopping and tourism. Rabbiosi (2011) argues that the link between consumption and tourism by means of the practice of shopping is historically close. Shopping has become significantly more than just the activity of buying merchandise, but a hedonic experience and social activity (Timothy, 2005). Likewise, Babin et al. (1994) maintained that shopping can provide a high level of hedonic value to recreational shoppers in many ways, because seeking these experiences is often far more significant than the mere acquisition of products. The leisure aspect of shopping is parallel to tourism leisure purposes.

Butler (1991) underlines the relationship between the practice of shopping and the practice of tourism as having at least two different classifications. Tourism shopping refers to going shopping as a side or secondary activity during a trip. However, in the case of shopping tourism, shopping is the primary motivation for a trip, or the primary element in forging the touristic experience. Timothy (2005) developed a similar classification of tourists who shop into two categories: shopping tourists and tourism shoppers. The first category comprises tourists with shopping as their main reason for travelling. The second category involves tourists who have other primary motives for travelling, but participate in shopping as a complementary activity.

Similar to Butler (1991) and Timothy (2005), Bauer and Meier's study on tourist shopping in Germany also provides two groups of shoppers: the strictest and broadest

categories. Shopping tourists in the strictest category refer to those who take a trip that is made because the tourists have the desire to go shopping. This group is subdivided into: overnight guests - domestic and foreign, and day trippers - domestic and foreign. Shopping tourists in the broadest group refer to those whose shopping is not the primary objective for the trip. This group is also split into: overnight guests - domestic and foreign, and day trippers - domestic and foreign.

McKercher and Chan (2005) classify shopping tourism as special interest tourism, a form of tourism which starts with the individual needs. The researchers proposed the term 'culturalist shoppers' - tourists who engaged in both shopping and cultural or heritage tourism.

The preceding review on shopping tourism provides a foundation for the scope of this study. The definition of shopping tourism as set out in this study is travel activity with shopping as either the primary or secondary motive for travel which may be connected to other tourism purposes to fulfil tourist needs. This definition is in line with the definition developed by Butler (1991), Timothy (2005), McKercher and Chan (2005) and Bauer and Meier (2011). Thus, the focus of this study is shopping as a recreational or leisure activity for tourists, particularly shopping for souvenirs in Indonesia.

2.2.2 Shopping Tourism Research

Shopping tourism research was introduced by Kent et al. (1983) who published their work on 'shopping: tourism's unsung hero-(ine)'. The authors exposed the potential contribution of shopping tourism to destination development, something which had not been recognised by many destination marketers. This study was followed by the work of Keown (1989)who published his empirical research on Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii, suggesting a model for tourists' propensity to buy goods in a vacation destination. Building on Keown's study, Jansen-Verbeke (1991) explored the relationship between tourism, leisure and shopping based on a series of aspects and assumptions. Butler (1991) examined shopping as a tourist activity by undertaking a study on the shopping mall as a tourist destination attraction and for the basis of tourism

development. While the early studies of shopping tourism have provided great influence on and insight into the development of shopping tourism research, the scope of these studies was mainly focused on the contribution of tourism shopping to economic and destination development. The subsequent sections discuss seminal studies on shopping tourism that explores a range of factors beyond the economic. This provides a comprehensive view on shopping tourism development research that is relevant to this study.

2.2.2.1 Shopping Tourism in Non-Asian Countries

Bauer and Meier (2011) investigated tourism shopping in Germany, arguing that shopping is an important tourist activity but that most tourists do not select a destination based on the possibilities of going shopping. According to Bauer and Meier (2011), shopping is an important factor associated with tourist satisfaction. The researchers proposed two main questions which were designed to determine what type of potential customers are interested in such shopping holidays and how these holidays should be composed. The focus was on finding out how long consumers would want to go on a pure shopping holiday and how far they would travel. Bauer and Meier's survey aimed at detecting whether a general interest in such a holiday existed. The study showed that 80 out of the 120 people interviewed would like to go on a pure shopping holiday. This number increased by at least 16% if the trip included some other activities, for example visiting a theatre in the evening. Most respondents preferred to shop during the weekend (67%), quite a few stated that they would like to go for a whole week (22%), and 11% of respondents claimed that they were willing to spend four days on a shopping trip. This indicates that shopping with or without other tourism activities motivates people to travel.

A review of shopping tourism literature indicates that most studies of shopping tourism in Western countries have been conducted by US researchers and carried out in US geographical areas. Consequently, such studies are oriented to US culture. The focus of shopping tourism research in Western countries in the past decade is summarised in Table 1 in Appendix B and can be categorised into three main research areas: tourist

shopping satisfaction, shopping as a motivation to travel, and shopping tourist behaviour. Each of these research areas is discussed in the subsequent sections.

A number of studies have emerged related to tourist shopping satisfaction in different shopping tourism contexts (Barutçu, Doğan and Üngüren, 2011; LeHew and Wesley, 2007; Murphy et al., 2011; Reisinger and Turner, 2002; Tosun et al., 2007; Turner and Reisinger, 2001; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). Murphy et al. (2011) examined shopping satisfaction in the context of tourist shopping villages and suggested that tourists' shopping dissatisfaction/satisfaction is greatly influenced by the village's ability to deliver a unique local experience, value for money, distinctive local products, and experiences for entertainment and bargain hunting. In the context of the shopping centre, LeHew and Wesley's (2007) study found that local resident shoppers were more satisfied than the tourist shoppers hence the tourist shopper market may not be the most valuable customer group. In a retail product context, Turner and Reisinger (2001) clustered domestic tourists into groups for product attributes, services and level of satisfaction with the retail product. The study indicates that tourists' satisfaction is influenced by product choices and attributes.

Shopping satisfaction in the context of different shopping destinations and nationalities is also developed under the shopping satisfaction area. Barutçu, Doğan and Üngüren's (2011) study indicates that tourists' satisfaction and perception of shopping in Alanya Turkey show significant differences among and between international shoppers from different nations. Reisinger and Turner's (2002) study examines Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and the Gold Coast to test the relationship between different dimensions of product categories, product attributes, and satisfaction with product attributes. Similarities and differences between satisfaction dimensions were found between the two destinations. Tosun et al. (2007) argued that shopping satisfaction relates to local shopping culture. Their study indicates that respondents showed different levels of satisfaction with various shop and shopping attributes.

A number of researchers have examined shopping as a motivation to travel (Alegre and Cladera, 2012; Dmitrovic and Vida, 2007; Josiam et al., 2005; Kinley et al., 2012;

Kinley et al., 2003; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2009).Rosenbaum and Spears' (2009) utilised Fodness' motivation factors, adding shopping as a factor. The findings indicate that shopping was a motivational factor, along with five other factors, for Japanese and US tourists visiting Honolulu. Dmitrovic and Vida (2007) explored tourist motivations for shopping overseas and examined the role of demographic versus socio-psychological factors. The results of their study indicated that the differences between the international and domestic shopper in two countries existed in relation to demographic variables on overseas shopping behaviour. Additionally, Kinley et al. (2003) used push and pull motivations to segment shopping tourists into three groups: 'shopping tourist', motivated by shopping-related issues; 'experiential tourists', motivated by social or entertainment shopping experiences; and 'passive tourists', with low overall push motivation to shop.

A number of studies have focused on shopping tourist behaviour (Dimanche, 2003; Kemperman, Borgers and Timmermans, 2009; Moscardo, 2004; Oh et al., 2004; Park and Reisinger, 2009; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2006; Yüksel, 2007). Park and Reisinger (2009) examined the differences in shopping for luxury goods among Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourists. The results indicated that Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourists-shoppers differ considerably in the perceived importance of luxury consumer and travel goods and their characteristics. Rosenbaum and Spears' (2005) study involved two different nationalities: Japanese and American first-time and repeat tourists to Hawaii. The results indicated substantial cross-cultural dissimilarities in consumption patterns among American and Japanese tourists to Hawaii. Oh et al. (2004) examined the effectiveness of age, gender and trip typology as predictor variables for tourists' shopping behaviours. The results indicated that those tourist age, gender and trip typologies are significant factors influencing the preference patterns of shopping or browsing activities.

The foregoing discussion provides insights into shopping tourism in Western countries that are relevant for this study. The themes, constructs and methods that expose shopping as motivation to travel, shopping satisfaction and shopping behaviour provide

a thorough foundation used to build a comprehensive research framework in relation to this study.

2.2.2.2 Shopping Tourism in Asian Countries

Many places in Asia have developed as well-known shopping attractions. Three cities in particular are well-known as shopping destination: Hong Kong, Singapore and Bangkok. Additionally, Dubai has emerged as a new shopping destination, positioning itself as the world destination for shopping. Dubai is the most popular shopping destination located in the Middle East and one of the most famous in the world. Over the last decade, Dubai has established itself as a city of shopping malls, a luxurious lifestyle destination and a place of opportunities for retailers from all over the world. Shopping-oriented festivals, such as the Dubai Shopping Festival (DSF) and Dubai Summer Surprises (DSS), have likewise strengthened Dubai's claim as the world shopping destination (Anwar and Sohail, 2004).

The most exposed shopping tourism destination in Asia is Hong Kong. A number of researchers have highlighted shopping tourism in Hong Kong (Choi, Liu, Pang and Chow, 2008; Heung and Cheng, 2000; Heung and Qu, 1998; Lloyd, Yip and Luk, 2011; Tsang, Tsai and Leung, 2011; Wong and Law, 2003). According to Heung and Cheng (2000) tourism contributes significantly to Hong Kong's economy and according to Wong and Law (2003) the contribution of tourism accounted for about 5% of the Gross Domestic Product of Hong Kong in 1999. Shopping accounted for more than HK$30 billion or US$ 3.87 billion (50.2%) of total tourism receipts (Wong and Law, 2003). Hong Kong positions itself as a 'shopper's paradise'. The significance of tourism shopping for the economy was emphasised by Law and Au (2000) who stated it was imperative for Hong Kong, as shopping tourism constituted half of the overall travel spending and makes an undisputed contribution to the Hong Kong economy.

Similarly, shopping has been one of the key contributors of tourism in Singapore. According to the Singapore Tourism Board (2008), shopping is one of Singapore's most important tourist attractions, generating S$3.5 billion in 2007. Shopping was the main

purpose of visiting for 45% of tourists, who allocated between a third and a half of their total budget to the activity. Henderson, Chee, Mun and Lee (2011) argued that Chinese and Indian tourists are enthusiastic shoppers and Australian, British, American and Japanese travellers are among the top 10 spenders when visiting Singapore. According to Henderson et al. (2011), although, there is some dissimilarity in shopping behaviour by nationality, patterns are generally consistent.

A number of studies have explored shopping tourism in the context of Taiwan (Hsieh and Chang, 2006; Lehto et al., 2004; Mak et al., 1999; Perng, Chow and Liao, 2010). Hsieh and Chang (2006) analysed tourists' motivations for shopping in Tourist Night Markets in Taiwan. The researchers found that novelty-seeking, exercising and experiencing local culture and customs were the main reasons that motivated tourists to shop in Tourist Night Markets.

A review of shopping tourism literature indicates that most studies of shopping tourism in Asian countries are dominated by Hong Kong as an international shopping destination. Other shopping places in the region are underrepresented in the literature, including shopping tourism in Indonesia. Table 2 in Appendix B provides a summary of shopping tourism studies in Asian regions in the past decade. Various shopping tourism research themes have emerged, including: shopping value (Lloyd et al., 2011); shopping satisfaction (Heung and Cheng, 2000; Tsang et al., 2011); shopping destination (Henderson et al., 2011); shopping behaviour (Choi et al., 2008); shopping preference (Lehto et al., 2004; Liu, Choi and Lee, 2008); shopping expectation (Wong and Law, 2003; Yeung et al., 2004); and shopping motivations (Hsieh and Chang, 2006).

A review of the literature highlights one study by Timothy and Wall (1997) that focussed on selling souvenirs in Indonesia. The researchers examined street vendors selling souvenirs to tourists in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The study found that the difference between the informal and formal sector was becoming increasingly indistinct. Informal sectors are less regulated and more government intervention is needed in order to enhance the quality of products and therefore tourists' experience. Local government may also improve tourists' shopping experience by providing the specific products and services sought by tourists, as identified in the results of this study.

The preceding review provides insight into shopping tourism in Asia, highlighting different shopping themes in the region that can be used in forming an inclusive research framework in relation to this study. While various themes and constructs have been exposed in the shopping tourism research in both Asian and non-Asian countries, a limited number of studies have used a behavioural intention construct in the context of shopping tourism.

2.3 Souvenir Shopping Tourism

Souvenir shopping is an integral part of the tourist shopping experience and, therefore, souvenir shopping is an essential element of shopping tourism. Swanson and Timothy (2012) indicate that souvenirs research is not isolated but rather coupled, or embedded within, studies of shopping, retailing, handicrafts, authenticity, material culture, gift giving practices, and consumption. A review of shopping tourism literature indicates that shopping is a major tourist activity and may be a motivation factor for tourists to visit a destination (Fairhurst, Costello and Holmes, 2007; Kim and Littrell, 2001; Timothy, 2005), with shopping mainly associated with souvenirs. A number of studies indicate that Japanese tourists in particular exhibit strong souvenir shopping behaviour (Kim, Timothy and Hwang, 2011; Reisinger and Turner, 2002; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2006, 2005). A similar result was reported by Cai et al. (2001) for Chinese leisure tourists, who displayed strong gift shopping behaviour in the US. Additionally, Park (2000) outlined the social and cultural influence of souvenir shopping behaviour for Japanese and Korean tourists.

2.3.1 Defining Souvenirs

Swanson and Timothy (2012) note that the word 'souvenir' originates from a French verb indicating an action to remember. The word is translated as an English noun that represents an object through which something is remembered. In addition to a thing, the object might be a place, occasion, event or even a person (Swanson and Timothy, 2012). Jafari, Baretje, Buhalis, Cohen, Collison, Dann, Din, Fayos-Sola and Fletcher (2000, p. 547) define souvenir as "material objects which serve as reminders of people,

places, events or experiences of significance in a person's biography". Swanson and Horridge (2004) state that the term souvenir commonly refers to commercially produced and purchased objects. Wilkins (2011) explains that souvenirs are purchases made by tourists that can act as tangible evidence of tourist experiences, as aids to the recollection of experiences, as gifts for self and others, and as symbols that give meaning to tourist experiences. Hitchcock and Teague (2000, p. xii) define souvenirs as the material counterpart of travels, events, relationships and memories of all kinds and a souvenir's "function is to store or stimulate memories".

Gordon (1986) classifies souvenirs into five categories, namely pictorial image, piece-of-the-rock, symbolic shorthand, markers, and local products. Pictorial images are souvenirs that endorse the pictorial subject to move through space and communicate a "fantasy reality to an otherwise humdrum existence" Gordon (1986, p. 140). Types of souvenirs that may be included in this category are postcards, photographs, illustrated books about particular regions, and playing cards with local images. The pictorial image is sent to someone other than the tourist or kept by the tourist as a portrait. The piece-of-the-rock souvenirs are materials or objects, usually natural objects, gathered from nature to represent the non-urban environment. Souvenirs included in this category are items such as rocks, seashells and pinecones taken from the natural environment. Symbolic shorthand souvenirs are usually products manufactured in large quantities and related to a real object or monument, presenting landmark scenery that evokes a shorthand code or message about the place it came from, such as a miniature Borobudur Temple. The symbolic shorthand items are often functional, allowing the symbol of an extraordinary experience to be used during ordinary life. Markers are souvenirs that might offer no reference to a particular place and are inscribed with words which identify them in place and time. For example, a T-shirt, which had little meaning by itself but was marked 'I Love Yogyakarta' or 'I love Bandung', became a souvenir full of memories. Local product souvenirs are made from materials indigenous to a specific area. Souvenirs in this category may include foods and clothing.

Timothy (2005) points out that souvenirs are objects which include mass and non-mass-produced items. Souvenirs include mass-produced merchandise, such as clothing: T-

shirts and hats; collectables: postcards, refrigerator magnets, miniature figures; household items: mugs, bowl, plates, ashtrays, spoons, notepads; and many others. Souvenirs also include non-mass-produced items like folk art, handicrafts, and antiques, and non-commercial items such as natural objects, and anything else that a person attaches nostalgic value to and collects among his/her personal belongings.

Wicks, Do, Hsieh, Komorowski, Martin, Qiu, Rimdzius, Strzelecka, Wade and Yu (2004) state that souvenirs can reference the social and political processes of an area, the context for the production of the souvenir, authentication, and display of wares on the part of the seller. Consumer goods acquire symbolic value and serve many purposes for their owners. Souvenirs, and the memories associated with them, help the consumers participate in non-ordinary experiences, expand their worldview, differentiate or integrate the self with others, and much more. By using the word 'special' it is understood that the object has some meaningful value, memory, and importance/feeling attached to it for a specific person. As meaning evolves objects become symbolically significant to their owners. For this reason the types of souvenirs purchased can say something about buyers.

The above review provides insight into the fact that any number of things can be seen as souvenirs, but typically they are objects with a close connection to the place visited. For the purposes of this study, souvenirs are defined as any creation acquired by tourists for other than utilitarian determinations that have a physical or symbolic association to the destination. These may include accessories, art and paintings, crafts, jewellery, antiques, clothing, collectables, toys, books, stationery, local speciality foods, and postcards or booklets (Anderson and Littrell, 1995; Gordon, 1986; Littrell et al., 1994; Swanson and Horridge, 2004; Timothy, 2005).

The subsequent section highlights souvenir tourist shopping behaviour with regard to souvenir shopping preferences, travel patterns and demographic characteristics.

2.3.2 Souvenir Shopping Tourist Behaviour

Souvenirs may have different meanings for different tourists. Hence, tourists purchase souvenirs for many different purposes. The most essential reason for buying souvenirs may relate to symbolic meaning. According to Kim and Littrell (2001), tourists purchase souvenirs mostly for friends, family, and for themselves. Swanson and Horridge (2006) point out that a souvenir may also evoke meaningful memory of the unique cultural values of a destination. Littrell et al. (1994) maintain that souvenirs are tangible products that satisfy the intangible images of the travel experience recollected by a tourist. Anderson and Littrell (1995) note that souvenirs, for the most part, act as tangible reminders of intangible experiences of destinations visited that differ from daily routine.

Lehto et al. (2004) explain that shopping for souvenirs is an important component of tourists' shopping expenditure. Tourists could spend a significant amount of their travel budget on shopping for gifts and souvenirs (Heung and Cheng, 2000). Former studies estimate that tourist spending on souvenir purchases can account for approximately one third of their total spending (Yu and Littrell, 2003). Littrell et al. (1994) reported that tourists' expenditure for shopping, which included souvenirs purchase, accounted for 30% to 33% of their total travel spending. A study by Littrell et al. (1993) indicated that nearly 70% of Midwestern US travellers purchased gifts for family and friends during a trip. Thus, souvenir shopping tourism is important for local economic growth.

The fact that tourism expenditure on souvenir purchases is high, indicates that souvenirs have become a major component of the tourism system, employing millions of people in production, distribution and sales, and generating significant benefit to the economies of destinations (Timothy, 2005). Consequently, souvenir shopping has become an integral part of shopping tourism (Chang and Kong, 2012) and integral to the economic structure of many destinations (Love and Sheldon, 1998). In Indonesia, people living around heritage tourism sites get benefits from tourists by selling souvenirs and other goods related to the heritage attraction.

Chang and Kong (2012) outline the importance of souvenir tourism according to three considerations. Firstly, souvenir shopping relates closely with how tourists perceive a destination, apparently tourists will acquire more souvenirs when their tourism experience is enjoyable. Hence, through souvenir shopping the favourability of a destination can be built. Secondly, a successful souvenir attraction results in significant revenue generating that leads to economic development of a destination. Therefore, souvenir tourism can be a major tourism portfolio of a destination. Lastly, souvenir products can promote the originating destination. Tourists purchase souvenirs and bring them back to their home country to give, or show them off, to friends and relatives, this may induce them to visit the destination themselves in the future.

Previous studies on souvenir shopping tourism predominantly emanated from US researchers. Table 3in Appendix B presents a summary of souvenir shopping tourism studies. Three research themes have emerged: souvenir tourist behaviour, souvenir tourist motivation, and souvenir tourism for destination development. Some studies in the area of souvenir tourist behaviour include studies by Littrell et al. (1994), Swanson and Horridge (2002), Hu and Yu (2007), and Fairhurst et al. (2007).

Two important studies in souvenir tourist motivation were conducted by Swanson and Horridge (2004, 2006). The first study was to test the causal relationships between tourist travel motivations (travel activities and tourist demographics) and souvenir consumption (souvenir products, product attributes, and store attributes). The findings indicated that tourists' travel activities have positive correlations with souvenir consumption, while tourist demographics have no correlation. The second study analysed the influence of travel motivations and the type of souvenirs tourists purchase, attributes of the souvenir, and attributes of the store where the souvenir is purchased. The results indicated that travel motivations have an influence on souvenir products, product attributes, and store attributes.

A recent study on souvenir tourism for destination development examined how souvenir shopping can be utilised in Macau's tourism development and suggested how to market into various tourist segments (Chang and Kong, 2012). The results of this study

demonstrated that souvenir products can be an integral part of tourism development and used to strengthen Macau's tourism portfolio.

The above discussion provides an insight into souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour, which is important for this study. The various studies on this behaviour provided a solid foundation from which to formulate items scales to measure shopping tourists' behaviour in this research.

Littrell et al. (1994) examined souvenir purchase behaviour by segmenting tourist shopping for souvenirs into four typologies, demonstrating the link between tourists' activity and their shopping patterns. Additionally, the study identified a connection between the different styles of shopping behaviour and different travel groups. The four tourist profiles and their specific shopping preferences are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 - Tourist Profiles, Travel Purposes and Shopping Preferences

Tourist profile	Travel purpose	Shopping preference
Ethnic, arts, and people	Education and personal development	Antique, crafts, local foods products, and books about the destination
History and parks	History or beauty of nature	Books, postcard and booklets about the destination, and crafts
Urban entertainment	Active travellers	T-shirts, sweatshirts, other clothing with location names and logos, and mementos of the location or attraction
Active outdoor	Energetic outdoor enthusiasts	T-shirts, sweatshirts, other clothing with location names and logos

Source: Littrell et al. (1994).

The first profiles group consists of tourists who are oriented towards ethnicity and the arts, and people who see their travelling experience as an opportunity for education and personal development. Types of souvenirs purchased by this tourist group include antiques, crafts, local foods products, and books about the destination. They buy souvenirs for themselves and as gifts. This tourist segment is attracted mainly to crafts made from fabrics or clay and valued products with a painted enhancement, such as

jewellery and items to use in the home. They are attracted to souvenirs based on appealing colours, design, workmanship, uniqueness, representation of a clever idea, or because they fit into a collection, or are made by well-known artisan, and signed by the craft maker.

The second profile group consists of history and parks-oriented tourists who focus their tourism experiences on history or nature's beauty. They purchase crafts, postcards, books about the destination, local foods, and items chosen as part of a collection. This group of tourists are fascinated by crafts from a variety of media including painted products, nature materials, wood, and clay. Purchases are supportive of the more contemplative and reflective nature of this group. This group of tourists seek crafts that have attractive colours and design, display high quality workmanship, and can be displayed in the home or used as gifts. The craft's attractiveness is perceived as important by the group with names or logos on the items that link to the historic places or parks they have visited. Other considerations for this group are that souvenirs are easy to care for, clean and pack. Additionally, this group values clever ideas portrayed in crafts.

The third profile group, urban entertainment-oriented tourists, are always active. They might shop for souvenirs during the morning, go to a theme park or sporting event in the afternoon, and nightclub in the evening. They purchase marker souvenirs, such as T-shirts or other mementos, which symbolise the destination visited. This group of tourists select souvenir items to display in their home, to use as seasonal decoration, or to wear as clothing, accessories, or jewellery. Wood and painted items are their preferred media.

The last tourism profile group comprises active outdoor-oriented tourists. This group of tourists are vigorous outdoor enthusiasts. This group of tourists look for products that: can be displayed in the home; are made from nature materials; have a country, rural, recreation, or folk art theme; are unique or made by a well-known craft person; and display a local logo. The souvenir items purchased by this group of tourists include T-shirts, sweatshirts, and items that originated in nature.

The foregoing review provides insight into the relationship between tourists' profile, travel purposes and types of souvenirs sought, which can be used to identify souvenir tourists' shopping behaviours and preferences in relation to this study.

A study by Kim and Littrell (1999) indicates that tourists' purchase behaviour is influenced by three product attributes, namely aesthetics, uniqueness and portability. Additionally, tourists also consider souvenir attributes such as low cost, fragility, ease of care and cleaning when purchase souvenirs. Other souvenir attributes also important to tourists include: quality (Turner and Reisinger, 2001); authenticity (Swanson and Horridge, 2004); appealing colour and design or aesthetics, items representing new ideas or uniqueness (Littrell et al., 1994; Swanson and Horridge, 2004); and symbolism of the place visited such as having a pictorial image and/or a mark of the place visited (Littrell et al., 1994).

Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) state that the most important souvenir product attributes are the relationship of the souvenir to the local area and authenticity. Authenticity is associated with distinct features that cannot be found in the consumer's daily life. Authenticity, according to the tourism studies, is defined as a craft's uniqueness, workmanship, aesthetics and use, cultural and historical integrity, and genuineness (Zulaikha and Brereton, 2011).Cohen (1988) and Littrell et al. (1994) have a similar view that the degree of authenticity is negotiable and it will be relative to people and places.

Littrell et al. (1994) explain that the authenticity of a souvenir is associated with the fact that the product is a locally made item and that the souvenir is typical of or indigenous to the visited place. Additionally, Anderson and Littrell (1995) have found that tourist perception of the authenticity of souvenirs acknowledged two additional categories: that the souvenir is made in the place the tourists have visited and the authenticity of souvenirs is also derived from workmanship. In other words, the souvenir is considered authentic if it is handmade by local people according to tradition.

Souvenir purchase is strongly connected to hedonic values, world-mindedness, recreational and ethnic tourism, and attitude toward souvenirs (Anderson and Littrell, 1995; Kim and Littrell, 1999). Hedonic value is something that increases arousal, heightened involvement, perceived freedom, fantasy fulfilment and escapism (Babin et al., 1994). Therefore, hedonic values in the souvenir context include authenticity, aesthetical value, novelty, curiosity, workmanship quality and symbolisation.

One of the major features of tourist shopping is the purchasing of souvenirs as gifts for family and friends (Park, 2000; Kim and Littrell, 2001). Park (2000) notes that there are many motives for souvenir purchasing that seem to be influenced by the culture and customs of a society. It appears that a gift-giving culture is one important motive for tourists purchasing souvenirs (Wilkins, 2011). Particularly, in collectivist culture, gift-giving has great importance in society. Park (2000) explored the gift-giving culture in Japanese and Korean society. The author found that both Japanese and Korean people present gifts for different purposes, including for friendship, respect, fun, and accomplishment.

A number of studies have attempted to understand tourist behaviour in the shopping tourism context in relation to demographic characteristics, including the role of age, gender and trip typology as predictor variables for tourists' shopping behaviour (Oh et al., 2004); the role of demographic versus socio-psychological factors in explaining cross-border shopping (Dmitrovic and Vida, 2007); and a comparison of different nationalities to understand different shopping behaviours and preferences (Rosenbaum and Spears, 2005; Wong and Law, 2003).

A study by Oh et al. (2004) found that age, gender and trip typology are significant factors influencing the preference patterns of shopping. The researchers concluded that trip typology, age and gender can serve as valuable indicators for configuration of tourist shopper consumer profiles. Thus, better information about patterns and predictor factors of tourists shopping behaviour may assist in improving planning and marketing in the industry. Dmitrovic and Vida (2007) explored the role of demographic versus socio-psychological factors in explaining the phenomenon of cross-border shopping in

two countries: Croatia and Serbia. The study found that there was an unstable effect of demographic variables on shopping behaviour in the two countries. Thus, different approaches to consumers should be adopted in cross-border shopping.

Some studies have explored tourists' travel patterns in relation to tourists' behaviour. Alegre and Juaneda (2006) examined tourists' trip-related characteristics and tourists' motivations in relation to the decision to participate in shopping activities. The results of the study indicated that different motivations and trip-characteristics were associated with the decision whether or not participate in shopping and with the level of shopping expenditure. The researchers concluded that encouraging shopping behaviour might be a way of increasing tourist expenditure at a destination. This could be done by identifying tourist profiles with a different propensity to participate in shopping. Swanson and Horridge (2004) investigated tourist travel activities and tourist demographics in relation to souvenir consumption (souvenir products, product attributes and store attributes). The study's results indicate that the tourists' travel activities have positive relationships with souvenir consumption, while tourist demographics have no relationship. The researchers suggest that retailers should identify the travel activities of their tourist customer to provide a better souvenir product mix. Further, by using identified travel activities, retailers might collaborate with lodging facilities, restaurants, and tourism boards to enhance positive shopping experiences for the tourist.

The preceding discussion provides insight into different aspects of souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour, which is important for this research. The identification of tourist shopping preferences, travel patterns and demographic profiles provide comprehensive aspects of tourists' behaviour. The combination of those three components of tourists' behaviour provides a solid foundation for this study.

Tourists' behaviour is closely related to culture. Thus, an understanding of cultural characteristics is essential when analysing tourists' behaviour. An improved understanding of tourists' cultural aspects will also assist destination marketers in identifying preferred tourism products and services to match with tourists' needs. The following section discusses cultural aspects in the context of souvenir shopping tourism.

2.3.3 The Influence of Culture on Souvenir Shopping Tourists' Behaviour

Culture has been seen as an important influence on human behaviour. A review of literature indicates that the relationship between culture and consumer behaviour is inseparable (Kotler and Keller, 2009; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009; Solomon, 2011). In the tourism context, tourists' behaviour is also greatly influenced by their culture. For example, Reisinger (2009a) notes that culture influences tourist buying behaviour. Since culture is constructed into behaviour in conjunction with consumption, the process of acquiring products such as gifts, souvenirs, clothing, handicrafts and holidays is strongly interrelated with culture. In the souvenir tourism context, Tosun et al. (2007) explain that souvenir shopping creates great opportunities for tourists to be exposed to host cultures through locally made handicrafts and souvenirs that reflect indigenous cultures. Hence, understanding souvenir shopping from a cultural perspective is important. However, the intertwining of culture and behaviour has not been fully explored as yet, particularly in the context of souvenir shopping tourism.

Hofstede (1991, p.5) defined culture as: "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". He explained that people share a collective national character that represents their cultural mental programming and shapes individual values, beliefs, assumptions, expectations, attitudes and behaviours. Schiffman and Kanuk (2009) note that the behaviour of a member of a certain society is guided by learned belief, values, customs, norms, rules and regulations. Therefore, the behaviour of people is guided by their cultures, including the behaviour of souvenir tourists in consuming their preferred souvenir products and tourism services.

In relation to this research, it was anticipated that tourists would have a different preference for souvenir products according to their cultural orientation. For example, Park (2000) found that Japanese and Korean tourists utilise souvenirs as a medium in promoting a relationship with others. However, some differences exist between these two cultures in relation to how and what souvenirs should be given. In some societies, a gift-giving culture is influenced strongly by religion. Indonesians send gifts to their

neighbourhood and friends on 'Lebaran Day', as a means of caring for others. This is central to their religious beliefs and is a culture embodiment.

Reisinger and Turner (2002, 2003) contend that the greatest cultural dissimilarities appear between Asian and Western cultures. Asian cultures focus on strong collectivist orientation, while Western cultures emphasis individualistic orientation. Mattila (1999a) examined Asian and Western travellers' perceptions on the role of culture and purchase motivation in the context of hotel service encounters. The results of the study indicate that Westerners gave significantly higher ratings to the hotel's overall service quality than did their Asian counterparts.

Additionally, Mattila (1999b) used a similar term in a study that investigated the impact of culture on Western and Asian customer evaluations of complex services in luxury hotel contexts. The results of the study indicate that customers hold personally relevant meanings associated with luxury hotels according to their ethnic background. A study by Ozdipciner et al. (2012), on the evaluation of travel decision criteria categorised tourists into three groups: Turkish, European, and Asian tourists. The results of the study indicated that the three tourist groups had a significant difference in demographics, preferences and attitudes. Osti, Turner and King (2009) classified tourists from four different nationalities (Japanese, Korean, Chinese and North American) into Asian and Western cultures to investigate the need for information in travel guidebooks and examine how culture influences the type of information required across Asian and Western cultures. The study concluded that the four cultures attach different levels of importance to information requirements.

Some researchers used the term Asian and non-Asian to group tourists across cultures in different contexts. Tsang et al. (2011) examined the bargaining behaviour of tourists in the Hong Kong open air markets. The researchers divided respondents involved in the study into Asian and non-Asian groups. The study found four key factors influencing tourists' bargaining intentions: 'value for money', 'perceptions toward sellers' offerings', 'bargaining for psychological well-being' and 'bargaining intensity'. While the study involved tourists from different backgrounds, it did not differentiate how those

tourist groups differed in bargaining behaviour. Kim and Prideaux (2005) classified international tourist visits to Korea into Asian and non-Asian groups to understand the difference in tourists' motivations and travel-related characteristics. Park, Kim and O'Neill (2014) used the terms Asian and non-Asian to differentiate between collectivistic and individualistic cultures in the context of customer complaint behaviour.

The foregoing discussion reveals that researchers use different terms in grouping tourists across cultures. This study classifies souvenir tourists into: non-Asian, Asian and Indonesian groups.

To understand cultural differences, Hofstede (2001) and Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) developed five dimensions of cultural. These cultural dimensions are explained in the context of souvenir shopping tourism in the following sections.

2.3.3.1 Power Distance

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, p. 46) defined power distance as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally". They argued that in societies with a high power distance index, such as Indonesia and other Asian countries, status and authority are very important. De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) stated that in high power distance cultures, one's social status must be clear so that others can express proper respect. Wealth and status are used to differentiate between social classes, such as superiors and subordinates (Meng, 2010). In the souvenir shopping tourism context, symbolic images are extremely important for Asian consumers, because attachment norms specify social status in a high power distance culture (Meng, 2010). Thus, it may be anticipated that high quality souvenir products, indulgence souvenir items, local speciality souvenir products and unique items of the destination that typically appeal to social status needs may serve this purpose.

Cultures that endorse low power distance expect and accept power relations that are more consultative or democratic. People relate to one another more as equals regardless of formal positions. Subordinates are more comfortable with and demand the right to contribute to and critique the decision making of those in power. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) note that Western countries indicate low power distance while Asian countries show high power distance.

2.3.3.2 Individualism versus Collectivism

Individualism and collectivism are different between Asian and Western culture; Asian culture emphasis a strong collectivist orientation while Western culture focuses on individualistic orientation (Reisinger and Turner, 2002, 2003). Triandis and Suh (2002) noted that individualism and collectivism are viewed as core explanatory for social differences. An individualistic actor demonstrates independence from social interaction, placing the focus on rights above duties (Hofstede, 2011). Collectivism involves interdependency between individuals and groups.

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, p. 76) contended that individualism predominates in "societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family". In contrast, collectivism is characterised by "societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetimes continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005, p. 76). The difference between individualism and collectivism is largely identified as the difference between people who only care for themselves and their immediate family, compared with those who belong to a community group and care for all in that community in return for loyalty.

De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) argued that in individualistic cultures, one's identity is in the person. People are 'I'-conscious and self-actualisation is important. Individualistic cultures are universalistic, assuming their values are valid for the whole world. They also are low-context communication cultures with explicit verbal communication.

Conversely, in collectivistic cultures, people are 'we'-conscious. Their identity is based on the social system to which they belong, and avoiding loss of face is important. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) indicate that many Asian countries demonstrate collectivist cultures, compared to the individualistic culture of Western countries.

In the souvenir shopping tourism context, it may be anticipated that collectivist societies strongly consider families and friends when consuming goods and services. They are likely to purchase souvenirs to cater not only for their own needs, but also for their whole family and for friends. On the other hand, individualistic tourists may rely solely on their individual needs and be less likely to buy for others. Therefore, tourists from collectivism culture may purchase more souvenirs and more variety of souvenirs products compared their individualism counterpart.

2.3.3.3 Masculinity versus Femininity

De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) argued that the main values in a masculine society are achievement and success while the central values in a feminine society are caring for others and quality of life. In masculine societies, achievement must be demonstrated, so status brands or products such as jewellery are important to show one's success (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) maintained that Western countries are predominantly masculine cultures while Asian countries reflect feminine cultures.

In the souvenir shopping tourism context, the member of a masculine society is likely to purchase souvenirs that can be used to express their success including jewellery and luxury souvenirs, possibly with a famous brand name. In contrast, the member of feminine society is likely to purchase souvenirs that reflect their feminism orientation.

2.3.3.4 Uncertainty Avoidance

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, p. 167) defined uncertainty avoidance as "a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity". The essential concern in this dimension is

how a society interacts with the fact that the future can never be known. Two basic notions of this dimension are whether society should manage the future or just let it happen. Countries displaying strong uncertainty avoidance preserve rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are biased against non-traditional behaviour and ideas. In contrast, weak uncertainty avoidance societies uphold a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles.

De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) indicated that high uncertainty avoidance cultures have a passive attitude to health by focusing on purity in food and drink and using more medication, low uncertainty avoidance cultures have a more active attitude to health by focusing on fitness and sports. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) maintain that Asian countries present high uncertainty avoidance while Western countries present low uncertainty avoidance.

In the souvenir shopping tourism context, high uncertainty avoidance societies are likely to consume more products related to health and medication. They are relatively loyal to certain products and very rarely switch to other products, thus avoiding or reducing uncertainty. Recommendations from family and friends in consuming new products are crucial in high uncertainty avoidance societies. In contrast, low uncertainty avoidance societies are expected to purchase more sportswear and equipment. They are open to new products and services and willing to try new adventures that they have not experienced before.

2.3.3.5 Long-Term versus Short-Term Orientation

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, p. 210) described long-term and short-term orientation as "the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic future-orientated perspective rather than a conventional historic or short-term point of view". The long-term and short-term orientation is recognised as Confucian dynamism, it defines the time horizon of societies.

In long-term orientation societies, people believe that truth is governed by circumstances, context and time. People display a capability to adapt traditions to changed conditions, a strong propensity to save and are devoted to thriftiness, and perseverance in accomplishing results. Short-term orientation societies largely have a great concern with finding the absolute truth. People are normative in their thinking. Short-term orientation societies show strong respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) indicated that, in general, Asian countries are associated with long-term orientation cultures while Western countries are associated with short-term orientation cultures.

Cultural differences between societies, as indicated by Hofstede's cultural dimensions, can influence tourist behaviour and have a significant impact on tourism planning and development. Rosenbaum and Spears (2005) explored cross-cultural differences in product and service consumption among US, Japanese, Canadian, Chinese, South Korean and Australian/New Zealand tourists with the purpose of understanding whether product and service consumption varies between, and among, first-time and repeat tourists from different nationalities. The results showed significant cross-cultural differences in consumption patterns among international tourists. Additionally, Ozdipciner et al. (2012) investigated three different categories of tourists (Turkish, Asian and Western cultural groups) based on their region of origin or regional culture related to demographics, preferences and attitudes, in order to understand travel behaviour decision criteria. The results indicated that the three regional or origin groups differed on most variables and factors.

Park and Reisinger (2009) investigated the difference in shopping for luxury products among Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourists with respect to the characteristics and importance of luxury products. The results indicated that the Western and Asian tourists assigned more prominence to purchase 'gifts for others' than Hispanic tourists. Additionally, Asian tourists ascribed more significance in obtaining golf equipment, health spa/wellness treatments, luxury cruises, and luxury yachts/rentals than Hispanic

tourists. Meanwhile, Western tourists attached more importance to 'fine dining' than Hispanic tourists.

A study by Hsieh, O'Leary and Morrison (1994) indicated that demographic profiles and travel characteristics influenced UK tourists' choices between independent and package tour modes. This study was supported by Morrison, Hsieh and O'Leary (1994) who found significant differences in travel patterns between three European nationalities in relation to demographic characteristics. Therefore, it can be assumed that souvenir tourist shopping travel patterns, shopping preferences, and demographic profiles will differ across the tourist groups of non-Asian, Asian and Indonesian.

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter delineates the concept of shopping tourism and its research development in Western and Asian countries. Despite the growing interest in shopping tourism, however, the study of souvenir shopping is limited. Yet, as discussed in this chapter, souvenir shopping is an integral part of shopping tourism.

In Indonesia, the souvenir industry is closely related to its culture. One of Indonesia's true national treasures is its rich cultural heritage of art and handicrafts. Different regions in Indonesia have different styles of souvenirs. Some of these have been internationally recognised such as batik, handicrafts, traditional textiles, and wood carvings.

In Indonesia, the souvenir industry is closely related to its culture. One of Indonesia's true national treasures is its rich cultural heritage of art and handicrafts. Different regions in Indonesia have different styles of souvenirs. Some of these have been internationally recognised such as batik, handicrafts, traditional textiles, and wood carvings.

The behaviour of tourists is greatly influenced by their cultural background. The greatest cultural differences exist between Asian and non-Asian nations. Hofstede

identified five dimensions to explain cultural difference, namely: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculine/feminine, individualism/collectivism, and long/short-term orientation. In the tourism context, cultural differences exist in most area of tourism aspects, including tourist's motivations, travel patterns, demographic profiles and shopping patterns. This study explores different souvenir tourist shopping behaviour across Asian, non-Asian, and Indonesian tourist perspectives.

This chapter has discussed souvenir shopping tourists in relation to their shopping preferences, shopping behaviour, demographic profiles and cultural issues. The next chapter discusses souvenir tourist shopping travel behaviour in relation to the constructs under investigation.

CHAPTER 3
SOUVENIR SHOPPING TOURIST BEHAVIOUR

3.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the literature related to the research questions. This is to determine the extent to which souvenir tourist travel motivations across different cultural backgrounds can be identified using the concept of push and pull factors, and to what extent souvenir tourist travel motivation influences experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. This chapter focuses on a discussion of the main constructs of the study and the underlying theories and concepts. It begins with a discussion on tourist travel motivation and then examines experience quality variables. Following this, the chapter focuses on tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Next, destination branding is explored, followed by a presentation of a theoretical foundation. The relationships between constructs are also discussed. A summary of the chapter is provided in the last section.

This study has adapted Tourism Consumption Systems (TCS) theory developed by Woodside and Dubelaar (2002). This theory is explained in more detail in section 3.8.2. In the TCS theory, tourists' experience follows three phases: prior to, during and following a trip. Building on this concept, Knutson et al. (2010) developed a tourist experience model that divided tourist travel experience into: pre-experience, participation and post-experience.

The TCS theory and the Tourism Experience Model (TEM) are central to this research and have been adapted as follows: pre-consumption, during consumption, and post-consumption. The pre-consumption stage refers to factors that influence a person before travel decisions are made, in the case of this study, this refers to travel motivation (push and pull factors). The during the consumption phase refers to factors that influence tourists during the visit stage, in the case of this study, this refers to the tourist experience quality. The post-consumption stage refers to the evaluation of the tourist

experience after consumption, in the case of this study, this refers to tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention.

A tourist's decision to travel is greatly influenced by many factors; one of which is motivation. Motivation is viewed as the main driver of all human behaviour (Crompton, 1979). Thus, travel motivation has become the main focus of practitioners and researchers for understanding tourists' behaviour (Fodness, 1994). It is believed that tourists' behaviours can be recognised by revealing the role of motivation in determining tourists' destination loyalty (Fodness, 1994). However, despite tourists' travel motivation, destination loyalty is also influenced by tourists' tourism experience and satisfaction. The subsequent literature review reveals the important attributes pertinent to the research constructs within the research model, as well as relationships within the model.

3.2 Travel Motivation

Motivation is a considerably important factor in understanding tourist behaviour because it reflects what tourists are looking for and how they deal with their expectations (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Fodness, 1994). Schiffman and Kanuk (2009, p. 83) note that "motivation is the driving force within individuals that impels them to action". Beerli and Martín (2004, p. 626) contend that "motivation is the need that drives individuals to act in a certain way to achieve desired satisfaction". Li and Cai (2012) maintain that motivation is a state of need that drives people to actions that are capable of satisfying those needs. All of these views indicate that motivation is central to affecting tourist behaviour. Better knowledge of tourists' motivation can help destination-managers better target their potential customers and offer tourism products and services adjusted to tourists' needs.

Essential to travel motivation is the fact that people have needs. These needs may include relaxation, diversion, and rest. To satisfy such needs people adjust their needs into wants, often resulting in the desire for a vacation. When people identify the wants to satisfy a need, motivation occurs, and the travel process begins (Bright, 2008). Kotler

and Keller (2009, p. 6) define human needs as "states of felt deprivation". They explain that wants are the form human needs take as they are shaped by culture and individual personality. Thus, wants are shaped by one's society and are described in terms of objects that will satisfy those needs. Travel may be seen as a satisfier of needs and wants, yet it is only when a need is recognised by the people that it becomes a want. Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995) point out that the human need that motivates people to travel includes the need for escape, novelty and renewal. An understanding of motivation is therefore of fundamental importance since it forms a major influence on tourism demand patterns.

Crompton and McKay (1997, p. 427) explain tourism motivation as "a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension of disequilibrium within individuals". Huang and Hsu (2009) contend that travel motivation relates to why people travel. These views show that people travel because they have needs to fulfil. The needs of people will differ from one person to other. Thus, it is important for destination marketers to understand and identify the needs of tourists to provide tourism services and products that satisfy their individual needs. As Pizam and Mansfeld (1999) argued, to understand human motivation, it is necessary to discover what needs people have and how they can be fulfilled. Maslow (1943) was the first to attempt to do this with his needs hierarchy theory, now the best known of all motivation theories.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is accepted as the classic theory to illuminate human needs. Maslow divided human needs into two categories: physiological (such as the need to eat, to drink or to keep warm) and psychological (such as the need for status and respect). His theory identified five levels of needs as physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualisation. Maslow contended that people are trying to satisfy human needs from the first level of need until they achieve the highest satisfaction of need. This means that once the current level of need is satisfied, people will automatically take action to pursue higher satisfaction starting from meeting the basic visible need for food up to the relatively abstract need of self-actualisation.

In the TCS context, travel motivation occurs in the pre-visit or pre-consumption stage. As noted by Pearce (1991, p. 113), travel motivation is "the set of needs and attitudes which predisposes a person to act in a specific touristic goal-directed way". Thus, motivation to travel precedes the act of travel to a certain destination.

In the tourism context, two of Maslow's (1943) needs are very important, these are: the aesthetic need and the need to know and understand. These needs are less known to people because they were not included in the hierarchical needs model. However, from the tourism perspective, these needs carry more weight than others in the hierarchical needs model. This due to people travelling to learn about something new (the need to know and understand) and to be exposed to objects of beauty (linked to the aesthetic need). The decision to take a holiday is based on a number of different needs. Thus, the most successful destinations are those that respond best to the greatest number of needs. In regard to this, Pike (2004) showed the relationship between needs and tourism motivators. These relationships are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 - Relationship between Needs and Tourism Motivators

Need	Motive	Tourism activities/objectives/purposes
Psychological	Relaxation	Escape, relaxation, relief of tension, sun lust
Safety	Security	Health, recreation, keeping oneself active and healthy
Belonging	Love	Family togetherness, enhancement of kinship relationships, companionship, facilitation of social interaction, roots, ethnicity, showing one's affection for family
Esteem	Achievement, status	Convincing oneself of one's achievements, show one's importance to others, prestige, social recognition, ego-enhancement, status, personal development
Self-actualisation	Be true to one's own nature	Exploration and evaluation of self, self-discovery, satisfaction of inner desires
To know and understand	Knowledge	Cultural, educational, wanderlust, interest in foreign areas
Aesthetic	Appreciation of beauty	Environmental, scenery

Source: Pike (2004, p.104).

Table 3.1 shows Maslow's hierarchy of needs being used to identify the link between needs, motives and related tourism activities in response to related needs and motives. Motivation for travel is more fundamental to an individual than the purpose or objective of a trip. A tourist may be motivated to travel to attend a family function in order to satisfy his/her need of belonging, status or recognition as listed in Table 3.1, although his stated objective for such travel may be to visit friends and relatives. A tourism objective is a conscious and explicit reason for acting in a certain way, while tourism motivation is an unconscious or covert reason for doing so (Pizam, Neumann and Reichel, 1979).

A number of researchers of travel motivation have examined physiological and sociological dimensions (Dann, 1981; Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991). The early studies on travel motivations are content-oriented, identifying what factors drive people to travel to certain places to engage in certain travel activities (Bright, 2008). Discussions of these factors centre on the identification of push and pull factors. Push factors refer to intrinsic motivators and needs, such as the desire for escape and relaxation, which leads to a desire to travel. Pull factors are destination attributes that attract an individual once he or she makes the decision to travel, and includes tangible resources, as well as traveller perceptions and expectations about a destination.

Researchers have attempted to understand travel motivation using a number of distinct approaches, such as the push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Dann, 1981); the travel career ladder (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983); wanderlust and sun lust (Gray, 1970); escape seeking (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987); and many others. Among them, push and pull factors have generally been widely accepted in tourism studies.

A very limited number of studies have explored travel motivation in the souvenir shopping tourism context. For example, Swanson and Horridge (2006) investigated how travel motivation influences the type of souvenirs tourists purchase, attributes of the souvenir, and attributes of the store where the souvenir was purchased. The results

indicate that travel motivations have an influence on souvenir products, product attributes, and store attributes.

3.3 Push and Pull Motivation Factors

Dann (1977) outlined two factors that affect why people travel. Those two factors are anomie and ego-enhancement. Anomie is a personal situation that arises from a response to the social situation an individual finds himself or herself in. It is an individual's need to escape from the separation of his or her ordinary life to enhance social relations. Ego-enhancement is the need for positive appreciation and heightened status from others. While travelling, a person can move away from his/her ordinary life and take part in activities that increase his or her ego. Bright (2008) notes that Dann's identification of anomie is a confirmation of Maslow's social or love needs while ego-enhancement is consistent with esteem needs.

Dann (1981) advocated that tourist motivation should be examined in a two-tiered framework, the push and pull domains. In this framework, the push domain focused on the 'why' question, the socio-physiological predisposition to travel, and the pull domain focused on the 'where to' question, the destination choice decision. This approach to motivations is developed from an interactions perspective, using destination 'pull' in response to motivational 'push'. The 'push' deals with tourist motivation per se. The 'pull' represents the specific attractions of the destination that induces the traveller to go there in comparison with other destinations. Push factors are thought to predispose the individual to travel, while pull factors help explain the destination selection decision. Kozak (2002) maintained that the push factors refer to the intrinsic need to escape that stimulates tourists to travel (for example, relaxation) and seek (for example, adventure). The pull factors are related to the attractiveness and appeal of the destination (for example, sea and sunshine) with its resources such as beaches, accommodation, natural, cultural, historical and religious attractions.

Crompton (1979) examined tourists' motivation for pleasure vacations. This study stressed the significance of a break from routine as the fundamental motive for travel.

54

Nine motivation factors were identified through interviews. Seven were categorised as socio-physiological (push factors), including escape from routine, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation and social interaction. The remaining two motives (pull factors), novelty and education, were grouped into cultural aspects.

Similarly, Baloglu and Uysal (1996) noted that people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by the external forces of destination attributes. Push factors which are mostly origin-related are the intangible or intrinsic needs of the individual tourists. Pull factors, on the other hand, are those that appear because of the attractiveness of a destination as it is perceived by travellers. Dann (1981) contended that push motivation temporally precedes pull motivation. The difference between push and pull factors is helpful for providing a logical and temporal sequencing explanation for tourism behaviour (Dann, 1981; Kinley et al.,2003).

Correia, do-Valle and Moço (2007b) listed the push factors most frequently used by researchers. Theseincluded relieving stress, escaping from the routine, physical relaxation, doing different things, stimulating emotions and sensations, being an adventurer, having fun, increasing knowledge, knowing different cultures and lifestyles, knowing new places, meeting interesting people, developing close friendships, going places my friends have not been, and talking about the trip. This list will enlarge depending on the tourism destination and the tourism research being examined.

Pull factors are reasons for selecting and going to particular destinations. Klenosky (2002) noted that push factors relate to the decision whether to go, while pull factors relate to where to go. Although those two are separate decisions, they do not operate independently of one another (Uysal et al.,2008). Additionally, Uysal et al. (2008) suggest that tourists' motivations to travel will be reinforced and pulled by destination attributes when the attributes of the destination provide significant value to them. Correia et al. (2007b) documented pull factors that were most frequently quoted in the literature, including landscape, natural environment, cultural attractions, night-life, sports equipment, transport, lodgings, weather, accessibility, beaches, gastronomy,

security, distance, shopping facilities, relaxing atmosphere, social environment, hospitality, different ethnic groups, and standard of living.

Dann (1977, 1981) and Crompton's (1979) approaches to motivation are basically destination 'pull' in response to motivational 'push'. This distinguishes between the motivation of the individual tourist in terms of the level of desire or push factors, and the pull factors of the destination's attributes or attractions, once the decision to travel has been taken. The pull factors are seen to respond to, and reinforce the push factors.

Although great achievements have been made in understanding tourism motivation, no widely accepted conceptual framework has emerged (Li and Cai, 2012), due to the differences in human cultures (Kim and Prideaux, 2005) and the broad variation of human needs and methodological problems (Li and Cai, 2012). Further, Li and Cai (2012) report that Western society dominates the study into travel motivation, and nationality is single indicator that has been used to study cultural differences in travel motivation. They proposed the need for more explorations into tourists' travel motivation particularly from the Asian cultural perspectives.

Hsu et al. (2010) summarised 35 seminal travel motivation studies and concluded that scant studies have explored the relationships between motivation and other behavioural constructs, even though motivation is an important part of travel behaviour. They identified only one study that has been devoted to understanding travel motivation and other behavioural construct relationships carried out by Yoon and Uysal (2005). Thus, more studies are urgently needed to examine travel motivation with other behavioural constructs. This study examines the relationship between travel motivation and experience quality, satisfaction, and behavioural intention in the souvenir shopping tourism context.

Kinley et al. (2003) have identified the push and pull factors of destination attributes in their study of mall shopping. These factors can also be categorised into cognitive and affective components. Some of the pull factors identified by Kinley et al. (2003) provide appropriate choices for this research, although their study was focused on general

leisure shopping in malls for domestic tourists while the current study focuses on souvenir shopping in traditional markets for both domestic and international tourists.

In the souvenir shopping tourism context one study by Swanson and Horridge (2006) has used travel motivation as the main variable. They used socio-psychological push factors to understand the influence of travel motivation on the type of souvenirs that tourists purchase, the attributes of the souvenir, and the attributes of the store where the souvenir was purchased. The researchers used 12 travel motivational items. Some of the push motivational factors from these previous studies are applicable to this current research.

3.3.1 Push and Pull Motivation Relationships

Previous studies on the relationship between push and pull motivation have been carried out by a number of researchers such as Pyo, Mihalik and Uysal (1989); Oh, Uysal and Weaver (1995); Uysal and Jurowski (1994); Kim and Lee (2002); Kim et al. (2003); Jang and Cai (2002); Yuan and McDonald (1990); You et al. (2000); and Kozak (2002). Pyo et al. (1989) and Oh et al. (1995) examined push and pull factors simultaneously and identified any relationship and the direction of the relationship that may exist between those two sets of variables, allowing researchers to capture the commonality that existed between those variables. The results of Pyo et al.'s (1989) study showed that there are significant variations between the products bundles identified. Additionally, Oh et al. (1995) used an Australian sample to investigate the relationships between 52 destination attributes and 30 push factors, resulting in four significant varieties and product bundles being identified. The four segments were: safety/comfort seekers, culture/history seekers, novelty/adventure seekers, and luxury seekers. Oh et al.'s (1995)study was replicated by Baloglu and Uysal (1996), who examined German tourists by employing 30 push and 53 pull factors, resulting in four significant diversities and product bundles. These studies indicate that there are reciprocal relationships between the push and pull motivations of travel behaviour.

Uysal and Jurowski (1994) also explored the relationship between push and pull factors, claiming that a significant correlation between push and pull exists. These researchers posited that understanding the interaction of push and pull factors can assist destination marketers in defining the most effective combination of push and pull forces. This study was replicated by Kim and Lee (2002) and Kim et al. (2003), who found similar results. Correia et al. (2007b) hypothesised that push motives lead to different pull motives. This study was based on Crompton's push and pull model (1979) with the main purpose to explore the push and pull travel motivation of Portuguese tourists travelling to exotic places.The study found that push motives have a positive and significant effect on pull motives.

Jang and Cai (2002) noted that a better understanding of tourists' travel motivations and their relationship with destination selection plays an important role in envisaging future travel patterns. The researchers sought to reveal the key factors of push and pull motivation related to British outbound tourists as well as to identify the underlying factors of motivation that have significant influences on destination choice. The study results show that motivation factors significantly influenced tourists' destination choice. For example, British tourists tend to visit the US for 'fun and excitement' and 'outdoor activities', while Oceania tourists visit for 'family and friend togetherness,' and Asian tourists for 'novel experience' seeking.

In the souvenir shopping tourism context, based on Jang and Cai's study (2002), it could be anticipated that non-Asian tourists may search for souvenirs that provide them with a feeling of 'fun and excitement', perhaps to be used for outdoor activities. While Asian tourists may likely search for souvenirs that provide them with a novel experience.

3.3.2 Factors Affecting Travel Motivation

Identifying factors affecting travel motivation may help tourism marketers to develop tourism products that meet with customers' needs and expectations for the targeted group of tourists and thus can satisfy these customers. Previous studies indicate that

travel experience and socio-demographics are major factors that influence tourist motivation. Huang and Hsu (2009) asserted that individual travel motivation is influenced by culture, past experience and background. These factors are discussed in the following section.

3.3.2.1 Culture

Culture, according to Schiffman and Kanuk (2009, p. 394), is "the sum total learned beliefs, values, and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of members of a particular society". Consumer behaviour is essentially determined by his/her culture. Cultural norms have an impact on both tourists' expectations and their perceptions of received service quality or experience quality. People from different cultural backgrounds have different image perceptions of a destination (Bonn, Joseph and Dai, 2005). Weiermair (2000) advocated that culture affects not only the way in which people experience and interpret goods and services, but their decision-making process and destination choice. Thus, this understanding of tourists across cultures may assist in explaining and forecasting tourists' behaviour. The influence of culture and cultural differences on customer behaviour has been analysed particularly in marketing literature (Weiermair, 2000).

3.3.2.2 Past Experience

Researchers have considered that previous experience about the destination is a significant factor in the destination selection process. Oppermann (1997) noted that previous travel experience is a significant factor at the motivation and information stage of the destination selection process rather than the actual destination choice. Tourists' past experiences are used to formulate travel experience and travel memories which directly contribute to the decision-making process and expectation level for future travel plans (Pearce 1988). Huang and Hsu (2009) argued that past experience has a direct influence on tourist attitude, whether negative or positive.

Motivation is an antecedent of tourists' behaviour. Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991) contended that motivation before and after tourists have visited the destination (after the leisure experience) is different and therefore motives will change depending on the satisfaction obtained from that experience. This satisfaction is highly dependent on the experiential image after tourists have visited the destination.

3.3.2.3 Demographic Background

Tourists' demographic factors are one of the important aspects that influence tourists' travel behaviour (Jang and Wu, 2006; Jang and Cai, 2002). Generally, these factors are age, gender, education, occupation, economic status and relationship status. Previous studies by Jang and Cai (2002) and Jang and Wu (2006) indicated that the most significant differences exist in education and income levels, which may lead to diversified discrepancy, when tourists select destinations in terms of distance and budget. Tourists with a relatively higher level of income will have more buying power and might select a location further away or a long-haul destination. Socio-demographic factors are understood to be of significant importance in understanding tourists as well as their travel motivation.

3.3.3 Travel Motivation across Cultures

A number of researchers have indicated that tourists with dissimilar cultural backgrounds or nationalities have different motivations for travelling (Kim and Lee, 2000; Kim and Lee, 2002; Kim and Prideaux, 2005; Kozak, 2002; Ozdipciner et al., 2012; Reisinger and Turner, 1997; You et al., 2000; Yuan and McDonald, 1990). Yuan and McDonald (1990) explored 29 motivational factors examining tourists from four countries - the UK, Japan, France, and West Germany. The study found that there were five major push motivational factors among these nationalities: prestige, relaxation/hobbies, novelty, enhancement of kinship relationship, and escape. The study indicated that motivational factors varied according to nationality.

Kim and Lee (2002) also investigated cross-cultural travel motivations comparing Anglo-American and Japanese tourists' visits to the US. The researchers identified five significant different travel motivations between Anglo-American and Japanese cultures, namely knowledge, prestige/status, family togetherness, novelty, and escape. Japanese tourists indicated more attentiveness to the prestige/status and the family togetherness motivation factors compared to Anglo-American tourists. On the other hand, Anglo-American tourists put more significance on the novelty seeking factor compared to Japanese respondents. The researchers concluded that the dissimilarity in Anglo-American and Japanese cultures has contributed to the travel motivation differences. Specifically, Japanese tourists have a tendency to collectivistic traits in seeking travel motivation, while American tourists have a tendency to individualistic traits.

You et al. (2000) examined tourists from the UK and Japan travelling to the US to understand whether tourists from those different cultural orientations have different travel motives and benefit seeking patterns. The results show that tourists from these two countries have different travel motives and benefit-seeking patterns. The researchers suggested that the branding and positioning of a destination for UK and Japanese travel markets would be more effective if the destination marketing organisation (DMO) projected different images within its advertising campaigns. These images should reflect the different travel motivations and benefits desired by the two groups of travellers.

Reisinger (2009a) suggested that cultural diversity should be used as a valuable concept for recognising cultural profiles of international tourist markets, their segmentation, targeting and positioning, and defining promotional strategies that directly target a specific cultural market segment. Following this suggestion, destination marketers should formulate competitive branding strategies into comprehensive marketing targeted at each cultural group. Additionally, better understanding of travel motivation and the benefits sought by tourists from different cultural groups will enable destination marketers to provide the products and services desired by tourists. This bundle of tourism products and services should be promoted in a targeted way to cater for different cultural market segments.

Kozak (2002) examined the push and pull travel motivation of British and German tourists visiting Mallorca and Turkey to understand the motivational differences of tourists from the same country visiting two different geographical destinations and those from two different countries visiting the same destination. The results showed that there were similarities and differences in four motivational factors between British and German tourists who visited Turkey and Mallorca. British tourists revealed more of a tendency towards 'pleasure-seeking/fantasy' motivational factors compared to German tourists who indicated a greater preference for 'relaxation and physical' motivational factors.

Kim and Prideaux (2005) explored the difference in tourist travel motivation, preferred tourist activities, length of planning before travelling, information sources used, and length of stay for tourist travel to Korea by five different nationalities: Americans, Australians, Japanese, Chinese from the Mainland, and Chinese from Hong Kong. The study identified five new motivational domains: 'enjoying various tourist resources', 'culture and history', 'escaping from everyday routine', 'socialisation', and 'socialstatus'. The study also revealed the significant differences between each national group.

Travel motivation across cultures in the context of souvenir shopping tourism has not been fully explored. Two studies have explored travel motivation in souvenir shopping tourism context. However, these two studies did not include cross cultural aspects. The first study was conducted by Kinley et al. (2003) who investigated push motivation factors that motivate people to shop when they are tourists in another city given that they have similar shopping centre in their city. This study also identified pull motivation factors that motivate tourists to select a given shopping centre to the exclusion of others. The results indicated that three segments were formed based on the tourist's motivation, namely 'shopping tourists' who motivated by shopping related issues; 'experiential tourists' who motivated by the social and entertainment experience of shopping; and 'passive tourists' who had low motivation to shop. The second study was carried out by Swanson and Horridge (2006) who examined the influence of travel motivations on the

type of souvenirs tourists purchase, attribute of the souvenir, and attributes of the store where the souvenir was purchased. The results indicated that travel motivations had an influence on souvenir product, product attributes, and store attributes. The study suggested that souvenir retailers should be cognisant.

The aforementioned studies have demonstrated that there are dissimilarities in the comparative significance of motivational factors across cultural groups. Despite the fact that complex motives were uncovered in previous research; the push and pull typology is an appropriate approach to studying travel motivation. Further, motivational factors seem to vary from country to country in an international tourism setting. This study will contribute to the existing literature on travel motivations in three major areas. Firstly, much of the previous research on travel motivations has focused on American and European perceptions, thus the significance of motivational factors on Asians and non-Asians selecting Asian destinations have not been explored in significant depth. This study explores the travel motivation of Asian and non-Asian tourists visiting an Asian country. Secondly, culture has been studied extensively in the Western context and less from the Asian perspective; this study reveals travel motivation from the non-Asian, Asian, and Indonesian perspective. Lastly, this study relates travel motivations to a special interest form of tourism, namely tourist souvenir shopping in Indonesia, thereby providing empirical evidence in this under-researched area.

The key underlying push and pull factors in the souvenir shopping tourism context, as discussed in the preceding paragraphs, provide a strong foundation for this study. Additionally, the experience of souvenir shopping needs to be explored in order to understand factors that contribute to memorable experiences for shopping tourists.

3.4 Experience Quality

The concept of experiences creates an important notion in the context of travel and tourism. Tourism is part of the service sector economy and in service people consume experiences (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). Thus, experience is core in the travel and tourism fields. From the tourist's perspective, tourism destinations are inclusive bundles

of tourism experiential products and services (Zouni and Kouremenos, 2008). Since tourism is experiential in nature, creating unforgettable experiences for tourists is critical to the success of the destination (Wijaya, King, Nguyen and Morrison, 2013). Hence, delivering a quality experience, providing unforgettable and memorable experience, is vital for tourism destinations. Tourists' consumption of tourism experiences occurs during the trip. Thus, in the TCS context, quality of experience occurs during the consumption phase. Despite the important role of experience quality in tourism, however, only a few studies have used the experience quality construct (Chen and Chen, 2010).

Pine and Gilmore (1998) introduced the idea of the experience economy proposing that creating experiences is fundamental for any business, as product and service offers have become easily duplicated and exchangeable. Destinations that can deliver memorable experiences for tourists will create superior value and competitive advantage (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). Thus, the quality of experiences provided to customers that are memorable, directly determine a business's ability to generate revenue (Pine and Gilmore, 1998).

Quality tourism experience influences tourist intentions to revisit the destination. Woodside, MacDonald and Burford (2004) contended that research has generally considered tourists' memorable experiences with outcome factors such as satisfaction, revisiting a destination and spreading positive word-of-mouth. In the case of this study, the souvenir tourists' shopping experience quality is linked with the outcome factors of satisfaction and behavioural intention.

3.4.1 Defining Experience Quality

The tourism experience concept has been noted by both academic and policy makers as essential; however the discrepancy in the central meaning of the notion remains unclear (Jennings, Lee, Ayling, Lunny, Cater and Ollenburg, 2009). The term experience goes beyond all languages and has become a general term to describe the feelings and encounters that an individual has during everyday life (Caru and Cova, 2003). Hosany

and Witham (2010) agree that experience is an all-embracing term, used in everyday conversation to describe everything from work-related achievements, to describing vacation experiences to family and friends.

Broad definitions of experience have not been universally accepted and several researchers have proposed more specific definitions. Oh, Fiore and Jeoung (2007) described experiences from a consumer's perspective as enjoyable, memorable and engaging encounters. Mossberg (2007) suggested that experiences should include an element of positive surprise, getting something extra and unexpected or a sensation-feeling. Tosun et al. (2007) contended that experience is a multifaceted amalgamation of attributes that form visitors' feelings and attitudes towards their visiting and spending time in a destination. Wang and Pizam (2011) defined experience as a constant flow of thoughts and feelings that occur during moments of awareness. These definitions provide a comprehensive meaning of experience in tourism and support this study.

Quality of experience in the tourism context, as noted by Chen and Chen (2010), refers to the psychological result deriving from a customer's involvement in tourism activities. It is subjective personal reactions and feelings that are sensed by consumers when using a service (Cole and Scott, 2004). Crompton and Love (1995, p. 12) advocated that the "quality of experience involves not only the attributes provided by a supplier, but also the attributes brought to the opportunity by the visitor or recreationist". Chan and Baum (2007) affirmed that experience quality also refers to a specific service transaction, such as contact with people who contribute to the actual experience. Thus experience quality is an affective response to tourists' desired social-psychological benefits (Crompton and Love, 1995). This response is partly derived from the service attributes and partly from consumer's personal feelings in the moment of consuming services.

This study uses the experience quality construct with the purpose of understanding souvenir shopping tourists' feelings and attitudes towards their visiting and spending time in the destination. The intention is to identify the tourism experience that contributes to tourists' favourable and unfavourable experiences during their visit to the

destination. The experience quality dimensions discussed in the following section may provide support in identifying tourists' favourable and unfavourable experiences.

3.4.2 Experience Quality Dimensions

A review of the literature indicates that a number of researchers have tried theorising and gauging the tourism experiences concept (Kao, Huang and Wu, 2008; Kim, Ritchie and McCormick, 2012; Oh et al., 2007; Otto and Ritchie, 1996). These researchers have introduced different dimensions of the experience construct in their tourism experiences conceptual models.

Otto and Ritchie (1996) proposed four important dimensions of experience quality: hedonic, peace of mind, involvement and recognition. They stated that tourism providers seeking to create a quality experience must consider incorporating all of these dimensions. Chen and Chen (2010) explained that hedonic is related to affective responses, such as excitement, enjoyment and memorability. Peace of mind refers to the need for both physical and psychological safety and comfort. Involvement is concerned with the desire to have choice and control in the service offering, and the demand to be educated, informed and imbued with a sense of mutual cooperation. Finally, recognition is linked to feeling important and confident while consumers themselves are being taken seriously.

In their studyon theme parks, Kao et al. (2008) conceptualised experiential quality through four factors: immersion, surprise, participation and fun. Immersion is defined as the involvement of consumers during consumption, which leads them to forget time and emphasise the consumption process instead of consumption results. Surprise refers to the freshness, speciality, or uniqueness perceived. Participation pertains to the interaction between consumers and the product (service), and fun relates to the happiness and enjoyment consumers receive.

Oh et al. (2007) conducted a study aimed at developing an initial measurement scale of tourist's destination lodging experiences. The researchers operationalised and tested the

four realms of experience using customers' lodging experience with rural bed and breakfasts. The study introduced some theoretical variables such as arousal, memories, overall quality and customer satisfaction. The study focused only on a minor part in the service sector.

A study by Kim et al. (2012) found that individuals who perceive a tourism experience as memorable would more often recall seven experiential components: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, meaningfulness, involvement and knowledge. Hedonism factors refer to thrills, enjoyment, excitement and tourists' participation in activities. Novelty is defined as a trip with an unfamiliar experience. Novelty seeking is operationalised in terms of the four indicators: once-in-a-lifetime experience, unique, different from previous experience and experienced something new. Local culture is concerned about the meeting or interaction with local people. Kim, Ritchie and Tung (2010) indicated that respondents who experienced local culture during their travels had high levels of past experience recollection, adding to their existing knowledge. Refreshment is concerned with the feeling of being refreshed, and how it affects one's memories of travel. Meaningfulness is concerned with the benefits of participating in tourism activities that improve one's psychological mood and well-being, allowing tourists to assert their self-identity and learn about other places and cultures. Involvement in a customer experience refers to the notion of personal attachment to an experience that reinforces a person's affective feelings when evaluating that experience. Knowledge refers to the importance of experience as being subjective, based on sensations, involving participation in activities, and resulting in learning or knowledge acquisition (Moscardo, 2009).

This study adapts the experience quality measurements developed by Otto and Ritchie (1996), Kao et al. (2008), and Kim et al. (2012) and discusses them in the context of souvenir shopping tourism. These comprehensive measurements are relevant to this study as they have been tested in the previous research and can be used to achieve the objectives of this study.

3.4.3 Experience Quality in the Souvenir Shopping Tourism Context

A number of researchers have indicated that souvenirs hold symbolic value for tourists' travel experiences. According to Graburn (1989) tourism is a 'sacred journey', thus there is a need for people to bring back mementos and souvenirs (Wilkins, 2011), of the "sacred extraordinary time or space" (Gordon, 1986, p. 136). Littrell et al. (1994) contended that the souvenir is a tangible symbol and reminder of an experience that differs from the daily routine and that otherwise would remain intangible, such as memories of people, places, and events. Thus, souvenirs help with recollection of the experience as well as provide proof of the journey (Gordon, 1986; Littrell et al., 1994; Swanson and Horridge, 2004). The gathering of souvenirs makes an intangible experience tangible, both for consumption by others or as a means of extending the experience for the tourist's own consumption (Gordon, 1986; Littrell et al., 1994).

The above discussion indicated that souvenirs embrace the intangible memory of tourist experiences. Souvenirs materialise the tourism experience and allow the memory of the tourism experience to be accessed more easily. One of the reasons that tourists frequently enjoy buying souvenirs from destinations is to remember the enjoyment they had during the trip (Uysal, Perdue and Sirgy, 2012). Gordon (1986) asserted that souvenirs can remind us of people, places, and events from our memorable experiences. As discussed earlier, there are at least five types of souvenirs: pictorial image, piece-of-the-rock, symbolic shorthand, markers, and local products. Souvenir purchasing is an important element of tourism consumption, affecting the tourism experience of the visitors themselves. Souvenirs purchased on trips are among individuals' most valued possessions and serve as a tangible way of capturing or suspending in time an otherwise intangible experience.

Yu and Littrell (2003) proposed two forms of tourist shopping models for craft souvenirs: product-oriented shopping and process-oriented shopping. Tourists conducting product-oriented shopping want to learn about the raw materials and process behind craft products and place a high value on product craftsmanship and aesthetics. Tourists undertaking process-oriented shopping, conversely, enjoy meeting local

artisans, hearing their stories, watching craft demonstrations, and learning about the cultural and historical significance of a craft in its local context.

Hitchcock and Teague (2000) explained that involving tourists in the production process where goods are made is a critical factor, as tourists value such an opportunity to learn unfamiliar skills and techniques for themselves. This will enhance their holiday experience. Involvement in the consumption experience will contribute to brand attachment and loyalty (Mitchell and Orwig, 2002). For example, souvenir shopping tourists may be involved in the process of batik making or craft making, both for education purposes and enhancing their tourism experiences. Souvenir makers in Indonesia provide courses in crafts making, both for learning and for the experience.

Pizam and Ellis (1999) described the tourist shopping experience as the accumulation of a tourist's satisfaction or dissatisfaction derived from the individual attributes of goods and services consumed. Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000) noted that the merchandise offered by retailers and vendors is an essential element of the destination experience. Shopping as a tourism activity is a combination of perceptions of products, services and places. Thus, the tourist's quality of experience in the souvenir shopping context is multi-faceted and includes internal and external factors related to the tourists themselves and the destinations visited.

3.4.4 Experience Quality across Cultures

A review of literature indicates that experience quality has not been fully explored in the cultural context, with researchers mostly focussed on using the service quality construct to examine tourism experience toward products or services consumed by tourists (Mattila, 1999a; McCleary et al., 2007; Weiermair, 2000; Yüksel, 2004). A significant difference was found in the perception of service delivered in shops by domestic and international tourists visiting Turkey, with domestic tourists more negative in their service evaluations compared to international tourists, and these two groups revealed significant differences in their shopping preferences (Yuksel, 2004). A study conducted by Mattila (1990) indicated that, when compared to their Asian counterparts, customers

with Western cultural backgrounds tend to rely more on the tangible cues of the physical environment when evaluating the complex services of luxury hotels. The study also showed that Western consumers have a preference for the hedonic dimension of their tourism consumption experience with fun and enjoyment being their core value, while consumers from Asian cultural backgrounds tend to reflect duty in life in their value structure. These studies provide insight into the importance of gaining more knowledge about the experience of tourists from different cultural backgrounds or nationalities.

The experience quality construct has not been fully explored in souvenir shopping tourism context across cultures. A study conducted by Yu and Littrel (2003) examined tourists' shopping experiences for crafts during travels and tourists' intentions to purchase at different retail venues. Product orientation and process orientation were two dimensions used to measure tourists' shopping tourism experience. The results indicated that tourists' beliefs about craft product features had a positive effect on attitude toward shopping experiences, which in turn affected purchase intention. The study suggested that retailers may incorporate historical and cultural connections in process-oriented experience to fulfil tourists' needs on shopping as well as on other tourism activities. However, retailers may also highlight product-oriented product features to make their merchandise more desirable.

The foregoing discussion highlights the important role of souvenir tourist shopping experience quality for this study. The shopping tourist experience should contribute to tourists' satisfaction. In another words, the outcome of a favourable tourism experience can lead to tourist satisfaction with the destination visited. The subsequent section discusses satisfaction in relation to the specific context of this study.

3.5 Satisfaction

Satisfaction is associated with post-purchase behaviour and accepted as being substantially important to a company's sustainability because of its influence on repeat purchase (Heung and Cheng, 2000; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2007). In the TCS context,

satisfaction occurs after the consumption phase. Zeithaml et al. (2006) pointed out that customer satisfaction is a major contributor to assuring a company's long-term profitability, customer retention and loyalty. Thus, the successful delivery of customer satisfaction is the most essential determinant for an organisation's survival and long-term profitability (Bolton and Drew, 1991). This significance has attracted many researchers to explore customer satisfaction related to how customers evaluate their service experiences. Customer satisfaction has been one of the most frequently researched topics in consumer behaviour studies.

The emergence of consumer satisfaction as a field of inquiry started in the early 1970s. The first study on consumer satisfaction was introduced by the US Department of Agriculture and was called a consumer satisfaction index (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982).Three studies are believed to form the foundation of consumer satisfaction research. These were conducted by Cardozo (1965), Olshavsky and Miller (1972), and Anderson (1973). A number of researchers have become dedicated to this research area since the 1970s and introduced some theoretical frameworks seeking to explore and measure satisfaction using the satisfaction construct.

Customer satisfaction was initially conceptualised as relating to goods, however during the 1980s and 1990s the concept was expanded to embrace services marketing (Bowen and Clarke, 2002). Due to its considerable importance for destination managers in the tourism industry, tourism literature gives extensive attention to customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction with products and services.

Tourist satisfaction is important to successful destination marketing because it influences the choice of destination, the consumption of products and services, and the decision to return (Kozak and Remmington, 2000). Several researchers have studied customer satisfaction and provided theories about tourism (Bowen, 2001; Bramwell, 1998). For example, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry's expectation-perception gap model (1985), Oliver's expectancy–disconfirmation theory (Pizam and Milman, 1993), Sirgy's congruity model (Chon and Olsen, 1991; Sirgy, 1984), and the performance-only model (Pizam, Neumann and Reichel, 1978) have been used to measure tourist

satisfaction with specific tourism destinations. In particular, the expectancy-disconfirmation theory has received the widest acceptance because it is broadly applicable.

3.5.1 Measurement of Satisfaction

The satisfaction core process is the comparison of what was expected with the product or service's performance. This process has traditionally been described as the 'confirmation/disconfirmation' process. First, customers form expectations prior to purchasing a product or service. Second, consumption of, or experience with, the product or service produces a level of perceived quality that is influenced by expectations (Oliver, 1980). If perceived performance is only slightly less than expected performance, adaptation will occur, perceived performance will be adjusted upward to equal expectations. If perceived performance lags behind expectations substantially, contrast will occur, and the shortfall in the perceived performance will be overstated.

The satisfaction construct has been operated by using a variety of measures, the scales of which range from single to more expanded and multi-dimensional items. However, it remains difficult to argue how satisfaction should be best measured. The application of a single measurement of overall satisfaction is very common in satisfaction research (Bowen and Chen, 2001; Um, Chon and Ro, 2006; Yüksel and Yüksel, 2003). Respondents will usually be asked one question. However, it has been argued that the single measurement of satisfaction may not precisely capture this construct.

Oliver (1980) proposed a 6-item Likert scale to measure the satisfaction construct. All items are emotional in content and include references to the respondent's outright satisfaction, regret, happiness and general feelings regarding their purchase decision. This measurement scale was adopted by Olorunniwo, Hsu and Udo (2006).

Spreng, MacKenzie and Olshavsky (1996) argued that overall satisfaction is a summary evaluation of the entire product use experience, not that of cumulative satisfaction. Moreover, as satisfaction involves two dimensions - valence and intensity - the

measurement of satisfaction should be designed to measure both high and low intensity reactions. Therefore, they proposed that overall satisfaction should be measured using four 7-point scales, anchored as 'very satisfied/very dissatisfied,' 'very pleased/very displeased,' 'contented/frustrated,' and 'delighted/terrible'. Satisfaction measurement as developed by Spreng et al. (1996) captures underlying dimensions of satisfaction and is proven to have good validity and reliability.

3.5.2 Satisfaction in the Souvenir Shopping Tourism Context

Kozak and Remmington (2000) suggested that the individual products and services experiences need to be recognised and measured when examining tourist overall satisfaction with a tourist destination, as satisfaction levels with one attribute of products or services can influence overall tourist satisfaction. Tourist satisfaction is important for a destination's sustainability. Previous studies have indicated that overall satisfaction with a tourist destination is closely related to intentions to return and positive word-of-mouth communication (Chen and Chen, 2010; Hutchinson, Lai and Wang, 2009; Kozak and Remmington, 2000; Žabkar et al., 2010). However, Kozak and Remmington (2000) noted that repeat business may not be as significant to the tourism industry as it is for other businesses, as many tourists look for different holiday experiences regardless of satisfaction levels with a destination.

In the tourism context, satisfaction is measured by 'before travel expectations' and 'after travel experiences'. If experiences compared to expectations result in a feeling of fulfilment, the visitor is satisfied; when they create unpleasant feelings, the visitor is dissatisfied (Chen and Chen, 2010; Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Petrick's (2004) study showed that satisfaction is a significant predictor of repurchase intentions in the context of cruise tourism. Hutchinson, Lai and Wang (2009) stated that the satisfaction of golf travellers has a positive effect on intention to revisit and word-of-mouth communication. Wong and Law (2003) noted that measuring satisfaction is an important task for tourism marketers, it provides information related to tourists' perceptions of the destination, in turn the information is used to develop the quality of products or services to gain competitive advantage for the destination.

In the souvenir shopping tourism context, satisfaction refers to tourist shoppers' perceptions of products and services and on their shopping experiences (Tosun et al., 2007; Wong and Law, 2003). Reisinger and Turner (2002) examined Japanese tourists' satisfaction with product attributes visits to Hawaii and the Gold Coast. They identified 17 elements of shopping satisfaction. The study indicated that the overall satisfaction of product attribute importance was greater for Hawaii than for the Gold Cost. Heung and Cheng (2000) determined four shopping dimensions from 15 shopping attributes of tourists' satisfaction with shopping in Hong Kong. These dimensions were tangibles quality, staff service quality, product value, and product reliability. They found that tourists were most satisfied with the lighting and physical setting of shops, followed by the window display and opening hours.

Yoon and Uysal's (2005) study indicated that a significant relationship exists between satisfaction and destination loyalty. They concluded that tourist destination loyalty is positively affected by tourist satisfaction. A study by Chen and Chen (2010) indicated that the importance of experience quality on behavioural intentions is acknowledged through mediating effects of perceived value and satisfaction in a heritage tourism context. While Baker and Crompton (2000) and Um et al. (2006) found that satisfaction mediates the relationship between performance quality and behavioural intention. Therefore, it is assumed that souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction will influence their future behavioural intention.

3.5.3 Customer Satisfaction across Cultures

A review of literature reveals that few researchers have explored satisfaction across cultural settings (Mattila and Choi, 2006; McCleary et al., 2007; Wong and Law, 2003). A study of tourists to Hong Kong from seven different geographic origins conducted by McCleary, Weaver and Hsu (2007) indicated that significant differences existed in the evaluation of the destination satisfaction. These were influenced by cultural differences. Tourists from Western cultures tended to rate their tourism experience as higher than those from Eastern cultures, however, their responses to return intentions were the lowest relative to Eastern nationalities. Similar findings were revealed by Wong and

Law (2000) who examined tourists from seven different nationalities. They also, indicated that significant differences existed between expectation and perceived satisfaction for Western and Asian travellers in relation to service quality, quality of goods, variety of goods and price dimensions. Western travellers were more satisfied with all of the individual attributes than their Asian counterparts. Mattila and Choi (2006) explored the role of culture in influencing customer reactions to differential pricing policies in the hotel sectors between consumers from the US and South Korea. The results indicated that offering information on the pricing policy of hotels had a better effect on Korean travellers than on US consumers.

Barutçu et al. (2011) examined tourists' shopping satisfaction level across nationalities of German, Russian, Dutch, Swedish, Turkish, Norwegian, British, Ukrain, Danish, Polish, and Austrian. The results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there were some significant differences among tourists' nationalities and satisfaction level from shopping. Generally, Russian, Ukranian and German tourists presented higher satisfaction level than their counterparts. Thus, Russian, Ukranian and German tourists' perceptions of shopping environments are higher than those of Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Turkish and Dutch tourists. The study suggested that the information about tourists' nationalities and satisfaction level from shopping is very important for developing an education program for store owners, managers and sellers. The study also recommended that store owners need a special education program about customer relationship, consumer behavior, life time customer value, the importance of tourist satisfaction and the improvement of shopping quality.

Although some studies in the shopping tourism context have explored tourist shopping satisfaction (Heung and Cheng, 2000; Reisinger and Turner, 2002; Tosun et al., 2007; Wong and Law, 2003), no specific study has been dedicated to understanding how satisfaction impacts behavioural intention in the context of souvenir shopping tourism. Thus, this study attempts to reveal how souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction influences their behavioural intentions in the context of souvenir shopping in Indonesia. The following section discusses behavioural intention as an important construct to identify tourists' favourable behavioural intention post-visit.

3.6 Behavioural Intention

Behavioural intention refers to a person's intention to engage in a specified future behaviour. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) noted that behavioural intention can be defined as the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behaviour. Oliver (1997, p. 28) defined behavioural intention as "a stated likelihood to engage in a behaviour".

The theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour signify motivational components of behaviour and represent the degree of conscious effort that a person will exert in order to perform behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Although there are still arguments about the level of correlation between behavioural intention and actual actions, it is generally agreed that behavioural intention is a reasonable variable for predicting future behaviour (Ouellette and Wood, 1998). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) contended that behaviour can be predicted from intentions that correspond directly (in terms of action, target, context, and time) to that behaviour. Ouellette and Wood (1998) agreed that behaviour is guided by intentions. It is concluded that behavioural intention provides high attitudinal probability of the subsequent behaviours; they are likely to reflect consumer loyalty as accurate predictors (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Fishbein and Manfredo, 1992). Thus, loyalty could be examined predominantly using the customer's behavioural intention (Oliver and Swan, 1989).

Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) defined behavioural intentions as indicators that signal whether customers will remain with, or defect from, a company. Behavioural intention is one of the most important constructs in services marketing (Caruana, 2002). Murphy and Pritchard (1997) argued that the intention to return to the same site can affect brand loyalty, reduce marketing costs, and encourage word-of-mouth communication. In the TCS context, behavioural intention occurs after the consumption phase.

Loyalty is a committed behaviour. In general, loyal tourists hold favourable attitudes towards the destination and are inclined to return if their situation allows. They also help to spread positive word-of-mouth, project positive images of the destination and bring in new tourists to the destination. Loyal tourists usually tend not to be that price sensitive and are willing to pay more in their favoured destination. Thus, a good understanding of the determinants of favourable post-visit behavioural intention, such as saying positive things about the destination, recommending the destination to others, and repeat purchasing, can provide practical guidance for destination marketers.

Another construct that is highly related to behavioural intention is customer satisfaction. This is regarded as one of the key antecedents of post-purchase behavioural intention because customer satisfaction has a positive effect on the customer's attitude towards the product or service and can reinforce the customer's conscious effort to purchase the product or service again in the future (Oliver, 1999; Oliver and Swan, 1989). However, some studies have also suggested that factors that influence customer satisfaction are not always in accordance with factors influencing customer behavioural intention.

3.6.1 Measurement of Behavioural Intention

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) developed a 13-item scale of behavioural intention items including loyalty to a company, propensity to switch, willingness to pay more, external response to a problem and internal response to a problem. More specifically, five favourable behavioural intention items were measured in the loyalty dimension. These were: saying good things about the company, recommending the company to another person, encouraging friends and relatives to do business with the company, considering the company as the first choice in making the next purchase, and committing to do more business with the company in the future. The 13-item scale was then refined into a five-item scale which covered: saying positive things, recommending the company, remaining loyal to the company, spending more with the company and paying a price premium (Zeithaml et al., 1996).

A direct measurement of return intention with a single question is widely used both in consumer behaviour literature and tourism literature (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Hui et al., 2007; Kozak, 2001; Petrick, Morais and Norman, 2001; Rittichainuwat, Qu and Mongknonvanit, 2002; Um et al., 2006). However, some scholars argue that multiple-item measurement would be more effective from a psychometric perspective (Conner and Sparks, 1996). Thus, the multiple-scale measurement was adopted in the current study, through an adaptation of the behavioural intention scale created by Zeithaml et al. (1996). This scale has been used widely and gained acceptance in tourism research.

3.6.2 Behavioural Intention in the Souvenir Shopping Tourism Context

In the souvenir tourism context, behavioural intention has not been fully explored. Yüksel and Yüksel (2007) examined the relationships between the shopping environment and tourists' emotions, shopping values and approach behaviours. The results indicated that the emotional state and shopping value created by the shopping environment influenced tourists' enjoyment of shopping, willingness to talk to a salesperson, their revisit intention, and tendency to spend more money and time than originally planned.

3.6.3 Behavioural Intention across Cultures

Only a few studies have explored behavioural intention across cultures. A study introduced by McCleary et al. (2007) in the context of leisure travellers to Hong Kong indicated that tourists from Western cultural backgrounds rated a low score in their intention to return to Hong Kong, although they had the highest satisfaction score. On the other hand, tourists from Eastern culture countries rated a low satisfaction score but had a higher intention to return score compared to their Western counterparts.

Tsaur, Lin and Wu (2005) examined cultural differences in perceptions of service quality and behavioural intention in the context of tourist hotels. The research findings indicated that there were significant differences in behavioural intention dimensions among three cultural groups - English, Asian and European. The behavioural intention

dimensions that showed significant differences between these three cultural groups were 'loyalty', 'paying more' and 'external responses'. On the other hand, 'switching' and 'internal responses' did not reveal any significant differences according to cultural group.

While few studies have explored behavioural intention across cultures in the tourism context, studies on behavioural intention across cultures in the souvenir shopping tourism context have not found. This study will be the first study in souvenir shopping tourism context that involve behavioural intention contruct across cultures.

The above discussions have provided an understanding of behavioural intention, which is important to this study. Each individual construct as it relates to this study has been thoroughly discussed. The interrelationship between the constructs used in this study is presented in the following sections.

3.7 The Interrelationships between the Constructs

Identifying the potential interrelationships between the constructs is important to provide the direction of the relationship between the constructs. A number of studies have identified the relationship between the constructs used in this study.

3.7.1 Travel Motivation and other Behavioural Constructs

Yoon and Uysal (2005) investigated the effects of tourist motivation (pull and push factors) and satisfaction on destination loyalty (operationalised as revisit and recommendation intention). Their empirical findings revealed that motivation influences tourist satisfaction, which in turn affects destination loyalty. Satisfaction directly affects destination loyalty in a positive direction while also mediating between motivation and destination loyalty. A study related to the motivation of senior travellers by Prayag (2012) found that most push motivation indicators did not affect behavioural intention. A study by do-Valle, Correai and Rebelo (2008) that examined Portuguese tourists who choose Brazil as a destination, argued that their probability of returning to the

destination was a function of motivations, expectations, travel characteristics and tourists' demographic profile. This indicated that push and pull motivations had a significant effect on return decisions. In this regard, tourist motivations to visit and revisit a particular destination are influenced by both pull factors and push factors. Building on these findings, it was anticipated that the push motivation of souvenir shopping tourists would influence their pull motives or destination attributes, while souvenir shopping tourists' push motivation would influence satisfaction and future behaviour intention.

Empirical studies that examine push travel motivation and experience quality have not been conducted. However, some studies investigate the pull factors of destination attributes in relation to tourists' experience. Kao et al. (2008), for example, examined the effects of theatrical elements of theme parks in Taiwan, including attractiveness of scripts, charm of setting, planning of activities and consistency of theme on tourists' experiential quality, covering immersion, surprise, participation and fun. The study indicated that most theatrical elements related positively to experiential quality. The characteristic of theatrical elements of theme parks in Kao et al.'s (2008) study can be equated to destination attribute elements used in pull motivational factors. Further, Cole and Chancellor (2009) explored the impact of festival attributes on visitors' experience, level of satisfaction and intention to return. The results of the study showed that festival attributes had direct impacts on the visitor's overall experience, while entertainment attributes directly contributed to visitor satisfaction and re-visit intention.

Murphy et al. (2000) examined the effect of destination environment on the tourist's experience and intention to return. The results of the study showed that destination environment was a key predictor of trip quality, while destination quality was a key predictor of intention to return. Additionally, Žabkar et al. (2010) investigated the causal relationship between tourist perception of destination quality, satisfaction and the behavioural intention of four tourist destinations in Slovenia. The research findings indicated that perceived quality of destination offerings has a strong relationship to satisfaction, although weaker direct relationships existed with behavioural intention. Therefore, it was anticipated that tourist shopper pull motives or destination attributes

would influence tourist shopper experience quality, satisfaction, and behavioural intention.

3.7.2 Destination Attributes, Quality, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

Some researchers have indicated that destination image affects tourists' subjective perception, consequent behaviour and destination choice (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Chon, 1992; Milman and Pizam, 1995; Pearce and Butler, 1993; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989). The perceived images of a destination that tourists have in their mind influence their behaviour. Image influences tourists in the process of selecting a destination, the subsequent evaluation of the trip and in their future intention. A study by Smith, Costello and Muenchen (2010) reported that pull motivations have a significant impact on overall satisfaction in the culinary tourism context. A similar result was reported by Eusébio and Vieira (2013) revealing that destination attributes impact significantly on satisfaction in the tourism destination context.

The effect of image on the destination choice process has been studied by various authors such as Crompton and Ankomah (1993), Gartner (1989), and Goodall and Ashworth(2013). It is believed that destinations with more positive images will more likely be included in the process of decision-making. In addition, destination image exercises a positive influence on perceived quality and satisfaction. A more favourable image will lead to higher tourist satisfaction. In turn, the evaluation of the destination experience will influence the image and modify it (Chon, 1991; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). Destination image also influences the behaviour intention of tourists. For example, Lupton (1997) indicated that the image of the destination under study positively influences visitors' intention to revisit in the future.

Kotler, Bowen and Makens (2010) developed the subsequent configuration: image-quality-satisfaction-post-purchase behaviour. In this model, image would impact how customers perceive quality - a more positive image corresponds to a higher perceived quality. Perceived quality will in turn determine the satisfaction of consumers (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha and Bryant, 1996; Kozak and Remmington, 2000), as

satisfaction is the result of customers' assessment of the perceived quality. The linkage between satisfaction and post-purchase behaviour has been well recognised in previous studies (Alegre and Cladera, 2009; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000; Taylor and Baker, 1994).

3.7.3 Experience Quality, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

Some studies have demonstrated the relationship between quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Chen and Chen, 2010; Cronin et al., 2000). A study on cruise passengers by Petrick (2004) indicated that quality, perceived value, and satisfaction are significant predictors of behavioural intention. Kao et al. (2008) examined the effects of theatrical elements on experiential quality and loyalty intention for theme park settings. Their study found that experiential quality relates positively to satisfaction, while satisfaction is positively related to loyalty intention. Cole and Illum (2006) suggested that more studies are needed on tourist experience quality to determine whether satisfaction fully mediates the effect of performance quality on behavioural intention. Such studies would provide a better understanding of the key factors that influence visitors' behavioural intention. It was predicted that souvenir shopping tourist experience quality would influence satisfaction and future behavioural intention.

Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002) investigated tourists' experience among visitors to a wildlife refuge. They reported that experience quality and performance quality both have a direct antecedent to overall service quality and satisfaction, which influenced behavioural intention. Although quality of service is the main medium for providing satisfaction, visitor satisfaction is not obtained through quality of service alone. Thus, it is vital to understand that guest satisfaction can be enhanced through improving quality experience by developing the service environments (Lee, Petrick and Crompton, 2007).

This section has highlighted that experience quality is related to customer psychological results that derive from his/her involvement in tourism activities. Experience quality is subjective in nature; it relates to personal reactions and feelings that are sensed by

consumers when using a service. Consequently, a consumer may have the same experience but create a different evaluation of that experience. In a tourism context, experience quality covers the attributes of products and services provided by suppliers, as well as the attributes brought by customers in tourism consumption. In a shopping tourism context, experience quality is an amalgamation of products, services, and experiences mixed with individual attributes brought by shoppers in the consumption process. Thus, understanding how experience quality provides satisfaction to the consumer is important.

3.7.4 Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

Customer satisfaction influences the behaviour of customers in a number of ways. Customer satisfaction is found to be a key determinant of customer retention (Rust and Zahorik, 1993; Zeithaml et al., 1996). Reichheld (1996) proposed that customer satisfaction is regarded as a necessary antecedent of customer loyalty, which in turn drives profitability and performance (Heskett and Sasser, 2010; Reichheld, 1992). Rising customer satisfaction and customer retention leads to improved profits, positive word-of-mouth, and lower marketing expenditures (Reichheld, 1996).

Consumer behaviour literature has indicated that customer satisfaction has a strong effect on customer behaviour intention (Athanassopoulos, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2001; Gronholdt, Martensen and Kristensen, 2000; Lee, Yoon and Lee, 2007; Oliver, 1980; Olorunniwo et al., 2006). Oliver (1995) proposed two categories of satisfaction, namely short-term consequences and long-term consequences. Short-term consequence include word-of-mouth communication (positive or negative) and complimenting or complaining, while attitude change and loyalty is regarded as a long-term consequence. In many studies, customer satisfaction is positively correlated with customer re-purchase, likelihood to recommend, positive word-of-mouth, customer loyalty and retention.

Behavioural intention is often categorised in five dimensions: the intention to repurchase, the intention toward cross-buying (buy another product from the same

company); the intention to switch to a competitor; and intention to recommend the brand to other consumers (Gronholdt et al., 2000). This study examines souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction in relation to their behavioural intention. Building on the previous studies, it was anticipated that there would be a relationship between souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction and their behavioural intention.

3.8 Theoretical Foundations

This section provides relevant theories to serve as a theoretical foundation important for this study. As Sekaran and Bougie (2010) advocated, providing a thorough explanation relating to a theoretical framework is valuable for identifying possible connections between construct dimensions with regard to anticipated implications within the conceptual model. The means-end chain theory (MECT) and tourism consumption system (TCS) theory were selected for this study. These two theories sufficiently represent the possible interrelationships between construct dimensions in this study. The subsequent section discusses the two theories in further detail.

3.8.1 Means-end Chain Theory (MECT)

The MECT, originally developed to understand explicit relations between consumers' personal values and their purchase behaviour, assisted researchers to explain the 'how' and the 'why' of consumer choice (Klenosky, 2002) by explaining the linkages between an individual's values and his/her purchasing behaviour. MECT focuses on connections between the product attributes, the consequences, referred to as the 'means', which are triggered by the product attributes, and the personal values, referred to as the 'ends' (Gutman, 1982). MECT is very useful in explaining consumer preferences and choice behaviours because it provides a cognitive framework for uncovering individuals' deeply held and intangible motivations, and allows researchers to link these underlying factors to specific product choice. Figure 3.1 illustrates the four common levels in a consumers' means-end: attributes, functional consequences, psychosocial consequences and values.
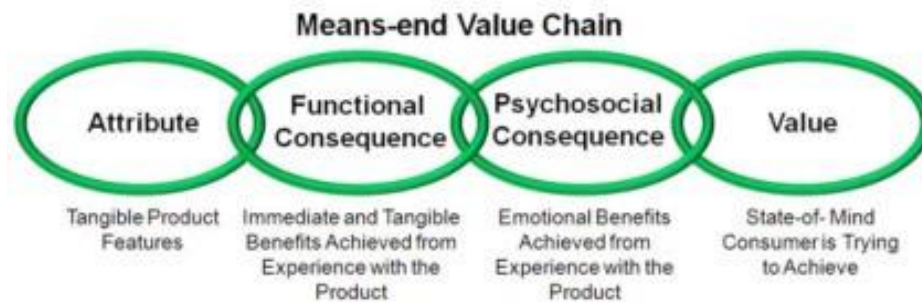
Figure 3.1 - Means-end Chain Four Levels

Source: http://rockresearch.com/understanding-consumer-decision-making-with-means-end-research.

The theory centres on the premise that products and services have meaning for consumers and that these meanings are considered in purchasing decision situations (Klenosky, 2002). This indicates a more in-depth relationship between the consumer and the products that he or she chooses (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). However, it is not the product's attributes which have meaning for consumers; rather it is the consequences or benefits of using or consuming the products which are important to, or have personal relevance for, the consumer. In turn, these consequences and/or benefits obtain their importance from the personal values they help individuals reinforce through their purchase and consumption behaviour. It is this sequence (from attributes to values) that represents the 'means-end chain' (Klenosky, 2002).

In the tourism context, products and services can be viewed as determining factors explaining why tourists become involved in tourism-related activities (Klenosky, Gengler and Mulvey, 1999). The destination specific attributes have an important role in influencing travel decision-making processes. In order to better understand tourists' underlying motivations for their involvement in tourism activities, Gutman (1982) noted that personal values need to be considered in relation to decision-making. This notion offers essential clarification for motivations in relation to destination selection, in which attributes of tourism products and services and personal value are regarded as the underlying factors determining travellers' decision-making and behaviours.

Klenosky (2002) claimed that tourism marketing could use MECT to uncover the association between push and pull factors in motivating tourists' behaviour. In relation to destination attributes, Klenosky (2002) proposed that 'the means' referred to the destination attractions and 'the ends' to tourists' travel motivations. Thus, MECT clarifies the link between push and pull motivation factors in relation to tourists' travel decision-making processes.

Spreng and Olshavsky (1993) argued that MECT offers a solid basis for marketers to understand tourists' needs and wants, which are important to comprehending tourists' satisfaction. Frochot (2004) noted that evaluation on attribute dimensions of a product's performance offer understanding on how the product and service fulfils tourist needs and expectations. According to this researcher, MECT is an important notion in illuminating tourists' motivation and satisfaction relationships. Configuring the psychological or emotional needs of an individual to his/her tourism experience offers a foundation in progressing tourism marketing.

This study employs MECT to investigate the destination choices importance factors. Specifically, the MECT is responsible for determining the push motivation factors that drive tourists to travel, and the pull destination attributes that attract tourists to visit the destination. The MECT is often regarded as a valuable method that clarifies the connection between the push and pull motivation factors that influence travel behaviour. The MECT helps us to understand the consumer's involvement with different types of products and how marketing and communication can impact the consumer. This study used the means-end approach as an important theoretical basis to explain the interrelationships between motivation, satisfaction, experience quality and behavioural intention in the context of souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia.

3.8.2 Tourism Consumption Systems (TCS) Theory

Building on Clawson and Knetsch's (1966) five-phase model of recreation experience, Woodside and Dubelaar (2002, p. 120) conceptualised a TCS theory as "the set of related travel thoughts, decisions, and behaviours by a discretionary traveller prior to,

during, and following a trip". The central proposition of the TCS theory is that the thoughts, decisions, and behaviours regarding one activity influence the thoughts, decisions, and behaviours for a number of other activities, implying that behavioural patterns should be visible in the consumption of tourism offerings (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002).

Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) considered a leisure trip as a complex system involving numerous sets of variables, such as tourist background (demographic, psychographic and social), prior trip behaviour (information searching and current trip planning), and trip-related decision-making and behaviour (choices and behaviours regarding destinations, transportation modes, travel routes, accommodation, visiting attractions, restaurants and foods, durable purchases, and local-area destinations). Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) postulated that all these variables - thoughts, decisions, and behaviours related to travel - were interdependent. They proposed a series of direct and indirect relationships between the variables relevant to a discretionary trip. Their study tested some of the TCS propositions and showed support for the theory.

The TCS theory focuses on achieving a deep understanding of the multiple immediate and downstream relationships between events prior to, during, and following a discretionary trip, rather than predicting and explaining destination choice (Woodside and Dubellar, 2002). The point is worth noting that three levels of traveller evaluations occur related to a discretionary trip. The first is prior to starting the current trip. Some evaluations occur about specific places, attractions, accommodations, local destination area touring, and events in a destination area (micro evaluations), as well as an overall assessment of the destination region (macro evaluation). The second is during the trip. Both micro and macro evaluations are subject to revisions based on the experiences and benefits realised. The third is after the trip is completed. Both micro and macro evaluations are likely to undergo further revisions based on reflections and discussions about what happened during the trip and the meanings of these happenings.

Woodside and Dubellar's TCS theory is similar to Mittal, Kumar and Tsiros' (1999) consumption-system approach (CSA). The latter conceptualised consumption

experience by offering a consumption system containing three sub-systems: a product/service's attribute-level evaluation, satisfaction, and behavioural intention. Experienced as a system, consumption takes place when a number of products and services are consumed over time in multiple episodes. It comprises a series of activities within the wider process of consumer decision-making, ranging from pre-purchase activities, such as need recognition and information search, to post-purchase activities, such as satisfaction and future behaviour (Mittal et al., 1999).

The TEM developed by Knutson, Beck, Kim and Cha (2010) is more comprehensive than Woodside and Dubelaar's (2002) model. It implies a strong suggestion of the structural relationships between phases of tourism experience: pre-experience, participation and post-experience. Knutson et al.'s (2010) model integrates four major constructs of experience, namely: service quality; value; satisfaction; and consumer experiences (see Figure 3.2).
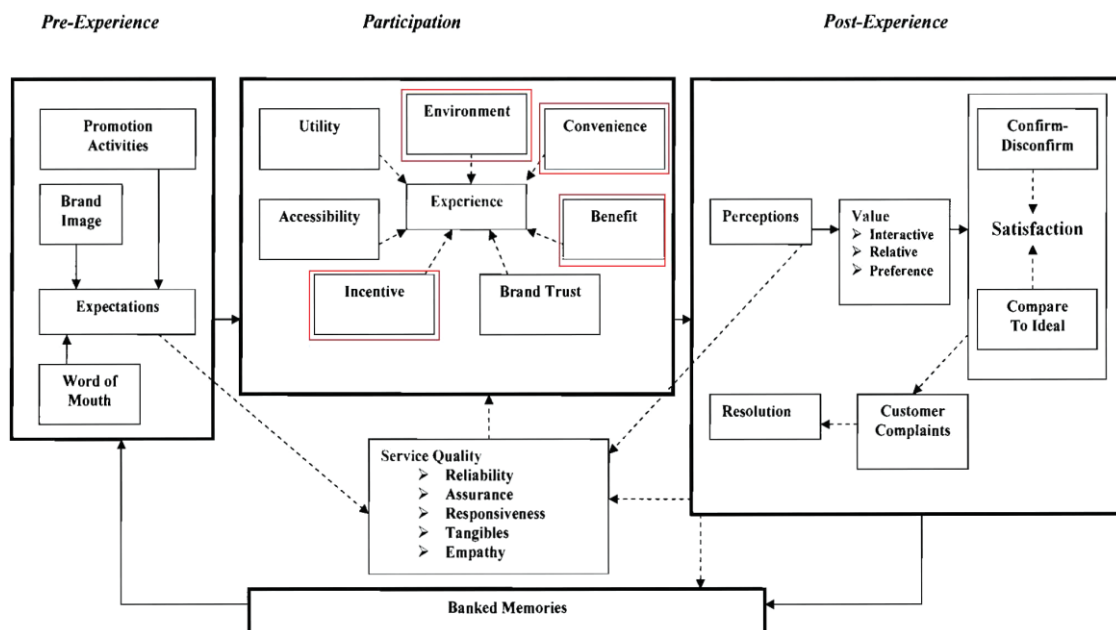
Figure 3.2 - Tourism Experience Model (TEM)

Source: Knutson et al. (2010, p. 18).

The pre-experience stage includes expectations, promotional activities, word-of-mouth constructs, and personal memories from previous experiences. Expectations function as the basis for the pre-experience stage and for supporting perceived quality in the participation stage. The post-experience stage involves personal perceptions of the experience, the value that they attach to the experience, and satisfaction with the experience. The structural relationships between the constructs, as illustrated in Figure 3.2, highlight the necessity of taking on a quantitative research method to measure each construct, as in the case of this study.

This study uses TCS in combination with the CSA and TEM to examine the interrelationships between the constructs under investigation and the factors influencing souvenir shopping tourist behaviour. This study acknowledges that souvenir shopping tourists' decision and behaviour patterns depend on a wide range of interrelationships between different variables, which appear in three distinct stages. The first stage considers those variables that characterise the decision before the journey (pre-consumption) and which will influence the tourist behaviour at the chosen destination. For example the reason for making a trip, in the case of this study refers to push and pull factors. The second phase is the tourist's experience at the destination (during consumption), represented by variables during the consumption of the tourism services, which in the case of this study refer to experience quality. The third phase is post-consumption, comprising variables regarding the tourist's experience and its future intended behaviour: satisfaction and behavioural intention.

This study sought to use the TCS theory, as an important theoretical base connected to tourism motivations (push and pull factors), in observing the tourism experience quality related to satisfaction and how this leads to behavioural intention amongst souvenir shopping tourists. Additionally, the TCS theory is useful for identifying the internal factors, including various aspects relating to the individual tourist, tourist demographics, travel patterns and shopping preferences, which are all considered as influencing factors on souvenir shopping tourist behaviour and decision-making. In this study, the TCS model integrates with culture as an important influencing factor for decision and behaviour patterns of souvenir shopping tourists.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has identified the theoretical and practical gaps in the literature, It has recognised and discussed in detail the variables under investigation that can be used to narrow the gaps. This chapter has highlighted the importance of motivation and travel motivation to understand tourist needs and wants. Travel motivation has been explored in relation to a wide range of research purposes; however, there have been very few studies revealing the relationship between travel motivations and other behavioural constructs. In those few studies, travel motivations have not been fully investigated in the shopping tourism context and particularly in the souvenir shopping setting. A few studies have examined travel motivation in a cross-cultural setting, but those studies are focused mainly on a Western cultural point of view with less emphasis on Asian cultural settings.

This chapter has also provided evidence of the importance of experience quality in determining consumer satisfaction and behavioural intention. The review of literature, however, indicates a lack of research involving experience quality in understanding tourists' experience. Linking experience quality with satisfaction and a behavioural intention construct will provide deeper understanding about factors contributing to tourist satisfaction and the underlying factors for tourists' intention to return.

The MECT is used to explain the potential relationships between push and pull motivation factors. This theory provides valuable support in clarifying the connection between push and pull motivation factors in relation to travel behaviour. The theory helps define the push motivation factors that drive tourists to travel, and the pull destination attributes that attract tourists to visit the destination.

The TCS theory and TEM provide a comprehensive linkage between the constructs under investigation and the factors influencing souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour. Theoretically, these two approaches align tourism experience into three phases: pre-consumption, during consumption and post-consumption. The literature review

indicates that tourist push and pull motivation occurs in the pre-consumption stage, while tourist experience takes place during consumption and tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention exist in the post-consumption stage.

The prevailing models observe experiences as sequential stages; however, none has been developed with a combination of international and local tourist experiences for souvenir shopping. There is a need to develop a comprehensive conceptual framework that acknowledges the complexity of the tourist experience as multi-phased, multi-influential, and multi-outcomes. This framework will integrate suitable components from various studies with the aim of understanding more thoroughly how international and local souvenir shopping tourists experience destinations. To bridge this gap, this study proposes a comprehensive conceptual framework. This is presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to present the conceptual research framework, developed from the analysis emanating from the literature review, including an explanation of the individual components within it. The hypotheses developed for this thesis are also discussed.

4.2 Conceptual Research Framework

The previous chapters reviewed a number of theoretical concepts to develop a better understanding of the push and pull motivations, experience quality and satisfaction levels across cultures in relation to future behaviour intention in the context of souvenir shopping tourism. Motivation is one determining factor that influences tourist's decision to travel in the pre-consumption stage. Motivation has been positioned as a vital factor of tourist satisfaction and travel behaviour (Chen and Uysal, 2002; Dann, 1977; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). The important role of travel motivation and experience quality in determining satisfaction and customer loyalty has also been recognised (Chen and Chen, 2010; Chi and Qu, 2008; Cole and Chancellor, 2009; Cole and Illum, 2006; Kao et al., 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). However, few studies have focussed on understanding the relationships between travel motivation and other behavioural constructs (Li and Cai, 2012) and only a limited number have discussed experience quality (Chen and Chen, 2010; Cole and Chancellor, 2009; Zouni and Kouremenos, 2008) in relation to satisfaction and behavioural intention in tourism and, particularly, in the souvenir shopping tourism context.

The literature review indicates that the relationship between culture and consumer behaviour is inseparable as the behaviour of consumers is greatly influenced by their culture (Kotler and Keller, 2009; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009; Solomon, 2011). Souvenir shopping provides the opportunity for tourists to interact with the host cultures

through the purchase of souvenirs (Tosun et al., 2007). Since culture is importantly constructed into behaviour in tourism consumption, the process of acquiring products such as gifts, souvenirs, handicrafts and holidays is strongly related to culture.

The model used in this thesis was developed based on the previous studies by Littrell et al. (1994), Oh et al. (2004), Kinley et al. (2003), Swanson and Horridge (2006), Yoon and Uysal (2005) and Correria et al. (2007b), which were discussed in the literature review chapters. These works mainly cover three areas: a) souvenir shopping behaviour across cultures, b) tourist travel motivation, and c) tourist experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention.

The research framework adapts the stages in the TCS: pre-consumption, during consumption, and post-consumption that were developed by Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) and combines these with the TEM: pre-experience, participation and post-*experience, as developed by Knutson et al. (2010). The purpose of combining these concepts is to get a stronger understanding of the interrelationship between the constructs under investigation and factors influencing souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour and decision patterns. The literature review indicates that tourists' push and pull motivation exists in the pre-consumption stage, while tourism experience quality is associated with the consumption period and tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intention is evident in the post-consumption stage.

The illustration of the research model in Figure 4.1, shows that souvenir tourist push motivation has a relationship with pull motivation (destination attributes), satisfaction and future behavioural intention. While pull motivation (destination attributes) has a relationship with satisfaction, experience quality, and future behavioural intention. The research model depicts the fact that tourist experience quality influences satisfaction and future behavioural intention. Furthermore, the model illustrates that tourist satisfaction impacts future behavioural intention. Further detailed explanations of the relationships between variables are presented in the hypotheses development section.
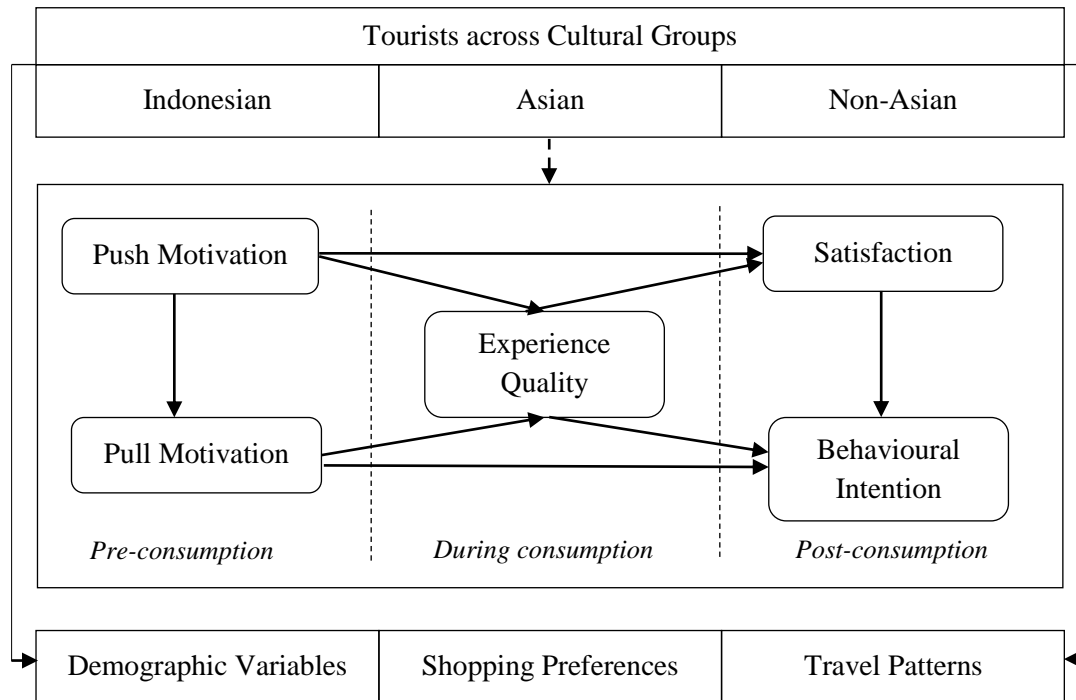
Figure 4.1 - The Research Framework

The proposed research model shows the interconnection between components as indicated by arrows that display the direction of expected relationships. The model is focussed on tourists across cultures, which in turn have an influence on push and pull motivations, demographic variables, shopping preferences, and travel patterns. Additionally, the model is concerned with tourist' push and pull motivations, which will in turn have an impact on experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention.

The research model indicates that the independent variables are push and pull motivations, while the mediating variables are experience quality and tourist satisfaction, related to the dependent variable of tourist behaviour intention. The research model provides a better understanding of souvenir tourists' shopping experiences, which influence future holiday visitations. The knowledge acquired from testing the model will support destination managers in formulating more effective marketing strategies.

The model illustrates the factors that influence souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour and decision patterns. These factors include tourists' cultural groups: Indonesian, Asian

and non-Asian. Additionally, souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour is also influenced by demographic variables, shopping preferences and travel patterns.

The MECT and TCS, as well as the TEM, provide important foundations for the proposed research framework. The theoretical foundation discussed in Section 3.8 outlines how MECT has been used to explain an individual's psychological reason, obtained through participating in tourism activities within a destination, and effects personal motivation in relation to future travel decision-making. As noted by Klenosky (2002) 'the means' refers to the destination attractions and 'the ends' refer to tourists' travel motivations. Thus, MECT clarifies the link between push and pull motivation factors in relation to tourists' travel decision-making processes.

The TCS theory integrates all relevant variables and links the influencing factors of souvenir shopping tourist behaviour in this study in three phases: pre-consumption, during consumption and post-consumption. The TCS theory is also important for this study as it provides a clear view of the interrelationships between the constructs under investigation.

This study extends the TCS theory (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002) by integrating MECT and cultural factors into a new conceptual framework, investigating souvenir shopping tourist travel experiences at the pre-, during and post-consumption phases. The model provides an improved understanding of the influences of push and pull motivations, experience quality and travel satisfaction on behavioural intention. The research model also provides a better knowledge of the differences between souvenir tourists across cultures with respect to push and pull motivations, experience quality, satisfaction, behavioural intention, travel patterns, shopping preferences and demographic variables.

The proposed research model attempts to understand the influences of perception on pull and push motivations on the relationship between experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. The model illustrates the role of satisfaction in the souvenir shopping tourism experience. This offers insights into behavioural intention related to

tourists' willingness to revisit or make recommendation to others. Thus, the proposed model will provide a better understanding of behavioural intention. Destination managers need to understand the relationship between push and pull motivations, tourism experience, satisfaction and behavioural intention for the purpose of maintaining destination competitiveness.

The model shows the souvenir tourist shopping across cultures with respect to push and pull motivations, travel patterns, shopping preferences and demographic variables. It explains the role and influences of motivation and other behavioural constructs. It is assumed that the behavioural intention of souvenir tourists is influenced by push and pull motivations, experience quality and travel satisfaction. The subsequent section discusses the research constructs and linkages and the proposed hypotheses.

4.3 Hypotheses Development

The literature review identifies that culture has been seen as an important influence on human behaviour (Solomon, 2011). As already highlighted, the relationship between culture and consumer behaviour is inseparable, as the behaviour of consumers is greatly influenced by their culture (Kotler and Keller, 2009; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009; Solomon, 2011). Hofstede's cultural dimension theory identified cultural differences in terms of five dimensions, namely: power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. The greatest cultural dissimilarities appear between Asian and Western cultures, with the former focused on a strong collectivist orientation while the latter emphasises an individualistic orientation (Reisinger and Turner, 2003, 2002). This cultural difference is supported by various empirical studies, for example in the hotel service encounter context (Mattila, 1999a), in the complex services in luxury hotels context (Mattila, 1999b), in the shopping tourism context (Barutçu et al., 2011; Park and Reisinger, 2009; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2005; Wong and Law, 2003) and in the information search context (Osti et al., 2009). Since culture influences all aspects of human behaviour, it also influences souvenir tourist shopping behaviour. A number of studies have attempted to understand tourist behaviours in the shopping tourism context. This includes an analysis of the role of age,

gender and trip typology as predictor variables for tourists' shopping behaviours (Oh et al., 2004); the role of demographic versus socio-psychological factors in explaining cross-border shopping (Dmitrovic and Vida, 2007); and a comparison of different nationalities to understand shopping behaviours and preferences (Rosenbaum and Spears, 2005; Wong and Law, 2003). In relation to this study, therefore, it was anticipated that tourists would have different preferences toward souvenirs and their preferences would be significantly related to their cultural orientation.

This analysis led to the development of hypotheses to test the differences in shopping preferences, travel patterns and demographic variables across three souvenir tourist shopping groups - Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian domestic, as follows:

Hypothesis 1a: There are statistically significant differences in demographics between three souvenir tourist shopping groups of Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian souvenir shopping tourists.

Hypothesis 1b: There are statistically significant differences in shopping preferences between the three souvenir tourist shopping groups.

Hypothesis 1c: There are statistically significant differences in travel patterns between the three souvenir tourist shopping groups.

The literature review indicated that tourists' motivation to travel should be examined in a two-tiered domain, push and pull factors (Dann, 1981). The push domain is focused on the 'why' question, the socio-physiological predisposition to travel, and the pull domain is focused on the 'where to' question, or the destination choice decision. A review of the tourism literature indicates that tourists have different push-based socio-psychological travel needs and pull-based destination attributes in taking vacations and selecting certain destinations (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Jang and Cai, 2002; Kim et al., 2003; Kinley et al., 2003; Kozak, 2002; Uysal et al., 2008; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; You et al., 2000). Tourists from different nationalities and cultural backgrounds may have different motivations and benefit-seeking in relation to their travel decisions

compared to domestic tourists (Kozak, 2002; Ozdipciner et al., 2012; You et al., 2000). Reisinger and Turner (1997) explained that different cultural backgrounds have an influence on motivations to visit to a foreign country. Some studies have supported this notion. For example, a study by Jang and Cai (2002) showed that UK tourists seek travel for fun, excitement and outdoor activities, while Asian tourists search for novelty and Oceania-based tourists look for family and friendship when visiting the US. You et al. (2000) found that British and Japanese tourists who travelled to the US had different travel motives and benefit-seeking patterns. Understanding the differences between push and pull factors is helpful for providing a logical and temporal sequencing explanation for tourist behaviour (Dann, 1981; Kinley et al., 2003).

This analysis led to the development of hypotheses to test the different travel motivations across cultures in the souvenir tourism context, as follows:

Hypothesis 2a: There are statistically significant differences in push motivations between the three cultural groups of Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian souvenir shopping tourists.

Hypothesis 2b: There are statistically significant differences in pull motivations between the three cultural groups of souvenir shopping tourists.

The literature review indicates a significant difference in the perceptions of domestic and international tourists visiting Turkey relating to the service delivered in shops. Domestic tourists were more negative in their service evaluations compared to international tourists. These two groups revealed significant differences in their shopping preferences (Yuksel 2004). Mattila (1990) reported that, compared to their Asian counterparts, customers with Western cultural backgrounds tend to rely more on the tangible cues of the physical environment when evaluating complex services of luxury hotels. The study also showed that Western consumers are attracted to a hedonic dimension in their tourism consumption experience, which includes fun and enjoyment as their core, while consumers with Asian cultural backgrounds tend to reflect duty in life as their value structure.

This analysis led to the development of a hypothesis to test the difference in tourists' experience quality across cultures in the souvenir tourism context, as follows:

Hypothesis 2c: There are statistically significant differences in tourists' experience quality between the three cultural groups of Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian souvenir shopping tourists.

The literature review reveals that significant differences existed in the evaluation of the destination satisfaction according to culture (McCleary et al., 2007). Wong and Law (2000) reported that tourists from Western and Asian nations indicated significant differences in expectations and perceived satisfaction in relation to service quality, quality of goods, variety of goods and price dimensions.

This analysis led to the development of a hypothesis to test the difference in tourists' satisfaction across cultures in the souvenir tourism context, as follows:

Hypothesis 2d: There are statistically significant differences in tourists' satisfaction between the three cultural groups of Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian souvenir shopping tourists.

McCleary et al. (2007) contended that tourists from Western cultural backgrounds rated a low score in their intention to return to Hong Kong despite having the highest satisfaction score. Conversely, tourists from Eastern cultures rated low satisfaction scores but had higher intention to return scores compared to their Western counterparts. Tsaur et al. (2005) reported that there was a significant difference in behavioural intention dimensions between three cultural groups - English, Asian and European.

This analysis led to the development of a hypothesis to test the difference in behavioural intention across cultures in the souvenir tourism context, as follows:

Hypothesis 2e: There are statistically significant differences in tourists' behavioural intention between the three cultural groups of Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian souvenir shopping tourists.

Hypotheses 1a - 1c are concerned with the first research objective that relates to souvenir tourists' shopping behaviour across cultural groups, while Hypotheses 2a - 2e address research objective two, which relates to the difference of travel motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention across cultural groups.

The push and pull framework advocated that push-based travel motivation temporally precedes pull-based travel motivation (Dann, 1981). Those two factors are separate decisions, but do not operate independently of one another (Uysal et al., 2008). Additionally, Uysal et al. (2008) suggested that tourist motivations to travel are reinforced and pulled by destination attributes when the attributes of the destination provide significant value to them. The literature review indicates that there are reciprocal relationships between push and pull motivations in travel behaviour (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Kim and Lee, 2002; Kim et al., 2003; Oh et al., 1995; Pyo et al., 1989; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994). A study by Correia et al. (2007b) indicated that push motives lead to different pull motives in the context of Portuguese tourists' motivation to travel to exotic places.

This analysis led to the development of a hypothesis to test the relationship between push and pull motivations in the souvenir tourism context, as follow:

Hypothesis 3: Souvenir tourist shopping push motivation has a positive relationship with pull motivation.

Motivation, as noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2009), is the driving force within individuals that induce them to action. Motivation is a state of need that drives people to actions that are capable of satisfying those needs (Beerli and Martín, 2004). Thus, it is necessary to determine underlying needs and wants in order to understand the real reason why people travel to one destination instead of another (Bright, 2008). However,

motivation itself has no direct influence on which destination people will choose. Destination attributes that are reflected through destination images play a significant role in destination selection (Goodall and Ashworth, 2013; O'Leary and Deegan, 2005). Previous empirical studies have examined the relationships between pull-based destination attributes, however the relationship between this and experience quality per se has not been carried out. Further, some studies have investigated pull factors of destination attributes in relation to tourist experience in different tourism contexts. For example, Murphy et al. (2000) examined the effect of destination environment on tourist experience and intention to return. Cole and Chancellor (2009) explored the impact of festival attributes on visitors' experience. Kao et al. (2008) investigated the effects of theatrical elements of theme parks on tourists' experiential quality, concluding that most theatrical elements related positively to experiential quality.

The above analysis led to the development of a hypothesis to test the relationship between pull motivation and experience quality in the souvenir tourism context, as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Souvenir tourist shopping pull motivation has a positive relationship with experience quality.

Motivation is regarded as the cause of human behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Fodness, 1994). Some conceptual frameworks have been introduced to explain travel motivation, and push and pull motivation factors have been used widely to explain travel motivation. MECT has been used to explain the relationship between push and pull factors in motivating tourists' behaviour (Klenosky, 2002). In relation to destination attributes, Klenosky (2002) proposed that 'the means' refers to the destination attractions and 'the ends' to tourists travel motivations. Frochot (2004) noted that evaluations of attribute dimensions of a product's performance offer understanding on how the product and service fulfils tourist needs and expectations. MECT, according to Frochot (2004), is an important notion in illuminating tourists' motivation and satisfaction relationships. A few studies have examined travel motivation with other behavioural constructs (Li and Cai, 2012). For example, Yoon

and Uysal (2005) examined the impacts of tourists' push and pull motivations and satisfaction on destination loyalty. The study revealed that motivation influences tourist satisfaction, which in turn affects destination loyalty. Satisfaction directly affects destination loyalty in a positive direction, as well as mediating between motivation and destination loyalty. Do-Valle et al. (2008) indicated that push and pull motivations had a significant effect on the decision of Portuguese tourists returning to Brazil.

This analysis led to the development of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping push motivation and tourist satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping push motivation and tourist behaviour intention.

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping pull motivation and tourist satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping pull motivation and tourist behaviour intention.

The literature review has proposed that tourism is a service sector economy and in service people consumer experience (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). Tourism is experiential in nature. Therefore, creating unforgettable experiences for tourists is critical to destination success (Wijaya et al., 2013). Quality of tourism experience involves both attributes provided by a supplier and attributes brought to the destination by tourists (Crompton and Love, 1995). Chan and Baum (2007) confirmed that experience quality also refers to a specific service transaction, such as contact with people who contribute to the actual experience. Thus experience quality is affective response to tourists' desired social-psychological benefits (Crompton and Love, 1995). This response is partly derived from the service attributes and partly from the consumer personal feelings in the moment of consuming services. Woodside et al. (2004)

identified that research has generally considered tourist memorable experiences with outcome factors such as satisfaction, revisiting a destination and spreading positive word-of-mouth. This is supported by research that has demonstrated the relationship between quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Chen and Chen, 2010; Cronin et al., 2000). For example, Cole and Chancellor (2009) examined the impact of festival attributes on visitors' experience, level of satisfaction and intention to return. The results of the study showed that festival attributes had a direct impact on visitors' overall experience, while entertainment attributes directly contributed to visitor satisfaction and re-visit intention. Murphy et al. (2000) examined the effect of destination environment on tourists' experience and intention to return and found that destination environments are the key predictor of trip quality, while destination quality is the key predictor of intention to return. Chen and Chen's (2010) study indicated that experience quality has a significant positive effect on satisfaction but not on behavioural intention in the heritage tourism context.

This analysis led to the development of hypotheses on the relationship between experience quality and tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention in the souvenir tourism context, as follows:

Hypothesis 9: Souvenir tourist shopping experience quality has a positive relationship with tourist satisfaction.

Hypothesis 10: Souvenir tourist shopping experience quality has a positive relationship with tourist behavioural intention.

The literature review indicates that customer satisfaction has a strong effect on customer behaviour intention (Athanassopoulos et al., 2001; Gronholdt et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2007; Oliver, 1980; Olorunniwo et al., 2006). Previous empirical studies indicated that satisfaction influences behaviour intention. Petrick's (2004) study showed that satisfaction is a significant predictor of repurchase intention in the context of cruise passengers. Yoon and Uysal (2005) argued that tourist destination loyalty is positively affected by tourist satisfaction in the cultural tourism context. A study by Chen and

Chen (2010) indicated that the importance of experience quality on behavioural intention is acknowledged through mediating effects of perceived value and satisfaction in the heritage tourism context. While Baker and Crompton (2000) and Um et al. (2006) found that satisfaction mediates the relationship between performance quality and behavioural intention. Thus, it is assumed that souvenir tourist shopping satisfaction will influence future behavioural intention.

This analysis led to the development of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11: Souvenir tourist shopping satisfaction has a positive relationship with tourist behavioural intention.

Hypotheses 3 - 11 address the third research objective, which relates to the relationship between tourists' travel motivation (push and pull factors), experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention.

4.4 Chapter Summary

The research framework in this study adapts the TCS theory developed by Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) and the TEM developed by Knutson et al. (2010). The TCS and TEM consist of three stages: pre-consumption, during consumption and post-consumption, which are relevant to this study. In this study, the pre-consumption stage refers to tourist travel motivations (push and pull factors), while during consumption refers to tourist experience quality and post-consumption refers to tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention. The constructs in the three stages are linked to each other and are influenced by other factors: demographics, shopping preferences and travel patterns. The research framework also considers tourist cultural background as an important influential factor.

Eleven hypotheses have been formulated in connection with the proposed research model. Testing these hypotheses will provide the bases for bridging the gap in the literature, suggest effective marketing strategies for practitioners, and develop further

research problems for academics in the souvenir shopping tourism context. The research methodology of this study is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

In order to provide a clear explanation of the research paradigm, this chapter focuses on the methodology adopted to test the proposed conceptual model and achieve the research objectives.

The first two sections of this chapter present a justification for the research approach, followed by a discussion on the development of the survey instrument. The next section outlines the development of the questionnaire used specifically for this research, including the sampling procedure, sampling size, sample design, and the reason for selecting Bandung and Yogyakarta as locations for the study in Indonesia. The data collection process is then discussed, followed by an explanation of the data analysis procedure, including Chi-square, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and structural equation modelling (SEM). The ethical issues related to this research are also discussed. A summary of the chapter is provided in the last section.

5.2 Justification of the Research Approach

To address the research objectives, model, and hypotheses, as discussed in Chapter 4, a quantitative approach was used in this research. Following Neuman's (2011) suggestions, while a qualitative method looks to provide more meaningful and detailed information about respondents' thoughts and feelings, a quantitative approach is considered appropriate when studying relationships between several variables, as in the case of this study. The quantitative approach was considered as most appropriate for this study because there has been extensive research in other areas conducted which examine the relationships proposed in this research. This research focused on testing a model proposing relationships between constructs: push and pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention in the souvenir shopping tourism context,

as well as identifying differences across cultural groups with respect to the constructs under investigation: demographics, shopping preferences and travel patterns.

A quantitative method seeks to quantify data with the intention of using statistics for analysing the data set (Malhotra, 2006). Statistical evidence on the strength of the relationships between variables can be established with a quantitative method. Quantitative methods can be used to test hypotheses and determine the reliability and validity of the variable measurement (Malhotra, 2006; Zikmund and Babin, 2010). Additionally, travel motivations, satisfaction and behavioural intention studies, particularly in the travel tourism and consumer marketing fields, have successfully used quantitative research methodologies. This includes studies conducted by Kinley et al. (2012), Moscardo (2004), Murphy et al. (2011), Oh et al. (2004), Rosenbaum and Spears (2009), Yoon and Uysal (2005), and Chen and Chen (2010).

A survey-based method was used for collecting data for this study. As suggested by Zikmund and Babin (2010), survey-based methods allow for the collection of a great quantity of data about an individual respondent at once. A survey-based method is flexible and adaptable for collecting data (Malhotra, 2006). A large sample of data can be collected quickly and efficiently by survey-based methods (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Zikmund and Babin, 2010).

Various survey-based methods for collecting data are available, such as personal interviews, telephone interviews, mail surveys, fax surveys, online surveys and self-administered questionnaires (Zikmund and Babin, 2010). This study required a large sample size to test the hypotheses, thus, interview methods, both personal or telephone, were unsuitable due to time ineffectiveness. Online, mail, and fax surveys were also not appropriate for this research as souvenir tourists were required to provide information immediately after experiencing their shopping for souvenirs at the destination. Thus, this study used a self-administered questionnaire, a survey in which respondents accept the responsibility for reading and responding to the questions (Zikmund and Babin, 2010). Additionally, using a self-administered questionnaire allows the researcher to distribute questionnaires to respondents simultaneously (Zikmund and Babin, 2010).

This method was deemed suitable for collecting data from local souvenir markets in a reasonably short period of time.

Despite the advantages of using a self-administered questionnaire, there were some disadvantages. The accuracy of the responses of the sample subjects cannot be controlled by the researcher (Kumar, 1999). This insufficient control may cause respondents to misunderstand the questions, creating validity problems. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatam (2006) advocated that, when possible, researchers should use scales that have been verified as reliable indicators to overcome the validity and reliability problem. Thus, this study employed scales that have been used and verified in previous studies. These are discussed in sections 5.3.1 - 5.3.5.

5.3 The Development of the Survey Instrument

In relation to the development of a survey instrument to measure a construct, Hair et al. (2006) suggested that researchers might use literature to operationalise the construct if the literature has provided a sufficient discussion on a certain topic. The adoption of existing variable measurements which are reasonably strong in the literature should enhance the content validity of the measurements. However, when previous studies on the topic are insufficient, a researcher should develop their own construct measurement (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2010).

This study used the following steps in developing reliable measurement scale items. Firstly, since the focus of this research is tourist behaviour and motivation in the souvenir tourism setting, the important literature in travel tourism and consumer marketing context was reviewed and carefully examined. Secondly, the current study took on items that measure the content and represent definitions and dimensions of the constructs. The constructs tested in this study were carefully defined, as discussed in the literature review (see Chapters 2 and 3). This study has adapted the scales of travel motivations (push and pull factors), experience quality, satisfaction, behavioural intentions and souvenir shopping behaviour that have been tested in previous tourism studies (Chen and Chen, 2010; Correia, do-Valle and Moço, 2007a; Kinley et al., 2003;

Littrell et al., 1994; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). The details of the measurement scale items of these constructs are explained and discussed in the following subsections.

5.3.1 Measuring Souvenir Tourist Travel Patterns and Shopping Preferences

Souvenir tourist shopping behaviour, as discussed in Chapter 2, consists mainly of two parts: shopping preferences, and travel patterns. This study adapted shopping tourist travel pattern scales from Swanson and Horridge (2004), Swanson and Horridge (2006), Wong and Law (2003), Alegre and Cladera (2012) and Kau and Lim (2005). While tourist shopping preference scales were adapted from the studies of Littrell et al. (1994), Wilkins (2011), and Shanka and Setiyati (2008).

There are two positive aspects of adapting these scales. Firstly, the scales have been used in the previous studies, thus the validity and reliability of the scales have been tested and accepted. Secondly, these scales were used in the tourism context, as the case of this study. However, the drawback is that these scales have not been used in the souvenir shopping tourism context yet. Furthermore, they have been mostly used in the western cultural context.

Souvenir criteria and souvenir feature scales were adapted from Littrell et al. (1994), Kim and Littrell (1999), Turner and Reisinger (2001), and Swanson and Horridge (2004). A range of products identified as potential souvenirs was derived from the studies of Gordon (1986), and Swanson and Horridge (2004). To investigate the tourist perceptions toward the authenticity of souvenirs, five items of souvenir authenticity were used in the questionnaire, based on studies conducted by Kim and Littrell (1999), Yu and Littrell (2003), and Tosun et al. (2007).

5.3.2 Measuring Travel Motivation

Travel motivation, as highlighted in the literature review in Chapter 3, consists of push and pull factors (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). Various types of attributes have been developed to measure the dimensions of push and pull factors, this research mainly

adopted the push and pull motivation attributes developed by Littrell et al. (1994), Kinley et al. (2003), Swanson and Horridge (2006), Timothy (2005), and Correia et al. (2007b). There were three reasons for using the scales of these studies. Firstly, the studies have completed the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that supports the existence of the constructs. Thus the items are robust indicators of the push and pull motivation construct, indicated by their high factor loadings, when tested in the travel tourism field (Correia et al., 2007a; Josiam et al., 2005; Kinley et al., 2003; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Secondly, the studies were conducted in the shopping tourism context (Josiam et al., 2005; Kinley et al., 2003; Moscardo, 2004), which is comparable to this study. The studies by Yoon and Uysal (2005), Correia et al. (2007a), and Correia et al. (2007b) linked travel motivations and other behavioural constructs, as in the case of this study. Lastly, the studies by Swanson and Horridge (2006), and Littrell et al. (1994) explored souvenir shopping tourism, also in the case of this study.

The scale items to measure push motivation factors are provided in Table 1, Appendix D and the scale items to measure pull motivation factors are provided in Table 2, Appendix D.

5.3.3 Measuring Experience Quality

Despite the important role of experience quality in the tourism sector, this construct has not been fully explored in the research (Chen and Chen, 2010; Cole and Chancellor, 2009; Zouni and Kouremenos, 2008). While a previous study by Chen and Chen (2010) used a combination of experience quality constructs developed by Otto and Ritchie (1996) and Kao et al. (2008), the present study used a mixture of experience quality constructs developed by (Kim et al., 2012), Otto and Ritchie (1996), and Kao et al. (2008). This combination provides a better reflection of tourist experience during their souvenir shopping and tourism consumption. This is because the combined scales represent the key and comprehensive dimensions of tourist experience quality in a destination.. However, previous studies have not employed experience quality in the souvenir tourism context. Therefore adjustment in terms of wording on some items was

needed. The experience quality scales used in the current study consist of 16 items and are presented in Table 3, Appendix D.

5.3.4 Measuring Customer Satisfaction

The literature review provided in Chapter 3 indicates that customer satisfaction is a consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectation and the actual performance of the product or services (Tse and Wilton, 1988). There are two customer satisfaction measurements widely employed in the literature: attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Attribute satisfaction reflects the quality of the single aspects of an offer, whereas overall satisfaction is a summary evaluation of the experience of using a product or service (Spreng et al., 1996). The present study used both attribute and overall satisfaction. Oliver (2010) advocates that multi-item measurement can capture both the valence and intensity aspects of the customer satisfaction construct. Customer satisfaction in this study was measured by 12 items, as presented in Table 4, Appendix D.

5.3.5 Measuring Behavioural Intention

The literature review provided in Chapter 3 reveals that tourists' behavioural intention has not been fully explored in the context of shopping tourism. Behavioural intentions embrace desirable behaviours that visitors expect and will show in the future (Lee et al., 2007). According to Zeithaml et al. (1996), particular behaviours provide a signal for favourable behavioural intentions of a company, including: 1) saying positive things about the company (positive word-of-mouth); 2) recommending the company to other customers; 3) repurchasing products or services from the company; 4) buying more products or services from the company; and 5) being willing to pay a premium price to the company. Hutchinson et al. (2009) noted that the two most often used variables of this proposed construct are intention to revisit and word-of-mouth recommendation. The behavioural intentions items used in this present study were adopted from Zeithaml et al. (1996), as illustrated in Table 5, Appendix D.

5.3.6 Measurement Scale

Hair et al. (2006) stated that in multivariate statistics, most techniques are applicable only to continuous scales. Likert-type scale usage in multivariate statistics creates an issue as to whether the scales can be treated as continuous scales (Byrne, 2013; Hair et al., 2006). However, researchers could ignore categorical scale problems if the number of categories is large (Byrne, 2013). A scale containing more than four response categories can be treated as interval, or at least as if the variables are continuous (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the constructs used in this study employed a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Zikmund and Babin (2010) advocated that the greater the number of scale categories, the finer the discrimination among stimulus objects. However, most studies are indecisive about the dissimilarity between five and seven points on a scale, as both of them will provide the study with accurate and reliable response. Alwin and Krosnick (1991) point out that a scale will become more reliable when it has more points but only up to a certain point. However, higher than 11 is excessive for most respondent, therefore, seven is slightly more reliable than five points (Alwin and Krosnick, 1991). The 7-point Likert-type scale allows for the analysis of differences in people's thoughts and this scale is generally used in tourism research (Heung and Cheng, 2000; Hu and Yu, 2007; Lloyd et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2011; Reisinger and Turner, 2002; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2009; Wilkins, 2011; Yeung et al., 2004).

5.4. The Development of the Questionnaire

This section discusses the questionnaire development employed in the data collection component of the current study. The discussion contains four parts: questionnaire design, questionnaire structure, questionnaire translation and back translation, and the questionnaire pre-testing process.

5.4.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire used in this study was created following a well-designed questionnaire technique suggested by (Zikmund, Ward, Lowe, Winzar and Babin, 2011). It used questions that were easy to understand, reducing confusion and ambiguity. The questionnaire was restricted to eight pages, as fewer pages possibly increase respondents' involvement in a survey (Zikmund and Babin, 2010). The sequencing of questions was also important as this can influence the nature of the respondents' answers (Malhotra, 2006). Therefore, the questionnaire was arranged from one topic to another in a logical manner or using a logical sequence. As some respondents might have had little formal education, the questions and the instructions of the questionnaire used simple, clear, and unbiased wording. Finally, positive wording was used in all questions.

The questionnaires consist of six sections (see Appendix C). Sensitive questions, such as annual income and personal information, could potentially embarrass respondents (Zikmund and Babin, 2010), so placing these questions in the early part of a questionnaire may result in a lower response rate. Thus, the demographic questions were placed in the last sections of the questionnaire.

Section A of the questionnaire relates to respondent's travel patterns. This section aimed to collect respondent's travel patterns and consisted of seven questions covering number of visits to the destination, purpose of visit, main mode of travel during the visit, travelling companion, length of stay, type of accommodation, and tourism attractions visited and plan to visit.

Section B relates to tourist shopping preferences. This section was designed to gather information on respondent's shopping patterns and contained 11 questions including category of souvenirs purchased, most interesting souvenirs purchased, preferred souvenir materials, purpose of purchasing souvenirs, reasons for purchasing souvenirs for gift, perception on authentic souvenirs, souvenir criteria, souvenir features, shopping budget, time spent shopping and most useful source of information on shopping.

Section C relates to souvenir tourist travel motivation, destination attributes, experience quality, and satisfaction. This section aimed to identify tourist motivational factors, quality of experience and satisfaction. The items used in this section were adopted from the previous relevant literature. This section was constructed to determine the importance of each construct in affecting tourist's travel behaviours.

Section D relates to souvenir tourist behavioural intention and future visits. The behavioural intention was measured by five questions adopted from Zeithaml et al. (1996). This study gathered the respondent's future travel planning. The information gathered in this section consisted of respondent intention to revisit, when they will revisit and future revisit leisure attraction.

Section E relates to the demographics of respondents: gender, category of tourist, country of residence, age, education, occupation, and annual gross income.

Section F relates to destination branding, aimed at understanding respondents' opinions on the branding strategies of the destination. Respondents were asked three questions about their positive image of the destination, the most unique feature of the destination and the most memorable shopping experience. The responses to these questions could assist destination marketers to formulate the right destination branding.

5.4.2 Questionnaire Translation and Back Translation

Social, educational, and, most essentially, cultural dissimilarities could cause respondents to understand questions differently (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The original questionnaire for the current study was developed in English. However, this study required two versions, one in English and one in Indonesian. Thus, translation and back translation of the questionnaire were undertaken prior to its final distribution.

The following steps of questionnaire translation and back translation were carried out. The English version of the questionnaire was translated into Indonesian by an

authorised native Indonesian fluent in both languages and familiar with the Indonesian and English culture. To ensure consistency and content equivalence of the questionnaire translations, and remove bias, a back translation was conducted by another authorised native Indonesian who was also fluent in both Indonesian and English.

5.4.3 Pilot Test of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was pre-tested to identify any ambiguous questions or any respondent difficulties in understanding the questionnaire. As recommended by Malhotra (2006), a mixed approach using an expert panel and a planned field survey was adopted to get robust input for the development of the questionnaire. Firstly, the questionnaire drafts were examined by three experts in marketing and tourism to improve the face validity of the constructs. Based on their comments and suggestions, improvements to the questionnaire were made. The improvements were performed in relation to the sequence of the questions.

Field survey pre-testing was conducted by distributing the questionnaire between February 1 and 10, 2013. Baker (1994) noted that 10-20% of the sample size of the actual study is a reasonable number of participants to consider in a pilot test. Fifty questionnaires were distributed to tourists who did shopping for souvenirs in local souvenir markets. All 50 respondents completed the questionnaire; 50 usable questionnaires were received. The completed questionnaire indicated that the sentences and instructions were well understood. Furthermore, testing the reliability of the constructs indicated that all were reliable, with the Cronbach alpha results ranging from 0.834 to 0.966. As no alterations were made to the instrument, a further pre-test was considered unnecessary and the questionnaire was used to collect the data. The open questions on destination branding in Section F were changed to closed questions, using answer choices based on the responses gathered from the pilot test.

The field survey pre-testing was conducted in Bandung and Yogyakarta with 25 respondents in each city using the English and Indonesian version of questionnaires. The result of the reliability, validity and construct assessment of the questionnaires were

all satisfactory. The lowest reliability score was on behavioural intention construct (0.834), while the largest was satisfaction construct (0.966). The validity test indicates that all constructs were significant with KMO (Kaiser Meyer Olkin) above 0.70. The construct assessment indicates that all constructs were acceptable with a medium value.

5.5 Sampling

Sample size and sample designs are important factors in any research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The considerations in determining the sample size, sampling design, and collecting the data from tourists in local souvenir markets in Bandung and Yogyakarta are discussed in the subsequent sections.

5.5.1 Sample Size

A number of researchers have recommended different sample sizes as appropriate. The sample size of the current research was decided based on the following arguments. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) advocated that, no matter how large the population to be represented is, a sample size of 384 should be sufficient.

Large samples are needed to verify a research model with SEM, as small samples are less steady for appraisal views (Hair et al., 2010). Hoelter (1983) recommended a critical sample size of 200 cases for analysis of a SEM model. Hair et al. (2006) advocated that in deciding sample size using SEM, a researcher should consider the data distribution, estimation technique, model complexity, missing data, and the amount of average error variance. With these considerations, a sample between 150 and 400 is needed when the estimation is based on maximum likelihood estimation (Hair et al., 2006). To establish both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and CFA, as in the case of this study, Hinkin (1995) advocated ratios of items to responses from 1:4 to 1:10. Using these recommendations, this research required a sample size of between 340 and 850, as there were 85 items used in this research. Considering the diverse approaches to determine the sample size and the recommendations of following Hair et al. (2006) and Hinkin (1995), the sample size of 600 was believed to be appropriate for this study.

5.5.2 Sampling Approach

This research used non-probability sampling, a method in which the selection of sampling units is primarily based on the decision of the researcher (Malhotra, 2006). There are several reasons for selecting this method. Firstly, identifying a target population in the souvenir shopping tourism is challenging, with the requirement of equally being chosen among target population unfeasible. Secondly, the main research objective of this study was to test the influence of travel motivation on behavioural intention with four variables - travel motivation, destination attributes, experience quality and satisfaction. Reynolds, Simintiras and Diamantopoulos (2003) suggest that for a theoretical test purpose, non-probability sampling is reflected as a suitable method.

Similarly, Leary (2012) advocated that non-probability sampling is perfectly suited to research that has, as an objective, to test hypotheses regarding how particular variables relate to behaviour. Additionally, Leary (2004) argued that, regardless of the nature of the sample, a non-probability sample could offer indications in supporting or refuting the theory tested.

For ethical reasons, measuring respondents' attitudes and perceptions through surveys, as used in this study, requires respondent consent. Thus, only souvenir tourists who consented were selected as respondents. To minimise the drawback of using convenience sampling, data were collected from different local souvenir markets.

5.5.3 Location of the Study

The study was carried out in two cities in Indonesia: Bandung and Yogyakarta (see the red arrows in Figure 5.1). Bandung is the capital province of West Java and is well known as a creative city and shopping destination. Yogyakarta is the capital province of Yogyakarta Special Region in Central Java and is well known as a centre of Javanese culture and a tourist destination. The specific location for data collection in each city was in the local souvenir markets. Tourists are more likely to visit the local souvenir markets for the purpose of souvenir shopping regardless of their main purpose of

travelling. Additionally, local souvenir markets sell almost all varieties of souvenirs produced in the region.

There are other cities in Indonesia such as Jakarta, Surabaya, Medan, and Denpasar that potentially could have become the locations of sample collection. However, due to limited time Bandung and Yogyakarta were selected for the data collection. These two cities have differences in term of culture and nature environments as well as souvenirs products produce in the region, and thus, can be considered as representative for other locations.

Figure 5.1 - Location of the Study (see the red arrows)

Bandung is Indonesia's third-largest city located 180 kilometers southeast of Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia. It is situated on a plateau 768 meters above sea level with a cool climate throughout the year. The city is featured by a large collection of Dutch Colonial architecture, as well as a beautiful botanic garden, tea plantations, golf courses and a wide variety of culinary offerings. Bandung is a well-known weekend destination of local tourists from Jakarta and other cities surrounding. The cooler climate of the highland plantation area, the varieties of food, the inexpensive fashion shops located in factory outlets and distribution outlests, golf courses, and the zoo, are some of the attractions of the city. Significant tourist sites near Bandung include the Tangkuban Prahu volcano crater to the north, the Ciater Hot Spring, the striking Kawah Putih

volcano lake, and Patenggang Lake, a lake surrounded by tea plantations to the south of the city (Menparekraf, 2012).

Bandung tourism promotes the city as a creative city as the local government provides fully support for young designers to contribute to the local economy. The city is also renowned as a shopping destination for the good value of its textile and fashion products among Malaysians and Singaporeans. Some cities in the West Java province become suppliers of products for tourists to Bandung. For example, general handicrafts are supplied from Tasikmalaya, while Cirebon supply rattan handicrafts and batik. These products are tangible evident for tourists to bring home as souvenirs for their own use and for others. Western tourists are more interested to enjoy nature and culture attractions. They attracted to see the volcano, the tea plantation, the hot spring, the Wayang Golek wooden puppet show and the angklung bamboo orchestra performance, as well as the classical Sundanese gamelan and dances. Many different souvenirs products are sold in the tourist attractions, factory outlets, distros and in the traditional markets(Menparekraf, 2012). The data collection of this study was also taken place in these areas.

Yogyakarta is a city and the capital of Yogyakarta Special Region in Indonesia. Yogyakarta has become an important tourist destination in Indonesia both for domestic and international tourists. It is renowned as a center of education, classical Javanese fine art and culture such as batik, ballet, drama, music, poetry, and puppet shows. The key attraction of Yogyakarta is 'Kraton' (the Sultan's Palace). The Sultan's palace is the centre of Yogya's traditional life and despite the advance of modernity; it still emanates the spirit of refinement, which has been the hallmark of Yogya's art for centuries. The city is also a good base for day trips to two the world's most impressive archeological sites - Borobudur and Prambanan temples (Menparekraf, 2012).

Some of the famous cultural aspects of Yogyakarta are batik fabric production area; Beringharjo traditional market of the most famous batik marketplace; silverwork, fine filigree jewellery, the production center in Kotagede; traditional Javanese dance performance, especially Ramayana Wayang wong dance performed in Prambanan; other

Javanese court dances are also performed in the Kraton (Sultan Palace); Wayang kulit, a traditional Javanese leather puppetry used for shadow plays; gamelan music, including the local Gamelan Yogyakarta which was developed in the courts; annual traditional Javanese festivals such as Sekaten or Gerebeg Mulud; and visual artists including the Taring Padi community in Bantul (Menparekraf, 2012).

Yogyakarta has more than a culture city. It is a very lively city and a shopper's delight. The main road, Malioboro Street, is always crowded and famous for its night street food-culture and street vendors. Many tourist shops are concentrated along this street or in the adjoining tourist area such Sosrowijayan Street. Various products of souvenirs for tourists include batik, silver, a variety of fabrics, Yogyakarta traditional clothing and uniforms, wayang (leather puppet), keris and others (Menparekraf, 2012). The data collection of this study was also carried out in these areas.

5.6 Data Collection

The sample frame for this study was comprised of domestic and international tourists who visited Bandung and Yogyakarta,and were aged 18 years and above. This particular age group was chosen because of its potential travel demand in the future and the possibility that the target respondent would provide more thoughts of travel motivation, shopping experience, shopping satisfaction, and future behavioural intention. The respondents had to have stayed at least one day and shopped at the destination, so that they would have enough knowledge about, and experience of, the destination.

The survey procedures were carried out as follows. Respondents were approached by the researcher in the rest area of the souvenir markets. Greetings and scanning questions were posed to potential respondents. The scanning questions covered whether she/he had bought souvenirs from the markets, have stayed one day in the destination, and whether she/he would participate in the survey. When potential respondents said 'yes' to the three scanning questions then the researcher gave them a brief overview of the study and a questionnaire for self-completion.

The data collection was carried out from February 14 to April 24 2013. These dates were selected as marking a peak season for shopping. This study used a cross-sectional survey technique, which involves the collection of data from a sample drawn from a specified population at a specific point in time (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The cross-sectional survey technique is common in marketing and tourism research, used to investigate associations between factors (Alegre and Cladera, 2012; Barutçu et al., 2011; Correia et al., 2007a; Rosenbaum and Spears, 2009).

During the data collection period, a total of 684 souvenir tourists were approached, 22 of whom were not willing to participate. Of the 662 questionnaires that were completed, 20 were incomplete and discarded, leaving 642 usable questionnaires for the analysis. This represented a 93.85% response rate.

5.7 Analytical Methods

The choice of methods of analysis in research is important. Several steps were carried out in the current study to process the data for analysis. This began with the preliminary data analysis, followed by EFA and CFA before finally testing the hypotheses. The various methods of analysis for this study are summarised in Figure 5.2.

Preliminary data Analysis	To address practical issues of missing data, outliers, normality test, assessing SEM assumptions.
Chi-square test, EFA and MANOVA	To test hypothesis 1a - 1c: to what extent demographics, travel patterns, shopping patterns are different across cultures.
EFA and MANOVA	To test hypothesis 2a - 2e: to what extent push and pull motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention are different across cultures.
EFA and CFA	To purify travel motivation, destination attributes, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention construct measurement.
SEM	To test hypothesis 3 - 11: are there relationships between travel motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention.

Figure 5.2 - Methods of Data Analysis

The statistical techniques used for the data analysis in this study involved descriptive analysis, Chi-square tests, EFA, MANOVA, CFA and SEM, each of which is discussed in further detail in the subsequent sections. The statistical techniques were conducted with software packages SPSS version 21 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and AMOS version 21 (Analysis of Moment Structures). SPSS was used to perform basic statistical data analysis, such as descriptive analysis, Chi-square tests, EFA and a reliability test; while AMOS was used to conduct CFA and structural model analysis.

5.7.1 Preliminary Data Analysis

The raw data collected was subjected to a preliminary analysis carried out prior to statistical analysis for testing the hypotheses. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Hair et al. (2010) advocated that it is essential to ensure the completeness and accuracy of the data prior to conducting any analysis, particularly CFA and SEM. Thus, this study

undertook several audit checks in data coding and screening to ensure that no error was made in the data preparation process prior to analysis. Data screening in this study involved the evaluation of missing data, assessment of normality, identification of outliers and assessment of multicolliniarity. The steps taken in the preliminary data analysis are discussed below.

5.7.1.1 Data Coding

The first step in preparing the data for analysis involved coding the questionnaire responses. Prior to coding, each item in the questionnaire was assigned a unique variable name that could clearly identify information such as age, gender, educational level and so forth. The coding process involved assigning a code to each response in each question.

5.7.1.2 Evaluation of Missing Data

The evaluation of missing data aims to assess the value of variables that are unavailable for analysis (Hair et al., 2010). It is quite common in a survey for some respondents not to respond to individual items on a questionnaire (Burns and Bush, 2002). Missing data can occur through the action of the researcher or respondents. Following the recommendation of Sekaran and Bougie (2010), all responses in the analysis from those who completed at least 75 percent of the questions were retained in the sample. This resulted in 20 questionnaire responses being removed from the sample, resulting in 642 retained.

5.7.1.3 Outliers

Following the evaluation of missing data, the data were analysed to detect for univariate and multivariate outliers. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that to identify the existence of univariate outliers, which is across one variable, a frequency distribution of z scores should be run. Cases with scores greater than three standard deviations above the mean are considered outliers. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) further suggested that a

multivariate, which is across a number of variables, can be detected using the Mahalanabis 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. A low p value (e.g. $p < 0.001$) of D^2 may indicate outliers.

The results of the frequency distribution of z-scores and the Mahalanobis distance analysis indicated that there were 21 cases of univariate and 17 cases of multivariate outliers. Thus, 38 outliers were deleted from the data leaving 604 cases for further analysis.

5.7.1.4 Assessment of Normality

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 to test the compliance of the data with the statistical assumptions required by multivariate analysis. Assumption of normality is essential in multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that the degree of the normality can be detected by two measures: skewness and kurtosis. Skewness is a measure of symmetry, whereas kurtosis is a measure of the peakiness of the distribution (Hair et al., 2010). Researchers have different views regarding the range of skewness and kurtosis for normality distribution. Kline (2005) stated that for a distribution to be considered normal, the skewness must fall in the range of -3 and +3 and the kurtosis less than 10.0. Kline (2005, p. 50) 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". Hair et al. (2006) suggested that an appropriate acceptance of skewness and kurtosis value falls between -1.00 and +1.00. Munthen and Kaplan (1985) recommended that the skewness and kurtosis values should range from -1.50 to +1.50. The normality assessment performed on the data through SPSS generated indices for skewness and kurtosis for all variables, revealed that the indices for skewness, ranging from + 0.36 to -0.904, fell within the recommended range of +3.0 to -3.0. The kurtosis indices were

less than 0.934, suggesting that the data were normally distributed and met the assumption condition for MANOVA and SEM (see Table 1, Appendix E).

5.7.2 Chi-square Test

The Chi-square tests were used to test the differences in souvenir tourists' travel patterns, shopping preferences and demographics across Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian cultures. This method is frequently recommended when researchers want to compare the mean of one variable in two or more unrelated categories of samples (Bryman and Cramer, 2011; Collis and Hussey, 2009). A 95% level of significance was deemed acceptable for this statistical assessment.

5.7.3 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

MANOVA was used to identify the difference in means of two or more groups of variables (Zikmund et al., 2011). The use of MANOVA accommodates more than one dependent variable, as in the case of this study. It is a dependence technique that measures the differences for two or more metric dependent variables based on a set of categorical variables acting as independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). The MANOVA was performed in this study to detect any significant difference among the means attached to the motivational factors (push factors), destination attributes (pull factors), experience quality, and satisfaction across the cultural groups of Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian. Tourist cultural groups served as independent variables, while travel motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention functioned as dependent variables. This method was considered to be appropriate for examining the role of cultural group membership on motivational variables and the other constructs within each cultural group. A MANOVA was also used to identify the difference in souvenir criteria and souvenir features across cultural groups. Tourist cultural groups served as independent variables, while souvenir criteria functioned as dependent variables.

The important assumption for MANOVA is the equivalence of variance-covariance matrices of the dependent variables across the groups (Hair et al., 2006). This relates to the significant differences in the amount of variance-covariance of one group versus another for the dependent variables. The variance-covariance homogeneity or homoscedasticity is examined at the multivariate level first then at the univariate level for each dependent variable separately. The most widely used test to assess homoscedasticity at multivariate levels is Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. The acceptable cut-off value for this test is p value ≥ 0.001 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

The most common method used to test the homogeneity at the univariate level is Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance. The commonly accepted p value is > 0.05 indicating the homogeneity, however, a more conservative alpha level of 0.025 or 0.01 can also be chosen for determining significance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Insignificant values of Levene's Test display equal variance between groups. In the absence of the homogeneity of variance, corrective remedies are not required unless the size of samples in each group is relatively small and the presence of homoscedasticity appears in only a few of the investigated dependent variables (Hair et al., 2006).

The significance of the multivariate F was examined by Wilk's Lambda test, to determine the overall effect of an independent variable on the dependent variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The value of this test is shown by its associated significance level, where a probability value less than 0.05 indicates that there is a difference between the observed groups. Following this, a post-hoc test was then conducted to identify which groups were showing significant differences (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In this study, a post-hoc test using Tukey HSD was performed to examine the differences across the cultural groups in terms of push motivation factors, pull motivation factors, souvenir criteria and souvenir features.

5.7.4 Factor Analysis

The purpose of EFA is three-fold: to identify the relationship between variables, to ascertain representative variables from a large set of variables and to create a smaller set of variables to replace the original set of variables (Hair et al., 2010). This study used EFA to determine the underlying influences on the set of observed variables in a concise and interpretable form. Information about the nature of investigated variables was quantified by examining the extent to which each variable was associated with an underlying factor (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The factors described the data through a reduced number of concepts that replaced the original set of variables and were used for further statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

The EFA is used to determine the suitable numbers of common factors and to identify which measured items are reasonable indicators of the various latent factors (Hair et al., 2006). The latent factors are then used for further statistical analysis, for CFA and SEM in the case of this study. The EFA was used to reduce the indicators of push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention into reasonable indicators of latent factors based on strong correlations and not correlated with any other measurers in the other variables (Hair et al., 2010). The CFA was performed after confirming the EFA processes and then structural model analysis was conducted (this is discussed in Chapter 6).

This study used a principal component factor analysis (PCA) as the extraction method. Hubbard and Allen (1987) and Koopman and Linn (1969) compared a number of factor analyses methods and advocated that slight dissimilarity was found in the results regardless of the extraction method used if the sample is large and there are many indicators with high communalities (greater than 0.40), as in the case of this study.

Varimax rotation was also used in this study. Dielman, Cattell and Wagner (1972) and Gorsuch (1983) claimed that Varimax is the best orthogonal rotation method. The Varimax aims at simplifying factors by making high loading higher and low loading lower on each factor, thus presenting ease of interpretation of the results (Tabachnick

and Fidell, 2007). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that there is evidence that different rotation methods (varimax, equamax, promax, direct oblimin and quarimax) tend to give similar results if the correlation pattern in the data is quite clear.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to measure the appropriateness of factor analysis. The KMO measure is an index indicating a condition for the existence of a common factor structure in which the correlations between pairs of variables can be explained by other variables. According to Kaiser (1974), the KMO index greater than 0.9 is marvellous, 0.8-0.9 is meritorious, 0.7-0.8 is middling, 0.6-0.7 is mediocre, 0.5-0.6 is miserable and an index less than 0.5 is unacceptable. Following this interpretation, this study used a cut-off value of 0.60, as also suggested by Pallant (2011), and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Bartlett's test of sphericity investigates the null hypothesis that there are no correlations among the variables. If the hypothesis is accepted, $p > 0.05$, and the use of factor analysis would be inappropriate. Thus, Bartlett's test of sphericity for each variable set should be significant at $p < 0.05$ (Pallant, 2011). The EFA performed in this study was to determine the underlying dimensions of each construct under investigation for CFA, SEM and MANOVA analysis.

A CFA through a one-factor congeneric model was performed to test how well the measurement items represented the constructs. It was also used to ensure that the measurement items were valid and reliable (unidimensional) for the constructs. Cronbach's alpha cannot ensure unidimensionality, although it is useful for identifying the *presence* of unidimensionality. For this study, a CFA was used to confirm that the measurement items were in fact measuring the construct extracted by the EFA. Thus, the measurement items and construct were tested based on the factors generated in the EFA results. The purpose of this was to validate the correlations amongst measures to become valid indicators of the underlying construct (Hair et al. 2006). Thus, this is known as a confirmatory or theory confirming approach, designed to support the theory about the constructs that underlie a group of measurers (Hair et al. 2006). Both EFA and CFA are data reduction techniques aimed at reducing a large number of inter-related

measured variables to a smaller number of underlying factors for the SEM. The detail of SEM is discussed in the following subsection.

5.7.5 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM is a multivariate technique that contains examinations of measurement models and structural models. This study used SEM for the data analysis as it examined relationships that contained several dependent variables. Multiple regression analysis allows researchers to measure relationships between some dependent and some independent variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, according to Holmes-Smith (2013), it does not allow researchers to measure the relationships among the dependent variables. The latent variables generated from the EFA and CFA of a one-factor congeneric model were employed for the relationship analysis among the variables under investigation in the SEM.

There are a number of advantages for using SEM as the method of analysis. According to Holmes-Smith (2013), SEM has 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. Second, Hair et al. (2006) and Schumacker and Lomax (2004) noted that SEM allows researchers to measure the pattern of a series of interrelated dependent relationships simultaneously among the measured variables and latent constructs, as well as between several latent constructs. Lastly, according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988, p. 114), SEM provides "a comprehensive means for assessing and modifying theoretical models". Therefore, in respect of these advantages, SEM was used to investigate the relationships among variables as proposed in the research model discussed in Chapter 4.

There are two approaches in SEM: one-stage and two-stage (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The process of estimating both measurement and structural models is performed simultaneously in the one-stage approach, while in the two-stage approach the measurement model and structural model estimation are separated (Kline, 2005; Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). In the two-stage approach, the measurement model is

measured first and then in the second stage the structural model is assessed using a number of goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices (Hair et al., 2010). This study used the two-stage approach with two considerations. First, according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Hair et al. (2010), unnecessary interaction between the measurement and the structural model can be avoided. Second, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Bagozzi (1983) argued that a satisfied measurement model is a condition for analysing the causal relationships in the structural models. The two-stage approach is gaining more acceptance among researchers compared to the one-stage approach (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy, 2013).

Testing the measurement model was the first step of the two-stage approach. The purpose of this was to confirm the unidimensionality of the latent variable, that is the indicator of a construct, has an acceptable fit on a single-factor model (Hair et al., 2010). This was performed by conducting one-factor congeneric models for all latent variables. Three measures were used in assessing the unidimensionality: GOF of the model, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). The second stage was conducted by testing the structural model. The hypothesised relationships were tested in this stage against a number of GOF indices. The goodness of the structural model was assessed by interpreting GOF indices.

5.7.6 Evaluating the Fit of the Model

Assessment of model-fit is the process of checking whether the specified model fits the data. Hair et al. (2010) contended that the purpose of evaluating the fit of the model is to determine the GOF between the proposed model and the data. Schumacker and Lomax (2004) defined model fit as the degree to which the sample variance-covariance data fits the structural model. There are several GOF indices applicable to SEM. The fit indices are classified into three main categories: absolute fit, incremental fit and parsimony fit (Hair et al., 2010). While researchers have different views as to which GOF indices should be stated, the use of at least three fit indices, including one in each of the categories of model fit, were suggested (Bollen and Long, 1993; Hair et al., 2010; Holmes-Smith, 2013). Table 5.1 summaries the GOF indices of this study.

Table 5.1 - Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Index

#	Fit Measures	Abbreviation	Level of Acceptance	Remark
Absolute Fit Index				
1	Chi-square probability level	χ^2	$p > 0.05$	Significant value (p < 0.05) indicates a poor fit, whereas a non-significant value (p > 0.05) indicates a good fit.
2	Goodness of Fit	GFI	> 0.90	A value close to 0 indicates poor fit, while the value equal to or greater than 0.9 indicates a good fit.
3	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA	< 0.08	A value less than 0.05 is perfect fit, and between 0.05 and 0.08 is considered as acceptable fit.
4	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual	SRMR	< 0.06	The smaller the better, a value less than 0.10 indicates a good fit.
Incremental Fit Index				
5	Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI	> 0.90	A value close to 0 is poor fit; a value close to 1 is perfect fit.
6	Comparative Fit Index	CFI	> 0.90	A value close to 0 is poor fit; a value close to 1 is perfect fit.
Parsimonious Fit Index				
7	Normed Chi-square	χ^2/df	1.0 - 5.0	Lower limit 1.0, upper limit as high as 5.0.

Source: From different sources

Absolute fit indices. Hair et al., (2010) pointed out that the absolute fit indices are direct measures of how well the model identified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. The Chi-square (χ^2) is regarded as the most fundamental measure of overall fit when using SEM (Bollen, 1989). It is important to note that the χ^2 value is quite sensitive to sample size differences (Byrne, 2013; Hair et al. 2006; Hair et al. 2010). Several scholars do not recommend using the χ^2 as a GOF index since it is vulnerable to sample size (Byrne, 2013; Cheng, 2001; Hu and Bentler, 1999). When the sample size exceeds 200 respondents, the χ^2 statistic has a tendency to indicate a significant probability level (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). Thus, to assess the overall fit in this study, the χ^2 was used in combination with other absolute fit indices. These

were Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR).

Byrne (2013) explained that the GFI measures the relative amount of variance and covariance explained by the model. The GFI is based on the ratio of the total of the squared differences between the observed and reproduces matrices to the observed variances (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). GFI values range from 0 to 1.0 with higher values indicating better fit (Hair et al., 2010). A GFI value equal to 1.0 indicates perfect fit and values above 0.90 indicate good fit (Kline, 2005). RMSEA estimates the amount of error of approximation per model degree of freedom and takes sample size into account (Kline, 2005). Holmes-Smith (2013) recommended that a RMSEA value of less than 0.05 is an indication of the fit of the model. Hair et al. (2010) noted that a value ranging from 0.05 to 0.08 is commonly acceptable. SRMR refers to the average differences between the sample variances and covariance and the estimated population variances and covariance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Kline (2005), values of SRMR range from 0 to 1.0, where lower values of SRMR indicate a good-fitting model and values less than 0.10 are generally desired, while Holmes-Smith (2013) pointed out that a value less than 0.06 is indicative of a well-fitting model.

Incremental fit indices. Byrne (2013) notes that these indices compare the standard hypothesised model with the hypothesised model. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were used in this study. CFI compares the covariance matrix. TLI considers a measure of parsimony in a comparative index between the proposed and the baseline models. Finch and West (1997) noted that CFI and TLI offer non-biased clues of model fit at all sample sizes. Bentler (1990) recommended a value of 0.90 or greater for CFI and TLI. According to Hair et al. (2010), in practice, TLI and CFI generally provide similar values.

Parsimony fit indices. The parsimony fit indices approach is used to identify the hypothesised model that represents the best fit, when compared to other competing hypothesised models (Hair et al., 2010). Typically, a more complex model would appear to be a better fit (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the parsimony fit indices approach is

not useful when attempting to measure GOF of a single model, but rather helps compare two or more complex models (Byrne, 2010). The Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df) was used in this study. Hair et al. (2010) note that the Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df) is a simple ratio of χ^2 to the degree of freedom for a model. While Hair et al. (2010) recommended a range of acceptable values for χ^2/df is 3 to 1, Schumacker and Lomax (2004) suggested a larger limit of less than 5.0.

5.7.7 Reliability and Validity

The underlying constructs were measured for their reliability and validity after the unidimensionality of all the latent variables had been established. Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement, whereas validity refers to the accuracy (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). Bollen (1989) contended that a measure may be consistent but not accurate or may be accurate but not consistent. This study assessed reliability and validity to confirm the robustness of the constructs.

To test the reliability of the constructs this study used the Cronbach's alpha, the most widely used approach for testing internal consistency of measurement (Churchill, 1979). Cronbach's alpha exceeding 0.7 indicates that the measurement items share the common core of the constructs and are hence reliable (Nunnally, 1978). However, Hair et al. (2010) argued that the threshold value of Cronbach's alpha can be decreased to 0.6 in exploratory research. CFA was also used in this study as an extension of the scale reliability test. Byrne (2010) and Hair et al. (2006) argued that CFA provides a better estimate of reliability than the coefficient alpha. The CFA can measure the stability of the factor structure in the scale construction. Fornell and Lacker's (1981) approach was used to evaluate reliability using CFA by performing construct reliability (CR) with a reliability threshold of 0.60.

The results of the Cronbach's alpha and construct reliabilities of this study are presented in a table in Appendix G. The table shows that the reliabilities of the constructs were also above the minimum value of 0.50 indicating that the constructs were reliable.

Convergent and discriminant validity were used to measure the construct validity of this study. Kline (2005) explained that 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 (greater than 0.85) with other constructs. Hair et al. (2010) noted that a high level of discriminant validity means that the construct is unique and captures some phenomena that are not captured by other constructs. To determine convergent validity, Holmes-Smith (2013) advocated that the magnitude of the relationship between the items and latent construct should be statistically different from zero and, according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Hair et al. (2010) have a factor loading of 0.50 or greater. There are two methods in relation to discriminant validity. The first method is suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Kline (2005), that the estimated correlations between two constructs should not be excessively high (greater than 0.85). The second method was recommended by Bagozzi, Yi and Phillips (1991), a SEM-based method that involves the use of a constrained and an unconstrained model of two constructs. If constraining the constructs worsen the model fit (indicated by the differences between the two χ^2 being statistically significant), it can be concluded that the two constructs are different. The second method is considered a better test compared to the first method (Holmes-Smith, 2013).

The result of convergent validity of this study is presented in a table in Appendix H. The table shows that all items had factor loadings ranging from 0.656 to 0.920, greater than the minimum value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) and were statistically significant. These high factor loadings show that the indicators measure their related factors satisfactorily. Additionally, the GOF measures for the one-factor congeneric models of all the constructs presented in section 6.6.1.1 - 6.6.1.5 can also be considered as confirming the convergent validity of the constructs of this study.

The results of discriminant validity of this study, using the estimate correlation matrix and SEM-based method, are presented, respectively, in Tables 1 and 2 in Appendix I. Table 1 shows that the estimate correlation matrix indicates that all correlation coefficients among constructs were below the value of 0.85 and there was no

multicolinearity between the constructs. Table 2 indicates that all χ^2 differences were significant at $p< 0.00$. Constraining the correlation between constructs to 1.00 had significantly worsened the model of this study. Thus, all the two pair constructs were different and the discriminant validity among the constructs was achieved.

Figure 5.3 provides a summary of the differences in statistical methods used to analyse the data in relation to the respective research questions and hypotheses. The figure indicates the main flow of data processing from the questionnaires and statistical analyses used, which correspond to the research questions and hypotheses of this study.
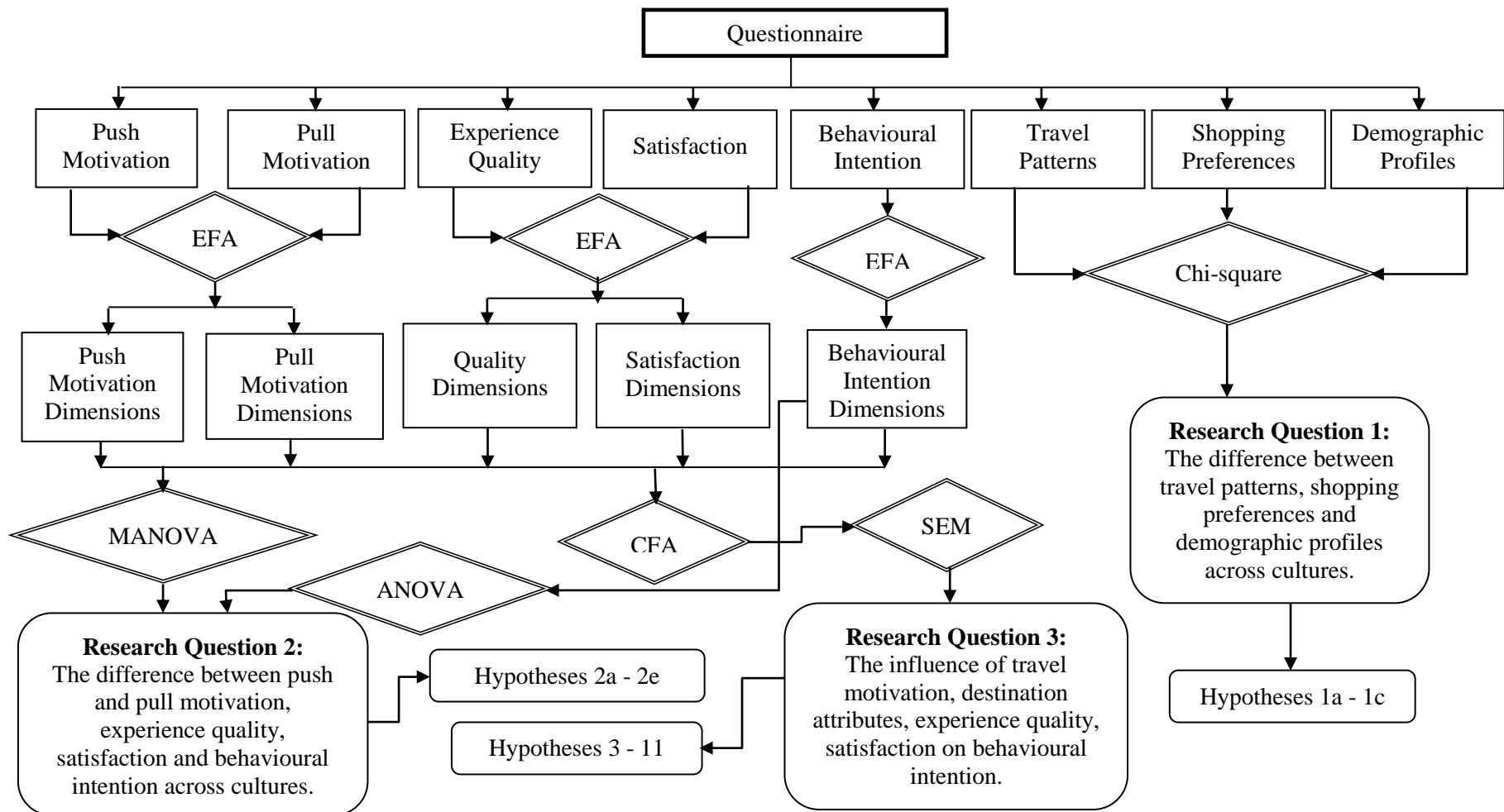
Figure 5.3 - The Statistical Methods, the Research Questions and the Hypotheses

5.8 Ethical Considerations

Maholtra (2004) identified four stakeholders in marketing research: (1) the researcher, (2) the client, (3) the respondent, and (4) the public. These stakeholders are interrelated and they may have different interests in relation to the research activity. Ethical issues very often become a dilemma between these stakeholders. In order to address the potential ethical issues related to this research, a number of considerations were adopted to protect all stakeholders. Firstly, the research was designed to ensure that there were no potential risks related to the procedures of collecting, analysing, and presenting the data. Secondly, prior to participation in the survey, respondents were given enough time to read the cover letter in the questionnaire. This letter stated that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and that respondents could withdraw from the survey if she/he found the study to be intrusive. Thus, respondents' consent was confirmed by participating in the survey. Finally, no respondent's personal information was requested in the questionnaire. Importantly, prior to conducting this study, an Ethics Application had been approved by the Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee.

5.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the methodology used in this study. The justification for the research approach was discussed, particularly relating to the use of a survey-based method and self-administered questionnaire for the data collection. The development of the scale and the questionnaire design were explained, as well as the sampling approaches and procedures for conducting the survey. Following this, data collection was explained. The statistical data analyses used in the current study were described and justified. Finally, ethical issues related to collecting, analysing, and reporting the results of this research were clarified. The next chapter presents the results and discussion of this study.

CHAPTER 6
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides descriptive information about the demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences of souvenir tourists. Notable differences across tourist cultural groups are investigated. As indicated in Chapter 2, the relationship between culture and consumer behaviour is inseparable. Consequently, it is fundamental for destination marketers to understand the behaviours and preferences of tourists from different cultures in order to develop effective marketing strategies for tourism destinations.

Additionally, this chapter presents empirical results and discussion on the key differences in push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir shopping tourists across cultural backgrounds. It presents the results and discussion on the relationships between travel motivations and other constructs under investigation. As discussed in Chapter 3, travel motivation is an important factor in understanding tourist behaviour. A better understanding of tourist motivation across cultures can help destination marketers to identify tourists' specific needs and wants in order to provide matched products and services.

The subsequent sections present the empirical results of this study in relation to demographic characteristics, followed by a discussion on tourist travel patterns and shopping preferences. The testing of the first set of hypotheses (1a - 1c) is then outlined, followed by the results and discussion on the tourist pull and push motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention, and then the testing of the second set of hypotheses (2a - 2e). The results relating to tourist future visit and destination branding are also discussed, followed by the results and discussion on the SEM and the testing of hypotheses 3 - 11. A summary of the chapter is provided in the last section.

6.2 Souvenir Shopping Tourist Characteristics across Cultural Groups

The first objective of this study, as outlined in Chapter 1, was to identify the difference in demographics, travel patterns and shopping preferences of souvenir shopping tourists across cultural groups. To achieve this objective, a series of Chi-square tests were performed to identify the difference in tourist behaviour and to test hypotheses 1a - 1c as set out in Chapter 4. The following sections present and discuss the results of this testing.

6.2.1 Testing Hypothesis 1a: The Differences in Demographic Characteristics across Cultural Groups

In relation to this study, the data consisted of domestic and international tourists and was classified into Indonesian domestic, Asian, and non-Asian tourist groups. As shown in Table 6.1, 23% of respondents were local tourists, 26% interstate tourists and 50.2% international tourists. The three different cultural groups of souvenir tourists were represented as follows: Indonesian (49.8%), which encompassed local and interstate tourists; Asian (24.2%), covering 16 countries; and non-Asian (26%), accounting for tourists from 22 countries. The findings were consistent with the information published by the Indonesian Bureau of Statistics (BPS 2013), which showed that the proportion of domestic tourists was larger compared to international tourists of both Asian and non-Asian origin.

Table 6.1 - Tourist Category

| Tourist category | Total No. | Cultural groups | | | χ^2 | *Sig.* |
		Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Tourist category (N=604)					604.000	0.000*
Local tourist	139	23				
Interstate tourist	162	26.8				
International tourist	303		24.2	26		

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

A Chi-square test was performed to ascertain the statistically significant differences in demographic characteristics related to the tourist category of the three cultural groups. The result indicated that there was a significant difference in the tourist category [χ^2 = 604.000; p = 0.000] at $p < 0.05$.

Table 6.2 shows that tourists to Indonesia from Asian countries were dominated by those from Malaysia (8.1%), followed by tourists from Japan (3.5%), Singapore (3.3%), China/Hong Kong (2.2%) and other Asian countries. Tourists from non-Asian countries were predominantly from the Netherlands (6.8%), followed by tourists from the US (4.6%), Australia (3.1%), Germany (2.5%) and other non-Asian countries. This result is consistent with data from the Indonesian Statistical Bureau (BPS, 2013) that indicates that Malaysians were the largest group of Asian tourists, while the Dutch were the largest group of European tourists visiting Indonesia.

Table 6.2 -Tourist Country of Residence

Asian Tourists			Non-Asian Tourists		
Country	Total No.	%	Country	Total No.	%
China/Hong Kong	13	2.2	Australia	19	3.1
Japan	21	3.5	Germany	16	2.5
Korea	6	1.0	New Zealand	2	0.3
Singapore	21	3.3	The Netherlands	41	6.8
Thailand	2	0.3	United States	28	4.6
Malaysia	49	8.1	Italy	3	0.5
Taiwan	2	0.3	Spain	6	1.0
India	12	2.0	France	11	1.8
Pakistan	1	0.2	Austria	4	0.7
Vietnam	8	1.3	England	7	1.2
The Philippine	6	1.0	Canada	5	0.8
Brunei	1	0.2	Belgium	2	0.3
Papua New Guinea	2	0.3	Argentina	1	0.2
Cambodia	1	0.2	Russia	1	0.2
Qatar	1	0.2	Switzerland	2	0.3
Saudi Arabia	1	0.2	Norway	1	0.2
			Czech Republic	1	0.2
			Liberia	2	0.3
			Hungary	1	0.2
			Poland	1	0.2
			Ukraine	1	0.2
			Moldova	1	0.2

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

The demographic characteristics of souvenir tourists across cultural groups are summarised in Table 6.3. These results indicate a fairly equal representation of male (51.2%) and female (48.8%) respondents. The largest portion of respondents were aged between 46 and 66 years (21%), followed by 22-31 years (20.9%), 18-21 years (19.9%), 32-47 years (19.9%), and older than 67 years (18.4%).

The Chi-square test was performed to determine the statistically significant differences in respondents' gender and age across the cultural groupings. The results showed that there was no significant difference in the respondent's gender and age respectively [$\chi^2 =$ 756; $p = 0.685$ and $\chi^2 = 6.534$; $p = 0.588$] at $p < 0.05$.

Table 6.3- Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Demographic profiles	Total No.	Total%	Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)	χ^2	*Sig.*
Gender (N=604)						0.756	0.685
Male	309	51.2	25	12.1	14.1		
Female	295	48.8	24.8	12.1	11.9		
Age (N=604)						6.534	0.588
18 – 21	120	19.9	9.9	5.5	4.5		
22 – 31	126	20.9	10.3	3.8	6.8		
32 – 47	120	19.9	9.9	5.5	4.5		
48 – 66	127	21	10.4	4.8	5.8		
Over 67	111	18.4	9.3	4.6	4.5		
Education (N=604)						103.834	0.000*
High School	222	36.8	24	7	5.8		
Diploma	83	13.7	8.4	2.8	2.5		
Bachelor degree	216	35.8	16.4	10.3	9.1		
Master Degree	80	13.2	1	4	8.3		
Doctoral Degree	3	0.5	0	0.2	0.3		
Occupation (N=604)						63.113	0.000*
Professional	185	30.6	11.1	8.4	11.1		
Student	110	18.2	7.8	5	5.5		
Retiree	31	5.1	2.6	1	1.5		
Housewife/husband	72	11.9	7.9	2.3	1.7		
Government officer	37	6.1	4.8	1	0.3		
Business Owner/Entrepreneur	159	26.3	15.6	6.1	4.6		
Other	10	1.7	0	0.3	1.3		

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

Table 6.3 - Respondents' Demographic Characteristics (continued)

Demographic profiles	Total No.	Total%	Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)	χ^2	*Sig.*
			Cultural groups				
Annual income (N=604)						199.859	0.000*
6,000 $US or less	130	21.5	17.9	1.8	1.8		
6,001 - 12,000 $US	121	20	14.1	2.3	3.6		
12,001 - 24,000 $US	86	14.2	9.1	2.8	2.3		
24,001 - 36,000 $US	48	7.9	2.3	3.6	2		
36,001 - 48,000 $US	71	11.8	2.2	5.1	4.5		
48,001 - 60,000 $US	47	7.8	1.5	2.8	3.5		
60,001 - 72,000 $US	30	5	1.2	2	1.8		
72,001 - 84,000 $US	39	6.5	0.8	1.8	3.8		
84,001 - 96,000 $US	17	2.8	0.3	0.8	1.7		
More than 96,000 $US	15	2.5	0.5	1	1		

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

In relation to education level, the largest numbers of respondents were high school graduates (36.8%), to which the Indonesian tourist group contributed 24%, while the Asian and the non-Asian groups represented only 7% and 5.8% respectively. This is followed by bachelor degree (35.8%), in which the Indonesian group represented 16.4%, while the Asian and the non-Asian groups contributed about 10.3% and 9.1%. Those with a diploma (13.7%) comprised the following: Indonesian (8.4%), Asian (2.8%) and non-Asian (2.5%). Master degrees (13.2%) accounted for only 1% of Indonesians and 4% of Asians, while the non-Asian cultural group accounted for 8.3%. The smallest number in relation to education level was doctoral degree (0.5%), with the non-Asian cultural group accounting for about 0.3% and the Asian 0.2%, while none of the Indonesian cultural group held this degree.

A Chi-square test was performed to determine the statistically significant differences in respondent education level across cultural groups. The result indicates that there was a significant difference in tourist education levels across the three cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 103.834$; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$.

The largest occupation of respondents was professional (30.6%), followed by business owner/entrepreneur (26.3%), student (18.2%), housewife/husband (11.9%), government officer (6.1%), retiree (5.1%) and then other (1.7%). The largest occupation group for Indonesian respondents was business owner/entrepreneur (15.6%), while for the Asian and non-Asian cultural groups it was professional (8.4% and 11.1%, respectively). The smallest occupation category for the Indonesian group was retiree (2.6%), while for the Asian group it was retiree and government officer (1%) and for the non-Asian group it was government officer (0.3%). The findings revealed that there was a significant difference in tourist occupation across the three cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 63.113$; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$.

Relating to respondent's annual income, the three cultural groups showed different results. The largest group against annual income for the Indonesian respondents was $US6,000 or less (17.9%), while the Asian cultural group earned $US36,001 to $US48,000 (5.1%) and the non-Asian cultural group earned $US72,001 to $US84,000 (3.8%). Asian and non-Asian cultural groups earning more than $US96,000 accounted for 1%; however, none of the Indonesian respondents earned this income. The result of Chi-square tests indicates that there was a significant difference in tourist annual income across the three cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 199.859$; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$.

The results of tourist demographic variables highlight a number of factors that should be considered when destination marketers offer tourism products and services. In relation to the souvenir shopping tourists' age, the destination marketers should focus on the three largest age groups: aged between 46 and 66 years (21%), 22-31 years (20.9%) and 18-21 years (19.9%). The destination marketers may target different educational backgrounds and occupations across tourist groups based on the largest number of tourist. This could be high school educated and business owners for the Indonesian tourist group, and bachelor degree educated and professionals for the Asian and non-Asian souvenir shopping tourist groups. The tourists with an annual income between $US6,001 and $US12,000 is the target segment for the Indonesian tourist group, while between $US36,001 and $US48,000 is the target segment for the Asian and non-Asian tourists respectively.

In summary, the findings reveal that souvenir tourists across cultural groups differed at statistically significant levels in a number of their demographic characteristics including tourist category, country of residence, education level, occupation and annual income. However, gender and age were not statistically different across cultural groups. More differences than similarities were found on tourist demographic variables across cultural groups. Thus, hypothesis 1a, which tests whether differences in demographics exist across cultural groups, is partially supported by the data.

6.2.2 Testing Hypothesis 1b: The Differences in Travel Patterns between Cultural Groups

The first objective of this study, as outlined in Chapter 1, was to identify the similarities and differences in souvenir tourists' travel patterns between cultural backgrounds. The results of the study, as summarised and presented in Table 6.4, reveal a variation in travel patterns across cultural groups. With respect to tourist frequency of visit, the largest percentage of Indonesian tourists visited the destination more than five times (23.2%), while for the Asian and non-Asian tourists, the first time visit to the destination accounted for 12.3% and 13.9% respectively. Conversely, the smallest percentage frequency of visit to the destinations for the non-Asian tourists was four times (0.7%), while for the Asian it was five times (0.8%) and for the Indonesian it was first time (4%). The Chi-square tests revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in tourist frequency of visits between the cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 242.969$; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$.

Relating to tourist purpose of visit, the largest response was for vacation or leisure, which accounted for 57.6%, followed by shopping (12.9%), a combination business and leisure (10.8%), to visit friends and relatives (9.9%), business (6.1%) and cultural events (2.6%). Vacation or leisure was the major purpose of visiting for all three tourist groups and approximately 26.5% of Indonesian domestic tourists visited the destination for this purpose, while the Asian tourist group accounted for 15.2% and the non-Asian group for about 15.9%. Shopping was placed second by the Asian tourists as the purpose of visiting, accounting for about 3.8%, while 2.3% of the non-Asian tourists

placed shopping third, as did the Indonesian tourists (6.8%). The smallest percentage for Indonesian tourists was for business (1.5%), while for Asian tourists it was for visiting family, friends and relatives (VFR) at 0.5% and non-Asians, cultural events (0.2%). The Chi-square tests indicated that there were statistically significant differences in tourist purpose of visit between cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 47.327$; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$.

This finding is consistent with previous studies conducted by Kent et al. (1983) and Rosenbaum and Spears (2009) who noted that shopping is rarely stated as a primary reason for travel. However, Timothy and Butler (1995) and LeHew and Wesley (2007) argue that for some tourists shopping is the motivating force to travel. In this study about 12.9% of tourists mentioned that shopping was the primary motive to visit the destinations. The finding is also consistent with shopping tourism notions developed by Butler (1991), Timothy (2005) and Friedrich (2007), who contended that tourist shopping consists of tourists with shopping as their main reason for travelling and tourists with other primary motives for travelling, but who participate in shopping as a complementary activity.

Table 6.4 – Tourists' Travel Patterns

Travel patterns	Total No.	Total%	Cultural groups			χ^2	*Sig.*
			Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Freq. of visit (N=604)						242.969	0.000*
1 time	182	30.1	4	12.3	13.9		
2 times	127	21	6.6	6.1	8.3		
3 times	62	10.3	6.6	2.3	1.3		
4 times	47	7.8	5.6	1.5	0.7		
5 times	28	4.6	3.8	0.8	0		
More than 5 times	158	26.2	23.2	1.2	1.8		
Purpose of visit (N=604)						47.327	0.000*
Vacation/leisure	348	57.6	26.5	15.2	15.9		
Business	37	6.1	1.5	2.2	2.5		
Shopping	78	12.9	6.8	3.8	2.3		
VFR	60	9.9	8.1	0.5	1.3		
Cultural event	16	2.6	1.7	0.8	0.2		
Comb. business and leisure	65	10.8	5.3	1.7	3.8		

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

Table 6.4 - Tourists' Travel Patterns (continued)

| Travel patterns | Total No. | Total% | Cultural groups | | | χ^2 | *Sig.* |
			Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Travel mode (N=604)						30.324	0.000*
Fully package tour	66	10.9	3	4.1	3.8		
Arranged by company	42	7	3	2.3	1.7		
Independent travel	427	70.7	39.7	14.2	16.7		
Comb. Package tour and independent travel	57	9.4	3.1	2.8	3.5		
A partial packaged tour	12	2	1	0.7	0.3		
Travel companion (N=604)						12.249	0.057
Alone	111	18.4	8.6	4	5.8		
Tour	93	15.4	6.8	3.8	4.8		
Family and friends	351	58.1	31.3	14.6	12.3		
Spouse/partner	49	8.1	3.1	24.2	3.1		
Length of stay (N=604)						73.302	0.000*
1 – 3 days	287	47.5	28.8	11.1	7.6		
4 – 6 days	118	19.5	8.4	6.8	4.3		
1 week	111	18.4	8.3	4.3	5.8		
2 weeks	40	6.6	1.3	1.3	4		
3 weeks	12	2	0.7	0.2	1.2		
More than 3 weeks	36	6	2.3	0.5	3.1		
Accommodation used (N=604)						219.326	0.000*
Own house	22	3.6	2.8	0.2	0.7		
Hotel	301	49.8	13.4	20.5	15.9		
Youth hostel	13	2.2	0.8	0.7	0.7		
Guest house	46	7.6	1.7	1.5	4.5		
Self-catered	74	12.3	11.3	0.2	0.8		
With family and friends	148	24.5	19.9	1.2	3.5		
Tourism attractions visited (N=604)							
Museums	230	38.1	13.2	10.4	14.4	38.487	0.000*
Local events	143	23.7	8.9	5.5	9.3	18.069	0.000*
Historical places	269	44.5	19.5	11.4	13.6	7.667	0.022*
Natural attraction	398	65.9	39.4	10.8	16.7	46.596	0.000*
Festivals	99	16.4	5.6	3.1	7.6	26.007	0.000*
Cultural attraction	196	32.5	9.9	8.1	14.4	59.365	0.000*
Handicraft making	261	43.2	18.9	11.8	12.6	6.969	0.031*
Art galleries	221	36.6	11.6	10.3	14.7	52.572	0.000*
Art classes	43	7.1	1	2	4.1	30.633	0.000*
Other	14	2.3	1.5	0.3	0.5	1.295	0.523

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

In relation to tourists' travel mode, the results showed that approximately 39.7% of Indonesian tourists, 14.2% of Asian tourists and 16.7% of non-Asian tourists were independent travellers. Additionally, these three groups indicated the same least favoured travel mode, namely a partial packaged tour (0.3% of non-Asians, 0.7% of Asians and 1% of Indonesians). The Chi-square tests indicated that there was a significant difference in tourist travel mode between cultural groups [χ^2 = 30.324; p = 0.000] at $p < 0.05$.

The findings indicate that most tourists travelled with family and friends (12.3% of non-Asians, 14.6% of Asians and 31.3% of Indonesians). Only 4% of the Asian tourists travelled alone, while approximately 3.1% of both non-Asian and Indonesian tourists travelled with a spouse or partner. The Chi-square tests revealed that there was no significant difference in the tourist travel companion category between cultural groups [χ^2 = 12.249; p = 0.057] at $p < 0.05$.

The results reveal the many tourists stay within 1 to 3 days at their destination. The three cultural groups however differ in percentage: the Indonesian tourists account for 28.8%, the Asian tourists 11.1% and the non-Asian tourists 7.6%. The second largest group for the non-Asian tourists at 5.8% were those who stayed one week in the destination, while for both Asian and Indonesian tourists, 6.8% and 8.4% stayed within 4 to 6 days. Additionally, 3.1 % of the non-Asian tourists, 0.5% of the Asian tourists and 2.3% of the Indonesian domestic tourists stayed more than three weeks in the destination. The Chi-square tests showed that there was a statistically significant difference in tourist length of stay in the destination between cultural groups [χ^2 = 73.302; p = 0.000] at $p < 0.05$.

Regarding accommodation, the results showed that the most preferred accommodation chosen by tourists was hotels. Approximately 15.9% of the non-Asian tourists stayed in a hotel, compared to 20.5% of Asian tourists and 13.4% of Indonesian domestic tourists. Conversely, only 0.7% of the non-Asian tourists stayed in a youth hostel and their own house, 0.2% of the Asian tourists stayed in their own house and self-catered and 0.8% of the Indonesian domestic tourists stayed in a youth hostel. The Chi-square tests reveal

that there was a significant difference in type of accommodation between cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 219.326$; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$.

The findings on tourism attractions visited indicate that the five most visited tourism attractions were: natural attraction (65.9%), historical places (44.5%), handicraft making (43.2%), museums (38.1%) and art gallery (36.6%). For the Indonesian domestic tourists, the five most visited tourism attractions were: natural attractions (39.4%), historical places (19.5%), handicraft making (18.9%), museums (13.2%) and art galleries (11.6%). The Asian tourist group preferred handicraft making (11.8%), historical places (11.4%), natural attractions (10.8%), museums (10.4%) and art galleries (10.3%). The non-Asian tourists had a preference for natural attractions (16.7%), art galleries (14.7%), cultural attractions (14.4%), museums (14.4%) and historical places (13.6%). The results showed statistically significant differences for all tourism attractions, except for other attractions, which accounted for only 2.3%.

The results of souvenir tourists' travel patterns, as presented in Table 6.4, suggest that destination marketers need to combine shopping attractions with other tourism attractions, given that tourist visits were mainly for vacation or leisure purposes, accounting for about 57.6%. Combining visits to the five most visited tourism attractions with shopping opportunities would be suitable for this group of tourists. Destination marketers need to blend tourists' visitation to natural attractions, historical places, handicraft making, museums, and art galleries with the opportunity for shopping. This result is in line with the study conducted by Rabbiosi (2011) who observed that tour operators may offer tours that are aimed not strictly at visiting a place for its cultural, natural or anthropological sights but also for tourists' shopping needs.

Additionally, the combination of cultural and natural attractions with shopping activities can be adjusted across cultural groups based on their travel preferences. For the non-Asian tourists, a combination of visits to natural attractions, art galleries, cultural attractions, museums and historical places with shopping activities will be attractive. The Asian tourist group would be interested in the combination of handicraft making, historical places, natural attractions, museums and art galleries with shopping

opportunities. The Indonesian domestic tourists would be attracted to the combination of visits to natural attractions, historical places, handicraft making, museums and art galleries with opportunities for shopping. The combination of cultural and natural attractions with shopping is consistent with shopping tourism-related perspectives, based on studies conducted by Yu and Littrell (2003), Cole and Scott (2004), Littrell et al. (1994) and Moscardo (2004).

Mak et al. (1999) proposed that shopping tourism can be developed both as a single tourism attraction or/and as an attraction which complements other attractions in a package tour. Thus, destination marketers should target the 12.9% of tourists who select shopping as their main purpose of visiting destinations. This group of tourists might be offered cultural and natural attractions as part of their shopping experiences.

Destination marketers might also focus on the largest group in terms of travel patterns. For the Indonesian tourist group, a repeat visitor of more than five visits should be the target, while the first-time tourist should be the target in the Asian and non-Asian tourist groups, who visit for vacation or leisure purposes.

In summary, the findings discussed in this section indicate that souvenir tourists between cultural groups differed in terms of various travel patterns at statistically significant levels. The findings partially support hypothesis 1b, testing whether differences in travel patterns exist between tourists cultural groups.

6.2.3 Testing Hypothesis 1c: The Differences in Shopping Preferences between Cultural Groups

The first objective of this research was to ascertain the similarities and differences in shopping preferences of souvenir tourists between cultural groups. The findings, as presented in Table 6.5, indicate a variation in shopping preferences between cultural groups. With respect to souvenir categories, the five types that were most commonly purchased by tourists were clothing (58.9%), local speciality foods (57.6%), crafts

(41.7%), accessories (37.1%) and collectables (24.3%). Among 12 souvenir categories, six were found to differ at a statistically significant level between cultural groups.

This finding is consistent with research carried out by Timothy (2005), who found that clothing was one of the most purchased items by tourists. Heung and Qu (1998) also found that clothing and footwear were the most purchased items of tourists visiting Hong Kong. Additionally, Anderson and Littrell (1995) argued that textile crafts and apparel items constituted a substantial portion of products purchased by tourists.

Table 6.5 – Tourists' Shopping Preferences

| Shopping preferences | Total No. | Total% | Cultural groups | | | χ^2 | Sig. |
			Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Souvenir category (N=604)							
Accessories	224	37.1	18.4	9.3	9.4	0.148	0.929
Jewellery	105	17.4	7.1	5.5	4.8	4.910	0.086
Collectable	147	24.3	10.6	5.6	8.1	5.660	0.059
Stationaries	9	1.5	1	0.5	0	3.211	0.201
Arts, paintings	145	24	6	7.8	10.3	49.937	0.000*
Antiques	157	26	8.3	8.8	8.9	27.598	0.000*
Toys	28	4.6	1.7	0.7	2.3	8.872	0.012*
Local speciality foods	348	57.6	34.6	11.1	11.9	34.324	0.000*
Crafts	252	41.7	20.4	11.8	9.6	4.432	0.109
Clothing	356	58.9	34.3	12.9	11.8	26.062	0.000*
Books	60	9.9	2.5	3.1	4.3	17.498	0.000*
Postcards/booklets	62	10.3	0.5	4.6	5.1	55.981	0.000*
Most interesting souvenir type (N=604)						22.252	0.014*
Items to display	233	38.6	16.1	9.4	13.1		
Seasonal items	15	2.5	1	0.5	1		
Items to use in home	66	10.9	6	2.3	2.6		
Jewellery	16	2.6	1.3	1	0.3		
Clothing and accessories	266	44	24.5	10.9	8.6		
Toys/children's items	8	1.3	1	0	0.3		

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

Table 6.5 – Tourists' Shopping Preferences (continued)

Shopping preferences	Total No.	Total%	Cultural groups			χ^2	*Sig.*
			Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Most preferred material (N=604)						64.933	0.000*
Wood	118	19.5	8.1	5.5	6		
Glass	22	3.6	2	0.3	1.3		
Leather	69	11.4	5.3	4	2.2		
Natural materials	149	24.7	10.8	5	8.9		
Yarn or fibres	29	4.8	1.8	1.8	1.2		
Paint	9	1.5	0	0.7	0.8		
Fabric	140	23.2	16.4	4.6	2.2		
Clay	13	2.2	1.5	0	0.7		
Metal	55	9.1	4	2.3	2.8		
Souvenir purchase best describes (N=604)						17.795	0.007*
Purchase for myself	395	65.4	34.6	16.2	14.6		
Purchase as gifts for others	72	11.9	4.3	2.6	5		
Purchase on behalf of others	4	0.7	0.2	0	0.5		
All the above	133	22	10.8	5.3	6		
Main reason of buying souvenirs (N=604)						6.616	0.882
For fun	128	21.2	9.8	6	5.5		
For respect	82	13.6	6	3.3	4.3		
For self-fulfilment	65	10.8	6.1	2.3	2.3		
For prestige	50	8.3	4.8	1.8	1.7		
For belonging	42	7	3.6	1.3	2		
For accomplishment	33	5.5	2.5	1.3	1.7		
For friendship	204	33.8	17.1	8.1	8.6		
Perception of authentic souvenir (N=604)							
Connection to the past	67	11.1	3.1	3.5	4.5	14.511	0.001*
Locally made	154	25.5	8.8	7.1	9.6	21.891	0.000*
Uniqueness	240	39.7	19.4	8.9	11.4	1.719	0.423
Handmade	169	28	9.4	8.6	9.9	24.604	0.000*
Representation of local culture	216	35.8	17.1	8.6	10.1	.966	0.617
Aesthetics	136	22.5	10.6	5.5	6.5	0.758	0.685

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

Table 6.5 – Tourists' Shopping Preferences (continued)

Shopping preferences	Total No.	Total%	Cultural groups			χ^2	*Sig.*
			Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Shopping budget (N=604)						71.672	0.000*
Less than 50 $US	68	11.3	9.9	0.5	0.8		
51 $US - 100 $US	102	16.9	10.6	2.5	3.8		
101 $US - 150 $US	105	17.4	8.8	4.6	4		
151 $US - 200 $US	98	16.2	7.3	4.8	4.1		
More than 201 $US	231	38.2	13.2	11.8	13.2		
Time for shopping (N=604)						23.440	0.003*
Less than 1 hour	44	7.3	3	1.8	2.5		
1 – 3 hours	268	44.4	23.2	9.4	11.8		
4 – 6 hours	196	32.5	18.7	7.6	6.1		
7 – 9 hours	70	11.6	3.5	4.1	4		
More than 9 hours	26	4.3	1.5	1.2	1.7		
Shopping information (N=604)						173.104	0.000*
Travel magazine and guidebooks	105	17.4	2	7.3	8.1		
Recommended by friends	149	24.7	17.1	4.1	3.5		
Travel agent/tour operator/tour guide	60	9.9	1.8	4.5	3.6		
Local people	42	7	3.5	0.7	2.8		
Social media /Facebook/twitter	53	8.8	5.8	1.2	1.8		
Information at hotel	32	5.3	0.8	2	2.5		
Family and friends	156	25.8	18.5	4.3	3		
Other	7	1.2	0.3	0.2	0.7		

Source: Data Analysis 2014.

Tourists were most interested in clothing and accessories (44%), followed by items to display in the home (38.6%) and items to use in the home (10.9%). There was no statistically significant difference in types of souvenirs purchased between cultural groups.

A statistically significant difference existed in most preferred souvenir materials between cultural groups [x^2=64.933; $p = 0.000$] at $p < 0.05$. The non-Asian tourist preferred souvenirs made from natural materials (8.9%), metal (2.8%) and leather and fabric (2.2%), while the Asian tourists had a preference for souvenirs of wooden

materials (5.5%), fabric (4.6%) and metal (2.3%), and the Indonesian domestic tourists favoured souvenirs made from fabrics (16.4%), natural materials (10.8%) and wood (8.1%). The findings showed that among others, souvenirs made from fabric were most desired by the three cultural groups. This finding is consistent with the study by Hitchcock and Teague (2000), which observed groups of tourists visiting destinations because of a local textile production technique, such as batik or ikat. Anderson and Littrell (1995) also reported similar results.

Most tourists purchased souvenirs for themselves (65.4%), represented by 14.6% non-Asian, 16.2% Asian and 34.6% Indonesian domestic tourists. Tourists also bought souvenirs for gifts (11.9%), comprising 5% non-Asian, 2.6% Asian and 4.3% Indonesian domestic tourists. The Chi-square tests revealed that there were statistically significant difference between cultural groups [$\chi^2 = 17.795$; $p = 0.007$] at $p < 0.05$.

Table 6.5 shows that the most frequent reason given for tourists buying souvenirs was for friends (33.8%) and that included non-Asian tourists at 8.6%, Asian tourists at 8.1% and Indonesian domestic tourists at 17.1%. The other reasons for buying souvenirs were for fun (21.2%), for respect (13.6%), for self-fulfilment (10.8%), for prestige (8.3%), for belonging (7%) and for accomplishment (5.5%). There was no significant difference in the main reason for buying souvenirs between the three cultures.

In connection with authentic souvenirs, tourists across cultural groups indicated that authenticity was perceived as uniqueness for approximately 39.7%. An authentic souvenir for some tourists also meant representation of local culture (35.8%), handmade (25.5%), aesthetics (22.5%) and connection to the past (11.1%). There was no significant difference in three components of authentic souvenirs, namely uniqueness, representation of local culture and aesthetics. Conversely, three other components were statistically significantly different, that is connection to the past, locally made and handmade. These findings are in line with a study by Shanka, Setiyati and Taylor (2008), which found that tourists' perception of authentic souvenirs were more related to being handmade and unique. Their findings also showed that tourists placed

importance on authentic souvenirs as a representation of traditional culture, made in the local place, and with connections to the past (Shanka et al., 2008).

Table 6.5 highlights that there was a statistically significant difference in tourists' shopping budgets between cultural groups [χ^2 = 71.672; p = 0.000] at p < 0.05. Approximately 13.2% of both the non-Asian and the Indonesian domestic tourists allocated more than $US201 for a shopping budget, while 11.8% of Asian tourists allocated this amount. About 9.9% of Indonesian domestic tourists had a shopping budget of less than $US50, while 0.5% of Asian tourists and 0.8% of non-Asian tourists allocated this amount. This finding indicates that shopping tourism expenditure, particularly on souvenirs, is economically important for many souvenir retailers.

With respect to tourists' time for shopping, the three tourist groups demonstrated differences. One to three hours was mostly how long tourists from the three cultural groups spent shopping - Indonesian domestic tourists (23.2%), Asian tourists (9.4%) and non-Asian tourists (11.8%). Only 1.2% of the Asian tourists shopped for more than nine hours, while 1.5% of Indonesian domestic tourists and 1.7% of non-Asian tourists did so. Additionally, 2.5% of the non-Asian tourists shopped less than one hour, as did 3% of the Indonesian domestic tourists and 1.8% of the Asian tourists. The Chi-square tests indicated that there was a significant difference in time spent for shopping between cultural groups [χ^2 = 23.440; p = 0.000] at p < 0.05. The finding differs from a study by Keown (1989), which found that the largest time spent for shopping was 5-8 hours.

Table 6.5 indicates that tourists attained shopping information from various sources. Most of the Indonesian domestic tourists acquired information from family and friends (18.5%), while the non-Asian tourists did so from travel magazines and guidebooks (8.1%), as well as the Asian tourists (7.3%). The second important source of shopping information for the non-Asian and Asian tourists was from travel agents or tour operators, at approximately 3.6% and 4.5% respectively, while the Indonesian domestic tourists sought recommendations from friends (17.1%). Social media, such as Facebook or Twitter, was least utilised by the non-Asian and the Asian cultural groups, accounting for only 1.8% and 1.2% respectively, while the Indonesian domestic tourists least

utilised information from hotels (0.8%). The Chi-square tests showed that there was a statistically significant difference in shopping information used between cultural groups [χ^2 = 173.104; p = 0.000] at $p < 0.05$.

The results on shopping information suggest that tourists across cultural backgrounds use different sources of shopping information in destinations. This finding is in agreement with that of Osti et al. (2009), which found that a dissimilar attitude towards information seeking was demonstrated by tourists from non-Asian and Asian cultures. The finding also supports the study by Chiang et al. (2012), which found that different information searching was evident between the three cultural groups of Japanese, English and Chinese speaking tourists in the Meeting Incentive Conference and Exhibition (MICE) tourism context. This finding implies that destination marketers need to provide different information searching facilities to cater to souvenir shopping tourists' personal needs.

6.2.3.1 The Differences in Souvenir Criteria between Cultural Groups

MANOVA was used to identify the differences in shopping preferences between cultural groups. The souvenir criteria consisted of 13 items which were expected to be interrelated. However, discussing each variable was not reasonable; reducing the number of variables by finding common factors was more realistic. Thus, a series of PCAs with Varimax rotation were performed to identify the underlying dimensions of souvenir criteria. The results are shown in Table 6.6. The assumption of factorability was supported by Bartlett's test of sphericity showing that the overall correlation matrix was significant at p = 0.000. The KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy was at 0.814. This measure is above the acceptable value of 0.50 thus the tests indicate that the factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 6.6 - Factor Analysis Results for Souvenir Criteria

Factors and indicators	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Design		
Appealing design	0.796	
High quality workmanship or technique	0.754	
Clever idea	0.715	
Unique or one-of-a-kind	0.710	
Price		
Price not expensive		0.814
Makes a good gift		0.782
Can be displayed in the home		0.711
Eigenvalue	3.408	1.057
Variance explained %	47.187	14.570
Cumulative variance explained %		61.757
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.776	0.717

The results shown in Table 6.6 indicate that two factor solutions were obtained from the factor analysis with factor loadings greater than 0.60 and Eigenvalues greater than one. Some items that double-load and items below 0.60 were excluded. The factor explaining the largest variance was named *design,* consisting of four variables. This factor explains 47.18% of the variance. Tourists emphasised *design* factors when selecting souvenirs. The souvenir's design should be appealing in the eyes of customers. This factor includes *appealing design* and *high quality of workmanship or technique*. The souvenir's design should also reflect uniqueness and a clever idea.

The second factor, labelled *price*, covers three variables. This factor explains 14.57% of the variance. The price factors are *inexpensive price*, *makes a good fit* and *souvenirs can be displayed in home*. Both factors explain 61.75% of the total variance. These two new factors were reliable with Cronbach's alpha of 0.776 for design and 0.717 for price.

Following the MANOVA procedures, as discussed in section 5.7.3, the multivariate test for homogeneity of variance-covariance of the dependent variables was detected by performing Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. The Levene's Test was conducted to examine the homogeneity of error variances on each independent variable across each dependent variable. The Box's M Test shows a value at $p = 0.001$ and the Levene's Test shows a value of $p = 0.016$ for *design* and $p = 0.905$ for *price* variable.

A MANOVA was performed based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc tests to identify the exact group means which significantly differ from each other. The results of MANOVA, as illustrated in Table 6.7, show that statistically significant differences existed across cultural groups in relation to *design* and *price* variables as indicated by the multivariate significance of Wilks' lambda = 0.947; F value = 8.301; and *p* = 0.000.

Table 6.7 - MANOVA Results for Souvenir Criteria

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Multivariate Significance Test
Cultural Groups	Design	18.152	2	9.076	11.575	0.000	Wilks' lambda = 0.947; F value = 8.301, and *p* = 0.000.
	Price	5.833	2	2.916	3.768	0.024	

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, as presented in Table 6.8, show that significant differences occurred across tourist groups in relation to the *design* and *price* factors. In *design*, the Indonesian tourist group significantly differed from the non-Asian group ($p < 0.000$, mean difference 0.403 on the 7 point scale). The Asian tourist group also significantly differed from the non-Asian group ($p < 0.000$, mean difference 0.378), while there was no difference between the Indonesian and the Asian tourist group. This finding supports the notion that tourists across cultures have different preferences, as echoed by a number of scholars, such as Kotler and Keller (2009), Park (2000), Reisinger (2009a), Schiffman and Kanuk (2009), Solomon (2011) and Tosun et al. (2007).

Table 6.8 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Souvenir Criteria

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Design	Indonesian	5.60	Asian	0.025	0.089	0.777
			Non-Asian	0.403	0.087	0.000*
	Asian	5.57	Indonesian	-0.025	0.089	0.777
			Non-Asian	0.378	0.102	0.000*
	Non-Asian	5.19	Indonesian	-0.403	0.087	0.000
			Asian	-0.378	0.102	0.000*
Price	Indonesian	5.67	Asian	0.221	0.089	0.013*
			Non-Asian	0.166	0.087	0.056
	Asian	5.45	Indonesian	-0.221	0.089	0.013*
			Non-Asian	-0.056	0.101	0.581
	Non-Asian	5.50	Indonesian	-0.166	0.087	0.056
			Asian	0.056	0.101	0.581

*Note: significant at $p<0.05$.

In relation to *price* factors, the Indonesian tourist group was significantly different from the Asian tourist group ($p< 0.013$, mean difference = 0.221) and there was no significant difference from the non-Asian tourist group, while the Asian tourist group did not differ from the non-Asian tourist group. This finding is interesting as the Indonesian and the Asian tourist group demonstrated differences in relation to *price* factors, when they are culturally similar in terms of their collectivist orientation, while there was no difference between the Indonesian and the non-Asian, and the Asian and the non-Asian tourist group. These findings imply that even within the collectivist oriented group, there is a possibility to perceive things differently, including price factors.

6.2.3.2 The Differences in Souvenir Features across Cultural Groups

A series of PCAs were also performed to identity the underlying dimensions of souvenir features. As shown in Table 6.9, two factor solutions were made with total variance explained at 56.35%. The first factor, labelled *authenticity*, consists of five variables and explains 44.85% of the variance with Cronbach's alpha at 0.782. Authenticity is an important attribute of souvenirs for tourists. A study by Tosun et al. (2007) found that the authenticity of the product was the first factor considered by tourists looking for souvenirs. Similarly, Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) also reported that the most important factor in tourist shopping is the authenticity of souvenir products. Souvenirs'

authenticity in this study consists of *reflection of cultural values*, *high quality of souvenir products* and *innovativeness*.

Table 6.9 - Factor Analysis Results for Souvenir Features

Factors and indicators	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Authenticity		
Reflect cultural values	0.784	
Authentic	0.695	
High quality	0.692	
Inexpensive	0.650	
Innovative	0.641	
Attractiveness		
Mark of place		0.787
Attractive colour		0.726
Attractive design		0.716
Easy to care for		0.704
Eigenvalue	3.892	1.013
Variance explained %	44.854	11.499
Cumulative variance explained %		56.353
Cronbach's alpha (α)	0.782	0.774

The second factor identified was labelled *attractiveness*, which comprises four variables and explains 11.44% of the variance with Cronbach's alpha at 0.774. This attribute consists of *mark of the place*, *attractive colour*, *attractive design* and *easy to care for*. The attractiveness of souvenirs is important to induce tourists to buy, in addition to the authenticity of souvenirs. This finding supports the argument echoed by Swanson and Horridge (2004) and Swanson (2004) that attractiveness is one important attribute that influences tourists' evaluations in buying souvenirs. The attractiveness is not limited to the attribute of the souvenirs themselves, but includes how retailers put the souvenirs on display, as noted by Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) who advocated that tourists were more willing to spend money on souvenirs or special gifts if displays were of high quality, imaginative, and attractive.

The Bartlett's test of sphericity showed that the overall correlation matrix was significant at $p = 0.000$. Additionally, the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy was at 0.849, which is above the acceptable value of 0.50.

The Box's M Test shows a value at $p = 0.010$ and the Levene's Test shows a value of $p = 0.010$ for *authenticity* and $p = 0.009$ for *attractiveness*. A MANOVA was performed based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc tests to identify the significant differences among cultural groups. The results presented in Table 6.10 indicate that statistically significant differences occurred across cultural groups in relation to *authenticity* and *attractiveness*, indicated by Wilks' lambda = 0.946; *F* value = 8.516; and $p = 0.000$.

Table 6.10 - MANOVA Results for Souvenir Features

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Multivariate Significance Test
Cultural Groups	Authenticity	2.229	2	1.115	1.819	0.163	Wilks' lambda = 0.946; F value = 8.516, and $p = 0.000$.
	Attractiveness	16.455	2	8.227	12.329	0.000	

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, as illustrated in Table 6.11, reveal significant differences across tourist groups in relation to *attractiveness*, while there is no difference across groups in relation to *authenticity*. In connection to the *attractiveness* factors, the non-Asian tourists statistically significantly differed from the Indonesian and the Asian tourist group respectively ($p< 0.000$, mean difference = 0.396 on the 7-point scale and $p< 0.001$, mean difference = 0.307). There were no differences between the Asian and the Indonesian tourists with respect to *attractiveness*. This finding implies that tourists across groups have no differences in perceiving the authenticity of the souvenirs in Indonesian markets, while tourists' perceptions differ in relation to souvenir attractiveness. This might explain the fact that authenticity is an important souvenir feature sought by customers, while attractiveness attributes are more personal.

Table 6.11 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Souvenir Features

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Authenticity	Indonesian	5.71	Asian	0.141	0.079	0.074
			Non-Asian	0.094	0.077	0.222
	Asian	5.57	Indonesian	-0.141	0.079	0.074
			Non-Asian	-0.047	0.090	0.603
	Non-Asian	5.61	Indonesian	-0.094	0.077	0.222
			Asian	0.047	0.090	0.603
Attractiveness	Indonesian	5.73	Asian	0.089	0.082	0.281
			Non-Asian	0.396	0.080	0.000*
	Asian	5.54	Indonesian	-0.089	0.082	0.281
			Non-Asian	0.307	0.094	0.001*
	Non-Asian	5.33	Indonesian	-0.396	0.080	0.000*
			Asian	-0.307	0.094	0.001*

*Note: significant at $p<0.05$.

The findings for souvenir authenticity support a study conducted by Tosun et al. (2007), which found that the authenticity of the product was the first factor considered by tourists looking for souvenirs. Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) also argued that the most important factor in tourist shopping is the authenticity of souvenir products. The findings also show that attractiveness was the second most important factor in tourist purchasing decisions when buying souvenirs. Swanson and Horridge (2004) argued that *portability*, *fragility* and *authenticity* were also important attributes influencing souvenir purchasing decisions.

In summary, the findings indicate that souvenir tourists across cultural groups differ in various shopping preferences. The items which are statistically significantly different include: *souvenir category*, *most interesting souvenir*, *most preferred materials*, *best description of souvenir purchase*, *half of listed item chosen on authentic souvenir perception*, *shopping budget*, *time for shopping* and *information about shopping*. Additionally, EFA and MANOVA indicated that tourists across cultural groups also showed differences in souvenir criteria and souvenir features. The findings in this section partially support hypothesis 1c about the difference in shopping preferences across souvenir shopping tourist groups.

6.2.4 Summary of Testing Hypotheses 1a - 1c

The results of testing hypotheses 1a - 1c are summarised in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 - Summary of the Hypotheses Testing 1a - 1b

Hypothesis	Result
H1a: There are statistically significant differences in demographics between three souvenir tourist shopping groups.	Partially supported
H1b: There are statistically significant differences in shopping preferences between three souvenir tourist shopping groups.	Partially supported
H1c: There are statistically significant differences in travel patterns between three souvenir tourist shopping groups.	Partially supported

6.3 The Differences in Travel Motivation and other Behavioural Constructs

The second objective of this study, as outlined in Chapter 1, was to determine the differences in push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir shopping tourists across cultural groups. To achieve this objective, a series of EFA was performed to identify the underlying dimension of the constructs under investigation. The results of the EFA were used for further analysis of the different constructs across cultural groups. In this respect, the MANOVA was performed to determine the difference in the constructs across cultural groups and to test hypotheses 2a - 2e as set out in Chapter 4. Additionally, the EFA results were also used as the CFA in a two-stage SEM. The subsequent sections present the results and discussion in relation to the second objective of this study.

6.3.1 Testing Hypothesis 2a: The Differences in Push Motivation Factors between Three Cultural Groups

A series of EFA were performed in SPSS to identify the underlying dimension of push motivation factors. All 23 items under the push motivation construct were entered for

the EFA. The appropriateness of factor analysis was assessed by examining the correlation matrix, KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity.

The results in Table 6.13 show that the assumption of factorability was supported by the Bartlett's test of sphericity, showing that the overall correlation matrix was significant at $p = 0.000$. This value is an acceptable value of Bartlett's test of sphericity at $p < 0.05$, thus the factorability was assumed (Pallant, 2011). The KMO test was at 0.886, which was above the acceptable value of 0.60 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The tests indicate that the factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 6.13 - EFA Results of Souvenir Tourists' Push Motivation Factors

Code	Factors and indicators	Factor loadings		
		1	2	3
	Shopping			
Push7	To buy antiques.	0.871		
Push6	To buy items representative of the destination.	0.809		
Push8	To buy published material on the destination.	0.797		
Push3	To buy non-regional arts and crafts.	0.792		
Push5	To buy items to add to a collection.	0.769		
Push2	To buy regional speciality arts and crafts.	0.747		
	Vacation			
Push17	To have fun.		0.790	
Push16	To appreciate different cultures and lifestyles.		0.750	
Push15	To escape from the routine.		0.749	
Push13	To enjoy a vacation.		0.728	
Push18	To do different things.		0.723	
	Adventure			
Push22	To experience physical challenges.			0.867
Push23	To take part in adventuresome activities.			0.850
Push21	To pursue a hobby.			0.692
Eigenvalue		6.424	2.228	1.175
Variance explained %		29.778	23.104	17.315
Cumulative variance explained %				70.196
Cronbach's alpha		0.909	0.849	0.881

Three factor solutions were obtained from the factor analysis with factor loadings greater than 0.60 (Hair et al. 2010) and Eigenvalues greater than one. Some items that double-load into more than two factors and items below 0.60 were excluded. The factor explaining the largest variance (Shopping) consisted of six variables (Push7, Push6,

Push8, Push3, Push5 and Push2). This factor explains 29.778% of the variance. The second factor, labelled Vacation covered five variables (Push17, Push16, Push15, Push13 and Push18). This factor explains 23.104% of the variance. The third factor (Adventure) consisted of three items (Push22, Push23 and Push21). This factor explains 17.315% of the variance. Thus, all factors together explain 70.196% of the total variance. The Cronbach alpha ranged from 0.881 to 0.909, which is greater than the acceptable value of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Thus all dimensions indicate unidimensionality and appropriate scale reliability.

The results suggest that souvenir shopping tourists were motivated to visit destinations in Indonesia to satisfy three needs: shopping, vacation and adventure. Shopping motivation factors were *buying antiques*, *shopping for items representative of the destination*, *buying non-regional arts and crafts* and *buying regional speciality arts and crafts*. In addition to shopping, vacation was also an internal motivation for souvenir shopping tourists in visiting destinations. Tourists visited destinations *to enjoy a vacation*, *to have fun*, *to learn different cultures and lifestyles*, *to escape their routine* and *to do different things*. The results also suggest that souvenir tourists tend to visit destinations for adventure, which could be part of their hobbies such as *taking a physical challenge experience* and *adventuresome activities*.

The findings are in agreement with a study conducted by Kinley et al. (2003), which found three clusters of push-motivators: shopping tourists, experiential tourists and passive tourists. The shopping tourists displayed high mean scores on shopping-related motivations, which is similar to the current finding. The experiential tourists placed greater importance on entertainment-related motivations including *to enjoy a vacation*, and *to treat myself*.

To see the difference in souvenir shopping tourists' push motivation factors across cultural groups, a MANOVA was performed based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc test to identify the group means which significantly differ from each other. Shopping tourist groups serve as the independent variables, while *shopping*, *vacation* and *adventure* serve as the dependent variables. The Box's M Test shows a value at $p = 0.001$ and the

Levene's Test reveals a value of $p = 0.000$ for *shopping*, $p = 0.924$ for *vacation* and $p = 0.367$ for *adventure*. The MANOVA results, as shown in Table 6.14, indicate statistically significant differences across cultural groups in relation to *shopping*, *vacation* and *adventure,* as indicated by Wilks' lambda = 0.945; F value = 5.740; and $p = 0.000$. The results fully support hypothesis 2a: there are statistically significant differences in push motivation across cultural groups.

Table 6.14 - MANOVA Results for Push Motivation

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Multivariate Significance Test
Cultural Groups	Shopping	17.035	2	8.518	6.685	0.001	Wilks' lambda = 0.945; F value = 5.740, and $p = 0.000$.
	Vacation	1.311	2	0.655	1.167	0.312	
	Adventure	2.316	2	1.158	.988	0.373	

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, as presented in Table 6.15, show significant differences across tourist groups in relation to shopping factors while showing no difference in *vacation* and *adventure*. In shopping factors, the non-Asian tourist group showed significant differences to the Indonesian and the Asian groups ($p = 0.000$, mean difference = 0.397 on the 7-point scale and $p = 0.008$, mean difference = 0.343 respectively). Additionally, the Asian group showed no differences to their Indonesian counterparts. This result implies that the Asian and Indonesian tourists are more similar in shopping variables than their non-Asian counterparts, while the three groups of tourists demonstrated similarities or no differences in *vacation* and *adventure*.

The results also suggest that cultural differences account for dissimilarities but also similarities in relation to tourists' internal motivation (push motivation). The individualist and collectivist oriented souvenir shopping tourists showed differences and similarities in their psychological push motivation. They showed different *shopping* motivation, but had similar motivations for *vacation* and *adventure*, which push them to the destination. The individualist oriented tourists differed in *shopping* factors to the collectivist oriented souvenir tourists. However, these two cultural orientations showed no difference in *vacation* and *adventure* factors of push motivation, while the collectivist oriented tourists (Indonesian and Asian) showed no difference in the three factors of push motivation (*shopping, vacation and adventure*).

Table 6.15 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Push Motivation

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Shopping	Indonesian	5.113	Asian	0.055	0.114	0.631
			Non-Asian	0.397*	0.111	0.000*
	Asian	5.058	Indonesian	-0.055	0.114	0.631
			Non-Asian	0.343*	0.130	0.008
	Non-Asian	4.715	Indonesian	-0.397*	0.111	0.000*
			Asian	-0.343*	0.130	0.008*
Vacation	Indonesian	5.623	Asian	0.012	0.076	0.871
			Non-Asian	-0.102	0.074	0.169
	Asian	5.611	Indonesian	-0.012	0.076	0.871
			Non-Asian	-0.114	0.086	0.187
	Non-Asian	5.725	Indonesian	0.102	0.074	0.169
			Asian	0.114	0.086	0.187
Adventure	Indonesian	5.049	Asian	0.019	0.109	0.862
			Non-Asian	-0.134	0.107	0.209
	Asian	5.030	Indonesian	-0.019	0.109	0.862
			Non-Asian	-0.153	0.124	0.220
	Non-Asian	5.183	Indonesian	0.134	0.107	0.209
			Asian	0.153	0.124	0.220

*Note: significant at $p < 0.05$.

In summary, the findings presented in this section indicate that souvenir tourists across cultural groups differed in various push motivation variables. Thus, hypothesis 2a is supported by the data.

6.3.2 Testing Hypothesis 2b: The Differences in Pull Motivation Factors between Three Cultural Groups

To identify the underlying factors of this construct, all 24 items were administered for an EFA. The results, as shown in Table 6.16, highlight that the assumption of factorability is supported by Bartlett's test of sphericity showing that the overall correlation matrix is significant at $p = 0.000$. This value is a satisfactory value for Bartlett's test of sphericity at $p < 0.05$, thus the factorability is assumed (Pallant, 2011). The KMO test showed a value of 0.873, which is above the acceptable value of 0.60 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The results reveal that the factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 6.16 - EFA Results of Souvenir Tourists' Pull Motivation Factors

Code	Factors and indicators	Factor loadings	
		1	2
	Interesting Town		
Pull13	Interesting town.	0.816	
Pull5	Attractive store decor.	0.792	
Pull12	Friendly local people.	0.784	
Pull8	Relaxing atmosphere.	0.763	
Pull24	Many interesting places to visit.	0.717	
Pull9	Natural environment.	0.709	
	Entertainment and Scenery		
Pull16	Nightlife and entertainment.		0.797
Pull6	Favourable weather.		0.760
Pull7	Beautiful Scenery.		0.735
Pull10	Different ethnic groups.		0.718
Eigenvalue		4.950	1.395
Variance explained %		37.246	26.199
Cumulative variance explained %			63.444
Cronbach's alpha		0.886	0.791

Two factor solutions were obtained using factor analysis with factor loadings greater than 0.50 and Eigenvalues greater than one. The factor explaining the largest variance - *interesting town* - consisted of six variables (Pull13, Pull5, Pull12, Pull8, Pull24 and Pull9). This factor explains 37.246% of the variance. The second factor - labelled *entertainment and scenery* - covered four variables (Pull16, Pull6, Pull7 and Pull10). This factor explained 26.199% of the variance. Cronbach's alpha was 0.886 and 0.791 - greater than the acceptable value of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Thus all factors showed unidimensionality and appropriate scale reliability.

The results suggest that souvenir tourists were attracted to visiting Indonesia by two pull factors of destination attributes: *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery*. The *interesting town* factor comprises such indicators as *relaxing atmosphere*, *natural environment*, *interesting places to visit* and *friendly local people*. The *entertainment and scenery* dimension covered *nightlife and entertainment*, *favourable weather*, *beautiful scenery* and *different ethnic groups*. This finding implies that souvenir tourists were attracted to the destination not only for the opportunity to do shopping, but also to *enjoy natural environment*, *beautiful scenery* and for *entertainment*. Thus, destination

marketers would benefit from combining these pull motivation factors to satisfy souvenir shopping tourists.

A MANOVA was performed to identify the difference in pull motivation across tourist groups. Shopping tourist groups served as the independent variable, while the *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery* variables served as the dependent variable. Similar to the previous process, the MANOVA was carried out based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc tests to identify the exact group means that significantly differ from each other. The Box's M Test shows a value at $p = 0.504$ and the Levene's Test indicates a value of $p = 0.835$ for *interesting town* and $p = 0.860$ for the *entertainment and scenery* variable. The results of MANOVA, as presented in Table 6.17, indicate statistically significant differences between cultural groups in relation to the *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery* variables (Wilks' lambda = 0.983; F value = 2.635; and $p = 0.033$). The results provide full support for hypothesis 2b, on the difference in pull motivations between cultural groups of souvenir shopping tourists.

Table 6.17 - MANOVA Results for Pull Motivation Factors

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Multivariate Significance Test
Cultural Groups	Interesting Town	3.287	2	1.644	3.843	0.022	Wilks' lambda = 0.983; F value = 2.635, and $p = 0.033$.
	Entertainment and Scenery	3.025	2	1.512	2.504	0.983	

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, presented in Table 6.18, show the significant differences across tourist groups in relation to *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery*. In the *interesting town* factor, the Asian tourist group showed significant differences to the Indonesia group ($p = 0.010$, mean difference = 0.171) but no difference to their non-Asian counterparts and no difference between the Indonesian and non-Asian tourist groups. Additionally, in the *entertainment and scenery* factor, the Asian tourist group showed significant differences to the Indonesian tourist group ($p = 0.029$, mean difference = 0.172) and no difference to their non-Asian counterparts. There was also no significant difference between the Indonesian and non-Asian tourist groups.

This result implies that tourists across cultural groups were pulled to the destination by different motivation factors. The two factors (*interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery*) were perceived differently by the three tourist groups. The Indonesian tourist group demonstrated a difference in the *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery* variables to the Asian tourist groups, while no significant difference was found between the Asian and non-Asian and the Indonesian and non-Asian tourist groups in relation to these two factors. This finding is interesting as the souvenir shopping tourists from the same collectivist orientations (Indonesian and Asian tourist groups) showed a difference in pull motivation factors, while the Asian and non-Asian tourist groups with different cultural orientations (collectivism and individualism), showed no difference in pull motivation factors. The findings on pull motivation factors suggest that the *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery* factors consist of attributes that attract souvenir shopping tourists to the destination. In other words, souvenir shopping tourists are pulled to the destination by two characteristics of the destination: *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery*.

Table 6.18 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Pull Motivation

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Interesting Town	Indonesian	5.907	Asian	0.171*	0.066	0.010*
			Non-Asian	0.116	0.064	0.072
	Asian	5.736	Indonesian	-0.171*	0.066	0.010*
			Non-Asian	-0.055	0.075	0.468
	Non-Asian	5.791	Indonesian	-0.116	0.064	0.072
			Asian	0.055	0.075	0.468
Entertainment and Scenery	Indonesian	5.640	Asian	0.172*	0.078	0.029*
			Non-Asian	0.025	0.077	0.745
	Asian	5.467	Indonesian	-0.172*	0.078	0.029*
			Non-Asian	-0.147	0.089	0.100
	Non-Asian	5.615	Indonesian	-0.025	0.077	0.745
			Asian	0.147	0.089	0.100

*Note: significant at $p<0.05$.

In summary, the results presented and discussed in this section indicate that souvenir tourists across cultural groups differ across various pull motivation variables. Thus, the findings support hypothesis 2b.

6.3.3 Testing Hypothesis 2c: The Differences in Experience Quality between Three Cultural Groups

The EFA of this construct involved 16 items. The results in Table 6.19 represent the Bartlett's test of sphericity showing that the overall correlation matrix was significant at $p = 0.000$. This value is an acceptable value of Bartlett's test of sphericity at $p < 0.05$, thus the factorability was assumed (Pallant, 2011). The KMO test provided a value of 0.891, which is above the acceptable value of 0.60 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The tests indicated that the factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 6.19 - EFA Results of Souvenir Tourists' Experience Quality

Code	Factors and indicators	Factor loadings	
		1	2
	Novelty		
Exp6	It was my once-in-a-life experience.	0.856	
Exp8	It was different from previous experience.	0.854	
Exp9	I had really experienced something new.	0.829	
Exp7	The experience was unique.	0.825	
	Enjoyable		
Exp15	The experience was relaxing.		0.846
Exp16	The shopping experience meant a lot to me.		0.795
Exp14	My experience was pleasant.		0.754
Exp13	The shopping experience was more attractive than I thought.		0.750
Eigenvalue		5.009	1.061
Variance explained %		40.327	35.553
Cumulative variance explained %			75.880
Cronbach's alpha		0.915	0.863

Two factors solutions were obtained from the factor analysis with factor loadings greater than 0.60 and Eigenvalues greater than one. The factor explaining the largest variance was *novelty*, which consisted of four variables (Exp6, Exp8, Exp9 and Exp7). This factor explains 40.327% of the variance. The second factor was *enjoyable,* which covered four variables (Exp15, Exp16, Exp14 and Exp13). This factor explains 35.553% of the variance. Cronbach's alpha was 0.915 and 0.863, which are above the acceptable value of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Thus all dimensions reveal unidimensionality and appropriate scale reliability.

The results suggest that souvenir shopping tourists searched for *novelty* and *enjoyable* experiences when visiting destinations in Indonesia. *Novelty* included *once-in-a life experience*, *new experience* and *unique experience*. The *enjoyable* experience, according to souvenir tourists, covered *relaxing experience*, *pleasant experience* and *attractive experience*. The results imply that destination marketers would benefit from providing souvenir shopping tourists with tourism experiences that create and enhance novelty and enjoyable experience.

A MANOVA was performed to identify the difference in experience quality across tourist groups. The three tourist groups serve as the independent variable, while *novelty* and *enjoyable* variables serve as the dependent variable. The Box's M Test shows a value at $p = 0.001$ and the Levene's Test indicates a value of $p = 0.307$ for *novelty* and $p = 0.009$ for *enjoyable*. Similar to the previous process, the MANOVA was carried out based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc tests to identify the exact group means that significantly differ from each other. The results of MANOVA, as presented in Table 6.20, indicate statistically significant differences between cultural groups in relation to *novelty* and *enjoyable* (Wilks' lambda = 0.927; F value = 11.604; and $p = 0.000$). These results indicate that hypothesis 2c is fully supported by the data.

Table 6.20 - MANOVA Results for Experience Quality Factors

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Multivariate Significance Test
Cultural Groups	Novelty	3.928	2	1.964	2.255	0.106	Wilks' lambda = 0.927; F value = 11.604, and $p = 0.000$.
	Enjoyable	7.755	2	3.878	6.392	0.002	

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, as presented in Table 6.21, show significant difference across tourist groups in relation to *novelty* and *enjoyable*. With regard to *enjoyable*, the non-Asian tourist group showed significant difference to the Indonesia group ($p = 0.000$, mean difference = 0.270) and no difference to their Asian counterparts, while there was no difference between the Indonesian and Asian tourist groups. The three cultural groups showed no significant difference in *novelty*. This result implies that tourists between cultural groups did not have a different experience in

relation to the novelty aspects of the destination, while they are different in enjoying the destination experience. The difference in the enjoyable experience existed between the non-Asian tourists and Indonesian tourists. The findings support hypothesis 2c.

Table 6.21 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Experience Quality

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Novelty	Indonesian	5.261	Asian	-0.152	0.094	0.107
			Non-Asian	-0.169	0.092	0.066
	Asian	5.413	Indonesian	0.152	0.094	0.107
			Non-Asian	-0.017	0.107	0.872
	Non-Asian	5.430	Indonesian	0.169	0.092	0.066
			Asian	0.017	0.107	0.872
Enjoyable	Indonesian	5.622	Asian	0.138	0.079	0.081
			Non-Asian	0.270*	0.077	0.000*
	Asian	5.485	Indonesian	-0.138	0.079	0.081
			Non-Asian	0.133	0.090	0.139
	Non-Asian	5.352	Indonesian	-0.270*	0.077	0.000*
			Asian	-0.133	0.090	0.139

*Note: significant at $p<0.05$.

In summary, the results presented and discussed in this section indicate that souvenir tourists between cultural groups differ across various experience quality variables. Thus, hypothesis 2c is supported by the findings.

6.3.4 Testing Hypothesis 2d: The Differences in Satisfaction between Three Cultural Groups

All 17 items under this construct were processed for an EFA to identify the underlying factors. The results, as shown in Table 6.22, indicated that the Bartlett's test of sphericity overall correlation matrix was significant at $p = 0.000$, which is an adequate value at $p< 0.05$, thus the factorability was assumed (Pallant, 2011). The KMO test provided a value of 0.926, which is above the acceptable value of 0.60 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The results reveal that the factor analysis was appropriate.

172

Table 6.22 - EFA Results of Souvenir Tourists' Satisfaction

Code	Factors and indicator	Factors loadings		
		1	2	3
	Tourist Information			
Sat6	Tourist information is readily available.	0.792		
Sat8	There is good value for money overall.	0.784		
Sat7	There is a good range of quality shops.	0.745		
Sat5	Shops have good opening times.	0.726		
Sat12	Nightlife and entertainment are available.	0.680		
	Shopping Activities			
Sat16	Overall, I am satisfied with shopping activities.		0.822	
Sat17	Overall, I am satisfied with the environment the destination provided.		0.808	
Sat14	Overall, I am satisfied with local food offered.		0.767	
Sat15	Overall, I am satisfied with services provided.		0.738	
	Safe and Secure Destination			
Sat2	Destination is safe and secure.			0.841
Sat3	It is a city of tolerance of other cultures.			0.786
Sat1	Destination is a very interesting city.			0.685
Eigenvalue		6.506	1.176	1.016
Variance explained %		27.621	25.652	19.213
Cumulative variance explained %				72.486
Cronbach's alpha		0.876	0.889	0.826

Three factor solutions were obtained from the factor analysis with factor loadings greater than 0.60 and Eigenvalues greater than one. Some items that double-load and items below 0.50 were excluded. The most important factor is *tourist information* with five variables (Sat6, Sat8, Sat7, Sat5 and Sat12) and explaining 27.621% of the variance, followed by *shopping activities* with four variables (Sat16, Sat17, Sat14 and Sat15), explaining 25.652% of the variance. The last factor is *safe and secure destination* with four variables (Sat2, Sat3 and Sat1), explaining 19.213% of the variance. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.826 to 0.889, which is greater than the acceptable value of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Thus all factors indicate unidimensionality and appropriate scale reliability.

The results indicate that souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction was formed by three factors: *tourist information*, *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination*. The availability of tourist information in the destinations certainly enhanced souvenir tourist' satisfaction as indicated by the largest explained variance of this factor. The tourist information factors for souvenir shopping tourists included *readily available*

tourist information, *good value for money*, *good range of quality shops* and *shops have good opening times*. The results also show that *shopping activities* in the destinations was a key satisfaction factor for souvenir shopping tourists. This factor consists of *satisfaction with shopping activities*, *satisfaction with the environment in the destination, satisfaction with local food* and *satisfaction with services provided*. The last factor that contributed to souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction was *safe and secure destination*. Souvenir shopping tourists were satisfied when the destinations visited provided them with a safe and secure environment. They were also satisfied if the destinations represented an *interesting city* as well as *tolerance for different cultures*. This result implies that, to create souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction, destination marketers should provide tourists with complete facilities related to tourism information that support tourists' shopping activities in a safe and secure environment.

To see the difference in souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction factors across cultural groups, a MANOVA was performed, based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc test, to identify the group means which significantly differed from each other. Shopping tourist groups serve as the independent variable, while *tourist information*, *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination* serve as the dependent variable. The Box's M Test shows a value at $p = 0.001$ and the Levene's Test shows a value of $p = 0.267$ for *tourist information*, $p = 0.204$ for *shopping activities* and $p = 0.003$ for *safe and secure destination*. The results of MANOVA, as shown in Table 6.23, indicate statistically significant differences between cultural groups in relation to *tourist information*, *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination* with Wilks' lambda = 0.968; F value = 3.286; and $p = 0.003$. The results fully support hypothesis 2d that differences exist in satisfaction between three cultural groups of souvenir shopping tourists.

Table 6.23 - MANOVA Results for Satisfaction

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Multivariate Significance Test
Cultural Groups	Tourist Information	2.777	2	1.389	2.140	0.119	Wilks' lambda = 0.968; F value = 3.286, and $p = 0.003$.
	Shopping Activities	6.202	2	3.101	5.886	0.003	
	Safe and Secure Destination	6.322	2	3.161	2.195	0.112	

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, as presented in Table 6.24, show significant differences across the tourist groups in relation to *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination*, with no difference in the *tourist information* variables across the three cultural groups of tourists. In *shopping activities*, the Indonesian tourist group showed significant differences to the Asian group ($p = 0.001$, mean difference = 0.247 on the 7-point scale), while the Asian group showed no different to the non-Asian tourist group. With regard to the *safe and secure destination* factor, the Asian tourist group showed significant differences to their non-Asian counterparts ($p = 0.041$, mean difference = 0.283), while there was difference between the Asian and Indonesian tourist groups, and between the Indonesian and the non-Asian. The results suggest that *tourist information* appears to be an important factor but there was no difference between the three cultural groups.

Table 6.24 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Satisfaction

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Tourist Information	Indonesian	5.482	Asian	0.155	0.081	0.057
			Non-Asian	0.110	0.079	0.164
	Asian	5.327	Indonesian	-0.155	0.081	0.057
			Non-Asian	-0.045	0.093	0.631
	Non-Asian	5.372	Indonesian	-0.110	0.079	0.164
			Asian	0.045	0.093	0.631
Shopping Activities	Indonesian	5.716	Asian	0.247*	0.073	0.001*
			Non-Asian	0.124	0.071	0.084
	Asian	5.469	Indonesian	-0.247*	0.073	0.001*
			Non-Asian	-0.123	0.083	0.140
	Non-Asian	5.592	Indonesian	-0.124	0.071	0.084
			Asian	0.123	0.083	0.140
Safe and Secure Destination	Indonesian	4.869	Asian	-0.103	0.121	0.394
			Non-Asian	0.179	0.118	0.130
	Asian	4.973	Indonesian	0.103	0.121	0.394
			Non-Asian	0.283*	0.138	0.041*
	Non-Asian	4.690	Indonesian	-0.179	0.118	0.130
			Asian	-0.283*	0.138	0.041*

*Note: significant at $p < 0.05$.

In summary, the results presented and discussed in this section indicate that souvenir tourists across cultural groups differ across various satisfaction variables. The results support hypothesis 2d.

6.3.5 Testing Hypothesis 2e: The Differences in Behavioural Intention

To identify the underlying factors of this construct, all five items were entered in an EFA. The results, as shown in Table 6.25, reveal that the assumption of factorability was supported by the Bartlett's test of sphericity showing that the overall correlation matrix was significant at $p = 0.000$, an acceptable value of Bartlett's test of sphericity at $p < 0.05$, thus the factorability was assumed (Pallant, 2011). The KMO test produced a value of 0.785, which is above the acceptable value of 0.60 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The tests indicated that the factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 6.25 - EFA Results of Souvenir Tourists' Behavioural Intention

Code	Factors and indicator	Factors loadings
	Revisit Intention	
BeInt3	Visit the destination again in the future.	0.827
BeInt2	Encourage friends and relatives to visit the destination.	0.824
BeInt1	Say positive things about the destination to others.	0.809
BeInt4	Visit the destination as my first choice next leisure holiday.	0.788
BeInt5	Visit the destination again for shopping.	0.776
Eigenvalue		3.239
Variance explained %		64.788
Cumulative variance explained %		64.788
Cronbach's alpha		0.859

One factor solution was obtained from factor analysis with factor loadings greater than 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010) and Eigenvalues greater than one. The factor consists of five variables (BeInt3, BeInt2, BeInt1, BeInt4 and BeInt5). This factor explains 64.788% of the variance. Cronbach's alpha is at 0.859, which is greater than the acceptable value of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, all factors show unidimensionality and appropriate scale reliability.

The results indicate that souvenir shopping tourists expressed their willingness to revisit destinations in Indonesia. They were also willing to encourage friends and relatives to visit the destinations. Souvenir shopping tourists intended to spread positive word-of-mouth to others and placed the destinations as the first priority to visit in the future for shopping.

To see the difference in souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction factors across cultural groups, an ANOVA was performed based on the Tukey HSD post-hoc test to identify the group means which significantly differ from each other (see Table 6.26). Shopping tourist groups serve as the independent variable, while behavioural intention variables serve as the dependent variable. The results of the ANOVA indicate statistically significant differences across cultural groups in relation to the behavioural intention variable (F ratio has a p value = 0.007) and the Levene's Test indicates Sig. = 0.165. The results provide full support for hypothesis 2e, on the differences in behavioural intentions across cultural groups of souvenir shopping tourists.

Table 6.26 - Tukey HSD Post-hoc Test Results for Behavioural Intention

Dependent Variable	Cultural Groups (I)	Mean	Cultural Groups (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
Behavioural Intention	Indonesian	5.692	Asian	0.218*	0.072	0.008*
			Non-Asian	0.129	0.070	0.157
	Asian	5.474	Indonesian	-0.218*	0.072	0.008*
			Non-Asian	-0.088	0.082	0.535
	Non-Asian	5.562	Indonesian	-0.129	0.070	0.157
			Asian	0.088	0.082	0.535

Note: significant at $p < 0.05$.

The results indicate that the Indonesian tourist group differed from their non-Asian counterparts in terms of the behavioural intention factor, while there was no difference between the Indonesian and the Asian tourist group or between the Asian and the non-Asian tourist groups. This result implies that the non-Asian and Asian tourist groups had a similar view toward the behavioural intention factor. Thus, hypothesis 2e is supported by the data.

6.3.6 Summary of Testing the Hypotheses 2a - 2e

The results of testing hypotheses 2a - 2e are summarised in Table 6.27.

Table 6.27 - Summary of the Hypotheses Testing 2a - 2e

Hypothesis	Result
H2a: There are statistically significant differences in push motivations between the three cultural groups of Asian, non-Asian and Indonesian souvenir shopping tourists.	Fully supported
H2b: There are statistically significant differences in pull motivations between the three cultural groups of Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian souvenir shopping tourists.	Fully supported
H2c: There are statistically significant differences in tourists' experience quality between the three cultural groups of Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian souvenir shopping tourists.	Fully supported
H2d: There are statistically significant differences in tourists' satisfaction between the three cultural groups of Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian souvenir shopping tourists.	Fully supported
H2e: There are statistically significant differences in tourists' behavioural intention between the three cultural groups of Indonesian, Asian and non-Asian souvenir shopping tourists.	Fully supported

6.4 Souvenir Tourists' Future Visitations

This study also investigated souvenir tourists' intentions regarding future visits to the destinations, this providing first-hand information to the destination marketers about future visits of this tourism niche. The results, as revealed in Table 6.28, indicate that 98% of souvenir tourists considered revisiting the destinations in the future, consisting of approximately 49% the Indonesian domestic tourists, 23.84% of Asian and 25% of non-Asian tourists. Nearly half of the Indonesian domestic tourists considered revisiting the destinations this year (44%) or next year (43%). The largest group of Asian tourists were willing to revisit the destinations in the next two years (33.6%) and next year (26.7%), while the non-Asian tourist group planned to return to the destination next year (32.5%) and in the next two years (16.6%).

This result indicates that most of the tourists across cultures are willing to return to the destinations, implying that their recent visit to the destination had been satisfying.

Table 6.28–Differences in Future Visitation between Three Cultural Groups

Future visit	Total %	Cultural groups					
		Indonesian		Asian		Non-Asian	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Consider revisiting the destination (N=604)							
Yes	98.01	296	49.01	144	23.84	152	25.17
No	1.99	5	.83	2	.33	5	.83
Time to visit the destination (N=592)							
This year	25.84	133	44.2	12	8.2	8	5.1
Next year	37.16	130	43.2	39	26.7	51	32.5
Next two years	15.88	19	6.3	49	33.6	26	16.6
Next three years	9.12	7	2.3	24	16.4	23	14.6
More than three years	11.9	7	2.3	20	13.7	44	28.0

Souvenir tourists from the three different cultural groups also expressed their choices about the tourist attractions that they would visit in the future. The descriptive statistics of the tourism attractions for future visits are summarised and presented in Table 6.29, covering the means and average of tourists' choice of tourist attractions for future visitation, as well as the standard deviation and means rank (indicating level of importance).

Table 6.29-Differences in Future Behavioural Intention between Three Cultural Groups

Tourist attractions	Cultural groups								
	Indonesian			Asian			Non-Asian		
	Means	Std. Dev	Rank	Means	Std. Dev	Rank	Means	Std. Dev	Rank
Natural attractions	5.85	0.886	1	5.80	0.907	2	5.94	0.949	1
Local souvenir markets	5.82	0.848	2	5.57	0.961	6	5.37	1.267	7
Handicraft making	5.78	0.872	3	5.71	0.872	3	5.52	1.041	6
Historical sites	5.74	0.921	4	5.67	1.031	4	5.89	1.025	2
Local distribution outlets	5.64	0.979	5	5.50	0.904	7	5.33	1.298	8
Cultural education	5.57	0.901	6	5.49	0.991	8	5.57	1.189	5
Cultural performances	5.56	1.004	7	5.88	0.854	1	5.85	0.890	3
Local events	5.55	1.053	8	5.60	0.883	5	5.68	0.962	4

For the Indonesian domestic tourists, three attractions for future visitation were *natural attractions* (5.85), *local souvenir markets* (5.82) and *handicraft making* (5.78). These three tourism attractions had the highest means score and relatively low standard deviation, ranging from 0.848 to 0.886. The Asian souvenir tourists placed the highest mean score for future visitation on *cultural performances* (5.88), while *natural attractions* (5.80) and *handicraft making* (5.71) ranked second and third respectively. These three items had standard deviations ranging from 0.854 to 0.872. The non-Asian cultural group ranked *natural attractions* (5.94) as the highest mean score for future visits, while visits to *historical sites* (5.89) and *cultural performances* (5.85) ranked second and third, with standard deviations ranging from 0.890 to 1.025.

The results indicate that tourists placed importance on *natural attractions* and *cultural performances*, with the highest mean score. This result is consistent with the purpose of tourists' recent visit to the destination for vacation and leisure, and is in line with the data published by the Indonesian Statistical Bureau (2012) that tourists visit Indonesia mostly for cultural and natural attractions.

This finding suggest that destination marketers would benefit from improving tourist attractions which have low mean scores, such as local events and cultural education, by developing relevant marketing strategies. Additionally, destination marketers would benefit from maintaining and sustaining the tourist attractions selected by tourists as the three top high mean scores - natural attraction, cultural performance and handicraft making. This can be achieved through better tourism management and better quality of services. One important means through which to attract tourists to visit and revisit is by building the competitive image of the destination through branding. The results and discussion around this issue are presented in the following section.

6.5 Destination Images

This study posed three questions asking tourists about their images of the destination with the purpose of using their visiting experiences as a basis for developing appropriate branding strategies. The results of this exploration are presented in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30 – Differences in Destination Images between Three Cultural Groups

Branding components	Total No.	Cultural groups			χ^2	*Sig.*
		Indonesian (%)	Asian (%)	Non-Asian (%)		
Most positive image (N=604)					131.101	0.000*
Convenience	78	11.4	0.8	0.7		
Cleanliness	22	2.5	0.3	0.8		
Good place for shopping	123	12.3	5.1	3		
Cultured city	192	7.9	11.1	12.7		
Friendliness of local people	75	4.1	2.6	5.6		
Natural attractions	68	6.3	2.6	2.3		
Inexpensive quality goods and food	46	5.3	1.5	.8		
Most unique feature of the destination (N=604)					61.100	0.000*
Historical and heritage sites	143	8.3	7.8	7.6		
Local shopping markets	126	13.1	4.6	3.1		
Natural landscape	79	7.8	2.6	2.6		
Cultural attractions	127	8.1	4.8	8.1		
Local culinary experience	85	10.3	2	1.8		
Traditional arts	44	2.3	2.3	2.6		
Most memorable shopping experience (N=604)					62.167	0.000*
Shopping for local souvenirs	169	7.9	9.3	10.8		
Enjoy local food specialties	176	17.2	3.3	8.6		
Many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices	259	24.7	11.6	6.6		

Tourists across the three cultural groups showed statistically different perceptions of the positive image of the destinations, indicated by the Chi-square value [χ^2 = 131.101; *p* = 0.000]. The Indonesian tourist group perceived the three most positive images of the destinations as: *good place for shopping* (12.3%), *convenience* (11.4%), and *cultured city* (7.9%). For the Asian cultural group of souvenir tourists, the three most positive images of the destinations visited were perceived as: *cultured city* (11.1%), *good place for shopping* (5.1%), and both *friendliness of local people* and *natural attractions* (both

at 2.6%). For the non-Asian group, the three most positive images of the destinations were: *cultured city* (12.7%), *friendliness of local people* (5.6%) and *natural attractions* (2.3%).

In connection to the most unique feature of the destinations, significant differences existed between the cultural groups, shown by the Chi-square value [χ^2 = 61.100; p = 0.000]. For the non-Asian tourist group, *cultural attractions* (8.1%), *historical and heritage sites* (7.6%) and both *natural landscape* and *traditional arts* (both at 2.6%) were the most unique features of the destinations. The Asian group observed that *historical and heritage sites* (7.8%), *cultural attractions* (4.8%) and *local shopping markets* (4.6%) were the three most unique features of the destinations. *Local shopping markets* (13.1%), *local culinary experience* (10.3%) and *historical and heritage sites* (8.3%) were the three most unique features of the destinations perceived by Indonesian domestic tourists.

The last question related to the most memorable shopping experience, which resulted in significant differences between the cultural groups [χ^2 = 62.167; p = 0.000]. For the Asian group, *many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices* (11.6%) and *shopping for local souvenirs* (7.9%) were the two most memorable experiences. The non-Asian souvenir tourists found that *shopping for local souvenirs* (10.8%) and *local food specialties* (8.6%) were the most unforgettable experiences. The Indonesian domestic tourists observed that *many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices* (24.7%) and *local food specialties* (17.2%) were the two most notable experiences.

The results suggest that destination marketers would benefit from combining branding components into one strong brand to accommodate the tourists' views. Based on the findings, the branding components should include a *cultured city* and *historical and heritage sites* and would likely be welcomed by non-Asian and Asian tourists. For the Indonesian tourist group, *good place for shopping* related branding would be attractive. Attributes such as *many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices*, *shopping for local souvenirs* and *local food specialties* could also be promoted, given the importance these factors were given by all three cultural groups.

6.6 Testing the Measurement Model: The First Stage of SEM

The third objective of this study, outlined in Chapter 1, was to examine the relationship between travel motivation and behavioural constructs of experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. To achieve this objective, a two-stage of SEM was used to identify the relationship between variables and to test hypotheses 3 - 11, as set out in Chapter 4. The subsequent sections present the results and discussion in relation to the measurement model in the first stage of SEM.

6.6.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The results of the EFA of constructs, as presented in sections 6.3.1 - 6.3.5, were used for the CFA through a one-factor congeneric model. This was designed to confirm the unidimensionality of the latent variables and to establish the quality of the measuring instruments prior to conducting the structural model analysis. A one-factor congeneric model indicates the regression of a set of observed variables on a latent variable. The GOF of a one-factor congeneric model is also viewed as a confirmatory test of the content validity of the factor (Hair et al., 2010). The model developed in this study was assessed based on the GOF indices as presented in Table 5.1, Section 5.7.6. Referring to the result of the EFA in sections 6.3.1 - 6.3.5, this study examined 11 latent variables for the CFA one-factor congeneric: *shopping, vacation, adventure, interesting town, entertainment and scenery, novelty, enjoyable, tourism information, shopping activities, safe and secure destination* and *behavioural intention*. The subsequent section presents the results of the CFA one-factor congeneric models for each latent variable.

6.6.1.1 Confirmation of the Push Motivation Construct

A three-factor solution of the push motivation construct was obtained from the EFA results consisting of *shopping*, *vacation* and *adventure*. This section confirms each of these factors.

The *shopping* factor was measured by six indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the *shopping* model was not fit as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 24.380$, $p = 0.004$, $\chi^2/df. = 2.709$, GFI = 0.976, TLI = 0.973, CFI = 0.984, RMSEA = 0.074 and SRMR = 0.0253.

An assessment of the modification indices revealed that one item (Push3) was accountable for the model misfit. The improvement of the model can be carried out by eliminating the problematic item if justified by the modification indices (Byrne, 2010; Chin, Peterson and Brown, 2008; Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). Hair et al. (2010, p. 713) suggested 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 Push3 resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 7.057$, $p = 0.216$, $\chi^2/df = 1.411$, GFI = 0.991, TLI = 0.994, CFI = 0.997, RMSEA = 0.036 and SRMR = 0.0153. Figure 6.1 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Figure 6.1 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Shopping

The *vacation* factor was measured by five indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the *vacation* model was not specified appropriately as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 22.761$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df. = 4.552$, GFI = 0.971, TLI = 0.933, CFI = 0.967, RMSEA = 0.107 and SRMR = 0.0393.

An examination of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Push13 and Push18 items were accountable for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Push13 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010).

The deletion of Push13 resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 4.322$, $p = 0.115$, $\chi^2/df = 2.161$, GFI = 0.993, TLI = 0.982, CFI = 0.994, RMSEA = 0.061 and SRMR = 0.0190. Figure 6.2 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Figure 6.2 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Vacation

The *adventure* factor was measured by three indicators based on the EFA. Byrne (2010) advocated that in the case of a one-factor congeneric containing only three items, a pair of parameters have to be constrained in order to identify the model. The critical ratio for differences (CRDIFF) was used to determine which parameters to constrain. This method generates a table of critical ratios for the pairwise parameters estimates. Any pairs of parameters with CRDIFF values less than two may be equally constrained to identify the model (Byrne, 2010). The items associated with Push22 and Push23 (CRDIFF = -.639, see Table 1, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 4.585$, $p = 0.032$, $\chi^2/df = 4.585$, GFI = 0.990, TLI = 0.976, CFI = 0.992, RMSEA = 0.108 and

SRMR = 0.0150. Figure 6.3 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Figure 6.3 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Adventure

6.6.1.2 Confirmation of the Pull Motivation Construct

A two-factor solution of the pull motivation construct was obtained from the EFA results, consisting of *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery*. This section confirms each of these factors.

The *interesting town* (INT_TOWN) factor was measured by six indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the *interesting town* model was misfit as shown by the fit indices χ^2 = 74.079, p = 0.000, χ^2/df. = 8.231, GFI = 0.925, TLI = 0.870, CFI = 0.922, RMSEA = 0.153 and SRMR = 0.0562.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Pull13 and Pull12 items were accountable for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Pull12 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010). The removal of Pull12 item did not result in a good fit of the data.

Further inspection and the same procedure was carried out and removal of Pull5 resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, χ^2= 2.621, p = 0.270, χ^2/df. = 1.311, GFI = 0.996, TLI = 0.996, CFI = 0.999, RMSEA = 0.032 and SRMR = 0.0157. Figure 6.4

shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Figure 6.4 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Interesting Town

The *entertainment and scenery* (ENT_SCEN) factor was measured by four indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the ENT_SCEN model was not specified appropriately as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 20.667$, $p = 0.000$, χ^2/df. = 10.334, GFI = 0.967, TLI = 0.821, CFI = 0.940, RMSEA = 0.174 and SRMR = 0.0536.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Pull10 and Pull16 items were accountable for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Pull16 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010).

The elimination of Pull16 resulted in three indicators. Thus, a pair of parameters has to be constrained in order to identify the model. CRDIFF indicated that Pull7 and Pull10 have values below 2. The items associated with Pull7 and Pull10 (CRDIFF = -1.531, see Table 2, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 2.397$, $p = 0.122$, χ^2/df = 2.397, GFI = 0.995, TLI = 0.978, CFI = 0.993, RMSEA = 0.067 and SRMR = 0.0252. Figure 6.5 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
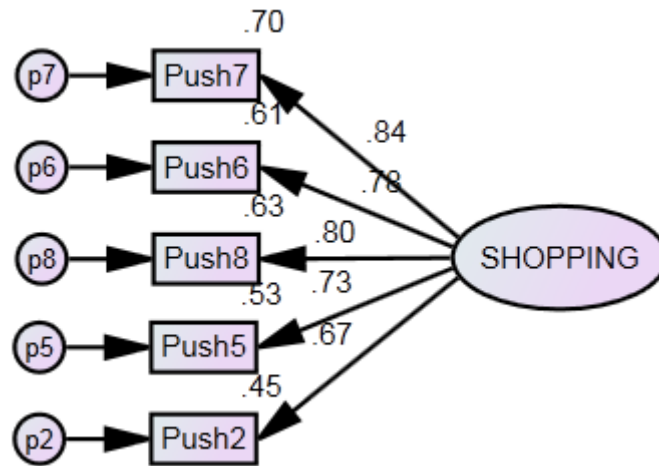
Figure 6.5 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Entertainment and Scenery

6.6.1.3 Confirmation of the Experience Quality Construct

A two-factor solution of the experience quality construct was obtained from the EFA results that consisted of *novelty* and *enjoyable*. This section confirms each of these factors.

The *novelty* factor was measured by four indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicates that the *novelty* model was misfit as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 23.686$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 11.843$, GFI = 0.966, TLI = 0.896, CFI = 0.965, RMSEA = 0.187 and SRMR = 0.0308.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Exp7 and Exp9 items accounted for the model misspecification. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010). The covariance line was added to link between Exp7 and Exp9 items and resulted in a good fit of the data, $\chi^2 = 1.643$, $p = 0.200$, $\chi^2/df = 1.643$, GFI = 0.997, TLI = 0.994, CFI = 0.999, RMSEA = 0.046 and SRMR = 0.0099. Figure 6.6 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
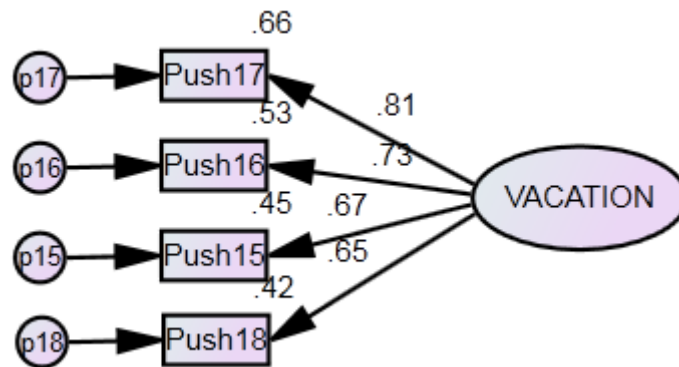
Figure 6.6 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Novelty

The *enjoyable* factor was measured by four indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the *enjoyable* model was not fit as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 57.289$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 28.645$, GFI = 0.922, TLI = 0.649, CFI = 0.883, RMSEA = 0.299 and SRMR = 0.0673.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Exp13 and Exp16 items accounted for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Exp13 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010).

The removal of Exp13 resulted in three indicators. Thus, a pair of parameters has to be constrained in order to identify the model. CRDIFF indicated that Exp16 and Exp14 have values below 2. The items associated with Exp16 and Exp14 (CRDIFF = 1.196, see Table 3, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 1.437$, $p = 0.231$, $\chi^2/df = 1.437$, GFI = 0.997, TLI = 0.996, CFI = 0.999, RMSEA = 0.038 and SRMR = 0.0132. Figure 6.7 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
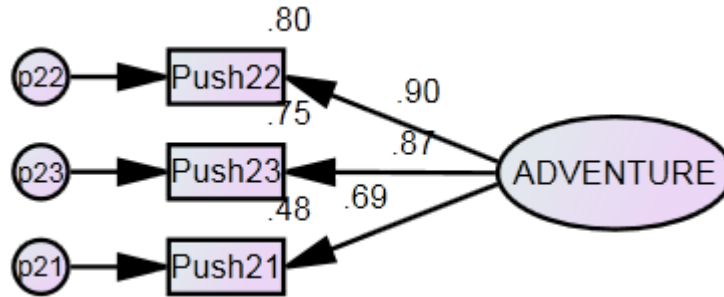
Figure 6.7 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Enjoyable

6.6.1.4 Confirmation of the Satisfaction Construct

A three-factor solution of the satisfaction construct was obtained from the EFA results that consisted of *tourist information*, *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination*. This section confirms each of these factors.

The *tourist information* (TOUR_INFO) factor was measured by five indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the *tourist information* model was not specified appropriately as shown by the fit indices $\chi^2 = 35.202$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 7.040$, GFI = 0.956, TLI = 0.908, CFI = 0.954, RMSEA = 0.140 and SRMR = 0.0383.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Sat7 and Sat8 items accounted for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Sat7 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010).

The removal of Sat7 did not result in good indices. The above procedure was repeated and the removal of Sat12 item resulted in three indicators. Thus, a pair of parameters has to be constrained in order to identify the model. CRDIFF indicated that Sat6 and Sat8 have values below 2. The items associated with Sat6 and Sat8 (CRDIFF = -1.364, see Table 4, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 1.886$, $p = 0.170$,

χ^2/df = 1.886, GFI = 0.996, TLI = 0.990, CFI = 0.997, RMSEA = 0.053 and SRMR = 0.0154. Figure 6.8 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
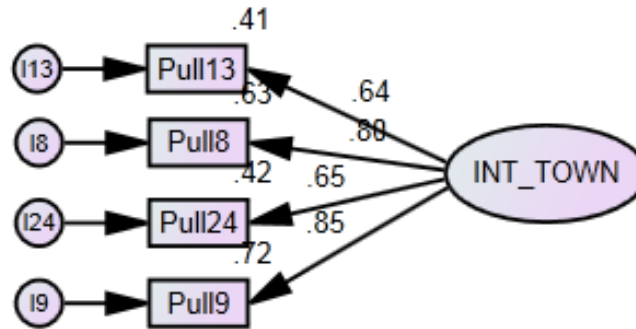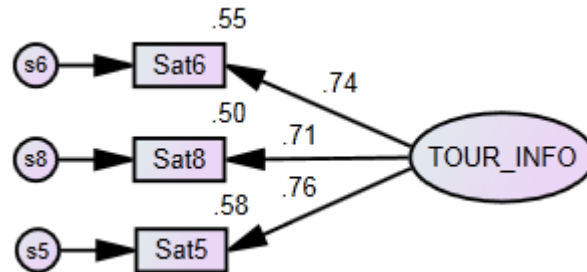

Figure 6.8 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Tourism Info

The *shopping activities* (SHOP_ACT) factor was measured by four indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the SHOP_ACT model was not specified appropriately as shown by the fit indices χ^2 = 14.770, p = 0.001, χ^2/df = 7.385, GFI = 0.975, TLI = 0.939, CFI = 0.980, RMSEA = 0.144 and SRMR = 0.0260.

An assessment of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Sat17 and Sat16 items were responsible for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Sat16 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010).

The removal of Sat16 resulted in three indicators. Thus, a pair of parameters has to be constrained in order to identify the model. CRDIFF indicated that Sat17 and Sat14 have values below 2. The items associated with Exp16 and Exp14 (CRDIFF = 1.207, see Table 5, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, χ^2 = 1.455, p =0 .228, χ^2/df = 1.455, GFI = 0.997, TLI = 0.996, CFI = 0.999, RMSEA = 0.038 and SRMR = 0.0097. Figure 6.9 indicates that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
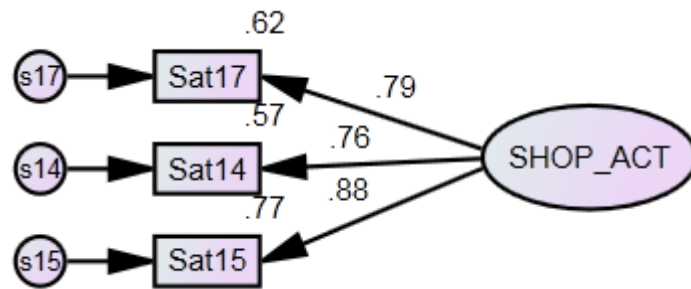
Figure 6.9 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Shopping Activities

The *safe and secure destination* (SAFE_SEC) factor was measured by three indicators based on the EFA. A pair of parameters has to be constrained in order to identify the model (Byrne, 2010). The critical ratio for differences (CRDIFF) was used to determine which parameters to constrain. This method generates a table of critical ratios for the pairwise parameters estimates. Any pairs of parameters with CRDIFF values less than 2 may be equally constrained to identify the model (Byrne, 2010). The items associated with Sat2 and Sat1 (CRDIFF = 1.516, see Table 6, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, $\chi^2 = 0.195$, $p = 0.659$, $\chi^2/df = 0.195$, GFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.007, CFI = 1.007, RMSEA = 0.000 and SRMR = 0.0041. Figure 6.10 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
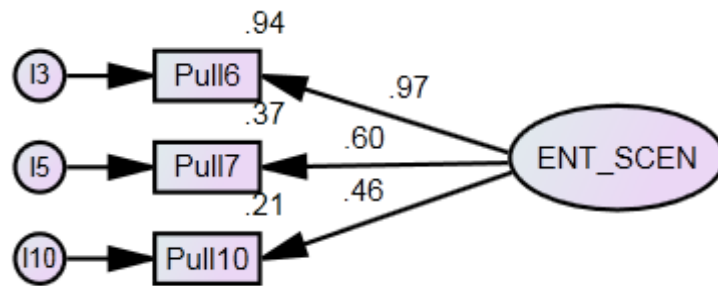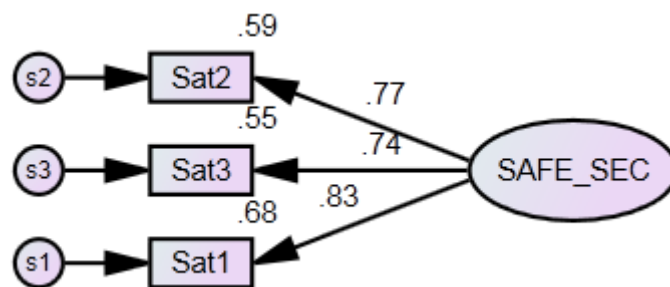

Figure 6.10 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Safe and Secure Destination

6.6.1.5 Confirmation of the Behavioural Intention Construct

A one-factor solution of the behavioural intention construct was obtained from the EFA results. This section confirms the factor.

193

The *behavioural intention* (BHV_INT) factor was measured by five indicators based on the EFA. The initial one-factor congeneric model indicated that the *behavioural intention* model was not specified appropriately as shown by the fit indices χ^2 = 115.586, p = 0.000, χ^2/df. = 23.117, GFI = 0.867, TLI = 0.696, CFI = 0.848, RMSEA = 0.267 and SRMR = 0.0842.

An inspection of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Bint5 and Bint4 items were responsible for the model misspecification. An inspection on the standardised residual covariance table shows that Bint5 item contributed to the highest value covariance error. This high measurement error covariance represents an overlap in items content (Byrne, 2010).

The removal of BInt5 did not result in good indices. The procedure was repeated and the removal of BInt4 item resulted in three indicators. Thus, a pair of parameters has to be constrained in order to identify the model. CRDIFF indicated that BInt1 and BInt2 have values below 2. The items associated with Sat6 and Sat8 (CRDIFF = -.968, see Table 7, Appendix F) should be equally constrained to allow the model to be identified. This resulted in a good fit of the data to the model, χ^2 = 4.447, p = 0.035, χ^2/df = 4.447, GFI = 0.991, TLI = 0.974, CFI = 0.991, RMSEA = 0.105 and SRMR = 0.0164. Figure 6.11 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).
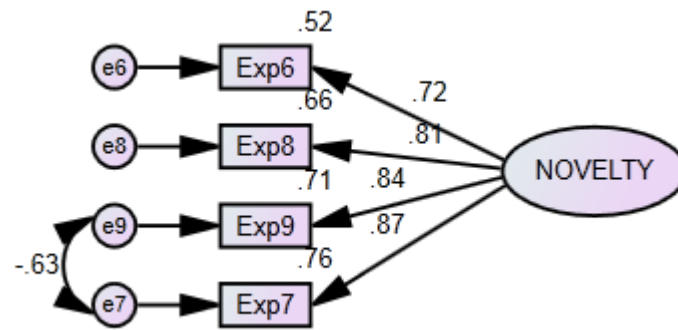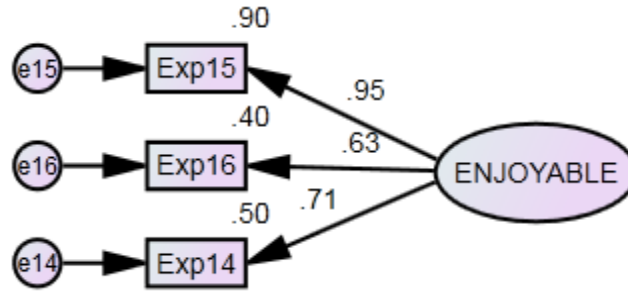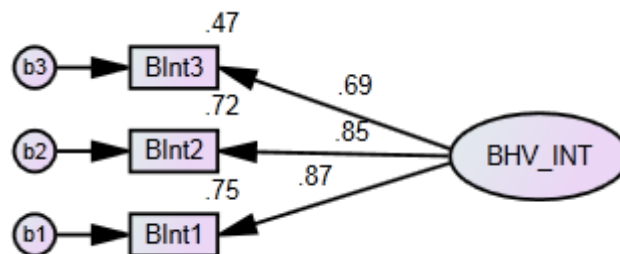

Figure 6.11 - One-factor Congeneric Model for Behavioural Intention

6.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of the Measurement Model

Byrne (2010) explained that the purpose of the CFA measurement model is three-fold: first, to assess whether the latent variable resulting from the one-factor congeneric model has adequately described the sample data; second, to ensure that there is no significant cross loading on other factors; and third, to simultaneously evaluate the construct validity and reliability for the final measured items as a whole model.

The CFA measurement model in this study focused on the 11 latent variables that resulted from the one-factor congeneric model. As illustrated in Figure 6.12, the 11 latent variables were allowed to co-vary and are represented by a curved, two-headed arrow linking each construct to all other constructs. Parameter estimation and a range of model fit indices were computed through a maximum likelihood estimation approach.

The CFA revealed a reasonably fit of the data to the model as indicated by $\chi^2 = 1384.846$, $p = 0.000$, χ^2/df. = 2.144, GFI = 0.811, TLI = 0.887, CFI = 0.902, RMSEA = 0.061 and SRMR = 0.0616. An examination of the modification indices revealed that high covariance between the measurement errors of Push8, Push5, Ent10, and Exp16 items were responsible for the model misfit. The deletion of those items resulted in better GOF indices as indicated by $\chi^2 = 863.413$, $p = 0.030$, χ^2/df. = 1.833, GFI = 0.945, TLI = 0.986, CFI = 0.990, RMSEA = 0.027 and SRMR = 0.0282. Figure 6.12 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the minimum acceptable value of 0.40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).
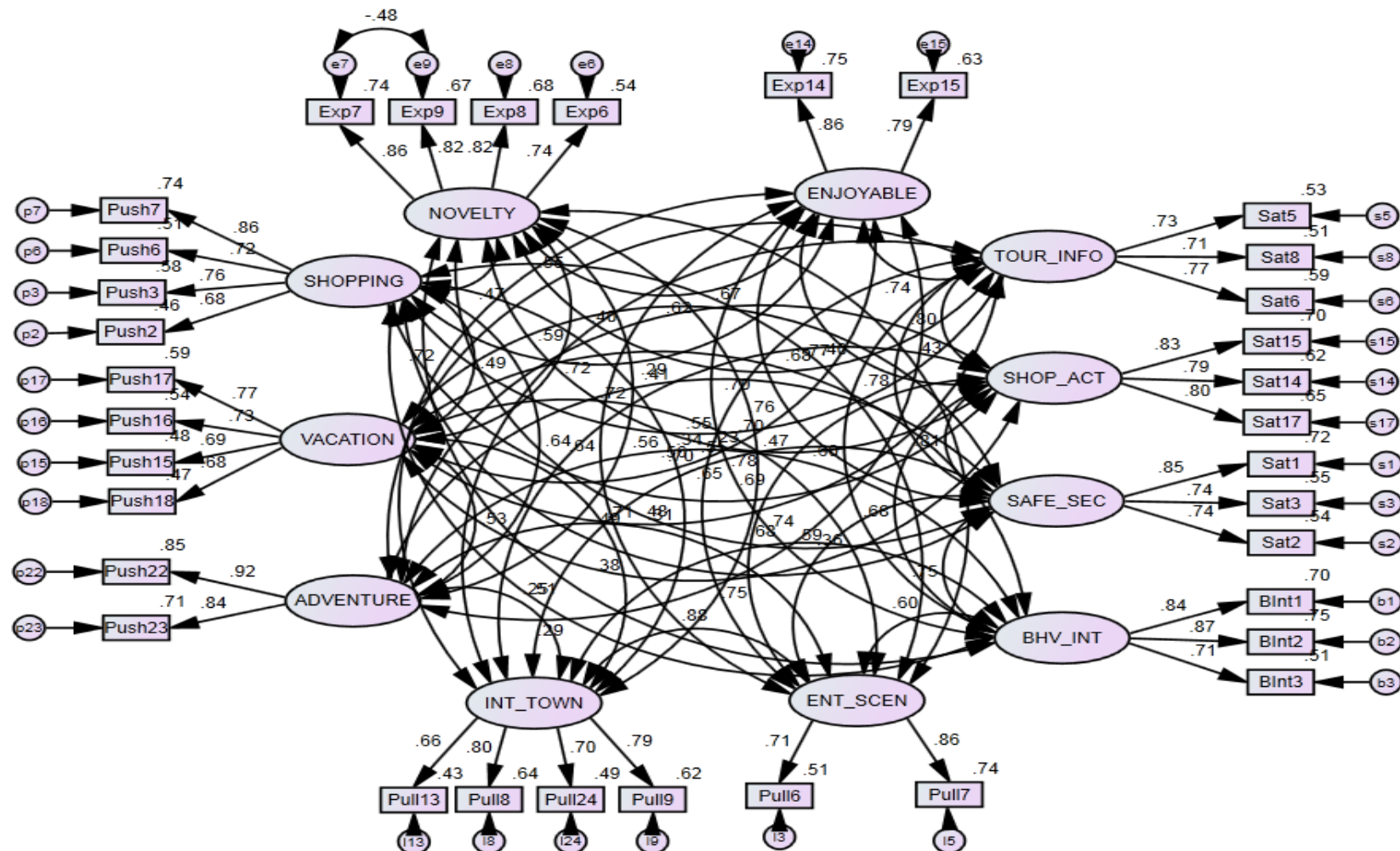
Figure 6.12 - CFA Measurement Model of Souvenir Shopping Tourists

The results of the CFA measurement model indicate that the *adventure*, *enjoyable* and *entertainment and scenery* factors have two items (see Figure 6.12). Some researchers suggest using at least three items to measure one factor (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). However, others advocate that two items are sufficient (Bollen, 1989; Kline, 2005). In relation to the number of items, Kenny (1979, p. 143) stated that "two might be fine, three is better, four is best, and anything more is gravy". Following these suggestions, this study retained the factor with two items.

Byrne (2010) advocated that the evaluation of the CFA model began with an examination of the adequacy of the parameter estimates, followed by the testing of GOF of the model and construct validity. An assessment of the parameter estimate of the model indicated that all estimates have positive values (see Appendix J). This implies that the model is correct and each construct contains sufficient information (Byrne, 2010). All standard errors were small, suggesting a high level of accuracy in the model estimation and the critical rations were greater than ±1.96, based on a probability level of 0.05. This indicates that all parameter estimates were statistically significant.

The assessment of the 11-factor model (see Figure 6.12) shows that the data had a good fit to the model as indicated by the GOF of the model. Although the model produced a statistically significant probability level ($p = 0.030 < 0.05$), which indicates a relatively poor fit, the other fit indices revealed substantially good fit of the model. Particularly, the GFI of 0.945 (values above 0.90 indicate a good fit), TLI of 0.986 (values greater than 0.95 indicate an excellent fit), CFI of 0.990 (values greater 0.95 are suggestive of an excellent fit), RMSEA of 0.027 (values less than 0.05 indicate a good fit model with a low level of error of approximation in the population), and SRMR of 0.0282 (values less than 0.06) indicate that the model is a good fitting model. It is important to note that the probability of the Chi-square test in this model was affected by the sample size. Byrne (2010) and Hair et al. (2010) advocated that the χ^2 statistic is sensitive to the sample size. The χ^2 statistic has a tendency to indicate a significant probability level when the sample size exceeds 200 respondents (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004), as is the case in this study.

6.8 Confirmation of the Second Order Model

The structural relationships between the constructs under investigation were discussed in the research model and presented in Chapter 4 (see Figure 4.1). It was confirmed in the previous sections that each dimension in each construct was indeed related to their specific construct. A CFA of second-order model was conducted to ensure that each dimension of the construct belonged to their respective construct. The subsequent discussions focus on the CFA of the second-order model.

A second-order model suggests that the first-order factors estimated are essentially sub-dimensions of a wider more encompassing construct. Hair et al. (2010) noted that there are two unique features of the second-order model. First, the second-order factor becomes the exogenous construct, whereas the first-order factors are endogenous. Second, there are no indicators of the second-order factor, that is, the second order factor is completely latent and unobservable (Hair et al., 2010). A second-order model of four constructs (push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality and satisfaction) was performed under the assumption that constructs related to each other would load on a higher order factor nominally called push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality and satisfaction. The covariance between the lower order factors, as shown in Figure 6.12, could be explained by the more general construct of each related construct as represented in Figures 6.13 - 6.16.

The second-order model for the push motivation construct demonstrated that the empirical data adequately fit with the model as indicated by $\chi^2 = 61.305$, $p = 0.000$, $\chi^2/df = 2.554$, GFI = 0.958, TLI = 0.955, CFI = 0.970, RMSEA = 0.071 and SRMR = 0.0313. Figure 6.13 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the acceptable value of 0.40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).
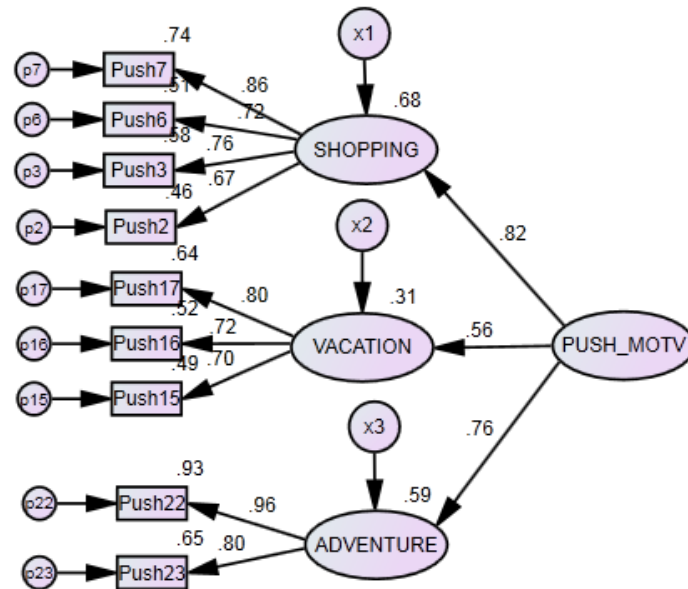
Figure 6.13 - Push Motivation of Second-order Model

The second-order model for the pull motivation construct revealed that the empirical data adequately fit with the model as indicated by $\chi^2 = 9.858$, $p = 0.275$, $\chi^2/df = 1.232$, GFI = 0.989, TLI = 0.995, CFI = 0.997, RMSEA = 0.027 and SRMR = 0.0239. Figure 6.14 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the acceptable value of 0.40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).
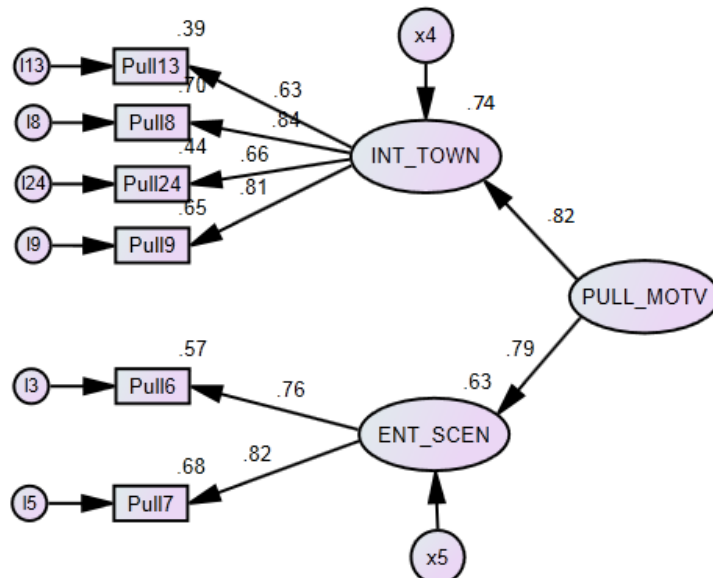
Figure 6.14 - Pull Motivation of Second-order Model

The second-order model for the experience quality construct showed that the empirical data adequately fit with the model as indicated by χ^2 = 15.156, p = 0.641, χ^2/df = 0.737, GFI = 0.994, TLI = 1.004, CFI = 1.000, RMSEA = 0.000 and SRMR = 0.0149. Figure 6.15 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the acceptable value of 0.40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).
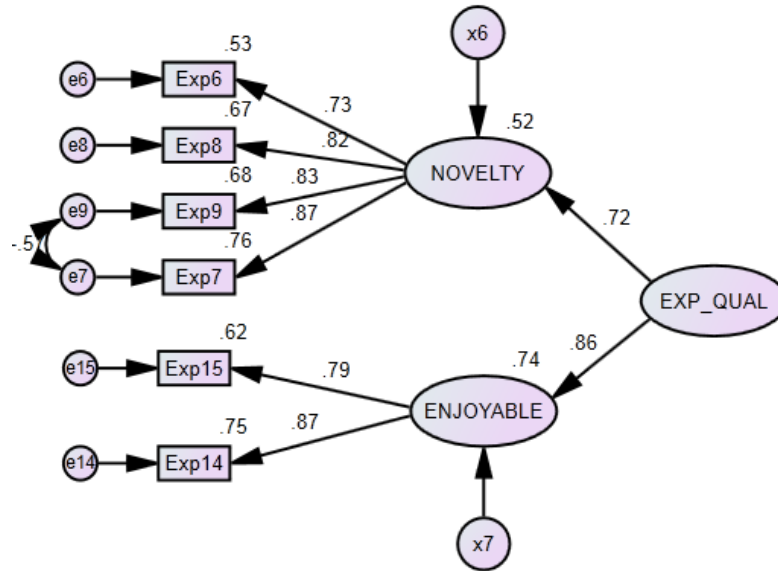
Figure 6.15 - Experience Quality of Second-order Model

The second-order model for the satisfaction construct demonstrated that the empirical data adequately fit with the model as indicated by χ^2 = 12.569, p = 0.545, χ^2/df = 0.940, GFI = 0.984, TLI = 1.002, CFI = 1.000, RMSEA = 0.000 and SRMR = 0.0201. Figure 6.16 shows that all items loaded in this factor are above the acceptable value of .40 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).
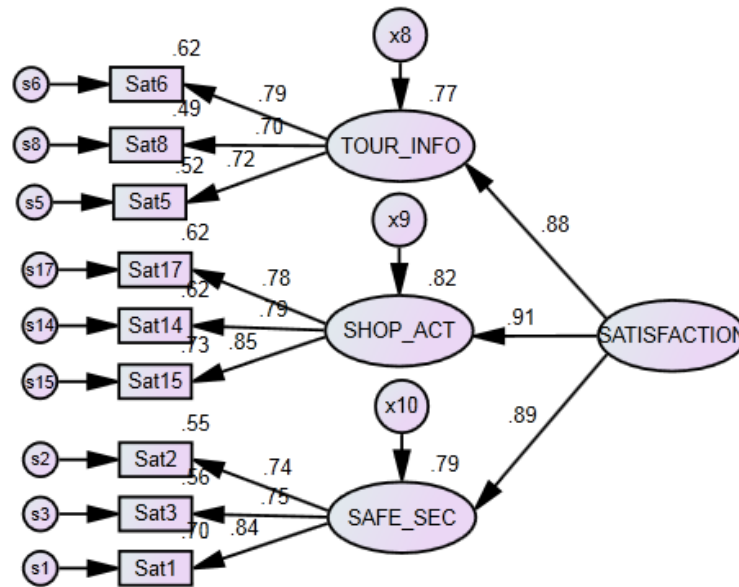
Figure 6.16 - Satisfaction of Second-order Model

The behavioural intention construct is a first-order construct with three indicators as shown in the one-factor congeneric model presented in Figure 6.11, section 6.6.1.5.

6.9 Testing the Structural Model: The Second Stage of SEM

In the first stage of SEM, all constructs in the measurement model were validated and the results of GOF indices were satisfied. The CR and validity, as discussed in section 5.7.8, were measured (see Appendix G, H and I) and indicated an acceptable value. The structural model was then tested as a second stage of the analysis (Holmes-Smith, 2013; Kline, 2005). Arbukle (2011) noted that structural model analysis refers to the process of determining how latent variables are related to each other within a model. Structural model analysis involves the evaluation of the relationship of the significant paths among the latent constructs in the model (Byrne, 2010). Thus, in this study the structural model analysis was used to test the relationships between the constructs as proposed in the research hypotheses 3 – 11, as set out in Chapter 4. The initial structural research model, as illustrated in Figure 6.17, resulted in GOF indices of χ^2 = 1374.460, p = 0.000, χ^2/df = 2.875, GFI = 0.897, TLI = 0.938, CFI = 0.948, RMSEA = 0.054 and SRMR = 0.0563. These demonstrate that all of the GOF indices were within the recommended range. Thus, the results of testing the structural research model show that it is acceptable.
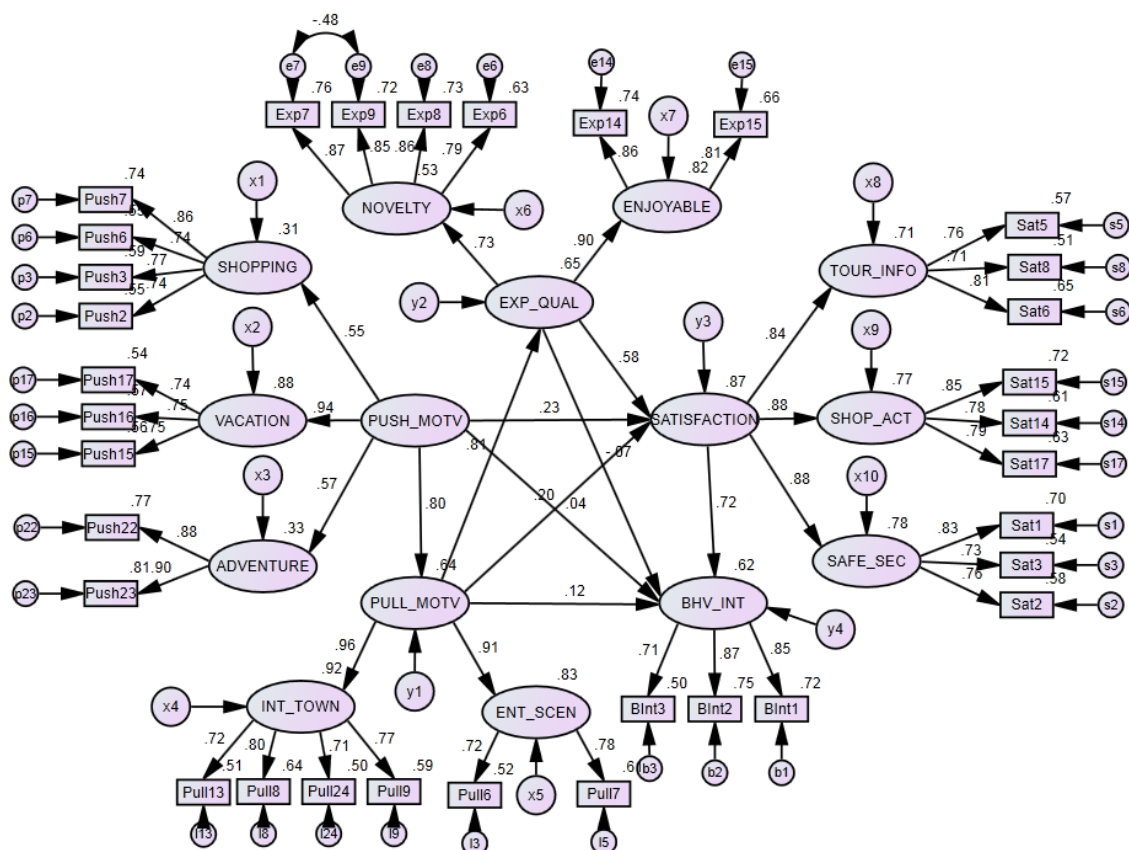
Figure 6.17 - Structural Model Analysis of Souvenir Shopping Tourists

The results of structural model analysis show the relationships between the constructs as reflected in the hypotheses statements and as summarised in Table 6.31. The results of the structural model analysis indicate that a number of relationships were not statistically significant.

Table 6.31 - Testing the Hypotheses of the Structural Research Model

Hypothesised Path	Estimate	C.R.	p	Result
H3: PUSH_MOTV --> PULL_MOTV	0.675	10.604	0.000*	Supported
H4: PULL_MOTV --> EXP_QUAL	0.865	17.392	0.000*	Supported
H5: PUSH_MOTV --> SAT	0.203	3.085	0.002*	Supported
H6: PUSH_MOTV --> BHV_INT	0.037	0.423	0.672	Not Supported
H7: PULL_MOTV --> SAT	0.215	1.914	0.056	Not Supported
H8: PULL_MOTV --> BHV_INT	0.133	1.045	0.296	Not Supported
H9: EXP_QUAL --> SAT	0.578	6.628	0.000*	Supported
H10: EXP_QUAL --> BHV_INT	-0.073	-0.474	0.636	Not Supported
H11: SAT --> BHV_INT	0.745	3.933	0.000*	Supported

Note: *significant at $p < 0.01$.

The results of the initial structural research model indicate that four out of nine relationship paths were not statistically significant (H6, H7, H8 and H10) with the standardised estimate (β) of the path between push motivation and behavioural intention (0.037), pull motivation and satisfaction (0.215), pull motivation and behavioural intention (0.133), experience quality and behavioural intention (-0.073). Some researchers (Bentler and Chou, 1987; Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2005) suggested that re-specifying the model by deleting the non-significant path would provide a better fit to the data. Following this suggestion, a modified structural model was created by eliminating the non-significant paths, allowing the most parsimonious structural model to be defined. The model re-specification procedure was conducted by removing non-significant paths. As removing one path would change the GOF 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 produced the most parsimonious modified structural model, as shown in Figure 6.18.
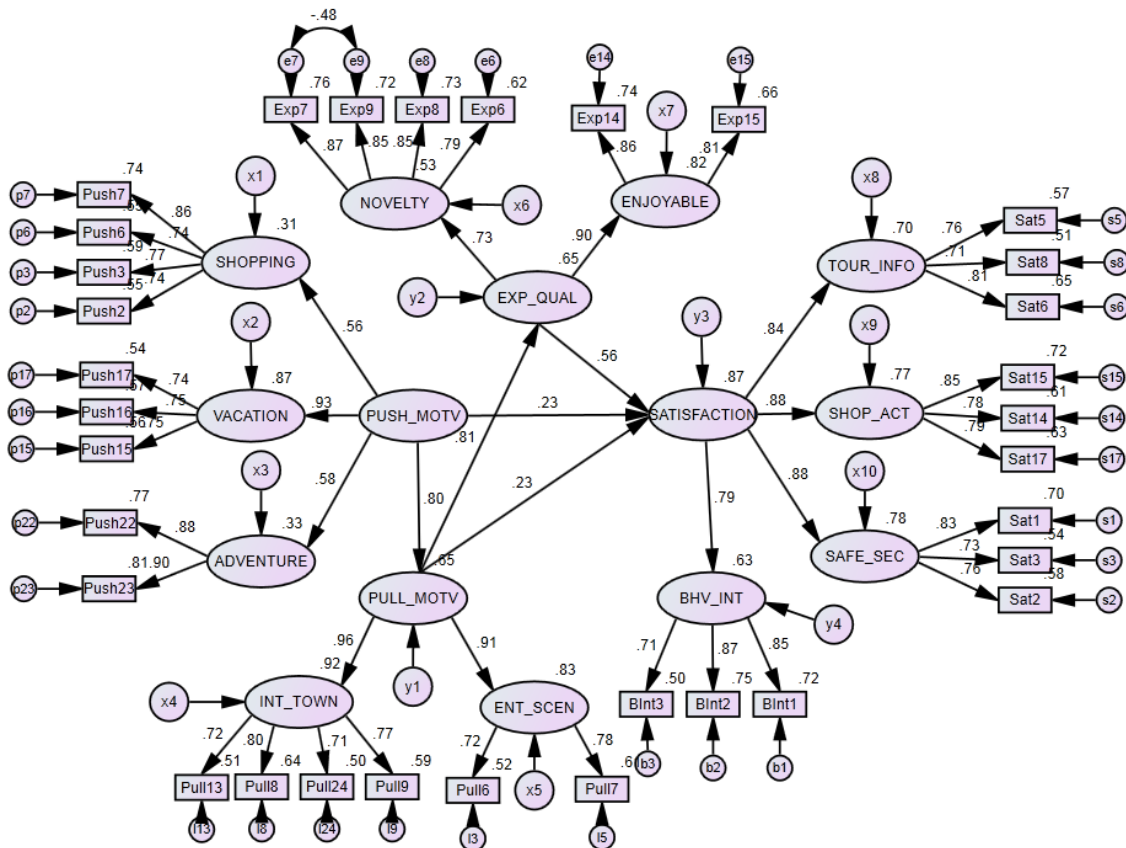
Figure 6.18 - Modified Structural Model Analysis of Souvenir Shopping Tourists

The modified structural model as shown in Figure 6.18 resulted in the GOF indices with χ^2 = 1377.099, p = 0.000, χ^2/df = 2.863, GFI = 0.920, TLI = 0.948, CFI = 0.958, RMSEA = 0.044 and SRMR = 0.0463. Most the GOF indices were within the acceptable level. Thus, the modified structural research model can be considered as a fit model. Table 6.32 shows that the standardised estimate coefficient (β) of all paths tested in the modified structural model were significant. The squared multiple correlations of the endogenous variables in the modified model are shown in Table 6.33.

Table 6.32 - Hypotheses Testing of Modified Structural Research Model

Hypothesised Path	Estimate	C.R.	p	Result
H3: PUSH_MOTV --> PULL_MOTV	0.714	7.919	0.000*	Supported
H4: PULL_MOTV --> EXP_QUAL	1.081	13.540	0.000*	Supported
H5: PUSH_MOTV --> SAT	0.203	3.085	0.001*	Supported
H7: PULL_MOTV --> SAT	0.215	1.914	0.025**	Supported
H9: EXP_QUAL --> SAT	0.970	10.916	0.000*	Supported
H11: SAT --> BHV_INT	0.793	10.016	0.000*	Supported

Note: *significant at $p<0.001$, **significant at $p<0.05$.

Table 6.33 - Squared Multiple Correlations

Construct	R^2
PULL_MOTV	0.645
EXP_QUAL	0.652
SATISFACTION	0.873
BHV_INT	0.627
ENJOYABLE	0.818
NOVELTY	0.534
INT_TOWN	0.916
ENT_SCEN	0.832
ADVENTURE	0.332
VACATION	0.869
SHOPPING	0.310
SAFE_SEC	0.776
SHOP_ACT	0.773
TOUR_INFO	0.700

6.10 The Mediation Effect

The structural model analysis shows several mediation effects between variables. The summary of the mediation effect between variables is presented in Table 6.34. The evidence of the effect of a variable, directly and indirectly, on other variables provides understandings of the relationships between the variables. Kline (2005) advocated that a direct effect is the influence of a variable on another variable that is not mediated by other variables, while an indirect effect is one that is mediated by at least one other variable. Total effect is the sum of indirect and direct effects of the variables. The indirect effect is estimated statistically from the standardised direct effects that comprise them.

Table 6.34 - Standardised Direct, Indirect and Total Effect

Exogenous Variables	Effects	Endogenous Variables			
		PULL_MOTV	EXP_QUAL	SAT	BHV_INT
PUSH_MOTV	Direct	0.80	-	0.23	-
	Indirect	-	0.65	0.54	0.62
	Total	0.80	0.65	0.78	0.62
PULL_MOTV	Direct	-	0.81	0.23	-
	Indirect	-	-	0.45	0.54
	Total	-	0.81	0.68	0.54
EXP_QUAL	Direct	-	-	0.56	-
	Indirect	-	-	-	0.44
	Total	-	-	0.56	0.44
SAT	Direct	-	-	-	0.79
	Indirect	-	-	-	-
	Total	-	-	-	0.79

Note: All effects are significant at $p < 0.01$.

6.11 The Relationship between Constructs

The preceding sections presented the results of the structural model analysis of souvenir shopping tourism and tested the hypothesised relationships between constructs under

investigation. The purpose was to address the third research question and answer the third research objective of this study, as outlined in Chapter 1, which was to examine the relationship between travel motivation, experience quality and satisfaction on behavioural intention for future leisure purposes. A two-stage SEM was performed to achieve the research objective and to test hypotheses 3 - 11. The subsequent sections discuss the SEM results presented in the preceding sections.

6.11.1 The Relationship between Push Motivation and Behavioural Constructs

The results of the modified structural model analysis indicate that the coefficient path between push motivation and pull motivation is high and positively associated as indicated by $\beta = 0.80$, thus supporting hypothesis 3. Pull motivation variances are explained by push motivation for 65%. This result suggested that any changes in souvenir shopping tourists' push motivation will influence push motivation proportionally. Push motivations are a good predictor of pull motivations. The finding implies that souvenir tourist shopping push motivations influence pull motivations significantly and positively in the souvenir shopping tourism context. This result confirms a study conducted by Correia et al. (2007b) in which push motives had a positive and significant effect on the pull motives of Portuguese tourists visiting exotic places. This result also supports Kim's (2008) study, which reported that the push motivations of student travellers have positive direct effects on pull motivations in the context of the student pleasure travel market.

Kim et al. (2003) also reported that a significant relationship existed between push and pull factor dimensions of visitors in the national parks context in Korea. Jang and Cai (2002) revealed that the motivation factors affected destination choice in the context of British tourists visiting the US. Additionally, some studies claimed a reciprocal relationship between push and pull motivation (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Oh et al., 1995; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994). However, this research viewed push motivation as a determining factor of pull motivation consistent with Dann's (1981) conceptualisation of travel motivation in which push-based travel motivation temporally precedes pull-based travel motivation.

The coefficient path between push motivation and satisfaction is positively associated and statistically significant, as indicated by β = 0.23, thus supporting hypothesis 5. This result implies that satisfaction with souvenir shopping experience is intrinsically related to initial motives of tourists. This result confirms a study by Correia, Kozak and Ferradeira (2013) which revealed that overall satisfaction reflects the tourist assessment of push dimensions of satisfaction. However, this result contradicts Yoon and Uysal's (2005) study indicating the path relationship from push travel motivation to satisfaction was not supported by the data. Similarly, Smith et al. (2010) reported that there was no significant effect of push motivations on overall satisfaction within the culinary tourism event context. This mixed relationship between push motivation and satisfaction suggests that the internal motivation or push motivation needs to be addressed adequately in order to create satisfaction.

Push motivation had no significant direct influence on behavioural intention. Thus, the results did not support hypothesis 6. This result was inconsistent with Yoon and Uysal's (2005) study, which reported that tourist push motivation significantly influenced behavioural intention. However, this result confirms Prayag's (2012) findings suggesting that most indicators of tourist travel push motivation did not affect behavioural intention in the senior travellers' motivation context. In fact, only one out of six indicators was found to influence behavioural intention. This mixture of results in the relationship between push motivation and behavioural intention suggests that the internal state of push motivation factors needs to be addressed first, through the availability of suitable pull factors of destination attributes and tourism activities that respond to the push motivation, this creating tourist satisfaction and revisit intention. This finding also suggests that destination marketers need to better understand souvenir tourist shopping push motivations in order to provide destination attributes and souvenir shopping activities that match with internal needs. This would then stimulate revisit intention.

Although there was no direct correlation between push motivation and behavioural intention, the indirect effect through pull motivation, experience quality and satisfaction was relatively high (0.62). The indirect effect of push motivation on experience quality

and satisfaction was also high at 0.65 and 0.54 respectively. These results suggest that pull motivation, experience quality and satisfaction are important variables for both push motivation and behavioural intention. The high results of indirect effects between variables indicate the important role all variables under investigation play in the souvenir shopping tourism context. These results imply that any changes in tourist push motivation will influence pull motivation and subsequently influence experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. Consequently, destination marketers need to identify souvenir tourist push motivations to provide matched destination attributes for good tourism experiences which will then lead to tourist satisfaction and revisit intention.

The results of the structural model also provide destination marketers with comprehensive knowledge of souvenir shopping tourists' push motivations. Figure 6.18 shows that shopping tourists are pushed to visit the destination by three underlying internal motivations: *shopping*, *vacation* and *adventure*. Vacation is the most important push motivation dimension for souvenir tourists in visiting the destination, as indicated by the effect of latent push motivation variables on vacation (0.93), while 87% of vacation variances are explained by latent variables. The vacation dimension consists of three factor loadings: Push17 (*to have fun*), Push16 (*to appreciate different cultures and lifestyles*), and Push15 (*to escape from the routine*). This result suggests that most souvenir tourist shopping visits were for vacation purposes.

The effect of latent push motivation variables on the adventure dimension was valued at 0.58, while 33% of adventure variances were explained by its latent variables. This factor has two observed variables: Push22 (*to experience physical challenges*) and Push23 (*to take part in adventuresome activities*). This result suggests that the souvenir shopping tourist has a need for adventure when visiting the destination. Thus, destination marketers should fulfil this need to satisfy souvenir shopping tourists.

The shopping dimension had the smallest regression weight with push motivation (0.56). This implies that shopping was not the most important motivation compared with vacation and adventure. This finding is in line with Butler's (1991), Timothy's

(2005) and Bauer and Meier's (2011) conceptualisation of shopping tourism which, suggests that while shopping is rarely mentioned as the main purpose of travel, it is the most common tourism activity.

However, the need for shopping should be fulfilled to create souvenir tourist satisfaction and repeat visitation to the destination. The shopping dimension contains four variables: Push7 (*to buy antiques*), Push6 (*to buy items representative of the destination*), Push3 (*to buy non-regional arts and crafts*) and Push2 (*to buy regional speciality arts and crafts*). Destination marketers might promote the destination based on these four shopping items to attract more tourists and combine this with the opportunity to have a good vacation and some adventures. Destination marketers might follow Robbiosi's (2011) suggestion, offering shopping package tours combined with visiting places for cultural, adventure and vacation needs. They might also provide better opportunities for tourists to have fun, to learn about different cultures and lifestyles, and to escape from routine. These motivation items were encouraged and pushed tourists to visit the destination.

6.11.2 The Relationship between Pull Motivation and Behavioural Constructs

The coefficient path between pull motivation and experience quality is high, as shown by standardised regression weights (0.81). This indicates a strong and positive influence of pull motivation on experience quality and thus support for hypothesis 4. Additionally, souvenir tourist experience quality variances are explained by push and pull motivation for 65%, as indicated by the squared multiple correlations. This finding suggests that push and pull motivation are important variables for the souvenir tourist experience quality.

The significant and positive relationship between pull motivation and experience quality of souvenir tourist shopping is consistent with a study conducted by Kao et al. (2008), which reported that the effects of theatrical elements (pull factors) related positively to experiential quality in the theme parks tourism context. This result also confirms Cole and Chancellor's (2009) study indicating that festival attributes had significant direct

209

impacts on visitors' experience in the event tourism context. This finding implies that souvenir tourist shopping develops memorable experience quality through attributes of the destination (push factors) and push motivation suitable to his/her tourism experiences. Thus, the antecedent of experience quality is pull motivation or attributes of the destination, while push motivation is the indirect antecedent of the experience quality construct. In another words, push and pull motivation are the indirect and direct determinants for experience quality in the souvenir shopping tourism context.

The standardised coefficient score between pull motivation and satisfaction is positively associated and statistically significant as indicated by direct effect $\beta = 0.23$, thus supporting hypothesis 7. This result confirms those of a study by Smith et al. (2010), which reported that pull motivations significantly influenced overall satisfaction in the culinary tourism context. A similar result was reported by Eusébio and Vieira's (2013) with destination attributes significantly influencing satisfaction in the tourism destination context. The influence of pull motivation destination attributes on satisfaction is not surprising as a number of studies have reported the relationship, such as those of Hui et al. (2007), Chi and Qu (2008) and Alegre and Garau (2010).

Despite the positive and significant influence of pull motivation on satisfaction, other researchers found different results. Yoon and Uysal's (2005) study reported a negative influence between pull motivation and satisfaction. Additionally, Kozak and Remmington (2000) reported that a partial relationship occurred between pull-based destination attributes and tourist satisfaction in the off-season holiday destination context. These mixed results indicate that the relationship between pull motivation and satisfaction has not been established yet and thus further studies are still required.

Souvenir tourist pull motivation had no significant direct influence on behavioural intention. Thus, the results did not support hypothesis 8. This result is consistent with Eusébio and Vieira's (2013) study in which the influence of destination attributes on the likelihood of future visits (behavioural intention) was not significant. However, this result contradicts do-Valle et al.'s (2008) study, which reported a direct and significant relationship between the tourist's pull motivation and behavioural intention. Similar

results were also reported by Žabkar et al. (2010), who found that the perceived quality of a destination's attributes directly affects behavioural intentions. These mixed results on the relationship between pull motivations and behavioural intention need to be addressed through further research.

An indirect effect existed between pull motivation and behavioural intention through satisfaction (0.54). This result suggests that the satisfaction construct is important for both pull motivation and behavioural intention. This finding implies that destination marketers should provide customer satisfaction in order to attract tourists for future visitation. The absence of a direct relationship between the push and pull motivation and behavioural intention may be explained by tourists' need to have a satisfying experience of the destination before they express their willingness to return to the destination or recommend the destination to others.

The structural model analysis indicates that souvenir shopping tourists' pull motivation consists of two dimensions: *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery*. Both dimensions are important for pull motivation, as indicated by regression weights 0.96 and 0.91 for *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery* respectively. The *interesting town* dimension covers four indicators: Pull13 (*interesting town*), Pull8 (*relaxing atmosphere*), Pull24 (*many interesting places to visit*) and Pull9 (*natural environment*). Additionally, the *entertainment and scenery* dimension contains two items: Pull6 (*favourable weather*) and Pull7 (*beautiful scenery*). This finding reveals that all items under the *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery* dimensions are important attributes of the destination that pulled tourists to visit the destination. Thus, destination marketers should include these pull factor items when promoting destinations in order to respond to tourists' external motivation and create a competitive image of the destinations.

6.11.3 The Relationship between Experience Quality and Behavioural Constructs

The coefficient path between experience quality and satisfaction is positively associated and statistically significant, as indicated by $\beta = 0.56$, thus supporting hypothesis 9. The

satisfaction construct is explained by its latent variables (experience quality and push and pull motivation constructs) by 87%, as indicated by standardised squared multiple correlation scores. This finding confirms Chen and Chen's (2010) study, which argued that there was a positive and significant coefficient path between experience quality and satisfaction in the heritage tourism context. Similar results were also reported by Cole and Chancellor (2009), with visitors' experience quality significantly affecting satisfaction in the festival tourism context. This result also confirms the study by Kao et al. (2008), which declared that experiential quality relates positively to experiential satisfaction in the theme parks tourism context. This finding suggests that souvenir tourist experience is an important predictor for satisfaction. Thus, destination marketers should promote a satisfying tourism experience to ensure tourists' satisfaction.

The experience quality construct had no significant direct effect on behavioural intention. Thus, the result did not support hypothesis 10. This result aligns with Chen and Chen's (2010) study in which heritage tourist experience quality had no direct effect on behavioural intention. However, a different result was reported by Kao, Huang and Wu (2008) who found that visitor experiential satisfaction significantly influenced loyalty intention. These mixed results in terms of the relationship between experience quality and behavioural intention constructs need to be addressed through further research.

Souvenir tourist experience quality had an indirect effect on behavioural intention (0.44) through satisfaction. Similar results were also reported by Chen and Chen (2010), with heritage tourist experience quality providing an indirect effect on behavioural intention. This result suggests that the experience of souvenir tourists needs to be satisfied first in order to elicit tourists' intention to return to the destination. This finding also suggests a new concept in which experience quality is an indirect antecedent of behavioural intention, something which has not been fully explored in previous studies. Thus, the finding is congruent with, and adds to, previous studies which claimed that antecedents of behavioural intention include satisfaction, service quality, perceived performance, perceived value, past experience, destination image, destination familiarity and source of information. This has been proposed by Baker and Crompton (2000), Baloglu,

Pekcan, Chen and Santos (2004), Heung, Wong and Qu (2002), Kozak (2001), Petrick and Backman (2002) and Um et al. (2006).

The structural model analysis indicates that the experience quality construct contains two dimensions: *novelty* and *enjoyable*. The influence of experience quality on the *novelty* and *enjoyable* factors is relatively high at 0.73 and 0.90 respectively. The *novelty* dimension consists of four indicators: *it was my once-in-a-life experience*, *it was different from previous experience*,*I had really experienced something new* and *the experience was unique*. The *enjoyable* dimension consists of *the experience was relaxing*and *my experience was pleasant*. Attention should be given to these items in order to provide tourism experience quality for souvenir shopping tourists.

6.11.4 The Relationships between Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

The coefficient path between satisfaction and behavioural intention was positively related and statistically significant as indicated by $\beta = 0.79$, thus supporting hypothesis 11. This result is not surprising, as a number of studies have demonstrated similar results in many different contexts, including heritage tourism (Chen and Chen, 2010), cruise tourism (Petrick, 2004), festival tourism (Baker and Crompton, 2000), golf tourism (Hutchinson et al., 2009) and culinary tourism (Smith et al., 2010). It is important to note that although tourist satisfaction directly and positively influences behavioural intention, many tourists may look for different holiday experiences in a destination regardless of satisfaction levels, as demonstrated by Kozak and Remmington (2000). In managing this situation, destination marketers might offer different tourism experiences to different segments of tourists. They should also take into consideration all indicators that influence tourist satisfaction to create the tourist intention to revisit the destination.

The structural model analysis indicates that the satisfaction construct contains three dimensions: *tourist information*, *shopping activities* and *safe and secure destination* and was influenced by satisfaction latent variables for 0.84, 0.88 and 0.88 respectively. The *tourist information* covers three observed variables: Sat6 (*tourist information is readily*

available), Sat8 (*there is good value for money overall*) and Sat5 (*shops have good opening times*); while the *shopping activities* contains three indicators, Sat15 (*overall, I am satisfied with services provided*), Sat14 (*overall, I am satisfied with local food offered*) and Sat17 (*overall, I am satisfied with the environment the destination provided*); and the *safe and secure destination* dimension consists of three items, Sat2 (*destination is safe and secure*), Sat3 (*it is a city of tolerance of other cultures*) and Sat1 (*destination is a very interesting city*). These items are important in shaping tourists' satisfaction leading to their revisit intentions, thus destination marketers would benefit from maintaining and developing these indicators in order to deliver high satisfaction components to tourists.

Behavioural intention consists of three observed variables: BInt1 (*say positive things about the destination to others*), BInt2 (*encourage friends and relatives to visit the destination*) and BInt3 (*visit the destination again in the future*). This result suggests that souvenir tourists are willing to spread positive tourism experiences of the destination to others through positive word-of-mouth recommendations. This finding is congruent with the conceptualisation of favourable behavioural intention, like returning to the same site or purchasing and recommending the service to others, as proposed by Parasuraman et al. (1988), Reichheld and Sasser (1989) and Zeithaml et al. (1996).

To conclude this section, this research provides support that push motivation influences pull motivation and satisfaction in the souvenir shopping tourism context, and thus enhances previous studies carried out by Correia et al. (2007b), Kim (2008) and Correia et al. (2013). Souvenir tourist pull motivations affect tourist experience quality and satisfaction. This finding provides additional support to a number of studies, including Kao et al. (2008), Cole and Chancellor (2009), Smith et al. (2010) and Eusébio and Vieira (2013). Additionally, the relationship of experience quality to satisfaction provides support for the studies of Chen and Chen (2010), Cole and Chancellor (2009), and Kao et al. (2008). The influence of souvenir tourist satisfaction on behavioural intention confirms studies conducted by Chen and Chen (2010), Petrick (2004), Baker and Crompton (2000), Hutchinson et al. (2009), Smith et al. (2010) and Olorunniwo et al. (2006). The absence of a relationship between pull motivation and experience quality

and behavioural intention is not surprising as tourists may first require satisfaction in their tourism experience before they express their willingness to return and recommend the destination to others.

6.11.5 Summary of Testing Hypotheses 3 - 11

In summary, following testing of hypotheses 3 - 11, six hypotheses were supported by the data, while three were not. This is illustrated in Table 6.35.

Table 6.35 - Summary of the Hypotheses Testing 3 - 11

Hypothesis	Result
H3: Souvenir tourist shopping push motivation has a positive relationship with pull motivation.	Supported
H4: Souvenir tourist shopping pull motivation (destination attributes) has a positive relationship with experience quality.	Supported
H5: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping push motivation and tourist satisfaction.	Supported
H6: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping push motivation and tourist behaviour intention.	Not supported
H7: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping pull motivation and tourist satisfaction.	Supported
H8: There is a positive relationship between souvenir tourist shopping pull motivation and tourist behaviour intention.	Not supported
H9: Souvenir tourist shopping experience quality has a positive association with tourist satisfaction.	Supported
H10: Souvenir tourist shopping experience quality has a positive association with tourist behavioural intention.	Not Supported
H11: Souvenir tourist shopping satisfaction has a positive association with tourist behavioural intention.	Supported

6.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided the empirical results of respondents' demographic variables, travel patterns and shopping preferences for souvenir tourists across three cultural groups. Chi-square tests were conducted to determine the differences in demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences across these cultural groups. The results indicated that more variables were found to differ at statistically significant levels. Thus, the data partly support the first set of hypotheses 1a - 1c.

A multiple PCA was performed to define the factorability of push and pull motivation factors, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. Additionally, based on the new factors mean scores, the MANOVA with the Tukey HSD post hoc test was performed to see the significant differences of push and pull motivation factors, experience quality and satisfaction across the three cultural groups. The ANOVA with the Tukey HSD post-hoc test was performed to see the difference of behavioural intentions across cultural groups. The results indicated that there are statistically significant differences in all the factors. Thus, this empirical data fully supports the second set of the hypotheses 2a - 2e.

This study examined souvenir tourists' future visits, tourism attractions for future visit and destination branding. Most tourists expressed that they had considered revisiting the destinations sometime between this year and the next three years, with various tourism attractions selected across the cultural groups. Additionally, souvenir tourists across cultures demonstrated differences in terms of branding attributes for destinations, which were based on their recent visitation.

This chapter has presented and discussed the results of a two-stage of SEM. The first stage of the SEM began with identification of the underlying dimensions of each construct through the EFA. Following this, the one-factor congeneric model of CFA for each dimension was performed. The purpose of this was to validate each individual model. Having been satisfied with the GFI of the one-factor congeneric model, the CFA

of the measurement analysis was carried out. The purpose of this was to validate all the models in the one measurement model together. Having been satisfied with the GFI of the CFA measurement model, validity and reliability of the constructs were then examined. The second stage of the SEM was performed in the structural model analysis. The model examined the direct and indirect relationships between variables.

Resulting from the structural model, the relationship between constructs under investigation was identified and discussed. The significant relationships were identified in the hypothesised paths between souvenir shopping tourists' push motivation and pull motivation; push motivation and satisfaction; pull motivation and experience quality; pull motivation and satisfaction; experience quality and satisfaction; and satisfaction and behavioural intention. The insignificant relationships were also identified between variables of push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality and behavioural intention. Finally, the chapter also discussed the mediating role of push motivation, experience quality and satisfaction on the relationship between push motivation and behavioural intention. This thesis concludes with Chapter 7 in which the contributions, limitations of the research and recommendations for further research are presented.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

7.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this concluding chapter is to review and highlight the findings discussed in the previous chapter, addressing the research questions and research objectives as set out in Chapter 1. This chapter begins with a summary of the research and findings. Contributions of the research are then discussed, covering theoretical and practical implications, followed by the limitations of the research and recommendations for further research. The last section presents the conclusion of the research.

7.2 Summary of the Research and Key Findings

This study was motivated by two main drivers: a 2012 report from the Indonesian Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy and the fact that there was a research gap identified in the literature review. The Ministry's report stated that the Indonesian Government is to pay greater attention to developing special interest tourism to promote the nation's unique shopping and culinary assets (Menparekraf, 2012). The main reason for this is that these two sectors (culinary and shopping) are sub-sectors of the creative industry, which is lucrative in Indonesia and covers a wide range of small industries, including handicrafts, fashions and local foods.

The literature review revealed three gaps which primarily relate to tourists' travel motivation: the difference in travel motivation across cultures (Kozak, 2002; Ozdipciner et al., 2012; You et al., 2000); the relationship of travel motivation with other behavioural constructs (Hsu et al., 2010); and the difference in shopping patterns, demographic characteristics, and travel patterns of tourist shoppers (Lehto et al., 2004; Littrell et al., 1994; Oh et al., 2004). In responding to these knowledge gaps, this research developed a comprehensive conceptual research framework integrating factors that influence tourists' behaviour and motivation in the souvenir shopping tourism context. The objective was both to bridge the gaps found in the literature and to provide

new empirical evidence to the Indonesian Government, tourism practitioners and researchers about shopping tourism in the country.

To guide this study, a research framework was developed based on the TCS theory and TEM. In these two models, tourists' experience follows three phases: pre-, during and post-consumption. This research examined: (a) travel motivation (push and pull factors) across cultural groups; (b) demographic characteristics, shopping preferences and travel patterns across cultural groups; and (c) the interrelationships of travel motivation (push and pull factors), experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. The research objectives were achieved both theoretically and empirically. The theoretical research framework, as presented in Chapter 4, provides a better understanding of the influence of travel motivation (push and pull factors) on other behavioural constructs (experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention). Importantly, the framework integrated tourists' demographic characteristics, shopping preferences and travel patterns across cultural groups. In testing the research model, the literature on souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia has been extended.

The research model used in this study, along with the research hypotheses, was validated with the sample of tourists shopping for souvenirs (n = 604) in Indonesian traditional markets. The traditional market was chosen as previous studies were more focused on mall shopping. Secondly, traditional markets in Indonesia are important mediums through which small and individual businesses can offer their products. The respondents consisted of domestic and international tourists and were classified into three cultural groups: Indonesian domestic tourists, Asian tourists and non-Asian tourists.

The results of this study largely support the research hypotheses presented in Chapter 4. In testing the first set of hypotheses, a Chi-square test was carried out to see the difference in demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences across cultural groups. The results indicated that, beside a few similarities, there were more differences in some demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences across tourist groups. The results suggest that tourists across cultural groups

demonstrated more differences in souvenir shopping behaviour than similarities. In shopping preferences, significant differences were identified in terms of preferred materials, the main reason for buying souvenirs, shopping budget and shopping information. In travel patterns, significant differences existed in the number of visits to the destination, the purpose of visit, travel mode, length of stay, accommodation used and attractions visited. In terms of demographics, significant differences were found in age, education levels, occupation and annual income. These findings are important for destination marketers, as they demonstrate the actual tourists' behaviour during their visits. Thus, these findings may help destination marketers to determine the right mixture of products and services to offer to tourists across cultural groups.

In testing the second set of hypotheses, the MANOVA was performed. The results of MANOVA for push motivation factors revealed that tourists across cultural groups showed differences in *shopping*, while there was no difference in *vacation* and *adventure* (see Table 6.15). The non-Asian tourist group showed differences in *shopping* compared to their Asian and the Indonesian counterparts, while there was no difference between the Asian and Indonesian tourist groups. This result suggested that despite inherent differences across cultural groups, particularly related to collectivism versus individualism, shopping tourists shared both similarities and differences in relation to their internal motivation or socio-psychological factors (push motivation factors).

A MANOVA was also performed to see the difference in pull motivation factors across groups. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences in terms of perceptions of *interesting town* and *entertainment and scenery* across cultural tourist groups (see 6.18). Significant differences existed between the Indonesian and the Asian tourist groups, while there was no difference between the Indonesian and non-Asian, and between the non-Asian and the Asian tourist groups. This finding is interesting as it highlighted that souvenir shopping tourists from the same collectivist orientation (the Indonesian and Asian tourist groups) had different pull motivations, while the Asian and non-Asian tourist groups, which have different cultural orientations (collectivism and individualism), showed no difference in pull motivation. The results imply that

interesting town, and *entertainment and scenery* are the two attributes that attract souvenir shopping tourists to visit a destination.

Souvenir shopping tourists across cultural groups also showed significant differences in relation to the experience quality construct: *novelty* and *enjoyable* factors. In *enjoyable* factors, the non-Asian tourist group was significantly different from the Indonesia group, but no different to their Asian counterparts, while there was no difference between the Indonesian and Asian tourist groups. However, the three cultural groups showed no significant difference in terms of *novelty*. This result suggests that tourists across cultural groups viewed the *novelty* experience similarly, but the *enjoyable* experience differently.

These findings could help destination marketers in designing an effective promotional program for destinations. They could focus on the promotion of destinations by emphasising pull motivation attributes and the quality of the tourism experience, which are important to tourists, and designing promotional campaigns responding to the push motivation factors of tourists from different cultures.

The three cultural groups of souvenir shopping tourists showed differences in satisfaction in relation to *shopping activities* and the *safe and secure destination*, while there was no difference in terms of *tourist information*. In their perceptions of *shopping activities*, the Indonesian tourist group was statistically significantly different from the Asian group, while the Asian tourists showed no difference to the non-Asian tourist group. With regard to *safe and secure destination*, Asian tourists were found to differ, at statistically significant levels, from their non-Asian counterparts, but showed no difference to the Indonesian tourist group. There was no difference between the Indonesian and the non-Asian in this factor. The results suggest that the *tourist information* factors appear to be important to all tourists across cultural groups as there was no difference across the three groups.

The ANOVA test indicated statistically significant differences across cultural groups in relation to behavioural intention. The Indonesian tourist group showed differences from

their non-Asian counterparts, while there was no difference in behavioural intention between the Indonesian and the Asian tourist group and no difference found between the Asian and non-Asian tourist groups in relation to this factor.

A two-stage of SEM was performed to measure the relationships between constructs under investigation (push and pull motivation factors, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention) and to test hypotheses 3 - 11. The first stage of SEM was performed in SPSS version 21 to identify the dimensionality of each construct using EFA. Having been satisfied with all factors in each construct, CFA then was performed with AMOS version 21 to validate each indicator in individual factors for individual constructs. Being satisfied with all GOF indices in each variable, a CFA was then performed on all factors and constructs together to validate the measurement model. The measurement model was then assessed in terms of its reliability and validity. Cronbach's alpha and Fornell and Larckel's (1981) CR were used to assess the reliability. Construct validity was examined using convergent and discriminant validity. The last phase in the SEM first stage was confirmation of the second order model analysis.

The second stage of SEM was then performed to test the structural model. The results of the structural model analysis indicated that most hypothesised relationships were supported by the data. Six hypotheses out of nine were statistically significant and supported by the data. There was a significant relationship between souvenir shopping tourists' push motivation and pull motivation. Souvenir shopping tourists' pull motivation correlated significantly with experience quality. Push motivation had a positive relationship with souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction. Additionally, both souvenir shopping tourists' pull motivation and experience quality had a positive relationship with satisfaction and, as expected, souvenir shopping tourists' satisfaction was positively link with behavioural intention (see Table 6.32). Three hypotheses were not supported by the data: the relationship between shopping tourists' push motivation and behavioural intention; pull motivation and behavioural intention; experience quality and behavioural intention. However, the indirect positive relationship between shopping tourists' push motivation and behavioural intention existed and was mediated by

experience quality and satisfaction. The indirect positive relationship between shopping tourists' push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality and behavioural intention was mediated by satisfaction (see Table 6.34). This finding implies that tourists' satisfaction is the important determinant for influencing tourists' revisit intention. This finding could assist the formulation of effective marketing strategies through identification of important factors that influence travel motivation (push and pull factors), experience quality, satisfaction and the behavioural intention of tourists across cultural groups.

This study also identified tourism attractions for tourists' future visitation and branding for the destinations from the perspective of souvenir shopping tourists. Natural attractions, local souvenir markets and handicraft making were identified as important for the Indonesian tourist group in terms of future visits, while the Asian group prioritised cultural performances, natural attractions and handicraft making and the non-Asian tourist group were willing to revisit for natural attractions, historical sites and cultural performances. With regard to destination branding, marketers need to combine the components of branding identified in the results into strong branding strategies. The results showed that a *cultured city, historical and heritage sites,* and *cultural attractions* would likely be welcomed by non-Asian and Asian groups, while *a good place for shopping* appealed to the Indonesian tourist group. For the Asian and Indonesian tourist groups, the attributes *many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices*, *shopping for local souvenirs* could be used to promote the destinations, while for the non-Asian group, *local food specialties* was considered important. This first-hand information should be used as a basis for improving tourism attractions and creating the right branding strategies for tourists across the cultural groups.

In summary, this research has developed and empirically tested a theoretical model in the context of souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia. This study has examined the role of several proposed constructs in relation to their significant relationships for tourists shopping across cultural groups. This study has also identified the actual behaviour of tourists shopping for souvenirs in Indonesia by exploring demographic variables, shopping preferences and travel patterns. Thus, the findings have delivered insights into

the variances of souvenir tourists across cultural groups, as well as established the dissimilarities in tourists revisiting intention across tourist groups, offering destination marketers an improved knowledge of their customers. In this respect, the contributions of this study are both theoretically and practically observable.

The summary of key findings addressing the research questions and objectives is provided in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 - Summary of Key Findings Addressing the Research Questions and Objectives

Research Questions (RQ)	Research Objectives (RO)	Key Findings
RQ1: to what extent are souvenir tourist travel motivations, demographics profiles, shopping preferences, and travel patterns similar or dissimilar across cultural groups?	**RO1**: to identify the similarities of, and differences in, the demographic profiles, travel patterns and shopping preferences of souvenir tourists across cultural groups.	The differences and similarities of demographics, travel patterns and shopping preferences across cultures. 1.Demographic profiles The significant differences exist in tourists' category, education levels and annual income. There was no significant difference in gender and age. 2. Travel patterns The significant differences exist in frequency of visit, purpose of visit, travel mode, length of stay, type of accommodation used and tourism attractions visited. 3. Shopping preferences The significant differences exist in some souvenir categories: arts and paintings, antiques, toys, local speciality foods, clothing books and postcards; most preferred material, souvenir purchase best describes, perception of authentic, shopping budget, time for shopping, and shopping information. There was no significant difference in main reason of buying souvenirs.
RQ2: to what extent are souvenir tourist travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention differences across cultural groups?	**RO2**: to determine the underlying dimensions of the push factor, pull factor, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir tourists for different cultural groups.	The underlying dimensions of push and pull factors, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. 1. Push factors: shopping, vacation and adventure factors. 2. Pull factors: interesting town, and entertainment and scenery factors. 3. Experience quality: novelty and enjoyable factors. 4. Satisfaction: shopping activities, safe and secure destination, and tourist information factors. 5. Behavioural Intention: one factor was identified.
RQ3: are there any relationships, and to what extent, between souvenir tourists' travel motivation and experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention?	**RO3**: to examine the relationship of travel motivation, experience quality and satisfaction on behavioural intention for future leisure purposes.	The relationships between constructs have been identified. 1. Push motivation and pull motivation = significant 2. Push motivation and satisfaction = not significant 3. Push motivation and behavioural intention = not significant 4. Pull motivation and experience quality = significant 5. Pull motivation and satisfaction = significant 6. Pull motivation and behavioural intention = not significant 7. Experience quality and satisfaction = significant 8. Experience quality and behavioural intention = not significant 9. Satisfaction and behavioural intention = significant

Table 7.1 – Summary of Key Findings (continued)

Additional questions		Findings
Future visit	**The identified future attraction** Natural attraction, cultural performance and natural attraction	The souvenir shopping tourists showed their willingness to return to the destination for the following tourism attractions. Non-Asian: natural attractions, historical sites, cultural performances, local events and cultural education. Asian: cultural performances, natural attractions, handicraft making, historical sites and local events. Indonesian: natural attractions, local souvenir markets, handicraft making, historical sites and local distribution outlets.
Destination Images	**The proposed branding strategies** 1. Cultured city and place for shopping. 2. Cultural attractions, historical and heritage sites, and local shopping markets. 3. Shopping local for souvenirs and local food specialities.	The souvenir shopping tourists suggested some branding components for the destination. 1. Most positive image of the destination. Non-Asian: Cultured city, friendliness of local people and good place for shopping. Asian: Cultured city, good place for shopping and friendliness of local people and natural attractions. Indonesian: Good place for shopping, convenience and cultured city. 2. Most unique feature of the destination. Non-Asian: Cultural attractions, historical and heritage sites and local shopping markets. Asian: Historical and heritage sites, cultural attractions and local shopping markets. Indonesian: Local shopping markets, historical and heritage sites and local culinary. 3. Most memorable shopping experience. Non-Asian: Shopping for local souvenirs and local food specialities. Asian: Many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices and shopping for local souvenirs. Indonesian: Many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices and local food specialities.

7.3 Contributions of the Research

This study makes significant contributions to knowledge because it has clarified the relationship between travel motivation and other behavioural constructs. It also adds to the literature because it is the first to investigate the relationship between travel motivation and experience quality in the souvenir shopping tourism context. This research advances the literature through the developed comprehensive conceptual model, which integrates tourists' behaviour and motivation across cultures and investigates the relationship between travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention of souvenir shopping tourists in Indonesia. Souvenir shopping tourists' behaviour and motivation was investigated across three cultural groups: non-

Asian, Asian and Indonesian. This study is also innovative because it is the first to examine tourists' actual behaviour through demographic variables, travel patterns and shopping preferences across cultural groups in the souvenir shopping tourism context.

With regard to a practical perspective, the results of this research are operationally applicable directly to souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia, particularly for souvenir producers and retailers. The results are also appropriate to tourism providers, such as transportation services, accommodation services and tour operators. Suggestions for further study are proposed in this concluding chapter, including replicating this research using different geographical sites in Indonesia.

7.3.1 Theoretical Implications

This study has provided further insight to add to the body of tourism marketing literature in the following ways. First, the proposed research model has sought to address the role of tourism motivations that influence behavioural intentions in the context of souvenir shopping tourism. This research represents the first attempt to incorporate experience quality into the travel motivation research model and to empirically test the relationship between push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention in the souvenir shopping tourism context. Thus, this study has contributed to the literature by providing deeper understanding of the multiple aspects of souvenir shopping tourists' travel motivation, experience and satisfaction in determining revisit intention. This research also represents a first attempt to integrate tourists' cultural perspectives, demographic variables, travel patterns and shopping preferences into a travel motivation and behavioural intention relationships research model. Thus, this study has contributed to the literature by providing further knowledge of the actual behaviour of tourists shopping for souvenirs. The framework follows the TCS theory and TEM in which tourists' pre-consumption is indicated by push and pull motivation constructs, during consumption is represented by experience quality construct, and post-consumption is signified by behavioural intention constructs. The conceptual framework has been empirically tested and offers a robust underpinning

for undertaking subsequent empirical research in other destinations in Indonesia or outside the country.

Second, this research has provided further insight into the internal structures of travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention constructs and offers support for the view that they are comprised some key dimensions. The process of construct purification in EFA and CFA offers a new scale development for each construct under investigation in the context of souvenir shopping tourism. The dimensions within push and pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention that resulted from this study add to the body of shopping tourism literature relating to the dimensional structure of those constructs.

Lastly, in relation to the geographical context, this study has expanded the body of knowledge by providing an improved understanding of souvenir shopping tourism in Indonesia, one of the emerging tourism destinations in the South East Asia region. This is notable as recent literature has been mainly concentrated on souvenir shopping tourism in Western and more developed countries and destinations. Thus, this study provides an opportunity for academic discussions in relation to shopping tourism from the Asian perspective, with Indonesia as a focus of the study.

7.3.2 Practical Implications

With respect to the practical perspective for Indonesian tourism authorities, this research has highlighted the importance of understanding souvenir tourists' behaviour and motivation for effective marketing strategies formulations. Given the distinct role of the push and pull motivation factors in 'pushing' and 'pulling' shopping tourists into the destinations, marketers might focus advertising campaigns based on the motivation's underlying factors. Particularly, marketing efforts should focus on the attributes that transmit positive feelings and directly respond to tourists' internal motivation factors or socio-psychological factors (push motivation factors) by emphasising the tangible attributes of the destinations (pull motivation factors). Following Zeithaml and Bitner's

(2006) suggestion, destination marketers should 'tangibilize the intangible' factors of the destination through advertising campaigns.

Destination marketers might also use push and pull factors as the advertising theme. *Shopping*, *vacation* and *adventure* dimensions could be used as the advertising themes for push factors, while *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery* could be the themes for the pull factors. The marketing activities might also be customised for tourists across cultural groups, as the results of this study indicated that there was a significant difference in *shopping* factors of the push motivation, and *interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery* factors of the pull motivation. For *shopping* factors, advertising themes might incorporate items under this factor and be targeted to the three different cultural groups of tourists (e.g. *shopping for antiques*, *shopping for items representative of the destination*, and *shopping for art and crafts*). Similar advertising themes might be applied to the three cultural groups of tourists in relation to *vacation* and *adventure* factors, as there was no difference in these two factors. For the *vacation* factors, themes might include *to have fun*, *to escape from the routine* and *to enjoy vacation*, while for the *adventure* factors, *to experience physical challenges* and *to take part in adventuresome activities* might be used. Advertising campaigns for pull factors (*interesting town*, and *entertainment and scenery*) could vary across cultural groups, as there was a significant difference in this factor across these groups.

The results of EFA and CFA might also be used for developing marketing strategies for the destinations. Tourists across groups indicated *novelty* and *enjoyable* as the two important attributes of their experience during their visits. Thus, these two experience attributes could be used to appeal to potential tourists to visit the destinations.

The descriptive statistics results showed that tourists across groups represented significant differences regarding some demographic characteristics, travel patterns and shopping preferences. This first-hand information could assist destination marketers in better understanding the actual behaviour of tourists during their visits and may be used to target tourists based on their profiles connected with their travel patterns and shopping preferences. Souvenir retailers and producers could use the findings by

adjusting their products to suit tourists' needs and wants. Other tourism-related businesses might also make use of the results for developing marketing strategies. For example, tour operators might review the combined age and income variables with travel patterns and shopping preferences to satisfy souvenir shopping tourists when visiting the destinations.

In relation to branding the destinations, marketers might combine branding components into one strong brand acceptable to tourists across cultural groups. The findings suggest that branding strategies might incorporate a *cultured city* and *historical and heritage sites* to expose the most positive image and unique features of the destinations. Attributes such as *many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices*, *shopping for local souvenirs* and *local food specialties* could be also be promoted.

7.4 Limitations of the Research

Despite the theoretical contributions to the tourism marketing literature made by this study, several limitations were identified. First, the research sample was collected in only two cities in Indonesia (Bandung and Yogyakarta). Consequently, this study does not represent the whole region of Indonesia, where souvenir types and geographical identities are diverse. Therefore, attempts to generalise the findings of this research to other destination contexts and markets should be made with caution.

Second, the sample of this study consisted of domestic and international tourists. While the proportion of domestic and international tourists were equal - 301 and 303 respectively - the proportion based on the three cultural grouping was not equal - Asian tourist respondents (146), non-Asian tourist respondents (156) and Indonesian domestic tourist respondents (301).

Third, this study focused on the perspectives of both domestic and international tourists. It did not cover the perspectives of souvenir retailers, souvenir producers and souvenir shopping tourism related authorities, who may have different perceptions about tourists'

motivations and behaviours. Additionally, this study did not differentiate between first-time visitors and repeat visitors, who may have differing motivations and behaviours.

Fourth, this research adopted a cross-sectional research design, due to the time limit given for this study, which makes it difficult to identify tourists' motivation and behaviour in the pre-consumption and post-consumption stages, as illustrated in the conceptual framework. A cross-sectional survey makes it possible to identify motivation and behaviour only during tourists' visiting periods. Additionally, the cross-sectional survey creates difficulties in forming causal relationships between the constructs under investigation. According to Bollen (1989), a chronological importance is a condition of causality in which the cause must precede the effect. SEM helps in determining interrelated variables, while it does not help in defining the causal relationship. The structural model, as presented in Figure 6.18, indicates that the pull motivation has a positive relationship with experience quality. However, it cannot determine whether the pull motivation caused experience quality. As a cross-sectional design cannot cater for chronological conditions, it cannot determine that the statistically significant relationship verified in the research model shows causality. However, it can determine whether the constructs are associated with each other or not.

Lastly, the results of this study indicate that there were significant differences of tourist attitude and behaviour across cultures. While this may be true, there may be co-incident differences for the Indonesian sample due to the type of travel they undertaken. Additionally, the differences in dependent variables between the Indonesian and non-Indonesian samples may not be due to culture but to type of travel undertaken, purpose of visit and shopping preferences which did not explored in this study.

7.5 Directions for Further Research

This study has confirmed the relationships between push motivation, pull motivation, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention within the context of souvenir shopping tourism for Indonesian domestic, Asian and non-Asian sample groups of tourists. This study also has confirmed the difference in demographic characteristics,

travel patterns and shopping preferences of souvenir shopping tourists across cultural groups. Thus, this study has opened up opportunities for further research.

Given that the results of this research are based only on two destinations in Indonesia, the applicability of the results to other areas should be investigated. Thus, testing the research model using different destinations within Indonesia or outside the country would be beneficial. Further research may involve a proportionate number of respondents across cultural groups. Further research may also consider first-time and repeat visitors to the destinations, as these two groups may have different motivations and behaviour. Further research may use longitudinal research design, which enables detection of causal effects among constructs and enables following the stages of pre-consumption, during consumption, and post-consumption in the tourist's decision making processes. Future research may also look at the difference in relationships between the constructs of travel motivations, experience quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention for the three cultural groups.

While most hypotheses developed in this study were supported by the data, three hypotheses out of nine were not supported. Therefore, future research may replicate the research in other settings to validate the results of this study. It is also recommended that further research incorporates other variables, such as an involvement construct and perceived value, into the research model.

REFERENCES

Ajzen, I. 1991. The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* vol. 50, no. 2, pp. 179-211.

Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. 1980. *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour*, Englewood, NJ, Prentice-Hall.

Alegre, J. & Cladera, M. 2006. Repeat visitation in mature sun and sand holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 288-297.

Alegre, J. & Cladera, M. 2009. Analysing the effect of satisfaction and previous visits on tourist intentions to return. *European Journal of Marketing,* vol. 43, no. 5/6, pp. 670-685.

Alegre, J. & Cladera, M. 2012. Tourist characteristics that influence shopping participation and expenditures. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 223-237.

Alegre, J. & Garau, J. 2010. Tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 52-73.

Alegre, J. & Juaneda, C. 2006. Destination loyalty: Consumers' economic behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 33, no. 3, pp. 684-706.

Alwin, D. F. & Krosnick, J. A. 1991. The Reliability of Survey Attitude Measurement The Influence of Question and Respondent Attributes. *Sociological Methods and Research,* vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 139-181.

Anderson, E. W. & Sullivan, M. W. 1993. The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms. *Marketing Science,* vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 125-143.

Anderson, J. C. & Gerbing, D. W. 1988. Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin,* vol. 103, no. 3, pp. 411-423.

Anderson, L. F. & Littrell, M. A. 1995. Souvenir-purchase behavior of women tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 328-348.

Anderson, R. E. 1973. Consumer dissatisfaction: the effect of disconfirmed expectancy on perceived product performance. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 38-44.

Andriotis, K., Agiomirgianakis, G. & Mihiotis, A. 2007. Tourist vacation preferences: the case of mass tourists to Crete. *Tourism Analysis,* vol. 12, no. 1-2, pp. 51-63.

Anwar, S. A. & Sohail, M. S. 2004. Festival tourism in the United Arab Emirates: First-time versus repeat visitor perceptions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 161-170.

Arbukle, J. 2011. *AMOS 20.0 User's guide,* Chicago, SPSS Inc.

Arnold, M. J. & Reynolds, K. E. 2003. Hedonic shopping motivations. *Journal of Retailing,* vol. 79, no. 2, pp. 77-95.

Athanassopoulos, A., Gounaris, S. & Stathakopoulos, V. 2001. Behavioural responses to customer satisfaction: an empirical study. *European Journal of Marketing,* vol. 35, no. 5/6, pp. 687-707.

Babin, B. J., Darden, W. R. & Griffin, M. 1994. Work and/or fun: Measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *Journal of Consumer Research,* vol. 20, no. 4, pp. 644-656.

Bagozzi, R. P. 1983. Issues in the application of covariance structure analysis: A further comment. *Journal of Consumer Research,* vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 449-450.

Bagozzi, R. P., Yi, Y. & Phillips, L. W. 1991. Assessing construct validity in organizational research. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* vol. 36, no. 3, pp. 421-458.

Baker, D. A. & Crompton, J. L. 2000. Quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 785-804.

Baker, T. L. 1994. *Doing social research,* NY, McGraw-Hill.

Baloglu, S. & McCleary, K. W. 1999. A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 26, no. 4, pp. 868-897.

Baloglu, S., Pekcan, A., Chen, S. L. & Santos, J. 2004. The relationship between destination performance, overall satisfaction, and behavioral intention for distinct segments. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism,* vol. 4, no. 3-4, pp. 149-165.

Baloglu, S. & Uysal, M. 1996. Market segments of push and pull motivations: a canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 32-38.

Barutçu, S., Doğan, H. & Üngüren, E. 2011. Tourists' perception and satisfaction of shopping in Alanya region: A comparative analysis of different nationalities. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences,* vol. 24, pp. 1049-1059.

Bauer, M. & Meier, M. 2011. Shopping tourism. *The Long Tail of Tourism.* Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden, pp. 69-76.

Beerli, A. & Martín, J., D 2004. Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 31, no. 3, pp. 657-681.

Beerli, A. & Martín, J. D. 2004. Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: a quantitative analysis—a case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism Management,* vol. 25, no. 5, pp. 623-636.

Bentler, P. M. 1990. Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin,* vol. 107, no. 2, pp. 238-246.

Bentler, P. M. & Chou, C. P. 1987. Practical issues in structural modeling. *Sociological Methods & Research,* vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 78-117.

Bergadaa, M., Faure, C. & Perrien, J. 1995. Enduring involvement with shopping. *The Journal of Social Psychology,* vol. 135, no. 1, pp. 17-25.

Bollen, K. 1989. *Structural equations with latent variables,* NY, Wiley.

Bollen, K. & Long, J. 1993. *Testing structural equation models,* Newbury Park, California, Sage Focus Edition.

Bolton, R. N. & Drew, J. H. 1991. A longitudinal analysis of the impact of service changes on customer attitudes. *Journal of Marketing,* vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 1-10.

Bonn, M. A., Joseph, S. M. & Dai, M. 2005. International versus domestic visitors: An examination of destination image perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 294-301.

Bowen, D. 2001. Antecedents of consumer satisfaction and dis-satisfaction (CS/D) on long-haul inclusive tours—a reality check on theoretical considerations. *Tourism Management,* vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 49-61.

Bowen, D. & Clarke, J. 2002. Reflections on tourist satisfaction research: past, present and future. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 297-308.

Bowen, J. T. & Chen, S.-L. 2001. The relationship between customer loyalty and customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* vol. 13, no. 5, pp. 213-217.

BPS. 2011. *Badan Pusat Statistik* [Online]. Jakarta: Badan Pusat Statistik. Available: http://www.bps.go.id/ [Accessed 5 September 2011].

BPS. 2013. *Badan Pusat Statistik* [Online]. Jakarta. Available: http://www.bps.go.id/ [Accessed 2 February 2013].

Bramwell, B. 1998. User satisfaction and product development in urban tourism. *Tourism Management,* vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 35-47.

Bright, A. D. 2008. Motivations, attitudes, and beliefs. *Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management.* Burlington: Taylor and Francis.

Browne, M. W. 1968. A comparison of factor analytic techniques. *Psychometrika,* vol. 33, no. 3, pp. 267-334.

Bryman, A. & Cramer, D. 2011. *Quantitative data analysis with SPSS 17, 18 and 19,* London, Routledge.

Burns, A. C. & Bush, R. F. 2002. *Marketing research: Online research applications (4th ed.),* Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice Hall.

Butler, R. W. 1991. West Edmonton mall as a tourist attraction. *The Canadian Geographer/Le Géographe canadien,* vol. 35, no. 3, pp. 287-295.

Byrne, B. M. 2010. *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications and programming,* Mahwah, NJ, Psychology Press.

Byrne, B. M. 2013.*Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming (2nd ed.),* Hoboken, Taylor and Francis.

Cai, L. A., Lehto, X. Y. & O'leary, J. 2001. Profiling the US-bound Chinese travelers by purpose of trip. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing,* vol. 7, no. 4, pp. 3-16.

Campo, S. & Garau, J. B. 2008. The influence of nationality on the generation of tourist satisfaction with a destination. *Tourism Analysis,* vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 81-92.

Cardozo, R. N. 1965. An experimental study of customer effort, expectation, and satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 244-249.

Caru, A. & Cova, B. 2003. Revisiting Consumption Experience: A More Humble but Complete View of the Concept. *Marketing Theory,* vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 267-286.

Caruana, A. 2002. Service loyalty: the effects of service quality and the mediating role of customer satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing,* vol. 36, no. 7/8, pp. 811-828.

Cha, S., Mccleary, K. W. & Uysal, M. 1995. Travel motivations of Japanese overseas travelers: A factor-cluster segmentation approach. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 33-39.

Chan, J. K. & Baum, T. 2007. Ecotourists' perception of ecotourism experience in lower Kinabatangan, Sabah, Malaysia. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* vol. 15, no. 5, pp. 574-590.

Chang, T. Z. D. & Kong, W. H. 2012. The role of souvenir shopping in a diversified Macau destination portfolio. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management,* vol. 21, no. 3/4, pp. 357-373.

Chen, C. F. & Chen, F. S. 2010. Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism Management,* vol. 31, no. 1, pp. 29-35.

Chen, J. S. & Uysal, M. 2002. Market positioning analysis: A hybrid approach. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 987-1003.

Cheng, E. W. 2001. SEM being more effective than multiple regression in parsimonious model testing for management development research. *Journal of Management Development,* vol. 20, no. 7, pp. 650-667.

Chi, C. G.-Q. & Qu, H. 2008. Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management,* vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 624-636.

Chiang, C. C., King, B. E. & Nguyen, T. H. 2012. Information searching and the travel behaviours of MICE travellers: a cross-cultural study. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 103-115.

Chin, W. W., Peterson, R. A. & Brown, S. P. 2008. Structural equation modeling in marketing: some practical reminders. *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice,* vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 287-298.

Choi, T. M., Liu, S. C., Pang, K. M. & Chow, P. S. 2008. Shopping behaviors of individual tourists from the Chinese Mainland to Hong Kong. *Tourism Management,* vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 811-820.

Chon, K.-S. 1991. Tourism destination image modification process: Marketing implications. *Tourism Management,* vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 68-72.

Chon, K.-S. 1992. The role of destination image in tourism: An extension. *Tourism Review,* vol. 47, no. 1, pp. 2-8.

Chon, K.-S. & Olsen, M. D. 1991. Functional and symbolic congruity approaches to consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction in consumerism. *Journal of the International Academy of Hospitality Research,* no. 3, pp. 2-20.

Christiansen, T. & Snepenger, D. J. 2002. Is it the mood or the mall that encourages tourists to shop? *Journal of Shopping Center Research,* vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 7-26.

Churchill, G. A. & Surprenant, C. 1982. An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 491-504.

Churchill, J. G. A. 1979. A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of marketing research,*vol. 16, vol. February, pp. 64-73.

Cohen, E. 1988. Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 371-386.

Cole, S. T. & Chancellor, H. C. 2009. Examining the festival attributes that impact visitor experience, satisfaction and re-visit intention. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 323-333.

Cole, S. T., Crompton, J. L. & Willson, V. L. 2002. An empirical investigation of the relationships between service quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions among visitors to a wildlife refuge. *Journal of Leisure Research,* vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 1-24.

Cole, S. T. & Illum, S. F. 2006. Examining the mediating role of festival visitors' satisfaction in the relationship between service quality and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 160-173.

Cole, S. T. & Scott, D. 2004. Examining the mediating role of experience quality in a model of tourist experiences. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 79-90.

Collis, J. & Hussey, R. 2009. *Business research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students,* Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan.

Conner, M. & Sparks, P. 1996. *The theory of planned behaviour and health behaviours*, Open University Press.

Correia, A., Do-Valle, P. O. & Moço, C. 2007a. Modeling motivations and perceptions of Portuguese tourists. *Journal of Business Research,* vol. 60, no. 1, pp. 76-80.

Correia, A., Do-Valle, P. O. & Moço, C. 2007b. Why people travel to exotic places. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 45-61.

Correia, A., Kozak, M. & Ferradeira, J. 2013. From tourist motivations to tourist satisfaction. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 7, no. 4, pp. 411-424.

Crompton, J. L. 1979. Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 408-424.

Crompton, J. L. & Ankomah, P. K. 1993. Choice set propositions in destination decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 461-476.

Crompton, J. L. & Love, L. L. 1995. The predictive validity of alternative approaches to evaluating quality of a festival. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 11-24.

Crompton, J. L. & Mckay, S. L. 1997. Motives of visitors attending festival events. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 425-439.

Cronin, J. J., Brady, M. K. & Hult, G. T. M. 2000. Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing,* vol. 76, no. 2, pp. 193-218.

Cronin Jr, J. J., Brady, M. K. & Hult, G. T. M. 2000. Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of retailing,* vol. 76, no. 2, pp. 193-218.

Dann, G. 1977. Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 184-194.

Dann, G. 1981. Tourist motivation an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 187-219.

De Mooij, M. K. & Hofstede, G. 2010. The Hofstede model Applications to global branding and advertising strategy and research. *International Journal of Advertising,* vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 85-110.

Dielman, T., Cattell, R. & Wagner, A. 1972. Evidence on the simple structure and factor invariance achieved by five rotational methods on four types of data. *Multivariate Behavioral Research,* vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 223-242.

Dimanche, F. 2003. The Louisiana tax free shopping program for international visitors: a case study. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 311-314.

Dmitrovic, T. & Vida, I. 2007. An examination of cross-border shopping behaviour in South-East Europe. *European Journal of Marketing,* vol. 41, no. 3/4, pp. 382-395.

Do-Valle, P. O., Correai, A. & Rebelo, E. 2008. Determinants of tourism return behaviour. *Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 205-219.

Dunn Ross, E. L. & Iso-Ahola, S. E. 1991. Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 18, no. 2, pp. 226-237.

Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. B. 1991. The meaning and measurement of destination image. *Journal of Tourism Studies,* vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 2-12.

Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. B. 1993. The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 31, no. 4, pp. 3-13.

Eusébio, C. & Vieira, A. L. 2013. Destination attributes' evaluation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions: a structural modelling approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 66-80.

Fairhurst, A., Costello, C. & Holmes, A. F. 2007. An examination of shopping behavior of visitors to Tennessee according to tourist typologies. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 311-320.

Fakeye, P. C. & Crompton, J. L. 1991. Image differences between perspective, first-time and repeat visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. Fall, pp. 10-16.

Finch, J. F. & West, S. G. 1997. The investigation of personality structure: Statistical models. *Journal of Research in Personality,* vol. 31, no. 4, pp. 439-485.

Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. 1975. *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*, Addison-Wesley.

Fishbein, M. & Manfredo, M. J. 1992. A theory of behavior change. In*Influencing Human Behavior:Theory and applications in recreation, tourism, and natural resource management.*Champaign, IL, Sagamore, pp. 29-50.

Fodness, D. 1994. Measuring tourist motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 555-581.

Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J. & Bryant, B. E. 1996. The American customer satisfaction index: Nature, purpose, and findings. *The Journal of Marketing,* vol. 60, no. 4, pp. 7-18.

Fornell, C. & Larcker, D. F. 1981. Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 39-50.

Friedrich, W. 2007. Traveling to a Shopping Adventure. In *Trends and Issues in Global Tourism,*Springer.

Frochot, I. 2004. An investigation into the influence of the benefits sought by visitors on their quality evaluation of historic houses' service provision. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 223-237.

Gartner, W. C. 1989. Tourism image: Attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 28, no. 2, pp. 16-20.

Goeldner, C. R. & Ritchie, J. R. B. 2009. *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies,* Hoboken, NJ, John Wiley.

Goodall, B. & Ashworth, G. 2013. *Marketing in the tourism industry,* Hoboken, Taylor and Francis.

Gordon, B. 1986. The souvenir: Messenger of the extraordinary. *The Journal of Popular Culture,* vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 135-146.

Gorsuch, R. L. 1983. *Factor analysis (2nd Ed.),* Hillsdale, NJ, Erlbaum.

Graburn, N. 1989. *Tourism: the sacred journey,* Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press.

Gray, H. P. 1970. *International Travel – International Trade*, Lexington.

Gronholdt, L., Martensen, A. & Kristensen, K. 2000. The relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty: cross-industry differences. *Total Quality Management,* vol. 11, no. 4-6, pp. 509-514.

Gutman, J. 1982. A means-end chain model based on consumer categorization processes. *The Journal of Marketing,*vol. 46, no. 2, pp. 60-72.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. & Anderson, R. E. 2010. *Multivariate data analysis,* New Jersey, Pearson.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E. & Tatam, R. L. 2006. *Multivariate data analysis,* New Jersey, Pearson Education.

Pangestu, M. E. 2012. Indonesia wants to be next hot spot for shoppers, foodies. *The Jakarta Post*, 3 March 2012.

Henderson, J. C., Chee, L., Mun, C. N. & Lee, C. 2011. Shopping, tourism and retailing in Singapore. *Managing Leisure,* vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 36-48.

Heskett, J. L. & Sasser, W. E. 2010. The service profit chain. *Handbook of service science.* Springer.

Heung, V. & Cheng, E. 2000. Assessing tourists' satisfaction with shopping in the Hong Kong special administrative region of China. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 38, no. 4, pp. 396-404.

Heung, V. & Qu, H. 1998. Tourism shopping and its contributions to Hong Kong. *Tourism Management,* vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 383-386.

Heung, V., Wong, M. & Qu, H. 2002. A study of tourists' satisfaction and post-experience behavioral intentions in relation to airport restaurant services in the Hong Kong SAR. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* vol. 12, no. 2-3, pp. 111-135.

Hinkin, T. R. 1995. A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management,* vol. 21, no. 5, pp. 967-988.

Hirschman, E. C. 1980. Innovativeness, novelty seeking, and consumer creativity. *Journal of Consumer Research,* vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 283-295.

Hitchcock, M. & Teague, K. 2000. *Souvenirs: the material culture of tourism*, Ashgate Publishing Ltd.

Hoelter, J. W. 1983. The analysis of covariance structures: goodness-of-fit indices. *Sociological Methods & Research,* vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 325-344.

Hoffman, K. & Bateson, J. 2010. *Services marketing: Concepts, strategies and cases*, Cengage Learning.

Hofstede, G. & Hofstede, G. J. 2005. Cultures and organizations, software of the mind, intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival. Revised and expanded 2nd edition. NY, McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. J. 1991.*Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind,* NY, McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. J. 2001.*Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind,* NY, McGraw-Hill.

Holmes-Smith, P. 2013. *Structural equation modelling: From the fundamentals to advanced topics,* Melbourne, SREAMS.

Hosany, S. & Witham, M. 2010. Dimensions of cruisers' experiences, satisfaction, and intention to recommend. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 49, no. 3, pp. 351-364.

Hsieh, A.-T. & Chang, J. 2006. Shopping and tourist night markets in Taiwan. *Tourism Management,* vol. 27, no. 1, pp. 138-145.

Hsieh, S., O'Leary, J. T. & Morrison, A. M. 1994. A comparison of package and non-package travelers from the United Kingdom. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing,* vol. 6, no. 3-4, pp. 79-100.

Hsu, C. H., Cai, L. A. & Li, M. 2010. Expectation, motivation, and attitude: A tourist behavioral model. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 49, no. 3, pp. 282-296.

Hsu, C. H., Cai, L. A. & Wong, K. K. 2007. A model of senior tourism motivations—Anecdotes from Beijing and Shanghai. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 5, pp. 1262-1273.

Hu, B. & Yu, H. 2007. Segmentation by craft selection criteria and shopping involvement. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 4, pp. 1079-1092.

Hu, L. T. & Bentler, P. M. 1999. Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal,* vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 1-55.

Huang, S. & Hsu, C. H. C. 2009. Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 29-44.

Hubbard, R. & Allen, S. J. 1987. An empirical comparison of alternative methods for principal component extraction. *Journal of Business Research,* vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 173-190.

Hui, T. K., Wan, D. & Ho, A. 2007. Tourists' satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 4, pp. 965-975.

Hutchinson, J., Lai, F. & Wang, Y. 2009. Understanding the relationships of quality, value, equity, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions among golf travelers. *Tourism Management,* vol. 30, no. 2, pp. 298-308.

Iso-Ahola, S. E. 1982. Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 256-262.

Jafari, J., Baretje, R., Buhalis, D., Cohen, E., Collison, F., Dann, G. M. S., Din, K. H., Fayos-Sola, E. & Fletcher, J. 2000. *Encyclopedia of Tourism,* NY, Routledge.

Jang, S. C. S. & Wu, C. M. E. 2006. Seniors' travel motivation and the influential factors: An examination of Taiwanese seniors. *Tourism Management,* vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 306-316.

Jang, S. S. & Cai, L. A. 2002. Travel motivations and destination choice: A study of British outbound market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 111-133.

Jansen-Verbeke, M. 1991. Leisure shopping: A magic concept for the tourism industry? *Tourism Management,* vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 9-14.

Jansen-Verbeke, M. 1998. Tourismification of Historical Cities. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 739-742.

Jennings, G., Lee, Y.-S., Ayling, A., Lunny, B., Cater, C. & Ollenburg, C. 2009. Quality tourism experiences: reviews, reflections, research agendas. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management,* vol. 18, no. 2/3, pp. 294-310.

Jönsson, C. & Devonish, D. 2008. Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation? A case of visitors to the Caribbean island of Barbados. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 25, no. 3-4, pp. 398-408.

Josiam, B. M., Kinley, T. R. & Kim, Y. K. 2005. Involvement and the tourist shopper: using the involvement construct to segment the American tourist shopper at the mall. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 135-154.

Kao, Y. F., Huang, L. S. & Wu, C. H. 2008. Effects of theatrical elements on experiential quality and loyalty intentions for theme parks. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research,* vol. 13, no. 2, pp. 163-174.

Kau, A. K. & Lim, P. S. 2005. Clustering of Chinese tourists to Singapore: An analysis of their motivations, values and satisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* vol. 7, no. 4-5, pp. 231-248.

Kemperman, A. D., Borgers, A. W. & Timmermans, H. J. 2009. Tourist shopping behavior in a historic downtown area. *Tourism Management,* vol. 30, no. 2, pp. 208-218.

Kenny, D. 1979. *Correlation and causality,* NY, Wiley.

Kent, W. E., Shock, P. J. & Snow, R. E. 1983. Shopping: tourism's unsung hero-(ine). *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 21, no. 4, pp. 2-4.

Keown, C. F. 1989. A model of tourists' propensity to buy: The case of Japanese visitors to Hawaii. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 31-34.

Kim, C. & Lee, S. 2000. Understanding the Cultural Differences in Tourist Motivation Between Anglo-American and Japanese Tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 9, no. 1-2, pp. 153-170.

Kim, J. H. & Ritchie, B. W. 2012. Motivation-Based Typology An Empirical Study of Golf Tourists. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* vol. 36, no. 2, pp. 251-280.

Kim, J. H., Ritchie, J. R. B. & McCormick, B. 2012. Development of a scale to measure memorable tourism experiences. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 51, no. 1, pp. 12-25.

Kim, J. H., Ritchie, J. R. B. & Tung, V. W. S. 2010. The effect of memorable experience on behavioral intentions in tourism: A structural equation modeling approach. *Tourism Analysis,* vol. 15, no. 6, pp. 637-648.

Kim, K. 2008. Analysis of structural equation model for the student pleasure travel market: Motivation, involvement, satisfaction, and destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 297-313.

Kim, S. & Littrell, M. A. 1999. Predicting Souvenir Purchase Intentions. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 153-162.

Kim, S. & Littrell, M. A. 2001. Souvenir buying intentions for self versus others. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 638-657.

Kim, S. S. & Lee, C. K. 2002. Push and pull relationships. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 257-260.

Kim, S. S., Lee, C. K. & Klenosky, D. B. 2003. The influence of push and pull factors at Korean national parks. *Tourism Management,* vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 169-180.

Kim, S. S. & Prideaux, B. 2005. Marketing implications arising from a comparative study of international pleasure tourist motivations and other travel-related characteristics of visitors to Korea. *Tourism Management,* vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 347-357.

Kim, S. S., Timothy, D. J. & Hwang, J. 2011. Understanding Japanese tourists' shopping preferences using the decision tree analysis method. *Tourism Management,* vol. 32, no. 3, pp. 544-554.

Kinley, T. R., Forney, J. A. & Kim, Y. K. 2012. Travel motivation as a determinant of shopping venue. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 266-278.

Kinley, T. R., Josiam, B. M. & Kim, Y. 2003. Why and where tourists shop: motivations of tourist-shoppers and their preferred shopping center attributes. *Journal of Shopping Center Research,* vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 7-28.

Klenosky, D. B. 2002. The "pull" of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 40, no. 4, pp. 396-403.

Klenosky, D. B., Gengler, C. E. & Mulvey, M. S. 1993. Understanding the factors influencing ski destination choice: A means-end analytic approach. *Journal of Leisure Research,* vol. 25, no. 4, pp. 362-379.

Kline, R. 2005. *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling,* NY, Guilford Press.

Knutson, B. J., Beck, J. A., Kim, S. & Cha, J. 2010. Service quality as a component of the hospitality experience: proposal of a conceptual model and framework for research. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research,* vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 15-23.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J. & Makens, J. C. 2010. *Marketing for hospitality and tourism,* Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson.

Kotler, P. & Keller, K. L. 2009. *Marketing Management,* Boston, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Kozak, M. 2001. Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 784-807.

Kozak, M. 2002. Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management,* vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 221-232.

Kozak, M. 2003. Measuring tourist satisfaction with multiple destination attributes. *Tourism Analysis,* vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 229-240.

Kozak, M., Bigné, E. & Andreu, L. 2004. Limitations of cross-cultural customer satisfaction research and recommending alternative methods. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism,* vol. 4, no. 3-4, pp. 37-59.

Kozak, M. & Remmington, M. 2000. Tourist Satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an Off-Season Holiday Destination. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 38, no. 3, pp. 260-269.

Krejcie, R. V. & Morgan, D. W. 1970. Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 607-610.

Kumar, R. 1999. *Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners,* Thousand Oaks, Calif, Sage.

Lau, A. L. & McKercher, B. 2004. Exploration versus acquisition: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 279-285.

Law, R. & Au, N. 2000. Relationship modeling in tourism shopping: a decision rules induction approach. *Tourism Management,* vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 241-249.

Leary, M. R. 2012. *Introduction to behavioral research methods,* Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Education.

Lee, C.-K., Yoon, Y.-S. & Lee, S.-K. 2007a. Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean DMZ. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 204-214.

Lee, S. Y., Petrick, J. F. & Crompton, J. 2007b. The roles of quality and intermediary constructs in determining festival attendees' behavioral intention. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 45, no. 4, pp. 402-412.

Lehew, M. L. & Wesley, S. C. 2007. Tourist shoppers' satisfaction with regional shopping mall experiences. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 82-96.

Lehto, X. Y., Cai, L. A., O'leary, J. T. & Huan, T.-C. 2004. Tourist shopping preferences and expenditure behaviours: The case of the Taiwanese outbound market. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 320-332.

Leung, R., Au, N. & Law, R. 2014. The Recent Asian Wave in Tourism Research: The Case of the Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research,* no. ahead-of-print, pp. 1-28.

Li, M. & Cai, L. A. 2012. The Effects of Personal Values on Travel Motivation and Behavioral Intention. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 51, no. 4, pp. 473-487.

Littrell, M. A., Baizerman, S., Kean, R., Gahring, S., Niemeyer, S., Reilly, R. & Stout, J. 1994. Souvenirs and tourism styles. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 33, no. 1, pp. 3-11.

Littrell, M. A., Anderson, L. F. & Brown, P. J. 1993. What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 197-215.

Liu, S.-C., Choi, T.-M. & Lee, W. T. 2008. Tourists' satisfaction levels and shopping preferences under the solo travel policy in Hong Kong. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management,* vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 351-364.

Lloyd, A. E., Yip, L. S. & Luk, S. T. 2011a. An examination of the differences in retail service evaluation between domestic and tourist shoppers in Hong Kong. *Tourism Management,* vol. 32, no. 3, pp. 520-533.

Lloyd, A. E., Yip, L. S. C. & Luk, S. T. K. 2011b. An examination of the differences in retail service evaluation between domestic and tourist shoppers in Hong Kong. *Tourism Management,* vol. 32, no. 3, pp. 520-533.

Love, L. L. & Sheldon, P. S. 1998. Souvenirs: messengers of meaning. *Advances in Consumer Research,* vol. 25, pp. 170-175.

Lupton, R. A. 1997. Customer portfolio development: Modeling destination adopters, inactives, and rejecters. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 35-43.

Mak, B. L., Tsang, N. K. & Cheung, I. C. 1999. Taiwanese tourists' shopping preferences. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 190-198.

Malhotra, N. K. 2006. *Marketing research: an applied orientation,* Frenchs Forest, N.S.W, Pearson Education Australia.

Mannell, R. C. & Iso-Ahola, S. E. 1987. Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 14, no. 3, pp. 314-331.

Mattila, A. S. 1999a. The role of culture and purchase motivation in service encounter evaluations. *Journal of Services Marketing,* vol. 13, no. 4/5, pp. 376-389.

Mattila, A. S. 1999b. An analysis of means-end hierarchies in cross-cultural context: What motivates Asian and Western business travelers to stay at luxury hotels? *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing,* vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 19-28.

Mattila, A. S. & Choi, S. 2006. A cross-cultural comparison of perceived fairness and satisfaction in the context of hotel room pricing. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 146-153.

McCleary, K. W., Weaver, P. A. & Hsu, C. H. 2007. The relationship between international leisure travelers' origin country and product satisfaction, value, service quality, and intent to return. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 21, no. 2-3, pp. 117-130.

McKercher, B. & Chan, A. 2005. How special is special interest tourism? *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 44, no. 1, pp. 21-31.

Meng, F. 2010. Individualism/collectivism and group travel behavior: a cross-cultural perspective. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 340-351.

Menparekraf. 2012. *Kementerian Pariwisata dan Ekonomi Kreatif Republik Indonesia.* Available: http://www.budpar.go.id/budpar/asp/index.asp [Accessed 1 April 2012.

Milman, A. & Pizam, A. 1995. The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: the Central Florida case. *Journal of travel research,* vol. 33, no. 3, pp. 21-27.

Mitchell, M. A. & Orwig, R. A. 2002. Consumer experience tourism and brand bonding. *Journal of Product & Brand Management,* vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 30-41.

Mittal, V., Kumar, P. & Tsiros, M. 1999. Attribute-level performance, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions over time: a consumption-system approach. *The Journal of Marketing,*vol, 63, no. 2, pp. 88-101.

Morrison, A. M., Hsieh, S. & O'leary, J. T. 1994. A comparison of the travel arrangements of international travelers from France, Germany and the UK. *Tourism Management,* vol. 15, no. 6, pp. 451-463.

Moscardo, G. 2004. Shopping as a destination attraction: An empirical examination of the role of shopping in tourists' destination choice and experience. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 294-307.

Moscardo, G. 2009. Understanding tourist experience through mindfulness theory. *Handbook of tourist behavior: Theory and practice,*Routledge, NY, pp. 99-115.

Mossberg, L. 2007. A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism,* vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 59-74.

Munthen, B. O. & Kaplan, D. 1985. A comparison of some methodologies for the factor analysis of non-normal Likert variables. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology,* vol. 38, pp. 171-80.

Murphy, L., Moscardo, G., Benckendorff, P. & Pearce, P. 2011. Evaluating tourist satisfaction with the retail experience in a typical tourist shopping village. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* vol. 18, no. 4, pp. 302-310.

Murphy, P. & Pritchard, M. 1997. Destination price-value perceptions: an examination of origin and seasonal influences. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 35, no. 3, pp. 16-22.

Murphy, P., Pritchard, M. P. & Smith, B. 2000. The destination product and its impact on traveller perceptions. *Tourism Management,* vol. 21, no. 1, pp. 43-52.

Neuman, W. L. 2011. *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches,* Boston, Allyn & Bacon.

Nunkoo, R., Ramkissoon, H. & Gursoy, D. 2013. Use of Structural Equation Modeling in Tourism Research Past, Present, and Future. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 52, no. 6, pp. 759-771.

Nunnally, J. 1978. *Psychometric theory. 2nd ed.*NY, McGraw-Hill.

O'Leary, S. & Deegan, J. 2005. Career progression of Irish tourism and hospitality management graduates. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* vol. 17, no. 5, pp. 421-432.

Oh, C. H., Uysal, M. & Weaver, P. A. 1995. Product bundles and market segments based on travel motivations: A canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 123-137.

Oh, H., Fiore, A. M. & Jeoung, M. 2007. Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 46, no. 2, pp. 119-132.

Oh, J. Y. J., Cheng, C. K., Lehto, X. Y. & O'leary, J. T. 2004. Predictors of tourists' shopping behaviour: Examination of socio-demographic characteristics and trip typologies. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 308-319.

Oliver, R. L. 1980. A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 460-469.

Oliver, R. L. 1995. Attribute need fulfillment in product usage satisfaction. *Psychology & Marketing,* vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 1-17.

Oliver, R. L. 1997. *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer,* NY, McGraw-Hill.

Oliver, R. L. 1999. Whence consumer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing,* vol. 63, no. 4, pp. 33-44.

Oliver, R. L. 2010. *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*, ME Sharpe.

Oliver, R. L. & Swan, J. E. 1989. Consumer perceptions of interpersonal equity and satisfaction in transactions: A field survey approach. *Journal of Marketing,* vol. 53, no. 2, pp. 21-35.

Olorunniwo, F., Hsu, M. K. & Udo, G. J. 2006. A typology analysis of service quality, customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions in mass services. *Managing Service Quality,* vol. 16, no. 2, pp. 106-123.

Olshavsky, R. W. & Miller, J. A. 1972. Consumer expectations, product performance, and perceived product quality. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol, 9, no, 1, pp. 19-21.

Oppermann, M. 1997. First-time and repeat visitors to New Zealand. *Tourism Management,* vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 177-181.

Osti, L., Turner, L. W. & King, B. 2009. Cultural differences in travel guidebooks information search. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 63-78.

Otto, J. E. & Ritchie, J. 1996. The service experience in tourism. *Tourism Management,* vol. 17, no. 3, pp. 165-174.

Ouellette, J. A. & Wood, W. 1998. Habit and intention in everyday life: the multiple processes by which past behavior predicts future behavior. *Psychological Bulletin,* vol. 124, no. 1, pp. 54-74.

Ozdipciner, N. S., Li, X. & Uysal, M. 2012. Cross-cultural differences in purchase decision-making criteria. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 34-43.

Pallant, J. 2011. *SPSS survival guide (4th ed.),* Crows Nest, NSW, Australia, Allen & Unwin.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A. & Berry, L. L. 1988. Servqual. *Journal of Retailing,* vol. 64, no. 1, pp. 12-37.

Park, K. S. & Reisinger, Y. 2009. Cultural differences in shopping for luxury goods: Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 26, no. 8, pp. 762-777.

Park, M.-K. 2000. Social and cultural factors influencing tourists' souvenir-purchasing behavior: a comparative study on Japanese "Omiyage" and Korean "Sunmul". *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 9, no. 1-2, pp. 81-91.

Park, S. G., Kim, K. & O'Neill, M. 2014. Complaint behavior intentions and expectation of service recovery in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 255-271.

Pearce, D. G. & Butler, R. W. 1993. *Tourism research: critiques and challenges*, Routledge.

Pearce, P. L. 1991. Analysing tourist attractions. *Journal of Tourism Studies,* vol. 2, no. 1, pp. 46-55.

Pearce, P. L. & Caltabiano, M. L. 1983. Inferring travel motivation from travelers' experiences. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 16-20.

Perng, S. W., Chow, C. C. & Liao, W. C. 2010. Analysis of shopping preference and satisfaction with airport retailing products. *Journal of Air Transport Management,* vol. 16, no. 5, pp. 279-283.

Petrick, J. F. 2004. The roles of quality, value, and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioral intentions. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 42, no. 4, pp. 397-407.

Petrick, J. F. & Backman, S. J. 2002. An examination of the construct of perceived value for the prediction of golf travelers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 41, no. 1, pp. 38-45.

Petrick, J. F., Morais, D. D. & Norman, W. C. 2001. An examination of the determinants of entertainment vacationers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 40, no. 1, pp. 41-48.

Pike, S. 2004. *Destination marketing organisations*, Routledge.

Pine, B. J. & Gilmore, J. H. 1998. Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review,* vol. 76, pp. 97-105.

Pizam, A. & Ellis, T. 1999. Customer satisfaction and its measurement in hospitality enterprises. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* vol. 11, no. 7, pp. 326-339.

Pizam, A. & Mansfeld, Y. 1999. *Consumer behaviour in travel and tourism*, Psychology Press.

Pizam, A. & Milman, A. 1993. Predicting satisfaction among first time visitors to a destination by using the expectancy disconfirmation theory. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 197-209.

Pizam, A., Neumann, Y. & Reichel, A. 1978. Dimensions of tourist satisfaction with a destination area. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 5, no. 3, pp. 314-322.

Pizam, A., Neumann, Y. & Reichel, A. 1979. Tourist satisfaction: Uses and misuses. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 195-197.

Prayag, G. 2012. Senior travelers' motivations and future behavioral intentions: The case of Nice. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 29, no. 7, pp. 665-681.

Prihatiyani, E. 2012. 18 Produk Kriya Indonesia Raih Penghargaan UNESCO, [Online]. Jakarta: KOMPAS. Available: www.kompas.com [Accessed 31 October 2012].

Pyo, S., Mihalik, B. J. & Uysal, M. 1989. Attraction attributes and motivations: A canonical correlation analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 16, no. 2, pp. 277-282.

Qu, H. & Ping, E. W. Y. 1999. A service performance model of Hong Kong cruise travelers' motivation factors and satisfaction. *Tourism Management,* vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 237-244.

Rabbiosi, C. 2011. The invention of shopping tourism. The discursive repositioning of landscape in an Italian retail-led case. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change,* vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 70-86.

Reichheld, F. F. 1992. Loyalty-based management. *Harvard Business Review,* vol. 71, no. 2, pp. 64-73.

Reichheld, F. F. 1996. *The Loyalty Effect,* Harvard, MA, Harvard Business School Press.

Reichheld, F. F. & Sasser, W. E. 1989. Zero defections: quality comes to services. *Harvard Business Review,* vol. 68, no. 5, pp. 105-111.

Reisinger, Y. 2006. Shopping and tourism. *Tourism business frontiers: Consumers, products and industry.* Oxford: Elsevier.

Reisinger, Y. 2009a. Cross-cultural differences in tourist behavior. *Handbook of tourist behavior: Theory & practice*, NY, Routledge.

Reisinger, Y. 2009b. *International tourism: Cultures and behavior,* Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann.

Reisinger, Y. & Mavondo, F. 2005. Travel anxiety and intentions to travel internationally: Implications of travel risk perception. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 212-225.

Reisinger, Y. & Turner, L. 1997. Cross-cultural differences in tourism: Indonesian tourists in Australia. *Tourism Management,* vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 139-147.

Reisinger, Y. & Turner, L. 2002. The determination of shopping satisfaction of Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and the Gold Coast compared. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 41, no. 2, pp. 167.

Reisinger, Y. & Turner, L. 2003. *Cross-cultural behaviour in tourism: Concepts and analysis,* Oxford, Elsevier Science Limited.

Reynolds, N. L., Simintiras, A. C. & Diamantopoulos, A. 2003. Theoretical justification of sampling choices in international marketing research: key issues and guidelines for researchers. *Journal of International Business Studies,* vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 80-89.

Reynolds, T. J. & Gutman, J. 1988. Laddering theory, method, analysis, and interpretation. *Journal of Advertising Research,* vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 11-31.

Ritchie, J. R. B. & Crouch, G. I. 2003. *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective,* Oxford, CABI Publishing.

Rittichainuwat, B. N., Qu, H. & Mongkhonvanit, C. 2008. Understanding the motivation of travelers on repeat visits to Thailand. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 5-21.

Rittichainuwat, B. N., Qu, H. &Mongkhonvanit, C. 2002. A Study of the Impactof Travel Satisfaction on the Likelihood of Travelers to Revisit Thailand. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 12, no. 2-3, pp. 19-43.

Rosenbaum, M. S. & Spears, D. 2009. Using group comparisons in AMOS to explore shopping as a travel driver. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research,* vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 313-325.

Rosenbaum, M. S. & Spears, D. L. 2005. Who buys that? Who does what? Analysis of cross-cultural consumption behaviours among tourists in Hawaii. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 235-247.

Rosenbaum, M. S. & Spears, D. L. 2006. An exploration of spending behaviors among Japanese tourists. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 44, no. 4, pp. 467-473.

Rust, R. T. & Zahorik, A. J. 1993. Customer satisfaction, customer retention, and market share. *Journal of Retailing,* vol. 69, no. 2, pp. 193-215.

Schiffman, L. G. & Kanuk, L. L. 2009. *Consumer behavior,* Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Schumacker, R. E. & Lomax, R. G. 2004. *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling (2nd Ed.),* Mawah, NJ, Psychology Press.

Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. 2010. *Research methods for business: a skill-building approach,* Chichester, Wiley.

Shanka, T. & Setiyati, E. 2008. Niche retailing: souvenir attributes and purchase intentions. *The journal of contemporary issues in business and government,* vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 49-67.

Shanka, T., Setiyati, E. & Taylor, R. 2008. Niche retailing: Souvenir attributes and purchase intentions. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Business and Government,* vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 49-67.

Sirgy, M. J. 1984. A social cognition model of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction an experiment. *Psychology & Marketing,* vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 27-44.

Smith, S., Costello, C. & Muenchen, R. A. 2010. Influence of push and pull motivations on satisfaction and behavioral intentions within a culinary tourism event. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism,* vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 17-35.

Solomon, M. R. 2011. *Consumer behavior: buying, having, and being,* Upper Saddle River, NJ, Pearson Education/Prentice Hall.

Solomon, M. R., Askegaard, S. E. & Barmossy, G. 2002. *Consumer behaviour: A European perspective,* NY, Financial Times/Prentice-Hall.

Spreng, R. A., Mackenzie, S. B. & Olshavsky, R. W. 1996. A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing,* vol. 60, no. 3, pp. 15-32.

Spreng, R. A. & Olshavsky, R. W. 1993. A desires congruency model of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 169-177.

Sugiyarto, G., Blake, A. & Sinclair, M. T. 2003. Tourism and globalization: economic impact in Indonesia. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 683-701.

Swanson, K. K. 2004. Tourists' and retailers' perceptions of souvenirs. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 363-377.

Swanson, K. K. & Horridge, P. E. 2002. Tourists' souvenir purchase behavior and retailers' awareness of tourists' purchase behavior in the Southwest. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal,* vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 62-76.

Swanson, K. K. & Horridge, P. E. 2004. A structural model for souvenir consumption, travel activities, and tourist demographics. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 42, no. 4, pp. 372-380.

Swanson, K. K. & Horridge, P. E. 2006. Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism Management,* vol. 27, no. 4, pp. 671-683.

Swanson, K. K. & Timothy, D. J. 2012. Souvenirs: icons of meaning, commercialization and commoditization. *Tourism Management,* vol. 33, no. 3, pp. 489-499.

Tabachnick, B. & Fidell, L. 2007. *Using multivariate statistics (5th ed.),* Boston, Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.

Tauber, E. M. 1972. Why do people shop? *Journal of Marketing,* vol. 36, no. 4, pp. 46-49.

Taylor, S. A. & Baker, T. L. 1994. An assessment of the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in the formation of consumers' purchase intentions. *Journal of Retailing,* vol. 70, no. 2, pp. 163-178.

Timothy, D. J. 2005. *Shopping tourism, retailing, and leisure*, Channel View Books.

Timothy, D. J. & Butler, R. W. 1995. Cross-border shopping: A North American perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 16-34.

Timothy, D. J. & Wall, G. 1997. Selling to tourists: Indonesian street vendors. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 322-340.

Tosun, C., Temizkan, S. P., Timothy, D. J. & Fyall, A. 2007. Tourist shopping experiences and satisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 87-102.

Tsang, N. K., Tsai, H. & Leung, F. 2011. A critical investigation of the bargaining behavior of tourists: The case of Hong Kong open-air markets. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 27-47.

Tsaur, S. H., Lin, C. T. & Wu, C. S. 2005. Cultural differences of service quality and behavioral intention in tourist hotels. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing,* vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 41-63.

Tse, D. K. & Wilton, P. C. 1988. Models of consumer satisfaction Formation: An extension. *Journal of Marketing Research,* vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 204-212.

Tucker, L. R., Koopman, R. F. & Linn, R. L. 1969. Evaluation of factor analytic research procedures by means of simulated correlation matrices. *Psychometrika,* vol. 34, no. 4, pp. 421-459.

Turner, L. W. & Reisinger, Y. 2001. Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services,* vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 15-27.

Um, S., Chon, K. & Ro, Y. 2006. Antecedents of revisit intention. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 33, no. 4, pp. 1141-1158.

UNESCO. 2012. *World Heritage List* [Online]. UNESCO. Available: http://whc.unesco.org/en/list [Accessed 6 March 2012].

UNWTO. 2014. *Global report on shopping tourism,* Madrid, Spain, UNWTO.

Uysal, M. & Jurowski, C. 1994. Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Tourism Research,* vol. 21, no. 4, pp. 844-846.

Uysal, M., Li, X. & Sirakaya-Turk, E. 2008. Push-pull dynamics in travel decisions. *Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management.* Burlington, Taylor & Francis.

Uysal, M., Perdue, R. & Sirgy, M. J. 2012. *Handbook of tourism and quality-of-life research: enhancing the lives of tourists and residents of host communities,* Dordrecht, Springer.

Wang, Y. & Pizam, A. 2011. *Destination marketing and management: theories and applications,* Wallington, Oxfordshire, CABI Publishing.

Weber, K. 1997. The assessment of tourist satisfaction using the expectancy disconfirmation theory: a study of the German travel market in Australia. *Pacific Tourism Review,* vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 35-45.

Weiermair, K. 2000. Tourists' perceptions towards and satisfaction with service quality in the cross-cultural service encounter: implications for hospitality and tourism management. *Managing Service Quality,* vol. 10, no. 6, pp. 397-409.

Wicks, B., Do, K., Hsieh, P.-C., Komorowski, A., Martin, K., Qiu, X., Rimdzius, M., Strzelecka, M., Wade, K. & Yu, G. 2004. Direct marketing of crafts and souvenirs to Vladmir Visitors. *Vladimir tourism development project.* Urbana-Champaign, University of Illinois

Wijaya, S., King, B., Nguyen, T.-H. & Morrison, A. 2013. International visitor dining experiences: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management,* vol. 20, pp. 34-42.

Wilkins, H. 2011. Souvenirs: What and why we buy. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 50, no. 3, pp. 239-247.

Wong, J. & Law, R. 2003. Difference in shopping satisfaction levels: a study of tourists in Hong Kong. *Tourism Management,* vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 401-410.

Woodside, A. G. & Dubelaar, C. 2002. A general theory of tourism consumption systems: A conceptual framework and an empirical exploration. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 41, no. 2, pp. 120-132.

Woodside, A. G. & Lysonski, S. 1989. A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of travel Research,* vol. 27, no. 4, pp. 8-14.

Woodside, A. G., Macdonald, R. & Burford, M. 2004. Grounded theory of leisure travel. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing,* vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 7-39.

Yeung, S., Wong, J. & Ko, E. 2004. Preferred shopping destination: Hong Kong versus Singapore. *International Journal of Tourism Research,* vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 85-96.

Yoon, Y. & Uysal, M. 2005. An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism Management,* vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 45-56.

You, X., O'Leary, J., Morrison, A. & Hong, G.-S. 2000. A cross-cultural comparison of travel push and pull factors: United Kingdom vs. Japan. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration,* vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 1-26.

Yu, H. & Littrell, M. A. 2003. Product and process orientations to tourism shopping. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 42, no. 2, pp. 140-150.

Yuan, S. & McDonald, C. 1990. Motivational determinates of international pleasure time. *Journal of Travel Research,* vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 42-44.

Yüksel, A. 2004. Shopping experience evaluation: A case of domestic and international visitors. *Tourism Management,* vol. 25, no. 6, pp. 751-759.

Yüksel, A. 2007. Tourist shopping habitat: Effects on emotions, shopping value and behaviours. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 58-69.

Yüksel, A. & Yuksel, F. 2007. Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 703-713.

Yüksel, A. & Yüksel, F. 2003. Measurement of tourist satisfaction with restaurant services: A segment-based approach. *Journal of Vacation Marketing,* vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 52-68.

Yüksel, A. & Yüksel, F. 2007. Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty intentions. *Tourism Management,* vol. 28, no. 3, pp. 703-713.

Žabkar, V., Brenčič, M. M. & Dmitrović, T. 2010. Modelling perceived quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions at the destination level. *Tourism Management,* vol. 31, no. 4, pp. 537-546.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L. & Parasuraman, A. 1996. The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing,* vol. 60, no. 2, pp.31-46.

Zeithaml, V. A. & Bitner, M. J. 2000. *Services marketing: integrating customer focus across the firm,* Boston, Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J. & Gremler, D. D. 2006. *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm (4th Ed.),* Boston, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Zikmund, W. G. & Babin, B. J. 2010. *Exploring marketing research,* Australia, South-Western/Cengage Learning.

Zikmund, W. G., Ward, S., Lowe, B., Winzar, H. & Babin, B. J. 2011. *Marketing Research,* Australia, Cengage Learning.

Zouni, G. & Kouremenos, A. 2008. Do tourism providers know their visitors? An investigation of tourism experience at a destination. *Tourism and hospitality research,* vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 282-297.

Zulaikha, E. & Brereton, M. Innovation strategies for developing the traditional souvenir craft industry. Engineering, Designing and Developing the Built Environment for Sustainable Wellbeing, 2011 Brisbane Australia. Queensland University of Technology, pp. 53-58.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Intangible Cultural Heritage

Batik

Batik has been defined as a Masterpiece of Oral and Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity by the UNESCO in 2009. Batik is a cloth that is traditionally made using a manual wax-resist dyeing technique. The existence and use of batik was recorded as early as the twelfth century and the textile has since become a strong source of identity for Indonesians. Batik has facilitated the expansion of the small business local economy. For example, in 2010, batik sales in Indonesia reached Rp 3.9 trillion (US$436.8 million), an increase from Rp 2.5 trillion in 2006. The value of batik exports, meanwhile, increased from $14.3 million in 2006 to $22.3 million in 2010.

Batik was originally carried out only in the palace and the finished batik was solely for the use of the king, his family and his followers. However, as many of the king's followers lived outside the palace, the art of batik was carried out with them. In the development, batik art was gradually imitated by the people nearest to the palace, it was then further expanded into the work of women in the household to fill leisure time. Furthermore, batik clothes that had been used only for the royal family, became popular clothing for people, both women and men.

The colour, motif and style of Javanese batik from Yogyakarta and Surakarta have remarkable meanings entrenched in the Javanese philosophy of the universe. The types and styles of traditional batik are plentiful, with the patterns and their variations in accordance with the philosophy and culture of each region. The cultural treasures of this rich Indonesian diversity has led to the birth of various shades and types of traditional batik, each with unique characteristics. The wide assortment of patterns echoes a variability of influences, stretching from native designs, Arabic calligraphy, European bouquets and Chinese phoenixes to Japanese cherry blossoms and Indian or Persian peacocks. The colours of batik from the coastal cities of northern Java are usually vibrant, adopted from Javanese, Arab, Chinese and Dutch cultures. One piece of batik can cost anywhere from several dollars to several thousand dollars, depending on the quality of the art work, craftsmanship, and fabric.

Nowadays, batik is part of daily fashion for most Indonesians and has become one of Indonesia's most prominent costume identities. Batik is a fashion item for many young people in Indonesia, whether designed as a shirt, dress, or scarf for casual wear.

Figure 1.1 - Various Types of Batik

Batik Yogyakarta

Batik from Pekalongan, CentralJava
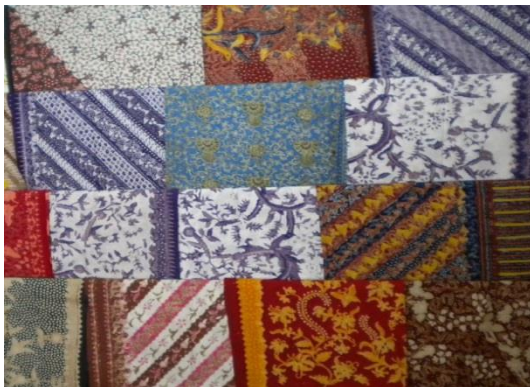
Batik from Rembang, Central Java

Batik from Surakarta, Central Java

Batik from Bali

Batik from Lasem, Central Java

Wayang

In 2003, UNESCO designated wayang kulit (a leather puppet), a shadow puppet theatre and the best known of the Indonesian wayang, as a Masterpiece of Oral and Intangible Heritage of Humanity (UNESCO 2012). Wayang kulit, shaded puppets common in Java and Bali in Indonesia, are without a question the best renowned of the Indonesian wayang. Kulit entails skin, and mentions to the leather construction of the puppets that are mindfully chiselled with very fine devices and sustained with carefully shaped buffalo horn handles and control rods.

The handiwork involved in making a *wayang* kulit figure that is suitable for a performance takes several weeks, with the artists working together in groups. They start from master models (typically on paper) which are traced out onto kulit (skin or parchment), providing the figures with an outline and with indications of any holes that will need to be cut (such as for the mouth or eyes). The figures are then smoothed, usually with a glass bottle, and primed. The structure is inspected and eventually the details are worked through. A further smoothing follows before individual painting, which is undertaken by yet another craftsman. Finally, the movable parts (upper arms, lower arms with hands and the associated sticks for manipulation) are mounted on the body, which has a central staff by which it is held. A crew makes up to ten figures at a time, typically completing that number over the course of a week.

The painting of less expensive puppets is handled expediently with a spray technique, using templates, and with a different person handling each colour. Less expensive puppets, often sold to children during performances, are sometimes made in cardboard instead of leather.

Figure 1.2 - Several Indonesian Wayang

Keris

Masterpiece of the Oral and Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity was given by UNESCO in 2005 for keris. The keris is an asymmetrical dagger or sword most strongly associated with the culture of Indonesia. The keris is famous for its distinctive wavy blade. A keris can be divided into three parts: blade, hilt, and sheath. These parts of the keris are objects of art and carved in meticulous detail and made from various precious

materials such as rare type of wood, gold or ivory. The aesthetic value of *keris* covers three main parts: the *dhapur*, the *pamor*, and *tangguh*. The *dhapur* is the form and design of the blade which include around 150 variations. The *pamor* is the pattern of the metal alloy decoration on the blade that include around 60 variants, and *tangguh* refers to the age and origin of a keris (UNESCO, 2012).

Figure 1.3- Several Indonesian Keris
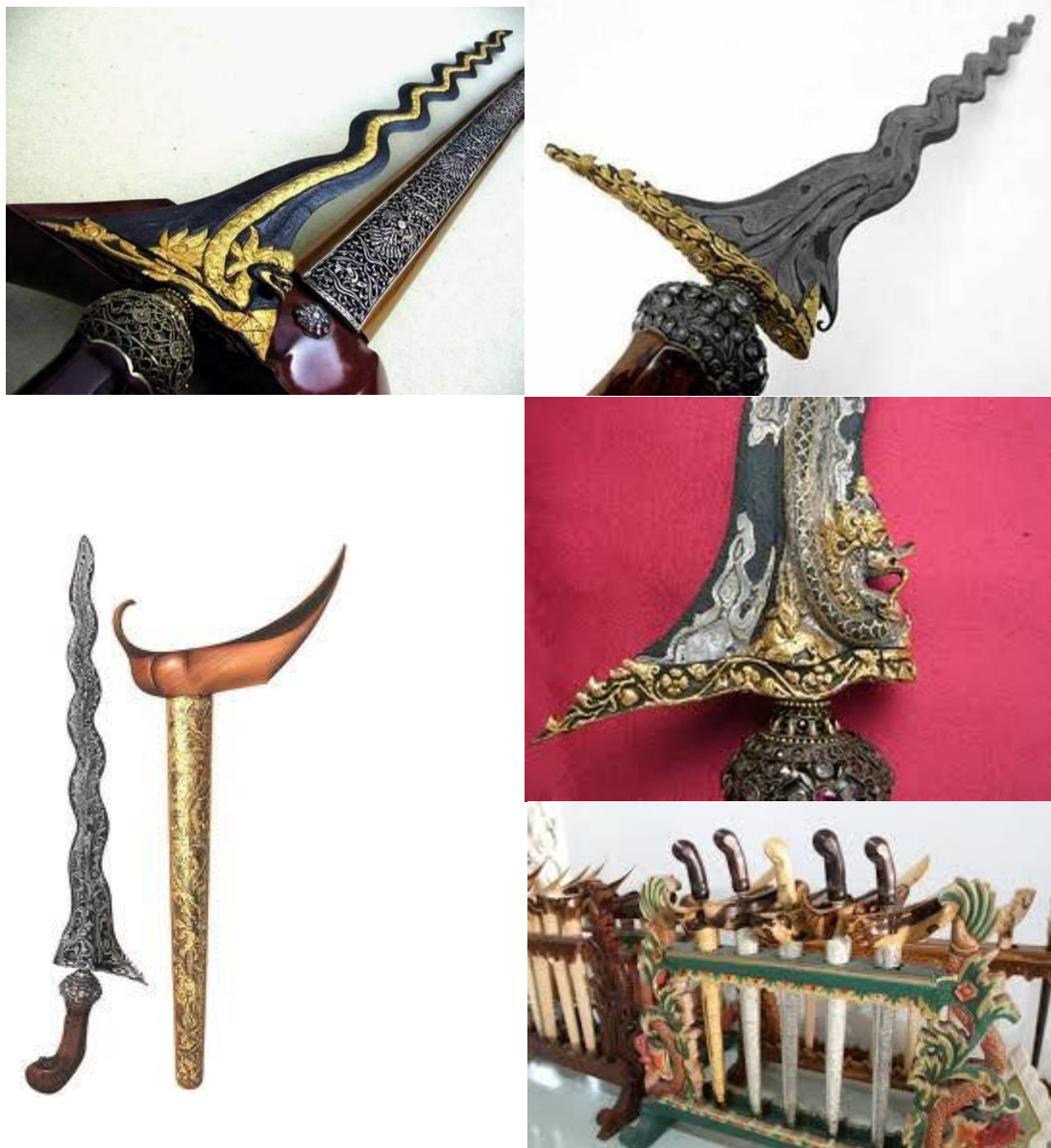
Angklung

In 2010 UNESCO designated the angklung of Indonesia as a Masterpiece of Oral and Intangible Heritage of Humanity. The angklung is a musical instrument made of two bamboo tubes attached to a bamboo frame. The tubes are carved to have a resonant pitch when struck and are tuned to octaves. The base of the frame is held in one hand, whilst the other hand strikes the instrument. This causes a repeating note to sound. Each of three or more performers in an angklung ensemble play just one note or more, but altogether complete melodies are produced. Angklung has been played by the Sundanese West Java province for many centuries. Angklung had already been a favourite musical instrument of the entire archipelago even before the Hindu era.

In 1938, a musician from Bandung, created an angklung that is based on the diatonic scale instead of the traditional scales. Since then, the angklung has gained more acceptance and is used for education and entertainment, and may even accompany Western instruments in an orchestra. One of the first performances of angklung in an orchestra was in 1955 during the Bandung Conference. House of Angklung was opened in 1966 and this centre serves as angklung development and conservation (Mandiri, 2010).

Figure 1.4-Angklung

Figure 1.5- Several Indonesian Souvenir Products

Appendix B: Summary of Previous Studies in Shopping Tourism

Table 1 - Summary of Shopping Tourism in Western Countries

Researcher and country of study	Aims/objectives	Methodology	Findings
Alegre and Cladera (2012) Mallorca, Spain	To examine tourist and travel-related characteristics and tourist motivations in relation to propensity to shop and the amount of expenditure.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Interview questionnaire survey with random sampling technique **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** PCA **Sample:** German and British tourists ($N = 2,027$)	The findings indicated that tourists' motivations and travel-related characteristics were related to the decision whether or not participate in shopping and with level of shopping expenditure. The type of tourist and their shopping behaviour in the destination is identified.
Kinley, Forney and Kim (2012) US	To examine travel motivation as a predictor of the importance assigned to desired shopping centre attributes for three different shopping centres, and their effect on satisfaction, and re-patronage intention.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey by mall-intercept survey technique **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** PCA **Sample:** Domestic tourist ($N = 624$)	The results indicated that desired shopping centre attributes are influenced by travel motivation. Additionally, overall satisfaction and re-patronage intention. Interestingly, overall satisfaction with the shopping centre was not a significant predictor of re-patronage intention in the theme/festival or super off-price centres.
Barutçu, Doğan and Üngüren (2011) Alanya, Turkey	To examine the difference between and among international tourist shoppers on shopping satisfaction.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** One way ANOVA **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 1,937$)	The results indicated that tourists' satisfaction and perception of shopping in Alanya were statistically significantly different between the nations.
Murphy et al.	To examine the phenomenon of Tourist	**Research design:** Quantitative method	The results indicated the village performance on

(2011) Hahndorf Adelaide, Australia	Shopping Villages (TSVs) and the dimensions that contribute to satisfying visitor experiences.	**Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** One way ANOVA, factor analysis **Sample:** Tourist shoppers ($N = 506$)	providing a unique local experience, value for money and regionally distinctive products, and opportunities for entertainment and bargain hunting were the key variables which most strongly predicted whether respondents were very satisfied or not.
Rosenbaum and Spears (2009) Honolulu, Hawaii, US	To empirically study that shopping is one key driver for tourists to travel beside five travel motivation factors developed by Fodness and to demonstrate SEM using AMOS for group comparison analyses.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with convenience sampling technique **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** American and Japanese tourists ($N = 521$)	The findings indicated that shopping was a motivational factor with five other factors for Japanese and US tourists to visit Honolulu. Additionally, the findings exposed that three motivational factors were moderated by a tourist's nationality.
Park and Reisinger (2009) South Florida, US	To examine the differences in shopping for luxury goods between Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourists and the perceived importance of different types and characteristics of the luxury consumer and travel goods tourists buy on holiday.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with non-random sampling **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** MANOVA, T-test, ANOVA **Sample: Visitors** ($N = 275$)	The results shown that Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourist-shoppers significantly differ in the perceived importance of luxury consumer and travel goods and their characteristics. Western and Asian tourists attach more importance to buying 'gifts for others' than Hispanic tourists. Asian tourists attach more importance to buying 'golf equipment,' 'health spa/wellness treatment,' 'luxury cruises,' and 'luxury yachts/rentals' than Hispanic tourists. Western tourists attach more importance to 'fine dining' than Hispanic tourists.

Kemperman, Borgers and Timmermans (2009) Maastricht, the Netherlands	To describe and predict tourist shopping route choice behaviour in the downtown historic centre of Maastricht.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Interview survey **Statistical method:** Borgers and Timmermans (2005) model **Sample:** Domestic tourists ($N = 436$)	The results indicated that shopping supply and accessibility, some physical characteristics, and the history of the route followed are important factors influencing route choice behaviour. Furthermore, shopping motivations, familiarity with the area and planning of the route affect tourist route choice behaviour.
Dmitrovic and Vida (2007) Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro	To examine tourist motivations for shopping overseas and explore the role of demographic versus socio-psychological factors in explaining the phenomenon of cross-border shopping.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey by personal interview **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Discriminant analysis **Sample:** Domestic and international consumers ($N = 1,762$)	The results indicated that cross-border out-shoppers and domestic in-shoppers in the two countries confirmed the unstable effect of demographic variables on out-shopping behaviour.
LeHew and Wesley (2007) US	To examine the attractiveness of tourist shopper segments of shopping centres and explore shopping satisfaction of tourist and resident shoppers.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey by mall-intercept technique **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** T-test, Correlation analysis **Sample:** International tourist ($N = 575$)	The results indicated that the tourist shopper market may not be the most valuable customer group. Resident shoppers of tourist-focused shopping centres are more satisfied than tourist shoppers.

Tosun et al. (2007) Cappadocia, Turkey	To examine tourists' perceived satisfaction with local shopping culture, staff service quality, product value and reliability, physical features of shops, payment methods, and other shopping and shop attributes with special reference to the region of Cappadocia, Turkey.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with face-to-face interview **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Descriptive statistics **Sample:** International guided tourists ($N = 384$)	The results indicated that respondents have different levels of satisfaction with various attributes of shops and shopping.
Yuksel and Yuksel (2007) Turkey	To examine whether risk perceptions in shopping affect tourists' emotions, their satisfaction judgement and expressed loyalty intentions.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey by mall-intercept technique **Scales:** A five-point semantic differential scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 259$)	The results indicated that SEM supports strong inverse associations between risk perceptions, emotions, satisfaction judgement and behavioural intentions.
Yuksel (2007) Turkey	To explore the relationships between the shopping environment and tourists' emotions, shopping values and approach behaviours.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point semantic differential scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 259$)	The findings indicated that the emotional state and shopping value created by the shopping environment were found to effect the enjoyment of shopping, willingness to talk to salespeople, revisit intentions, and propensity to spend more money and time than originally planned.

Rosenbaum and Spears (2006) Hawaii, US	To examine Japanese and US tourists visiting Hawaii for their propensity to shop at high-end and discounted retail stores and examine tourist planned behaviour on shopping, dining and other recreational activities.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with random sampling technique **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** MANOVA, ANOVA **Sample:** Japanese and American tourists (N = 164)	The results indicated that Japanese tourists engage in duty-free shopping as their main plan while cultural activities were the focus of American tourists travelling to Hawaii. Additionally, Japanese tourists may be categorised into shopping enthusiasts and non-shopper groups. Shopping enthusiasts patronise duty-free stores, factory outlets, and designer boutiques.
Rosenbaum and Spears (2006) Honolulu, Hawaii, US	To explore demographic, motivation, and consumption behaviours among Japanese tourists during Golden Week.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with convenience sampling technique **Statistical method:** Pearson correlation, ANOVA, MANOVA **Sample:** Japanese tourists (N = 200)	Japanese tourists spend about $900 on gifts during their stay. This dollar figure is nearly $300 more than average spending among non-Golden Week tourists. In addition, Golden Week tourists are employed, well-educated, and primarily interested in holiday and leisure activities.
Rosenbaum and Spears (2005) Hawaii, US	To examine the impact of tourists' residential country of origin on planned product and service consumption and to explore the difference of planned consumption between and among American and Japanese first-time and repeat tourists to Hawaii.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with convenience sampling technique **Statistical method:** MANOVA, ANOVA **Sample:** Domestic and International tourist (N = 1,056)	The results shown significant cross-cultural differences in consumption patterns among international tourists to Hawaii.

Josiam, Kinley and Kim (2005) US	To examine the interplay of tourists' shopping involvement with demographics, push motivators, pull motivators, shopper-tourist cluster typologies, and the amount of time and money spent shopping while on a trip.	**Research design:** Mixed method **Data collection method:** Focus group interview and questionnaire survey **Scales:** A 10-item bipolar scale and a five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Factor analysis, ANOVA, Regression analysis **Sample:** Two focus group interviews with nine member for each group and domestic tourists ($N = 485$)	The results indicated that tourists can be segmented into high-, medium-, or low-involvement tourist shoppers. Involvement levels were consistently associated with both push and pull factors in a hierarchical manner. However, involvement was not found to be a predictor of time or money spent on shopping while on a trip.
Moscardo (2004) Queensland, Australia	To explore the effectiveness of age, gender and trip typology as predictor variables for tourists' shopping behaviours. Shopping behaviours are examined by tourists' actual involvement in five different categories of 'shop or browse' activities.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with interview technique **Scales:** A four-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Factor analysis andone-way ANOVA **Sample:** International and domestic tourists ($N = 1,630$)	The findings shown that four types of shopper were identified based on a mixture of the importance of shopping in destination choice and actual participation in shopping activities. These four groups were compared and profiled on a series of socio-demographic, travel behaviour, destination choice, activity participation and attraction visitation variables.
Oh et al. (2004) Canada and US	To examine the effectiveness of age, gender and trip typology as predictor variables for tourists' shopping behaviours.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire with telephone and mail technique **Statistical method:** Binary cluster analysis, logistic regression **Sample:** Tourists ($N = 5,912$)	The results indicated that there are distinct groups prevalent in certain categories of shopping activity participation and age, gender and trip typology are significant factors influencing the preference patterns in certain categories of shop or browse activities.

Dimanche (2003) Louisiana, US	To analyse Louisiana tax-free shopping, its historical context, program achievements, and tourist shopping behaviour.	**Research design:** Mix method (Case study and quantitative method) **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with intercept technique **Statistical method:** Descriptive statistics **Sample**: International tourists(N = 2,100)	Tax-free shopping is an incentive that increases tourists' propensity to buy retail goods.
Kinley, Josiam and Kim (2003) US	To examine the motivations of tourist shoppers and the attractions of shopping centres to tourists and perception between tourist shopper and shopping centre operators.	**Research design:** Mixed method (Quantitative method and focus group) **Data collection method:** Telephone survey and interview **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** ANOVA, factor analysis, cluster analysis **Sample:** Tourist shoppers (N = 485) and shopping centre management personnel (N = 50)	The results indicated that tourist shoppers can be segmented into 'Shopping tourists' motivated by shopping related issues, 'Experiential Tourists' motivated by the social/entertainment experience of shopping, and 'Passive Tourists' with low overall push or motivation to shop. Shopping centre personnel attributed greater importance to 'fair/events', 'close to hotel', 'enclosed mall', while tourist shopper attributed greater importance to 'reflective of local culture' and 'unique architecture/buildings'.
Reisinger and Turner (2002) Hawaii and the Gold Coast	To test the relationship between different dimensions of product categories, product attributes, and satisfaction with product attributes for Japanese tourists visiting Hawaii and the Gold Coast region of Australia.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with interview technique **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** Japanese tourists (N = 662)	The results indicated that there was a degree of similarity between Hawaii and the Gold Coast. Product attribute importance shows that these dimensions were different between Hawaii and the Gold Coast. Hawaii ranks highest on product design, then product uniqueness, range, and value, but it ranks lower on display and packaging. On the other hand, the Gold Coast ranks highest on product quality and low price, then on display and packaging, and then on size and weight of products.

| Turner and Reisinger (2001) The Gold Coast, Australia | To segment domestic tourists into groups for product attributes, services and level of satisfaction with the retail product. | **Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** Domestic tourists ($N = 480$) | The results showed that tourists follow a shopping pattern of product choice defining the significance of product attributes, and that, consecutively, satisfaction results from the importance of product attributes. |

Table 2 - Summary of Shopping Tourism in Asian Countries

Researcher and country of study	Aims/objectives	Methodology	Findings
Lloyd, Yip and Luk (2011) Hong Kong	To investigate an expanded scale of customer perceived value among two shopper groups: local and mainland Chinese tourist shoppers and the resulting impact on retail performance.	**Research design:** Mixed method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey and focus group **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** Local and international tourists ($N = 1,317$)	The findings indicated that there were differences in the drivers of customer perceived value between local and domestic tourists in Hong Kong. Service quality and product quality were the two most crucial of customer perceived values for local shoppers, while perceived risk, price and product quality were the most important factors for tourist shoppers.
Tsang, Tsai and Leung (2011) Hong Kong	To identify tourists' perceptions of the importance of bargaining motivators and bargaining attitudes and types of bargaining behaviour, as well as to evaluate bargaining satisfaction, the likelihood of a subsequent visit, and the likelihood of recommending open-air markets to others.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with non-probability quota sampling technique **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Factor analysis, multiple regression	The results indicated that 'value for money' was the most important factor of tourists' bargaining intention. Additionally, two key factors of bargaining attitudes and behaviour were identified, namely 'bargain for psychological well-being' and 'bargaining intensity'.

		Sample: International tourists ($N = 203$)	
Henderson, et al. (2011) Singapore	To explore of the relationship between shopping and tourism with particular reference to city destinations.	**Research design:** Qualitative method case study	The results indicated that key factors which facilitate or inhibit success as an urban shopping destination can be identified, including shopping opportunities, shopping environments, goods sold, service quality and consumer protection, international tourist arrivals, tourism infrastructure and attractions, marketing product development, access, and domestic market activity. These factors were shaped by economic and social conditions and trends, and government stance and policies.
Perng, Chow and Liao (2010) Taiwan	To examine passengers' responses to retail products at Taiwan Taoyuan International Airport by incorporating the passengers' demand factors. Modified grey relational analysis is applied to establish the priority relations of product categories for shopping purposes and satisfaction.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with convenience sampling **Scales:** A four-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Grey relational analysis (GRA) **Sample:** Duty-free shopper tourists ($N = 292$)	The results indicated that travellers valued the utility and souvenir characteristics of products. The youngest respondents tended to shop in souvenir and café stores. Satisfaction analysis showed higher rankings for brand-name, utility, and low-cost products, and low satisfaction levels on quality and price of café products.
Choi et al. (2008) China and Hong Kong	To identify shopping preferences and behaviours of tourists from Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Shanghai and Beijing for fashion products during their vacations to Hong Kong.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with a face-to-face street intercept survey and random sampling technique **Statistical method:** Descriptive statistics **Sample:** Domestic tourists ($N = 136$)	The results indicated that department stores and clothing chain stores were the most prevalent places for fashion products shopping. The most popular shopping destinations were areas with high accessibility and easy access of transportation. Tourists were interested in branded and non-branded products. Additionally, product attributes and sales services were weighted as the two most important factors influencing tourists' purchasing decisions.
Liu, Choi and Lee (2008)	To study the shopping preferences of mainland Chinese travellers who visit Hong Kong under the solo travel policy (STP), and	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey	The results indicated that a significant difference between the respondents' actual shopping satisfaction and their expectations was found for

Hong Kong	identify the differences between their expected and actual satisfaction levels towards fashion retailers in Hong Kong.	with interview **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Paired t-test **Sample:** Chinese tourists ($N = 137$)	several factors, including product style, product diversity, awareness to travellers, store environment and decoration, visual merchandising, store lighting and music, and store location. Tourist shopping preferences and spending patterns were identified.
Yeung, Wong and Ko (2004) Hong Kong	To explore international tourists' shopping expectations and perceptions of Hong Kong and Singapore.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Descriptive statistics **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 309$)	The results indicated that Singapore outperforms Hong Kong in many notable areas, such as language ability, attitude and efficiency of service staff.
Hsieh and Chang (2006) Taiwan	To examine tourists' motivations and their preferred leisure activities in tourist night market shopping.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with intercept technique **Scales:** A multiple-choice nominal scale and a five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Factor analysis **Sample:** Hong Kong Chinese tourists ($N = 600$)	The findings shown that tourists were motivated by factors including novelty-seeking, exercising and experiencing local culture and customs when shopping in tourist night markets. Additionally, eating out overwhelmingly dominated the leisure activities (88.5%), followed by everyday shopping (56%), and novelty-seeking (32%).

Lehto et al. (2004) Taiwan	To examine Taiwanese tourists' shopping preferences according to income, age, gender and trip destination; to examine Taiwanese tourists' shopping expenditure according to income, age, gender and destination choice; and to examine Taiwanese tourists' shopping expenditure according to trip purpose, travel mode and travel party type.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** Nominal scale **Statistical method:** Chi-square tests and one way ANOVA **Sample:** Taiwanese outbound tourists ($N = 6,208$)	The results indicated that travel purpose, travel style, age and gender were significant factors influencing the amount of money tourists spent on shopping and the items that they preferred to buy.
Wong and Law (2003) Hong Kong	To explore tourists' expectations and perceptions of shopping in Hong Kong and to compare Asian and Western tourists' responses about improving the position of retail trade in Hong Kong.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Paired sample T-test **Sample:** Western and Asian tourists ($N = 611$)	The results revealed that significant differences exist between the expectations and perceived satisfaction of the seven tourist groups studied for service quality, quality of goods, variety of goods and price of goods. Western travellers were more satisfied with almost all the individual attributes than were Asian travellers.
Heung and Cheng (2000) Hong Kong	To identify tourists' shopping satisfaction attributes and evaluate their relative importance in influencing tourists' satisfaction levels.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey with systematic random sampling technique **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Frequencies, paired mean *t* tests, factor analysis, and multiple regression analysis **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 250$)	The results indicated that of the 15 attributes identified, tourists were most satisfied with the 'lighting and physical setting of shops' followed by 'window display of shops' and 'opening hours of shops,' and were least satisfied by 'product reliability'. Additionally, four shopping dimensions were identified from the 15 shopping attributes: Tangibles Quality, Staff Service Quality, Product Value, and Product Reliability. Staff Service Quality has the most important effect on tourists' levels of satisfaction with shopping in Hong Kong, followed by Product Value and Product Reliability.

Table 3 -Summary of Souvenir Shopping Tourism

Researcher and country of study	Aims/objectives	Methodology	Findings
Littrell et al (1994) USA	To develop profiles of tourists based on their souvenir buying and preferred travel activities. With particular focus on craft souvenirs.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Mail questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale and a seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** PCA and ANOVA **Sample:** Local tourists (N = 1,370)	The findings indicated that four distinct and integrated patterns of behaviour emerged related to tourists' preferences for travel activities, souvenir products, and shopping. Those four profiles are: ethnic, arts, and people profile; history and parks profile; urban entertainment profile; and active outdoor profile. Results provide support for the hypotheses that souvenir buying and tourism styles are associated.
Swanson and Horridge (2002) USA	To determine retailers' awareness of tourists' souvenir purchase behaviour and to provide guidelines for retailers concerning the souvenir purchase behaviour of tourists in the South-western US.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Chi-square Automatic Interaction Detection (CHAID) method. **Sample:** Local tourists ($N = 398$) and retailers ($N = 307$).	The results showed that retailers are aware of the souvenir purchase behaviour of tourists when concern is given to souvenir variety, merchandise assortment factors, and store attributes. Additionally, tourists wished to encourage retailers to (a) sell souvenir assortments that include local foods and fine jewellery (b) consider souvenir selection factors such as the craftsperson's reputation and the motif or design of place visited, and (c) not focus on store site in a high pedestrian traffic area.

Swanson and Horridge (2004) USA	To test the causal relationships between tourist travel motivations (travel activities and tourist demographics) and souvenir consumption (souvenir products, product attributes, and store attributes).	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** Local tourists ($N = 398$)	The findings indicated that the tourists' travel activities have positive correlations with souvenir consumption, while tourist demographics have no correlation. So, retailers who can identify the travel activities of their tourist customer should do so to provide a better souvenir product mix with appealing attributes sold in an appealing environment. By using identified travel activities, retailers can partner with lodging facilities, restaurants, and tourism boards to encourage positive shopping experiences for the tourist.
Swanson and Horridge (2006) USA	To analyse what travel motivations influence the type of souvenirs tourists purchase, attributes of the souvenir, and attributes of the store where the souvenir is purchased.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** SEM **Sample:** Local tourists ($N = 398$)	The results indicated that travel motivations have an influence on souvenir products, product attributes, and store attributes. Retailers within the souvenir trade should be aware of tourists' travel motivations and offer a souvenir mix that has appealing attributes in an appealing store environment based on these motivations. In this way, retailers can provide a pleasurable and profitable selling environment benefiting the tourist and the economy of the tourist destination.
Hu and Yu (2007) USA	To investigate travellers' shopping-related beliefs and behaviours relating to craft souvenirs.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Cluster analysis, ANOVA **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 271$)	The findings indicated that tourism shoppers can be segmented by their craft selection criteria and shopping involvement. Three distinct groups of shopping are formed: enthusiasts, shopping lovers, and indifferent shoppers. These groups are evaluated by a heuristic approach of market segmentation assessment.

Fairhurst, Costello and Holmes (2007) USA	To determine tourist typologies and if differences exist with souvenir purchases, sources of information used by tourists to select a place to shop, and shopping behaviour.	**Research design:** Qualitative and quantitative method **Data collection method:** Focus group andmail questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Factor analysis **Sample:** Local tourists ($N = 540$)	The results indicated that tourists to Tennessee can be grouped into five categories: City, Historical, Active, Alone, and Tour Groups. Additionally, City individuals spent the most time and money shopping while Active individuals spent the least amount of time. A word-of-mouth recommendation from family or friends was the most important factor in choosing where to shop. Crafts, maps, and books from the area were important to buy. Tourist styles may assist marketers in determining what souvenirs to offer.
Wilkins (2011) Australia	To investigate the motivations for souvenir purchase. To examine the impact of gender on the souvenirs purchased and the motivations for purchase. To evaluate the souvenir purchase behaviour of tourists. To identify the main importance of souvenirs as evidence of the experience, as well as their role as memory prompters and as gifts.	**Research design:** Sequential mixed method **Data collection method:** Focus group andOnline questionnaire survey **Scales:** A seven-point Likert scale and five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** PCA, MANOVA **Sample:** International and local university students ($N = 3,231$)	The results indicated that men are more likely to purchase discounted and branded products, while women are more likely to purchase other categories of souvenirs and, in particular, destination-specific products. Tourists want to purchase souvenirs reflective of the region or authentic to the region, rather than more general items. The role of souvenirs as gifts is more important, with support being stronger among women. The majority of consumers purchase souvenirs as a gift for others. The role of the souvenir as evidence for tourists and as a means of communicating their experiences toothers, was also vital.
Chang and Kong (2012) Macau	To examine how souvenir shopping can be employed in Macau's tourism portfolio and suggest ways to market souvenir products to various tourist segments.	**Research design:** Quantitative method **Data collection method:** Questionnaire survey **Scales:** A five-point Likert scale **Statistical method:** Factor analysis **Sample:** International tourists ($N = 414$)	The results that demonstrate souvenir products can be an integral part of the tourism portfolio and used to strengthen Macau's tourism portfolio. This study offers tourism practitioners and academics a constructive approach to understanding the role of souvenirs in the tourism industry and in destination portfolio diversification.

Appendix C: Questionnaire

We would like to invite you to be a part of study conducted by Victoria University to examine travel motivations and behavioural intentions of tourist shopping for souvenirs.

Your participation in the study is entirely voluntary. If you feel that the study is intrusive or you are reluctant to answer certain questions, you are able to withdraw at any stage of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete.

We appreciate your contribution in this research. All responses will be treated confidentially.

Please note that there are no right or wrong answers. A quick and honest response is generally the most useful.

Thank you for your participation.

If you have any queries about the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact:

Lusianus Kusdibyo	or	Dr Thu-Huong Nguyen
School of International Business		School of International Business
Victoria University		Victoria University
Email:		Email:
Lusianus.Kusdibyo@live.vu.edu.au		Thu-Huong.Nguyen@vu.edu.au
Mobile: +61 404 867 187		Telp. +61 3 9919 1268

SECTION A. ABOUT YOUR CURRENT VISIT

Please tick (√) your choices relate to your current visit.

A1. How many times have you been to the destination, including this visit?

☐ 1　　☐ 2　　☐ 3　　☐ 4　　☐ 5　　☐ More than 5

A2. What is your main purpose for visiting the destination? (Tick one box only)

☐ Vacation/leisure　　☐ Business　　☐ Shopping
☐ Visiting friends and　　☐ Cultural event　　☐ Combination of business and leisure
relatives

A3. What is your main mode of travel during in this current visit? (Tick one box only)

☐ A fully packaged tour　　☐ Arranged by company　　☐ Independent travel
☐ Combination of package　　☐ A partially packaged tour with transport and
tour and independent travel　　accommodation only

A4. Who are your travelling with?

☐ Alone　　☐ Tour　　☐ Family and friends　　☐ Spouse/partner

A5. How many days are you staying during your current visit?

☐ 1 – 3　　☐ 4 – 6　　☐ 1 week　　☐ 2 weeks　　☐ 3 weeks　　☐ more than 3
weeks

A6. What type of accommodation are you staying in? (Tick one box only)

☐ Own home　　☐ Hotel　　☐ Youth hostel
☐ Guest house　　☐ Self-catering accommodation　　☐ With family and friend

A7. Have you visited, or are you planning to visit any of the following tourist attractions?

☐ Museums　　☐ Local events　　☐ Historical places　　☐ Other (pls
☐ Natural attractions　　☐ Festivals　　☐ Cultural performances　　specify):
☐ Handicraft making　　☐ Art gallery　　☐ Art classes

SECTION B. ABOUT YOUR SHOPPING ACTIVITIES

Please tick (√) your selection relates to your shopping activities.

B1. Which of the following souvenir categories have you purchased during this trip? (You may choose more than one option).

☐ Accessories　　☐ Jewellery　　☐ Collectable　　☐ Stationaries
☐ Arts, paintings　　☐ Antiques　　☐ Toys　　☐ Local speciality food
☐ Crafts　　☐ Clothing　　☐ Books　　☐ Postcard/booklets

B2. What type of souvenir is you most interested in purchasing? (Tick one box only)

☐ Items to display in the　　☐ Items to use in the　　☐ Clothing and accessories
home　　home
☐ Seasonal or holiday items　　☐ Jewellery　　☐ Toys or other children's items

B3. What material is your most preferred type of souvenir made from? (Tick one box only)

☐ Wood ☐ Natural materials ☐ Fabric
☐ Glass ☐ Yarn or fibres ☐ Clay
☐ Leather ☐ Paint ☐ Metal

B4. Which of the following best describes your purchase of the souvenir/s? (Tick one box only)

☐ Solely purchased for myself ☐ Solely purchased on behalf of others
☐ Solely purchased as gifts for other ☐ All of the above

B5. If you purchased souvenir as a gift, what is your main reason? (Tick one box only)

☐ For fun ☐ For belonging ☐ For prestige
☐ For respect ☐ For accomplishment
☐ For self-fulfilment ☐ For friendship

B6. What is your perception of an authentic souvenir? (You can tick more than one box)

☐ Connection to the past ☐ Uniqueness ☐ Representation of local culture
☐ Locally made ☐ Handmade ☐ Aesthetics

B7. Please rate each of the following **souvenir criteria** according to their importance to you when purchasing a souvenir on a 7-point scale (1=Least Important, 7=Extremely Important).

No	Souvenirs criteria	Least Important						Extremely Important
1	Appealing colours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Appealing design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Workmanship or techniques of high quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Can be displayed in the home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Price not expensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Makes a good gift	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Unique or one-of-a-kind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Clever idea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Useable and wearable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Fits into a collection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Easy to pack or carry on a trip	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Easy to care for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Name or logo of place visiting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Made by well-known craftsperson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Craft producer's signature or symbol	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B8. Please rate each of the following **souvenir features** according to their importance to you when purchasing a souvenir.

No	Souvenir features	Least Important						Extremely Important
1	Portability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Fragility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Authentic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Attractive design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Innovative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	High quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7	Inexpensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Pictorial image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Mark of place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Attractive colour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Easy to care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Reflects cultural values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B9. How much is your shopping budget for this current visit?

☐ Less than 50 $US ☐ 51 $US –100 $US ☐ 101 $US – 150 $US
☐ 151 $US – 200 $US ☐ more than 201 $US

B10. On average how many hours did you spend on shopping during this current visit?

☐ Less than 1 ☐ 1 – 3 ☐ 4 – 6 ☐ 7 – 9 ☐ More than 9

B11. What was the most useful information source related to souvenir shopping at the destination? (Tick one box only)

☐ Travel magazine and guidebooks ☐ Social media such as Face book, Twitter
☐ Recommendation by friend ☐ Information at hotel
☐ Travel agent/tour operator/tour guide ☐ Family and friends
☐ Local people ☐ Other (pls specify): ……………………..

SECTION C. YOUR TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS, DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES, EXPERIENCE QUALITY AND SATISFACTION

C1. Please rate the following **motivational factors** according to their importance to you which could describe why you visited the destination on a 7-point scale (1= Not at all Important, 7=Extremely Important).

No	Motivational factors	Not at all Important						Extremely Important
1	To buy postcards, photograph, paintings and booklets of the region.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	To buy regional speciality arts and crafts, such as carving, jewellery, glassware.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	To buy non-regional arts and crafts, such as paintings, toys, ornament.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	To buy local speciality products such as food products, clothing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	To buy items to add to a collection.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	To buy items representative of the destination or attraction such as pens, key chains, mugs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	To buy antiques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	To buy published material on the destination such as books, magazines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	To enjoy a lower price.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	To shop in different kinds of stores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	To buy something special for others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	To enjoy social interactions with friends and	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	family.							
13	To enjoy a vacation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	To buy items unique to the destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	To escape from the routine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	To appreciate different cultures and lifestyles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	To have fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	To do different things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	To develop skill in an art.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	To study in a class for enrichment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	To pursue a hobby.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	To experience physical challenges.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	To take part in adventuresome activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2. Please rate the following **destination attributes** according to their importance to your current trip.

No	Destination attributes	Not at all Important					Extremely Important	
1	Range of quality products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Range of souvenir selection.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Variety of stores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Pleasant atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Attractive store décor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Favourable weather.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Beautiful scenery.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Relaxing atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Natural environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Different ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Easy access.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Friendly local people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Interesting town.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Shopping facilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Local cuisine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Nightlife and entertainment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Variety of recreation activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Natural attractions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Cultural attractions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Festivals and events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Historic sites/museums.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Unique products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Authentic products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Many interesting places to visit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C3. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statement in relation to your **experience quality** of this trip on a 7-point scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree).

No	Experience quality statements	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	I felt thrilled about the new experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I was indulged in the activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The experience was really enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	The experience was exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	It was novelty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	It was my once-in-a-life experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	The experience was unique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	It was different from previous experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I had really experienced something new.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I closely experienced the local culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I had good impressions of local people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The diverse cultures are very interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The shopping experience is more attractive than I thought.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	My experience was pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	The experience was relaxing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	The shopping experience meant a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C4. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements in relation to your level of satisfaction.

No	Items of satisfaction	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	Destination is a very interesting city.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Destination is safe and secure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	It is a city of tolerance of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Destination is clean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Shops have good opening time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Tourist information is readily available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	There is a good range of quality shops.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	There is overall a good value for money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	A range of quality accommodation is available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Food is of good quality and diverse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	City is accessible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Nightlife and entertainment are available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The city offers a range of fascinating festivals and events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Overall, I am satisfied with local food offered.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Overall, I am satisfied with services provided.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Overall, I am satisfied with shopping activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Overall, I am satisfied with the environment the destination provided.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D. YOUR FUTURE VISIT
Please tick (√) your choices relate to your future visit.

D1. Will you consider revisiting the destination in the future?
☐ Yes ☐ No (proceed to Question D3)

D2. If yes, when approximately will you visit the destination again?
☐ This year ☐ Next year ☐ Next 2 years ☐ Next 3 years ☐ More than 3 years

D3. Please rate the possibility of each of the following tourist attractions for your future travel to the destination on a 7-point scale (1=Very Unlikely, 7= Very Likely).

No	Items of future visit	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1	Cultural performances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Historical sites	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Cultural education	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Local souvenir markets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Handicraft making	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Art classes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Local distribution outlets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Factory outlets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Local events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D4. Please indicate how likely you are to take the following actions in relation to the destination.

No	Statements	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1	Say positive things about the destination to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Encourage friends and relatives to visit the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Visit the destination again in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Visit the destination as my first choice for my next leisure holidays.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Visit the destination again for shopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E. ABOUT YOURSELF

Please tick (√) the boxes applicable to you.

E1. Please indicate your gender.

☐ Male   ☐ Female

E2. Please indicate your tourist category.

☐ Local tourist   ☐ Interstate tourist   ☐ International tourist (go to E3)

E3. Please indicate your country of residence.

☐ Australia   ☐ Japan   ☐ Thailand   ☐ Other (Pls specify):
☐ Indonesia   ☐ Korea   ☐ The Netherlands   ⋯
☐ China/Hong Kong   ☐ New Zealand   ☐ U.S.A.
☐ Germany   ☐ Singapore   ☐ Malaysia

E4. Please indicate your age group.

☐ 18 – 21   ☐ 22 – 31   ☐ 32 - 47
☐ 48 – 66   ☐ 67 or Older

E5. Please indicate your highest level of education.

☐ High School   ☐ Bachelor degree   ☐ Doctoral Degree
☐ Diploma   ☐ Master Degree

E6. Please indicate your current occupational group.

☐ Professional   ☐ Retiree   ☐ Government Officer   ☐ Other (pls specify):
                                                             ..
☐ Student   ☐ Housewife   /   ☐ Business owner
                  husband

E7. Please indicate your annual gross income group.

☐ 6,000 $US or less   ☐ 48,001 - 60,000 $US
☐ 6,001 - 12,000 $US   ☐ 60,001 - 72,000 $US
☐ 12,001 - 24,000 $US   ☐ 72,001 - 84,000 $US
☐ 24,001 - 36,000 $US   ☐ 84,001 - 96,000 $U S
☐ 36,001 - 48,000 $US   ☐ More than 96,000 $US

SECTION F. DESTINATION BRANDING

Finally, please respond to the following three questions relate to the destination branding.

F1. What is the most positive image of the destination that comes to your mind? (Please tick one box only).

☐ Convenience
☐ Cleanliness
☐ Good place for shopping
☐ Cultured city
☐ Friendliness of local people
☐ Natural attractions
☐ Inexpensive quality goods and food

F2. What is the most unique feature of this destination? (Please tick one box only).

☐ Historical and heritage sites
☐ Local shopping markets
☐ Natural landscape
☐ Cultural attractions
☐ Local culinary
☐ Traditional arts

F3. What is your most memorable shopping experience? (Please tick one box only).

☐ Shopping for local souvenirs
☐ Enjoy local food specialities
☐ Many fashionable and unique items at affordable prices

Table 1 - Scale Item for Push Motivation

#	Item description and supporting literature
	Littrell et al. (1994)
1	To buy postcards, photograph, paintings and booklets of the region.
2	To buy regional speciality arts and crafts, such as carving, jewellery, glassware.
3	To buy non-regional arts and crafts, such as paintings, toys, ornament.
4	To buy local speciality products such as food products, clothing.
5	To buy items to add to a collection.
6	To buy items representative of the destination or attraction such as pens, key chains, mugs.
7	To buy antiques.
8	To buy published material on the destination such as books, magazines.
	Kinley, Josiam and Kim (2003)
9	To enjoy lower price.
10	To shop in different kinds of stores.
11	To buy something special for others.
12	To enjoy social interactions with friends and family.
13	To enjoy vacation.
14	To buy items unique to the destination.
	Correia, do-Valle and Moço (2007a); Correia, do-Valle and Moço (2007b)
15	To escape from the routine.
16	To know different cultures and lifestyles.
17	To have fun.
18	To do different things.
	Swanson and Horridge (2006)
19	To develop skill in an art
20	To study in a class for enrichment
21	To pursue a hobby
22	To experience physical challenges
23	To take part in adventuresome activities

Table 2 - Scale Item for Pull Motivation

#	Item description and supporting literature
	Kinley, Josiam and Kim (2003)
1	Range of quality products.
2	Range of souvenir selection.
3	Variety of stores.
4	Pleasant atmosphere.
5	Attractive of store décor.
	Correia, do-Valle and Moço (2007a); Correia, do-Valle and Moço (2007b)
6	Favourable weather.
7	Beautiful scenery.
8	Relaxing atmosphere.
9	Natural environment.
10	Different ethnic groups.
11	Easy access.
	Moscardo (2004)
12	Friendly local people.
13	Interesting town.
	Yoon and Uysal (2003)
14	Shopping facilities.
15	Local cuisine.
	Fakeye and Crompton (1991)
16	Nightlife and entertainment.
17	Variety of recreation activities.
18	Natural attractions.
19	Cultural attractions.
20	Festivals and events.
21	Historic sites/museums.
	Timothy (2005)
22	Unique products.
23	Authentic souvenir products.
	Lin, Morais, Kerstetter and Hou (2007)
24	Many interesting places to visit.

Table 3 - Scale Item for Experience Quality

#	Item description and supporting literature
	Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012)
1	I felt thrilled about the new experience.
2	I indulged in the activities.
3	The experience was really enjoyable.
4	The experience was exciting.
5	It was novelty.
6	It was my once-in-a-life experience.
7	The experience was unique.
8	It was different from previous experience.
9	I had really experienced something new.
10	I closely experienced the local culture.
11	I had good impressions of local people.
12	The diverse cultures are very interesting.
	Kao, Huang and Wu (2008); Otto and Ritchie (1996)
13	The shopping experience is more attractive than I thought.
14	My experience was pleasant.
15	The experience was relaxing.
16	The shopping experience means a lot to me.

Table 4 –Scale Item for Customer Satisfaction

#	Item description and supporting literature
	Lloyd, Yip and Luk (2011)
1	Destination is very interesting city.
	Kau and Lim (2005)
2	Destination is safe and secure.
3	Destination is clean.
4	Shops have good opening times.
5	There is a good range of quality shops.
6	There is good value for money overall.
7	Nightlife and entertainment are available.
8	The city offers a range of fascinating festivals and events.
	Tosun et al. (2007)
9	It is a city of tolerance of other cultures.
10	Tourist information is readily available.
11	City is accessible.
	Alegre and Juaneda (2006)
12	A range of quality accommodation is available.
13	Food is of good quality and diverse.
	Oliver (1980)
14	Overall, I am satisfied with local food offered.
15	Overall, I am satisfied with service provided.
16	Overall, I am satisfied with shopping activities.
17	Overall, I am satisfied with the environment the destination provided.

Table 5 - Scale Item for Behavioural Intention

#	Item description
	Zeithaml et al. (2006)
1	Say positive things about the destination to other people.
2	Encourage friends and relatives to visit the destination.
3	Visit the destination again in the future.
4	Visit the destination as my first choice for my next leisure holiday.
5	Visit the destination again for shopping.

Table 1 – Skewness and Kurtosis

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Push1	4.59	1.479	-.459	-.182
Push2	5.15	1.263	-.653	.148
Push3	4.81	1.396	-.654	.375
Push4	5.50	1.013	-.378	-.172
Push5	5.25	1.191	-.758	.688
Push6	5.02	1.425	-.902	.934
Push7	5.02	1.512	-.904	.457
Push8	4.74	1.546	-.594	-.193
Push9	5.27	1.182	-.551	.271
Push10	5.24	1.194	-.729	.535
Push11	5.27	1.147	-.535	.327
Push12	5.55	.958	-.317	-.165
Push13	5.81	.880	-.166	-.831
Push14	5.50	1.033	-.444	-.163
Push15	5.59	.975	-.423	-.193
Push16	5.62	.950	-.355	-.194
Push17	5.68	.973	-.471	-.073
Push18	5.52	1.037	-.420	-.357
Push19	5.09	1.258	-.652	.195
Push20	4.93	1.386	-.814	.719
Push21	5.12	1.192	-.608	.392
Push22	5.03	1.235	-.543	.120
Push23	5.08	1.223	-.486	.068
Pull1	5.64	.982	-.488	.062
Pull2	5.66	.986	-.493	.104
Pull3	5.46	1.043	-.431	-.191
Pull4	5.83	.903	-.279	-.783

Pull5	5.50	1.052	-.425	-.209
Pull6	5.83	.898	-.275	-.761
Pull7	5.94	.907	-.367	-.821
Pull8	5.95	.855	-.422	-.523
Pull9	5.93	.887	-.357	-.748
Pull10	5.42	1.146	-.742	.625
Pull11	5.75	.973	-.534	-.032
Pull12	5.88	.858	-.339	-.584
Pull13	5.88	.838	-.265	-.640
Pull14	5.55	1.051	-.515	-.085
Pull15	5.69	.899	-.423	-.041
Pull16	5.18	1.305	-.775	.246
Pull17	5.63	.963	-.387	-.196
Pull18	5.85	.896	-.299	-.753
Pull19	5.84	.881	-.301	-.682
Pull20	5.64	.966	-.479	.036
Pull21	5.74	.917	-.496	.062
Pull22	5.70	.966	-.433	-.193
Pull23	5.70	.944	-.371	-.173
Pull24	5.88	.828	-.191	-.726
Exp1	5.62	.941	-.422	-.053
Exp2	5.34	.974	-.294	-.196
Exp3	5.75	.819	-.230	-.451
Exp4	5.63	.909	-.359	-.002
Exp5	5.31	1.124	-.550	.288
Exp6	5.23	1.198	-.567	.117
Exp7	5.42	.997	-.305	-.320
Exp8	5.37	1.031	-.179	-.544
Exp9	5.35	1.061	-.161	-.569
Exp10	5.51	.926	-.317	-.117
Exp11	5.65	.904	-.217	-.415

Exp12	5.69	.917	-.294	-.364
Exp13	5.42	1.003	-.231	-.334
Exp14	5.62	.922	-.296	-.228
Exp15	5.62	.894	-.209	-.307
Exp16	5.41	.994	-.431	-.032
Sat1	5.83	.835	-.092	-.814
Sat2	5.70	.810	-.038	-.585
Sat3	5.70	.870	-.081	-.746
Sat4	5.29	1.072	-.153	-.706
Sat5	5.38	1.013	-.259	-.388
Sat6	5.44	.954	-.047	-.516
Sat7	5.50	.982	-.253	-.399
Sat8	5.47	.999	-.314	-.259
Sat9	5.52	.908	-.241	-.230
Sat10	5.68	.946	-.247	-.483
Sat11	5.69	.938	-.476	-.157
Sat12	5.29	1.042	-.203	-.462
Sat13	5.50	.904	-.105	-.479
Sat14	5.67	.904	-.338	-.145
Sat15	5.61	.825	.036	-.591
Sat16	5.58	.865	-.164	-.404
Sat17	5.64	.814	-.042	-.537
BInt1	5.77	.792	-.117	-.528
BInt2	5.70	.824	-.213	-.462
BInt3	5.73	.857	-.186	-.625
BInt4	5.34	1.039	-.343	-.382
BInt5	5.48	.996	-.516	.087

Appendix F: Critical Ratios for Differences (CRDIFF)

Table 1 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	2.907	.000				
par_3	4.821	2.121	.000			
par_4	**-0.639**	-2.740	-4.770	.000		
par_5	-3.813	-5.466	-9.696	-3.371	.000	
par_6	-7.452	-10.929	-8.877	-5.185	-2.293	.000

Table 2 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	-2.298	.000				
par_3	-3.273	**-1.531**	.000			
par_4	-4.233	-6.036	-3.856	.000		
par_5	-6.406	-0.781	0.212	2.482	.000	
par_6	2.050	3.938	4.751	5.905	5.900	.000

Table 3 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	-3.378	.000				
par_3	-2.428	**1.196**	.000			
par_4	-7.914	-7.937	-10.316	.000		
par_5	-3.395	0.234	-0.633	5.738	.000	
par_6	-8.357	-2.406	-3.230	3.426	-3.297	.000

Table 4 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	**-1.364**	.000				
par_3	0.237	1.598	.000			
par_4	-4.142	-4.002	-5.983	.000		
par_5	-3.229	-1.576	-3.322	1.871	.000	
par_6	-4.664	-2.913	-3.438	0.692	-1.053	.000

Table 5 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	**1.207**	.000				
par_3	2.184	.922	.000			
par_4	-6.076	-7.467	-9.707	.000		
par_5	-5.670	-5.766	-8.488	.831	.000	
par_6	-9.881	-10.605	-9.351	-2.332	-2.828	.000

Table 6 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	.383	.000				
par_3	.441	.046	.000			
par_4	-5.524	-6.539	-7.764	.000		
par_5	-4.833	-4.295	-5.713	1.401	.000	
par_6	-8.900	-8.630	-7.328	**-1.516**	-2.768	.000

Table 7 – Critical Ratios for Differences between Parameters

	par_1	par_2	par_3	par_4	par_5	par_6
par_1	.000					
par_2	2.306	.000				
par_3	0.417	-2.104	.000			
par_4	-3.103	-6.084	-4.054	.000		
par_5	-9.061	-9.762	-11.973	-5.152	.000	
par_6	-7.880	-13.220	-8.319	-5.018	**-0.968**	.000

Appendix G: Construct Reliability and Validity

Reliability and Validity Test

Construct	Indicator	Factor Loading	Cronbach α	CR
Shopping	Push7	.866	.841	.742
	Push6	.718		
	Push3	.758		
	Push2	.668		
Vacation	Push17	.766	.805	.818
	Push16	.734		
	Push15	.692		
	Push18	.682		
Adventure	Push22	.909	.890	.813
	Push23	.837		
Interesting Town	Pull13	.673	.824	.876
	Pull8	.768		
	Pull24	.712		
	Pull9	.804		
Entertainment and Scenery	Pull6	.825	.770	.884
	Pull7	.758		
Novelty	Exp7	.861	.869	.871
	Exp9	.819		
	Exp8	.822		
	Exp6	.739		
Enjoyable	Exp14	.815	.792	.700
	Exp16	.652		
	Exp15	.810		
Tourist Information	Sat5	.731	.780	.537
	Sat8	.719		
	Sat6	.761		
Shopping Activities	Sat15	.832	.848	.761
	Sat14	.786		
	Sat17	.809		
Safe and Secure Destination	Sat1	.852	.819	.812
	Sat3	.742		
	Sat2	.733		
Behavioural Intention	BInt1	.837	.838	.876
	BInt2	.837		
	Bint3	.710		

Appendix H: Convergent Validity

Factors and Items			Estimate
Push2	<---	SHOPPING	.676
Push3	<---	SHOPPING	.763
Push6	<---	SHOPPING	.716
Push7	<---	SHOPPING	.859
Push18	<---	VACATION	.683
Push15	<---	VACATION	.691
Push16	<---	VACATION	.732
Push17	<---	VACATION	.768
Push23	<---	ADVENTURE	.843
Push22	<---	ADVENTURE	.920
Exp6	<---	NOVELTY	.737
Exp8	<---	NOVELTY	.822
Exp9	<---	NOVELTY	.821
Exp7	<---	NOVELTY	.861
Exp15	<---	ENJOYABLE	.793
Exp14	<---	ENJOYABLE	.864
Sat6	<---	TOUR_INFO	.769
Sat8	<---	TOUR_INFO	.714
Sat5	<---	TOUR_INFO	.728
Sat17	<---	SHOP_ACT	.804
Sat14	<---	SHOP_ACT	.789
Sat15	<---	SHOP_ACT	.834
Sat2	<---	SSDEST	.735
Sat3	<---	SSDEST	.743
Sat1	<---	SSDEST	.849
BInt3	<---	BHV_INT	.711
BInt2	<---	BHV_INT	.867
BInt1	<---	BHV_INT	.836
Pull13	<---	INT_TOWN	.656
Pull8	<---	INT_TOWN	.803
Pull24	<---	INT_TOWN	.703
Pull9	<---	INT_TOWN	.789
Pull6	<---	ENT	.712
Pull7	<---	ENT	.860

Appendix I: Discriminant Validity

Table 1 - Correlation Matrix for the Measurement Model

Construct	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Shopping	4.99	1.13	1.00										
2. Vacation	5.61	0.77	0.49	1.00									
3. Adventure	5.09	1.07	0.66	0.56	1.00								
4. Interesting Town	5.40	0.89	0.34	0.71	0.28	1.00							
5. Entertainment and Scenery	5.59	0.78	0.74	0.58	0.56	0.57	1.00						
6. Novelty	5.93	0.68	0.47	0.72	0.60	0.43	0.43	1.00					
7. Enjoyable	5.51	0.91	0.50	0.79	0.47	0.59	0.59	0.66	1.00				
8. Tourist Information	5.43	0.81	0.55	0.74	0.58	0.64	0.64	0.70	0.77	1.00			
9. Shopping Activities	5.64	0.75	0.48	0.75	0.43	0.60	0.60	0.56	0.80	0.80	1.00		
10. Safe and Secure Destination	5.77	0.71	0.38	0.67	0.32	0.46	0.46	0.49	0.76	0.78	0.81	1.00	
11. Behavioural Intention	5.75	0.70	0.30	0.68	0.26	0.39	0.39	0.51	0.63	0.60	0.68	0.75	1.00

Table 2 - Constrained and Unconstrained Model Differences of Chi-squared (χ^2)

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Shopping										
2. Vacation	258.621									
3. Adventure	191.099	193.928								
4. Interesting Town	374.166	118.577	399.101							
5. Entertainment and Scenery	56.887	90.366	101.385	98.802						
6. Novelty	349.22	146.327	237.228	329.843	122.958					
7. Enjoyable	158.244	64.005	191.046	104.331	89.867	141.973				
8. Tourist Information	149.321	71.314	144.769	140.266	71.182	101.276	55.722			
9. Shopping Activities	290.564	101.332	324.265	124.819	89.461	270.95	68.187	57.303		
10. Safe and Secure Destination	276.585	126.696	290.137	115.09	117.529	240.131	84.139	58.346	66.408	
11. Behavioural Intention	358.826	147.107	377.515	146.325	128.423	287.741	157.359	142.077	156.574	99.537

Note: All χ^2 differences were significant at $p < 0.00$.

Appendix J: Parameters Estimate

Regression weights items			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Push2	<---	SHOPPING	0.836	0.066	12.642	***
Push3	<---	SHOPPING	1.048	0.07	14.986	***
Push6	<---	SHOPPING	1.004	0.072	13.91	***
Push7	<---	SHOPPING	1.265	0.07	18.164	***
Push18	<---	VACATION	0.702	0.054	12.956	***
Push15	<---	VACATION	0.667	0.051	13.19	***
Push16	<---	VACATION	0.668	0.047	14.275	***
Push17	<---	VACATION	0.75	0.05	15.145	***
Push21	<---	ADVENTURE	0.855	0.061	14.057	***
Push23	<---	ADVENTURE	1.021	0.059	17.419	***
Push22	<---	ADVENTURE	1.126	0.057	19.739	***
Pull3	<---	ENT	0.818	0.051	15.911	***
Pull5	<---	ENT	0.773	0.054	14.388	***
Exp6	<---	NOVELTY	0.864	0.058	14.785	***
Exp8	<---	NOVELTY	0.832	0.048	17.205	***
Exp9	<---	NOVELTY	0.855	0.052	16.554	***
Exp7	<---	NOVELTY	0.825	0.046	17.959	***
Exp15	<---	ENJOYABLE	0.717	0.044	16.449	***
Exp16	<---	ENJOYABLE	0.642	0.052	12.248	***
Exp14	<---	ENJOYABLE	0.75	0.045	16.586	***
Sat6	<---	TOUR_INFO	0.722	0.048	14.906	***
Sat8	<---	TOUR_INFO	0.689	0.05	13.807	***
Sat5	<---	TOUR_INFO	0.728	0.051	14.135	***
Sat17	<---	SHOP_ACT	0.665	0.04	16.612	***
Sat14	<---	SHOP_ACT	0.7	0.044	15.927	***
Sat15	<---	SHOP_ACT	0.699	0.04	17.327	***
Sat2	<---	SSDEST	0.597	0.042	14.349	***
Sat3	<---	SSDEST	0.648	0.044	14.584	***
Sat1	<---	SSDEST	0.667	0.038	17.748	***
BInt3	<---	BHV_INT	0.616	0.045	13.728	***
BInt2	<---	BHV_INT	0.693	0.038	18.237	***
BInt1	<---	BHV_INT	0.625	0.036	17.312	***
Pull13	<---	INT_TOWN	0.543	0.043	12.688	***
Pull8	<---	INT_TOWN	0.646	0.043	15.174	***
Pull24	<---	INT_TOWN	0.58	0.042	13.675	***
Pull9	<---	INT_TOWN	0.699	0.043	16.204	***

Covariances items			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.
SHOPPING	<-->	VACATION	0.485	0.055	8.851
SHOPPING	<-->	ADVENTURE	0.664	0.041	16.378
VACATION	<-->	ADVENTURE	0.559	0.049	11.303
SHOPPING	<-->	ENT	0.74	0.041	18.14
SHOPPING	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.479	0.054	8.941
SHOPPING	<-->	TOUR_INFO	0.548	0.053	10.384
SHOPPING	<-->	ENJOYABLE	0.499	0.054	9.289
SHOPPING	<-->	NOVELTY	0.469	0.051	9.126
VACATION	<-->	ENT	0.582	0.054	10.873
VACATION	<-->	BHV_INT	0.683	0.042	16.197
VACATION	<-->	SSDEST	0.671	0.045	15.066
VACATION	<-->	ENJOYABLE	0.791	0.036	21.955
VACATION	<-->	NOVELTY	0.716	0.037	19.096
ADVENTURE	<-->	ENT	0.56	0.052	10.854
ADVENTURE	<-->	BHV_INT	0.259	0.061	4.255
ADVENTURE	<-->	SSDEST	0.315	0.06	5.223
ADVENTURE	<-->	ENJOYABLE	0.474	0.054	8.788
ADVENTURE	<-->	NOVELTY	0.596	0.043	13.91
ENT	<-->	BHV_INT	0.385	0.061	6.287
ENT	<-->	SSDEST	0.459	0.059	7.744
ENT	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.601	0.051	11.884
ENT	<-->	TOUR_INFO	0.64	0.052	12.404
ENT	<-->	ENJOYABLE	0.586	0.053	11.082
ENT	<-->	NOVELTY	0.433	0.057	7.613
SSDEST	<-->	BHV_INT	0.753	0.036	20.841
SHOP_ACT	<-->	BHV_INT	0.68	0.041	16.705
TOUR_INFO	<-->	BHV_INT	0.601	0.049	12.17
ENJOYABLE	<-->	BHV_INT	0.633	0.045	13.932
SHOP_ACT	<-->	SSDEST	0.806	0.032	24.857
TOUR_INFO	<-->	SSDEST	0.78	0.038	20.404
ENJOYABLE	<-->	SSDEST	0.757	0.038	19.968
TOUR_INFO	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.797	0.036	22.278
ENJOYABLE	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.797	0.034	23.676
NOVELTY	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.563	0.046	12.131
ENJOYABLE	<-->	TOUR_INFO	0.772	0.039	19.619
NOVELTY	<-->	TOUR_INFO	0.699	0.04	17.294
NOVELTY	<-->	ENJOYABLE	0.662	0.041	16.074
ADVENTURE	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.28	0.061	4.553
VACATION	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.707	0.042	16.983
SHOPPING	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.341	0.06	5.647
NOVELTY	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.473	0.052	9.077
ENT	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.572	0.053	10.765

BHV_INT	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.683	0.041	16.589
SSDEST	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.709	0.041	17.409
SHOP_ACT	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.724	0.039	18.75
SHOPPING	<-->	SSDEST	0.378	0.059	6.387
TOUR_INFO	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.592	0.051	11.548
ENJOYABLE	<-->	INT_TOWN	0.735	0.039	18.683
VACATION	<-->	TOUR_INFO	0.741	0.042	17.652
SHOPPING	<-->	BHV_INT	0.295	0.061	4.841
ADVENTURE	<-->	TOUR_INFO	0.582	0.05	11.723
ADVENTURE	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.431	0.055	7.867
NOVELTY	<-->	SSDEST	0.493	0.051	9.631
NOVELTY	<-->	BHV_INT	0.51	0.049	10.397
VACATION	<-->	SHOP_ACT	0.747	0.038	19.714

Variances items	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
SHOPPING	1			
VACATION	1			
ADVENTURE	1			
ENT	1			
NOVELTY	1			
ENJOYABLE	1			
TOUR_INFO	1			
SHOP_ACT	1			
SSDEST	1			
BHV_INT	1			
INT_TOWN	1			
p2	0.866	0.078	11.084	***
p3	0.812	0.08	10.111	***
p6	0.946	0.089	10.628	***
p7	0.534	0.073	7.318	***
p18	0.567	0.052	10.912	***
p15	0.486	0.045	10.827	***
p16	0.383	0.037	10.367	***
p17	0.397	0.04	9.889	***
p21	0.686	0.063	10.935	***
p23	0.447	0.051	8.785	***
p22	0.267	0.047	5.654	***
l3	0.313	0.046	6.801	***
l5	0.443	0.049	8.946	***
e6	0.621	0.056	11.153	***
e8	0.332	0.034	9.887	***
e9	0.358	0.042	8.449	***
e7	0.238	0.032	7.432	***

e15	0.269	0.03	9.061	***
e16	0.556	0.05	11.198	***
e14	0.285	0.032	8.933	***
s6	0.379	0.039	9.734	***
s8	0.444	0.043	10.397	***
s5	0.46	0.045	10.223	***
s17	0.234	0.024	9.594	***
s14	0.303	0.03	10.029	***
s15	0.217	0.024	9.023	***
s2	0.307	0.029	10.544	***
s3	0.343	0.033	10.439	***
s1	0.168	0.021	7.904	***
b3	0.373	0.035	10.796	***
b2	0.159	0.022	7.33	***
b1	0.167	0.02	8.437	***
l13	0.357	0.033	10.949	***
l8	0.291	0.03	9.808	***
l24	0.328	0.031	10.576	***
l9	0.267	0.029	9.07	***