APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR TO SELECT A DESTINATION AFTER A CRISIS: A CASE STUDY OF PHUKET, THAILAND

By

KULLADA PHETVAROON

Bachelor of Science in Economics
Kasetsart University
Bangkok, Thailand
1993

Master of Business Administration in Finance
The University of Tenessee
Chattanooga, Tennessee
1996

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Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
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the requirements for
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OF PHUKET, THAILAND

Thesis Approved:

Dr. Woody Kim
Thesis Adviser

Dr. Jerrold Leong

Dr. Radesh Parakurthi

Dr. William D. Warde

Dr. A. Gordon Emslie
Dean of the Graduate College

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Phuket lies off the west coast of Southern Thailand in the Andaman Sea, approximately 890 kilometers from Bangkok. It is Thailand's largest island, roughly the same size as Singapore, and it is surrounded by many smaller islands that add an additional 70 square kilometers to its total land area. Today, Phuket is the country's major tourist attraction. The surrounding waters contain a variety of marine life and the island is blessed with lovely seashores and forested hillsides. The water is crystal clear and the sandy beaches are white and soft. However, Phuket has a lot more to offer its visitors other than its natural heritage of sun, sea, sand, sky, beach, forest, mountain, and world-renowned diving sites. Sino-Portuguese architecture and old European-style buildings cast their spell, delighting visitors while Phuket-style hospitality has never failed to impress visitors from all walks of life. In addition, accommodation options ranging from tropical-style bungalows to exclusive, super-luxury, and world-class resorts have warmly catered to the different needs of visitors. Travelers can make their choice depending on the type of holiday they prefer. Some accommodations are in Phuket town, in the heart of the nightlife, others are on a quiet beach, and still others are up on a hill for a vantage view of the sea. For seafood lovers, Phuket is famous for its plentiful seafood including sea catch fish, crabs, squids, oysters, prawns, and lobsters, all fresh from the

Andaman Sea. Altogether, these characteristics have made Phuket a truly unique destination that attracts tourists from various countries ("Phuket," 2005).

Since the 1980s, Phuket has become one of the major tourist attractions of Thailand. Tourists bring foreign exchange that helps support the Thai economy, giving Phuket the second highest per capita income of any province in Thailand outside of Bangkok. Tourism has dominated the island's economy for the past two decades ("Phuket," 2005).

Table 1 shows that the number of accommodation establishments in Phuket increased by 97.62% from 1997 to 2004. In 2005, however, the number of establishments decreased by 8.81% from 2004 because of the impact of the Tsunami. Many shops, hotels, and various types of accommodation buildings in the Phuket area were destroyed by the Tsunami. The number of rooms also increased from 1997 to 2004, by 69.19%. Because of the Tsunami, again, the number of rooms decreased in 2005 by 1.83% from 2004. In Phuket, plenty of accommodations are available, ranging from standard bungalow resorts to luxury hotels. The number of accommodation establishments continues to increase in order to respond to the continuously increasing number of tourists visiting Phuket.

The number of foreign guests has increased every year except in 2003 and 2005. The number of foreign guests decreased from 2.6 million in 2002 to 2.5 million in 2003 because the effects of SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) and bird flu. SARS and bird flu caused tourists to reconsider, or in many cases to cancel, their travel arrangements to Phuket. In 2004, tourists started to visit Phuket again as evidenced by the increased number of foreign guest arrivals. However, the Indian Ocean tsunami of

26 December 2004 made the number of foreign guests decrease again from nearly 3.3 million in 2004 to about 1.1 million in 2005.

Table 1: Tourist Accommodation and Arrival Statistics for Phuket

Type of data	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Accommodation establishments	293	293	303	344	510	510	549	579	528
Rooms	18,959	17,952	20,150	19,574	26,759	26,637	31,302	32,076	31,488
Occupancy rate (%)	54	58.87	63.40	67.14	58.86	57.00	57.40	65.47	34.60
Average length of stay (days)	3.27	3.25	3.25	3.31	3.53	3.20	3.74	3.63	3.19
Number of tourist arrivals	2,113,419	2,343,77	2,753,330	2,971,211	3,275,669	3,492,324	3,508,950	4,234,982	1,971,181
Thai	490,186	498,252	675,907	709,131	799,940	884,949	986,299	964,523	824,330
Foreigner	1,623,233	1,845,520	2,077,423	2,262,080	2,475,729	2,607,375	2,520,651	3,270,459	1,146,851

Source: (Statistics of Phuket tourism, 2006)

Table 2 shows that tourism receipts from foreign travelers increased every year except in 2003 and 2005. Receipts from foreign travelers decreased from approximately 61 billion baht in 2002 to just under 60 billion baht in 2003 because of the effects of SARS and bird flu. However, receipts from foreign travelers increased to just over 72 billion baht in 2004 as a result of a marketing campaign by the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT). Tourism receipts from foreign travelers decreased again in 2005 to just over 19 billion baht because of the effects of the Tsunami.

Table 2: Tourism Receipts from Domestic and Foreign Travelers to Phuket

Receipts (million baht)	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Thai	4,116	5,035	7,811	9,149	10,411	11,381	13,428	13,489	9,109
Foreigners	25,722	37,659	47,904	53,100	59,259	61,219	59,864	72,183	19,074
Total	29,838	42,694	55,715	62,249	69,670	72,600	73,292	85,672	28,183

Source: (Statistics of Phuket tourism, 2006)

On December 26, 2004, an earthquake occurred in the Indian Ocean, resulting in an Asian tsunami. The Asian tsunami, which hit primarily five countries in the Indian Ocean region—Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, Maldives, and Thailand—killed approximately 224,000 people (Thalif, 2005). According to TAT, the Tsunami destroyed about 40% of the 53,000 hotel rooms in six southern Thai provinces (Phuket, Phang-Nga, Krabi, Ranong, Satun, and Trung). Close to 5,400 people were killed in Thailand and half of them were tourists. One report stated that as many as 250 people, including some foreign tourists, were killed in Phuket (Tsunami, 2005), and the Tsunami also destroyed some tourist sites in Phuket.

The economic pain from the dramatic decrease in tourists due to the Tsunami has been severe for the tourism industry (Mydans, 2005). An Asia-Pacific travel industry association based in Bangkok estimated that tourism in tsunami-affected destinations such as Phuket remained weak more than seven months after the tragedy. According to figures compiled by that association and Visa International Asia Pacific, there was a dramatic reduction in tourist arrivals (40%) and spending (30%) after the Tsunami (Asia-Pacific Travel Industry Association, 2005).

International agencies and the Phuket government have joined forces to map out the Phuket Action Plan, a restoration and recovery plan for Phuket following the

Tsunami. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) offered support for the Plan by choosing Phuket as the venue for the Information and Communications Technology (ICT) Solutions for Disaster Recovery Management and Global Warning conference. The theme of the conference was "Learning from the Tsunami." By hosting this first post-Tsunami international conference, Phuket has inspired tourists, given confidence, and offered assurance that Phuket's service infrastructure and facilities are again operational (TAT, 2006).

The return of tourists to Phuket is the most meaningful and sustainable way to help Phuket communities affected by the Tsunami because the livelihoods of people living in the affected areas depend on tourism. One year after the Tsunami, the demands for visiting Phuket were stuck, international tourists still have not returned. The number of foreign traveler arrivals decreased from 2004 to 2005 by 64.93%. Hotel occupancy rate also decreased from 2004 to 2005 by 30.87%. Tourism Authority of Thailand have announced plans to speed up recovery of the tourism sector by launching new promotion campaigns to help reassure international tourists that it is safe to return. The post-Tsunami tourism recovery progress seems to be satisfied. According to the Tourism Authority of Thailand report, hotel occupancy rate increased 32.70% in the first two quarters (January to June) from year 2005 to year 2006. Receipts from foreign travelers also increased from approximately 7 billion baht in the first two quarter in 2005 to 30 billion baht in the first two quarter in 2006 (TAT, 2006). Overall, the moderate recovery in tourist arrivals and expenditure is witnessed, but it appears that more time and efforts are needed to achieve the level of full recovery before Tsunami.

Problem Statement

Probably no other industry in the world has suffered more from crises than tourism (Leaf, 1995). Crises can occur in many different forms, including human-caused disasters and natural disasters. Many researchers have studied the negative effects of human-caused crises (Bar-On, 1996; Leslie, 1999; Mansfeld, 1999; Sommez, 1998). These studies have focused on the effects of the crises on tourism activities and on responses from within the tourism sector. Additional research, in the context of natural disasters, is needed.

A disaster can turn tourism flows away from the impacted destination not only at the time of the crisis, but also in the period following it as travelers reevaluate the destination. In fact, the magnitude of the Tsunami disaster was so significant that the tourism industry was not only disrupted, but its survival was jeopardized. While the management of an actual crisis has become an integral part of business activity in the tourism industry, how the industry copes with post-disaster situations has not received much attention. In addition, the tourism industry could benefit from research that establishes the role of extended theory of planned behavior in the process of selecting travel destinations.

Therefore, this study seeks to address two deficiencies in existing research: to examine the perceived importance of destination attributes after a natural disaster has occurred and to establish a theoretical and conceptual foundation for predicting the behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination after a major natural disaster.

Research Questions

In light of the discussion above, the following research questions have been generated:

1. Are there any differences between the perceived importance of destination attributes before and after the disaster occurred?
2. What are the underlying dimensions of motivation for choosing Phuket as a travel destination after a debilitating natural disaster?
3. By employing the extended the theory of planned behavior (TPB) model, does the proposed destination selection model truly advance the understanding of specific determinants of tourist behavior intention toward a destination suffered from a major natural disaster?

Objectives of the Study

1. To compare tourist perceptions of destination attributes before and after the disaster occurred.
2. To identify the underlying dimensions of motivation for choosing Phuket as a travel destination after a devastating natural disaster.
3. To empirically test the applicability of the extended TPB model, in the tourism context.

Research Model and Hypotheses

Figure 1 shows a research model that forms the basis of the study and provides general guidelines for the research. The study applies the TPB model as a research framework to predict the behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. The model

is based on the three constructs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control adapted from Ajzen and Driver (1992). TPB has been used in the study of a variety of social behaviors with strong predictive utility (e.g., Ajzen & Driver, 1991, 1992; Chan & Cheung, 1998; Conner, Warren, & Close, 1999; Reinecke, Schmidt, & Ajzen, 1996). In addition, Conner and Abraham (2001) mentioned that additional constructs might enhance the TPB's predictive power. Quellette and Wood (1998) found that the variance in explaining behavioral intention increased when past behavior was added into the TPB model. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the inclusion of past behavior in the proposed study model should enhance the predictive ability of the original TPB.

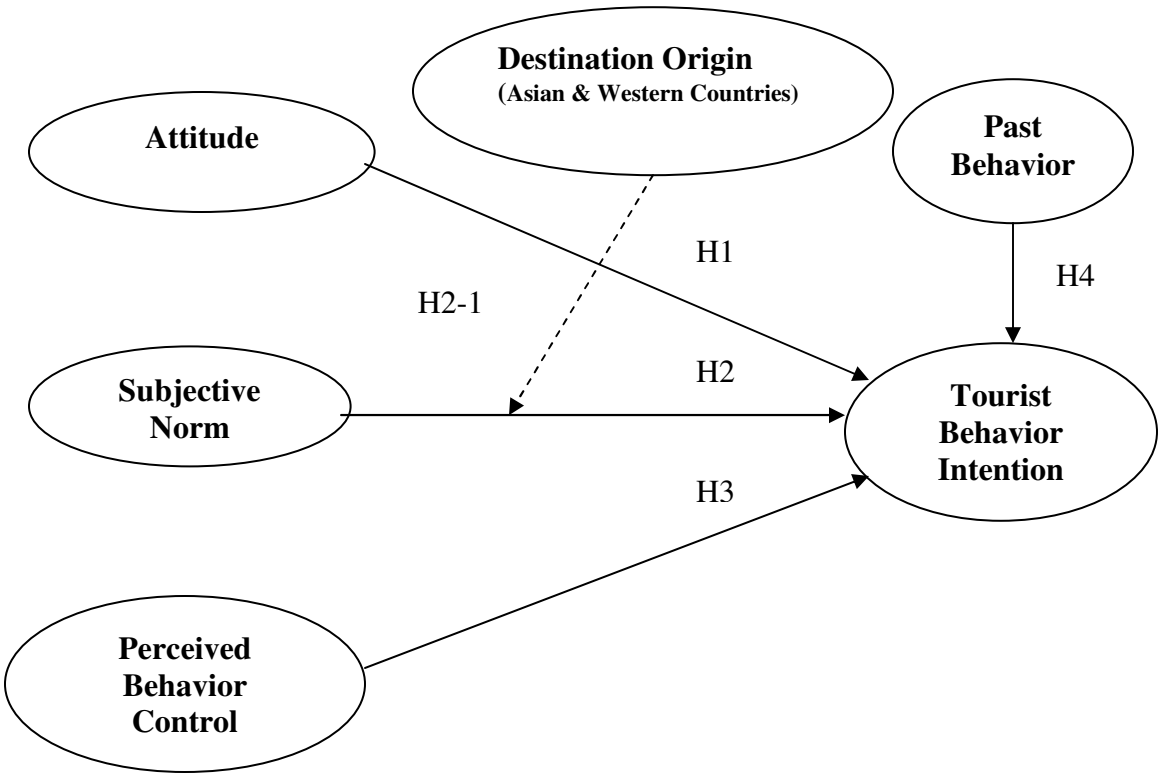


Figure1: Research model.

From the previous discussion, research hypotheses have been developed for this study:

- Hypothesis 1: A positive attitude toward destination positively affects tourist behavior intention.
- Hypothesis 2: A subjective norm about a popular destination positively affects tourist behavior intention.
- Hypothesis 2-1: The positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention will be greater among tourists from Asian countries than from Western countries.
- Hypothesis 3: Perceived behavioral control positively affects tourist behavior intention.
- Hypothesis 4: Past behavior positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Significance of the Study

Theoretical Contribution

The theoretical contribution of this study is the application of the extended TPB model to the tourism industry. The proposed model intends to link three components of traditional attitudinal theory (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control) with the addition of an additional component (past behavior) to predict the behavioral intention of choosing Phuket as a travel destination recovering from a devastating natural disaster. The proposed model adds to existing knowledge about tourist behavior after the Tsunami crisis. The model extends the TPB theory by adding past behavior and by developing crisis-related items to measure perceived behavioral control.

At present, most studies developed to test the applicability of the TPB model were based on non-crisis situations. Therefore, the development of the model to reflect recovery from a natural disaster will be of significant value in research on predicting the behavioral intention of choosing Phuket as a travel destination.

Practical and Management Contributions

The results of this study have practical significance to various parties:

- Stakeholders at both the local and national levels are able to improve tourism products and services in Phuket and thus increase the quality of tourist experiences in the future.
- Operators and managers of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) and the Phuket Tourism Board are able to closely match available tourism product with the needs of diverse tourists and their differentiated travel motivations.
- TAT and the Phuket Tourism Board are able to develop marketing strategies to enhance Phuket's image as a "pearl of Andaman" and return Phuket tourism to its former level of success.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) is a cognitive model of human behavior that focuses on prediction and understanding of clearly defined behaviors. The theory states that people act in accordance with their intentions and perceptions of control over their behavior, while intentions are influenced by attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavior control (Ajzen, 1985).

TPB is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA), which predicts intention to perform a behavior from two predictors, attitudes toward the behavior and subjective norms (Fishbein, 1980). TRA, however, does not take into account situations in which a behavior is not completely under an individual's control. Ajen (1985) developed TPB by introducing a third predictor of behavior to TRA, perceived behavior control. Therefore, TPB postulates three conceptually independent antecedents of behavioral intention: attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control.

Tourist Behavior Intention

Behavioral intention is defined as "the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behavior" (Warshaw & Davis, 1985, p. 214). Shim, Eastlick, Lotz, & Warrington (2001) demonstrated that intention to perform a behavior is the proximal cause of such a behavior.

According to TPB, behavioral intention is determined by relative weights given to attitude toward behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Park, 2003). Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) stated that the relative weights (w) of the determinants of behavioral intention should be reflected in explaining behavioral intention because the relative importance of attitudinal, normative, and perceived behavioral control factors may vary from person to person and across situations (Park, 2003). Lee (2005) suggested that behavioral intention in TPB is determined by the following equation:

Behavioral Intention (BI) = w_1Attitude (AT) + w_2Subjective Norm (SN) + w_3Perceived Behavior Control (PBC)

Theories of human behavior suggest that the best predictor of behavioral intention and future actual behavior is the frequency of past relevant behavior (Quellette & Wood, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). Although TPB is considered a valid model for predicting behavioral intention, Quellette & Wood (1998) found that the variance in explaining behavioral intention increased when past behavior was added to the TPB model. By applying the TPB model to his research, Lee (2005) developed a meeting participation model (MPM) that provides a systematic view of the decision-making process of

association meeting participation. Specifically, the MPM provides a more complete understanding of meeting participation intention by adding past meeting participation experience to the TPB. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the inclusion of past behavior in the study model could enhance the predictive ability of the original TPB. Therefore, tourist behavior intention can be reformulated:

Tourist Behavioral Intention (BI) = w_1Attitude (AT) + w_2Subjective Norm (SN) + w_3Perceived Behavior Control (PBC) + w_4Past Experience (PE)

Antecedents of Tourist Behavior Intention and Hypotheses

Given the four constructs of attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and past behavior, a relationship between each construct and behavioral intention is hypothesized. The theoretical support of the relationships is described in the following sub-sections.

Attitude

Attitude refers to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question. It represents a summary evaluation of a psychological object captured in attribute dimensions of good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likable-dislikable (Ajzen, 2001).

Rosenberg & Hovland (1996) viewed attitude as a multicomponent construct and stated that "all responses to a stimulus object are mediated by the person's attitude toward the object." Prislin & Quellette (1996) found that highly embedded attitudes toward preservation of the environment were more strongly related to an aggregate measure of

behavioral intention than were low-embedded attitudes. Crano (1997) found that vested interest affects the strength of the relationship between attitude and behavior. In addition, others have found additional impacts on the attitude-behavior relationship: prior experience and thought (Millar & Millar, 1998), cognitive load and positive mood (Blessum et al, 1998), direct and indirect experience (Millar & Millar, 1996), and the accessibility of alternative action (Posavac et al., 1997). Further, Ajzen & Driver (1992) showed that leisure choice intentions are predicted with considerable accuracy from attitudes toward behavior. Therefore, if general measures of attitude have shown a positive relationship between attitude and behavioral intention, the same should hold for specific measures between tourist attitude and tourist behavior intention. It is hypothesized, therefore, that tourists who have a good attitude toward a destination are more likely to visit that destination.

• Hypothesis 1: A positive attitude toward destination positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Subjective Norm

The social factor termed subjective norm refers to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform a particular behavior. According to Moutinho (1987), any person or group that serves as a reference group can exert a key influence on an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and choices because the individual might conform to his/her referent group(s). Hee (2000) stated that subjective norm is social in nature. An individual considers whether he/she should perform an act based on the opinions of the people important to him/her and on perceived social pressure to behave in a particular way. Perceived social pressure refers to an individual's perception of how important

others desire performance or non-performance of a specific behavior. The more an individual perceives that others think he/she should perform a behavior, the more he/she will intend to do so.

The role of subjective norm to predict intention has been successfully supported in many empirical studies. Vanucci & Kerstetter (2001) used TPB to explain meeting planners' intentions to use the Internet to plan group meetings. Their studies revealed that subjective norm is significantly related to use of the Internet. Buttle & Bok (1996) used TRA to explore the hotel choice process of business travelers. These researchers found a significant correlation between subjective norm and behavioral intention. Lam & Hsu (2005) used TPB to predict behavioral intention of choosing a destination. They, too, found that subjective norm has a significantly positive relationship with behavioral intention. Drawing on the support of previous empirical findings, it is hypothesized that tourists' relevant referents positively affect tourist behavior intention.

• Hypothesis 2: A subjective norm about a popular destination positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Tourist's country of origin: Asian or Western

Asian cultures are distinguished from Western cultures in that Asian cultures are more collectivistic than individualistic in nature (Uba, 1994). Asian cultures generally depend on group-oriented values such as family, cooperation, harmony, and mutuality. Asians put more focus on ways to maintain harmony and conformity, and the individual is expected to respond to the needs of the group. In Asian cultures, people are taught to identify with the group rather than as an individual. Therefore, respecting a leader and following his or her directions are important tasks (Kim & Markus, 1999).

On the other hand, Western cultures encourage values with a greater emphasis on the importance of the individual person.

Hofstede (1980) differentiated individualistic from collectivistic cultures and determined that the distinguishing cultural trait of Asian nations is collectivity (1980). Hofstede (1980) & Triandis (1994) both consider the United States, in particular, and English-speaking countries, in general, to be high on individualism, whereas much of Africa and Asia are high on collectivism. As strong collectivists, Asian cultures are highly conformist (Becker, 2000). According to Hofstede (1991, p. 51), collective societies are defined as "societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive groups, which, throughout people's lifetimes, continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty." Individual societies are defined as "societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family" Compared to individualism, collectivism is more conscious of relationships with other people and puts a higher value on face, group harmony, conflict avoidance, respect, and group status (Leung, 1987; Triandis, 1995). In collectivist nations (e.g., China, Japan, Hong Kong, Korea, and the Philippines), the group is more important than the individual. In comparison, the Scandinavian countries (e.g., Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland) represent a high degree of individualism (Becker, 2000).

The concept of norms is more salient in collectivistic cultures, and the influence of social norms is more powerful in controlling individuals' behaviors. Norms show what behaviors a given culture expects of its members; norms can be assessed by asking individuals how desirable certain practices are in their society. Collectivist cultures are

tight, with less deviation in norms and greater compliance with norms, whereas individualistic cultures represent less agreement in norms and greater deviation between normative and evaluative views (Bierbrauer et al., 1994).

Traditionally, Asian people tend to perform an act based on the opinions of individuals in their family, while Western people tend to emphasize the uniqueness, privacy, and individual rights within the community (Yang & Rosenbatt, 2000). The belief in collectivistic notions such as interdependence, conformity, and harmony, as well as the attitude of focusing on relationships, are prominent in the Asian cultures, while individualistic ideas such as personal rights and self-actualization prevail in the Western cultures. Hence, it is hypothesized that the relationship between subjective norm and tourist behavior intention will vary depending on a tourist's country of origin (Asian vs. Western) or their culture (Asian vs. Western).

• Hypothesis 2-1: The positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention will be greater among tourists from Asian countries than from Western countries.

Perceived Behavioral Control

The third antecedent of intention is the degree of perceived behavioral control. Perceived behavioral control refers to a person's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing a particular behavior. It is assumed that perceived behavioral control reflects past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles. According to Chiou (1998), perceived behavior control reflects an individual's belief regarding access to resources and opportunities needed to perform a behavior.

Armitage & Conner (1999) found that perceived behavioral control adds an average of 6% to the prediction of behavioral intention. They also found a significant

correlation between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention. Using a modified TPB model, Oh & Hsu (2001) found a significant relationship between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention in examining gambling behaviors. Ajzen & Driver (1992) also found a significantly high correlation between perceived behavioral intention and behavioral intention in leisure choice behaviors. Many empirical studies investigating various human behaviors with TPB have provided evidence that perceived behavioral control is positively and directly associated with behavioral intention. Therefore, the following hypothesis is established:

• Hypothesis 3: Perceived behavioral control positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Past Behavior

A number of empirical studies have shown that past behavior can be used successfully as a predictor variable of behavioral intention and future behavior (Aarts, 1998; Ajzen, 2002; Oh & Hsu, 2001; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Taylor & Todd, 1995; Yoo, 2004). Ouellette & Wood (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of extant research to test the direct effect of past experience on future response. Their study revealed that past behavior was an important predictor of future behavior and intention. Because of the empirical evidence of past experience contributing to future behavior, this study includes past behavior as an antecedent of intention.

• Hypothesis 4: Past behavior positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Table 3 summarizes the research hypotheses formulated in the research model.

Table 3: Summary of Research Hypotheses

Prediction of Behavior Intention from Attitude, Subjective Norm, Perceived Behavior Control, and Past Behavior
H1: A positive attitude (AT) toward destination positively affects tourist behavior intention (BI).
H2: A subjective norm (SN) about a popular destination positively affects tourist behavior intention (BI).
H 2-1: The positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention will be greater among tourists from Asian countries than from Western countries.
H3: Perceived behavioral control (PBC) positively affects tourist behavior intention (BI).
H4: Past behavior positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Generally, the more favorable the attitude and subjective norm with respect to a behavior and the greater the perceived behavioral control; the stronger an individual's intention should be to perform the behavior under consideration (Ajzen, 1991). However, the relative importance of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control is expected to vary across behaviors and situations when predicting behavior intention. In some applications, therefore, it may be found that only attitudes have a significant impact on intentions. In other applications, attitude and perceived behavioral control may be sufficient to account for intentions, and in some applications all three predictors may make independent contributions.

Table 4 presents a summary of the literature reviewed regarding the effects of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control on behavioral intention. As the table shows, the regression coefficients of perceived behavior control were significant in each of these studies. Attitudes toward the various behaviors were significant to the prediction of intentions, whereas the results for subjective norm did not demonstrate a clearly discernible pattern. As indicated in the column labeled "R," a considerable

amount of the variance in intentions can be accounted for by summing all three predictors in TPB.

Table 4: Results of the Literature Review on the Effects of Attitude (AT), Subjective Norm (SN), and Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) on Behavioral Intention (BI)

Year	Author	Intention	Correlation			Regression Coefficients			
			AT	SN	PBC	AT	SN	PBC	R
1985	Schifter & Ajzen	Lose weight	.62	.44	.36	.79	.17	.30	.74
1986	Ajzen & Madden	Attend class	.51	.35	.57	.32	.16	.44	.68
1986	Ajzen & Madden	Get an 'A' in a course	.48	.11*	.44	.50	- .09*	.45	.65
1989	Watters	Participate in election	.39	.13	.30	.32	.03*	.20	.43
1989	Watters	Determine voting choice	.91	.67	.89	.54	.06*	.39	.94
1989	Godin, Vezina, &Leclerc	Exercise after giving birth	.50	- .01*	.60	.76	-.24	.84	.94
1990	Godin et al.	Exercise after giving birth	.42	.13*	.50	.25	.01*	.39	.55
1990	Netemeyer, Andrew, &Durvasula	Give a gift (mean over five items)	.51	.38	.44	.36	.08*	.20	.56
1990	Parker et al.	Commit traffic violations (mean over four violations)	.26	.48	.44	.15	.28	.33	.60
1990	Van Ryn & Vinokur	Search for a job	.63	.55	.20	.48	.35	.07	.71
1990	Doll & Ajzen	Play six video games (mean within subjects)	.92	.54	.87	.46	.17	.43	.94
1990	Schlegel et al	Get drunk	.63	.41	.58	.41	.I5	.36	.72
1990	Netemeyer, Burton, & Johnston	Participate in election	.33	.34	.62	.10*	.10*	.54	.64
1990	Netemeyer, Burton, & Johnston	Lose weight	.33	.14	.51	.24	- .02*	.47	.56
1990	Otis, Godin, Lambert & Pronovost	Use condoms	.62	.42	.29	.52	.26	.17	.69
1991	Beck & Ajzen	Cheat, shoplift, lie	.68	.40	.77	.29	.05*	.59	.81
1991	Beale & Manstead	Limit infant sugar intake	.41	.33	.52	.26	.16*	.40	.60

1992	Ajzen & Driver	Choose among 5 leisure intentions (mean within subjects)	.59	.70	.80	.28	.09*	.62	.85
1992	Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen	Participate in 10 common activities (mean within subjects)	.52	.36	.37	.43	.22	.26	.63

*Not significant; all other coefficients significant at $p < .05$.
Source: The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

A significant amount of empirical research has confirmed that the TPB model is successful in explaining a variety of human behavior in the fields of hospitality and tourism. Table 5 summarizes these findings in chronological order.

Table 5: Summary of TPB Applications in Hospitality and Tourism Research

Year	Author	Intention	Relationship	Correlation
1992	Ajzen & Driver	Leisure choice	(BI + PBC)-B BI-B PBC-B (AT+SN+PBC)-BI AT-BI SN-BI PBC-BI	.78 .75 .73 .86 .54 .70 .80
2001	Oh & Hsu	Gambling	BI-B AT-BI SN-BI PBC-BI PB-BI PB-BI	.42* .10* .09* -.39 ~ .40* .43* 1.20*
2001	Vanucci & Kerstetter	Meeting planners' use of Internet	BI-B AT-BI SN-BI PBC-BI PBC-B	27.57** 44.98** 26.21** 31.94** 48.96**
2005	Lee	Association members' meeting participation intentions	AT – BI SN – BI PBC – BI DI – BI PB – BI	.53 .20 .23 .15 .19
2005	Lam & Hsu	Travel destination choice	AT – BI SN – BI PB– BI	0.36 0.28 0.32

*Path Coefficient ($p <. 05$); ** $\chi 2$ ($df = 1$, $p <. 05$); ( ) = Multiple correlation; AT=Attitude Toward Behavior, SN=Subjective Norm, PBC=Perceived Behavioral Control, BI=Behavioral Intention, B=Behavior, H=Habit, PB=Past Behavior, BB=Behavioral Belief, NB=Normative Belief, CB=Control Belief, DI = Destination Image.

Applications of TPB

Studies have demonstrated the application of TPB in various contexts. These studies have shown strong predictive utility for a wide range of behavioral intentions and actual behaviors: smoking (Norman et al., 1999; Morrison et al., 1996); eating low-fat food (Armitage & Conner, 1999; Paisley & Sparks, 1998); receiving hormone replacement therapy (Quine & Rubin, 1997); safe-sex behavior (Boldero et al., 1999; de Vroome et al., 2000); drinking alcohol (Morrison et al., 1996; Trafimow, 1996); choosing a career (Vincent et al., 1998); wearing a safety helmet (Quine et al., 1998); engaging in physical activity (Courneya et al., 1999; Trafimow & Trafimow, 1998); using illegal substances (Conner et al., 1998; Conner & McMillan, 1999); choosing restaurants (Simone et al., 2004); and choosing a travel destination (Lam et al., 2005). In general, the literature supports the predictive power of TPB on behavioral intentions.

The Sufficiency of the Theory of Planned Behavior

Conner & Abraham (2001) mentioned that additional constructs might enhance the theory of planned behavior. Many studies included measures of additional variables in the prediction equation and showed significant improvement in the prediction of intentions or behavior.

The addition of personal or normal norms can improve the prediction of environmentally relevant behavior (Harland et al, 1999; Kristiansen & Hotte, 1996; Manstead, 2000). Prediction of playing the lottery and of precautionary sexual behavior is improved by adding anticipated regret (Richard et al, 1998; Sheeran & Orbell, 1999, Van der Pligt et al, 1998). Measures of personality traits also improved prediction (Courneya et al., 1999), but the addition of various demographic variables did not (Albarracin et al.,

1997). However, even when improvements were found, for the most part the improvement in prediction of intentions or behavior was relatively minor, and their generalizability to other behavioral domains has yet been demonstrated (Ajzen, 2001). Sparks & Guthrie (1998) have challenged the assumption that the three variables in the TPB model (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavior control) are sufficient to permit prediction of behavioral intentions. Norman et al. (1999) argued that other variables could further enhance the model's predictive utility and significantly improve its predictive power. Furthermore, Bentler & Speckart (1979) have suggested that past behavior, which was not included in the TPB, could have a direct impact on the formation of behavioral intention. Ajzen (1991) also believes that past behavior can be used to test the sufficiency of any model because past behavior provides a control for at least some of the omitted variables.

Travel Destination

Definition of Travel Destination

Destinations and their images attract tourists, motivate visits, and energize the whole tourism system (Cooper et al., 1998). Researchers have used a number of definitions that have contributed to the conceptualization of destination. Table 6 presents selected definitions of destination.

Table 6: Selected Definitions of Destination

Author	Definition
Middleton (1988)	Consists of five components: 1) the natural and man-made attractions of an area; 2) its facilities and services; 3) the ease of access to it; 4) the images used to attract tourists to it; and 5) the total cost of the holiday.
Hu & Ritchie (1993)	A package of tourism facilities and services, which, like any other consumer product, is composed of a number of multi-dimensional attributes.
Laws (1995)	A place where people spend their holiday; its elements entail place, people, and holiday.
Seaton & Bennett (1996)	The catalyst link that precipitates all the industries in the tourism sector. Unless people want to go somewhere, provisions for transporting them, housing them, feeding them, and amusing them will be in vain.
Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill (1998)	The focus of facilities and services designed to meet the needs of the tourist. Destination brings together all aspects of tourism including demand, transportation, supply, and marketing.
Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith (2000)	An amalgam of individual products and experience opportunities that combine to form a total experience of the area visited.
Deng, King, & Bauer (2002)	Overall attractiveness of a natural-based destination consists of 1) tourism resources, including natural and cultural resources; 2) tourists facilities, subdivided into infrastructure, recreational, and educational facilities; 3) accessibility, including external and internal accessibility of destination; and 4) local communities and attractions.

Destination Products

Destination products include physical elements; social factors; the level, use, or lack of infrastructure and technology in a destination; economic conditions; culture; and politics. The physical elements of destination include scenic views, flora and fauna, and environmental conditions such as the weather (Dunn & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Buckley, 1994; Smith, 1999). Social factors include the friendliness of local people, the language spoken,

family structures, occupations, urban layout, and population density (Canestrelli & Costa, 1991; Machlis & Burch, 1983; Smith, 1999). Infrastructure (e.g., water and power) and technology (e.g., computer technology and communications) are visible factors of developed or under-developed tourism products that affect tourists' experiences (Choy, 1992; Johnson & Edwards, 1994; Smith, 1999). Economic conditions, such as currency exchange, market behavior, and pricing, can influence tourist experiences and thoughts about a destination (Dieke, 1991; Stevens, 1992; Smith, 1999). Cultural attributes, including authentic local culture and destination history, may be presented through exposure to new destinations, sights, and experiences (Crompton, 1979; Dieke, 1991; Stevens, 1992; Smith, 1999). Finally, the political dimension includes features such as political stability, government policy, and the treatment of tourists (e.g., visa applications, port of entry, specific entry conditions, etc.), all of which can affect the destination environment that tourists experience (Teye, 1988; Hall, 1997; Richter, 1989; Smith, 1999). Smith (1999) concluded that a tourism product's setting at the destination and the effect of the service infrastructure on tourists' experiences play significant roles in determining tourists' intentions to return to the destination.

The Destination Image

Definition of Destination Image

Destination image is one of the most prevalent topics in the tourism literature. There are many definitions of images proposed in tourism context. Table 7 presents some selected definitions of image.

Table 7: Selected Definitions of Image

Author(s)	Definition
Hunt (1971)	impressions that a person holds about a state in which they do not reside
Markin (1974)	our own personalize, internalized and conceptualized understanding of what we know
Lawson & Bond-Bovy (1977)	an expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific object or place
Crompton (1979)	the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination
Dichter (1985)	an image is not only individual traits or qualities but also the impression an entity makes on the minds of others
Echtner & Ritchie (1991&1993)	consist of two main components; those that are attribute based and those that are holistic based
Kotler et al (1994)	the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a place
Arrebola (1994)	a mental representation of attributes and benefits sought of a product
Parenteau (1995)	a favorable or unfavorable prejudice that the audience and distributors have of the product or destination
Gartner (1996)	are made up of three distinctively different but hierarchical interrelated components: components: cognitive, affective and conative
Gallarza et al. (2002)	Define image in term of its four features: 1) complex (it is not unequivocal), 2) multiple (in elements and processes), 3) relativistic (subjective and generally comparative), and 4) dynamic (varying with time and space)

Source: Gallarza, Saura & Garcia (2002: p. 60)

The Destination Image Attributes

Tourist destinations are an important element of the tourism system. Tourists make decisions based on the composite value they attach with various attributes (Swanson & Horridge, 2002). The perceived destination attributes affect the attitude of the tourists toward selecting a destination (DelVecchio, 2001). As a consequence destination competitiveness has become a significant part of tourism literature (Goodrich, 1978; Ahmed, 1991; Haahti & Yavas, 2003). Tourist perceptions of quality and overall

performance will play a significant role in determining repeat business or positive word-of-mouth recommendation. The marketing of a destination requires an understanding of what is important to tourists. A good understanding of tourists' perceived importance of destination presumably enables destination marketers the ability to entice potential tourists. The result of this study will help destination marketers identify a location's strengths and weaknesses, providing critical insights on service delivery and product development.

Destination image that represents the overall perception of physical activities or characteristics of the destination is called functional image. On the other hand, the intangible aspect of destinations such as atmosphere, mood of the place, and stereotypic personality of destinations are called symbolic image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Functional and symbolic images are used during the destination selection process. Traveling occurs when people perceive benefits associated with destinations. Functional image of destinations create a mental picture of benefit that fulfill the needs of potential travelers (Chon, 1991).

While studies of the destination attributes are somewhat plentiful, there has been limited research on perceived attributes and their implications in determining the competitive positions of destinations, particularly in a situation after a crisis. The analysis measuring pre- and post-crisis offers a useful tool for understanding the perception that may change after the crisis. Therefore, a formal study on the tourists' perception of important destination attributes before and after a crisis needs to be conducted.

A review of the framework for outlining the attributes of a tourism destination image has been developed. Table 8 summarizes the results of literature review showing

the major attributes of tourist destination image. Numerous researches have been conducted regarding image factor; however, different studies have identified different image factors.

Table 8: Review of Major Attributes of Tourist Destination Image

Year	Author(s)	Research Topic and Objective	Attributes of Tourist Destination image
1979	Crompton	An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location upon the Image.	Transportation, Price, value, cost, Climate, Relaxation and Massific, Safety, Originality.
1978	Goodrich	A New Approach to Image Analysis through Multidimensional Scaling.	Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Relaxation and Massific, Resident's receptiveness.
1979	Ferrario	Identify the tourist product and the assessment of its intrinsic value to the tourist market.	Scenery and landscape, Zoos and wild lift,Natural vegetation, Sun and beaches, Historical monuments, Sport amenities, Town visits and shopping, Participation in local life, Night life entertainment.
1985	Sternquist	Attitudes about Resort Area a Comparison of Tourists and Local Retailers.	Landscape, surrounding, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Relaxation and Massific, Resident's receptiveness.
1986	Haahti	Determine the relative position of Finland in terms of selected choice criteria and in a psychological space.	Good value for money, Accessibility, Facilities for sports and activities, Night life and entertainment, A peaceful and quiet environment, Friendly and hospitable people, A cultural experience, Beautiful scenery.
1987	Gartner & Hunt	An Analysis of State Image Change over a Twelve-Year Period (1971–1983).	Landscape, Surrounding, Nature, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Climate, Resident's receptiveness.
1989	Calantone et al.	Multiple Multinational Tourism Positioning Using Correspondence analysis.	Various activity, Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Transportation, Price, Value, Cost, Relaxation and Massific, Safety, Resident's receptiveness.
1989	Embacher & Buttle	A Repertory Grid Analysis of Austria's Image as a Summer Vacation Destination.	Various activity, Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Gastronomy, Price, value, cost, Climate, Accessibility, Social interaction.
1989	Middleton	Examine components of the total tourist product.	Destination attractions, Image, Destination facilities, Price, Accessibility.

1989	Gartner	Investigate attribute identification along with tourism product position, using MDS.	Outdoor life, Sightseeing, Natural environment, Historical sites, Cultural sites, Night lift, Receptiveness, Liquor.
1990	Um & Crompton	Test the roles of attitudes in the pleasure travel destination process.	A lot of fun, Travel cost, Others' recommendation, Climate, Outdoor recreation, Wide variety, Meet people with different life style, Good to relax, Safety, Attractiveness of natural environment, Feeling of well-being, Time spent.
1990	Tang & Rochananond	Identify and quantify the factors that make a country attractive to tourists.	Natural Beauty & Climate, Culture & Social characteristics , Sport, Recreation & Education Facilities, Shopping & Commercial Facilities, Infrastructure of the Country, Cost of Living, Attitudes Towards Tourists, Accessibility of the Country.
1991	Ahmed	The Influence of the components of a state's tourist image on product positioning strategy.	Landscape, Surrounding, Nature, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Climate, Resident's receptiveness.
1991	Chon	Tourism Destination Image Modification Process.	Landscape, Surrounding, Nature, Cultural attraction, Sport facilities, Transportation, Accommodation, gastronomy, Price, value, cost, Accessibility, Safety, Resident's receptiveness, Originality.
1991	Fakeye & Crompton	Examine image differences between prospective, first-time and repeat visitors to the Rio Grande Valley.	Social opportunities and attractions, Natural and cultural amenities, Accommodations and transportation, Infrastructure, Foods, and friendly people, Physical amenities and recreation activities, Bars and evening Entertainment.
1991	Guthrie &Gale	Positioning Ski Areas.	Various activity, Nightlife and entertainment, Information available, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Relaxation and Massific, Accessibility, Social interaction, Resident's receptiveness, Service Quality.
1992	Camichael	Using Conjoint Modelling to Measure Tourist Image and analyze Ski Resort Choice.	Various activity, Price, value, cost, Accessibility, Resident's receptiveness.
1992	Chon	The Role of Destination Image in Tourism.	Various activity, Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Relaxation and Massific, Accessibility, Resident's receptiveness, Service Quality.
1992	Crompton et al.	Positioning: The Example of the Lower Rio Grande Valley in the Winter Long Stay Destination Market.	Various activity, Nature, Nightlife and entertainment, Price, value, cost, Climate, Accessibility, Social interaction, Resident's receptiveness, Originality.
1993	Echtner & Ritchie	The Measurement of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment.	Landscape, Surrounding, Nature, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Information available, Sport facilities, Transportation, Accommodation,

			Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Climate, Relaxation and Massific, Accessibility, Safety, Social interaction, Resident's receptiveness, Originality, Service Quality.
1993	Hu & Ritchie	Examine destination attractiveness according to different types of vacation experiences.	Availability/quality of accommodations, Sports/recreational opportunities, Scenery, Climate, Food, Entertainment, Historical attractions, Uniqueness, Accessibility, Cultural attractions, Festivals/special events, Shopping, Local transportation, Price level.
1994	Driscoll, Lawson & Niven	Measuring Tourists' Destination Perceptions.	Various activity, Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Price, Value, Cost, Climate, Accessibility, Safety, Social interaction, Resident's receptiveness, Originality.
1995	Dadgostar & Isotalo	Content of City Destination Image for Near-Home Tourists.	Nature, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Relaxation and Massific, Social interaction.
1995	Muller	How Personal Values Govern the Post-Visit Attitudes of International Tourists	Landscape, surrounding, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Climate, Relaxation and Massific, Accessibility, Safety, Resident's receptiveness.
1995	Milman & Abraham	Analyze the impact of awareness and familiarity on the consumer's destination image and interest to visit.	Good value for money, Price, Suitable for families with destination image and children, interest to visit Shopping bargains, Scenery, Weather, Hotels, Hospitable residents, Safety.
1996	Amed	The Need for the Identification of the Constituents of a Destination's Tourist Image a Promotional Segmentation Perspective.	Landscape, Surrounding, Nature, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, and Resident's receptiveness.
1996	Eizaguirre & Lake	Competencia entre ciudades. Medición de la imagen comparada de 7 metropolis españiolas.	Shopping facilities, Transportation, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Climate, Accessibility, Safety, Resident's receptiveness.
1996a 1996b	Oppermann	Convention Destination Images Analysis of Association Meeting Planners' Perceptions. Convention Cities—Images and Changing Fortunes.	Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Transportation, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Climate, Safety, Service Quality.
1996	Schroeder	The Relationship of Residents' Image of their State as a Tourist Destination and their Support for Tourism.	Landscape, Surrounding, Nature, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Relaxation and Massific, Social interaction, Resident's receptiveness.

1997	Balogu	The Relationship between Destination Images and Sociodemographic and Trip Characteristics of International Travelers.	Landscape, surrounding, Nature, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Shopping facilities, Sport facilities, Transportation, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Safety, Resident's receptiveness, Originality.
1999	Baloglu & McCleary	A Model of Destination Image Formation.	Landscape, Surrounding, Cultural attraction, Nightlife and entertainment, Sport facilities, Accommodation, Gastronomy, Price, Value, Cost, Climate, Safety, Resident's receptiveness.
2001	Chen	Reveal the unique images of Asia/Pacific, North America, and Europe.	Safe place, The availability of quality restaurants, The availability of quality hotels, Friendly locals, Adventuresome, Different and fascinating, Many interesting places, Restful and relaxing , Natural and scenic beauty ,The availability of tourism information, Pleasant climate, Similar lifestyles, Similar architecture, Low travel cost, Inexpensive goods and services, No communication problem, Environmentally friendly.
2001	Kozak	To determine whether there are differences between satisfaction levels of two nationalities visiting the same destination.	Accommodation services, Local transport services, Hygiene and cleanliness, Hospitality and customer care, Facilities and activities, Level of prices, Language communication, Destination airport services.
2003	Huang, Tsai & Hsien	The study of senior traveler behavior in Taiwan.	Beautiful and historic scenery sights, Restaurant, hotel and airlines facilities, Local people's attitude, Adapted local food and custom, Good travel safety of sight, Convenient CIQ (customs, immigration, quarantine) procedure, Appropriate travel distance, Reasonable consumer price, Availability of medical facilities, Local climate, Availability of shopping facilities, Special events and attractions.
2004	Zang , Qu, & Tang	A case study of Hong Kong residents' outbound leisure travel: to assess Hong Kong residents' preferences of the destination attributes that affect their leisure travel destination choices.	Tour Features, Natural disaster, Safety, Political, Social environment, Language barriers, beaches, Attitudes of the host community, Travel Cost, Entertainment and Recreation, Special and Cultural Attractions.
2004	Enright & Newton	Tourism destination competitiveness: a quantitative approach.	Safety, Cuisine, Dedicated tourism attractions, Visual appeal, Well-known landmarks, Nightlife, Different culture, Special events, Interesting festivals, Local way of life, Interesting architecture, Climate, Notable history, Museums and galleries, Music and performances.
2005	Chi	A study on theoretical development of destination loyalty model.	Accommodation, Dining, Shopping, Attraction, Activities and Events, Environment, Accessibility.

2005	Truong & Foster	Using HOLSAT to evaluate tourist satisfaction at destinations: The case of Australian holidaymakers in Vietnam. This paper seeks to review the value of HOLSAT as a means of identifying tourists' satisfaction with a holiday destination, in this case Vietnam.	Positive attributes: The climate, Architecture sightseeing, Safe whilst traveling, Vietnam War sites, Cruise on a river, Ethnic minority people, Food and beverages, Hotel staff , Trekking or backpacking, Vietnamese artifacts, Coastal regions religious sites and temples National Parks and Reserves, Traditional Vietnamese music and dance, Historical sites, Local food and drink, Shop in local markets, Local , Visit museums. Negative attributes: Crowding at attractions, Many beggars and street vendors, A lack of public toilet facilities, Pollution in the cities, Inefficient of Immigration and Customs clearance.

Destination image, which affects the buying behaviors of potential tourists, has received a lot of attention in recent years (Chon, 1991). Because potential tourists create images of a destination, relative to competitors' destinations, marketers must identify the strengths and weaknesses of each destination to develop strong images to successfully position that destination. The travel industry allocates a lot of money and effort to reduce negative images and enhance positive images.

In the tourism literature, however, researchers vary in their identification of the attributes that constitute destination image (e.g., Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Crompton, 1979; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gartner & Shen, 1992). Baloglu & McCleary (1999) considered image as being formed by perceptive/cognitive evaluations and affective appraisals. Crompton (1979) considered destination image as consisting only of a cognitive component. Garner & Shen (1992) stated that image consists of three hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and conative. Variation in the attributes that constitute destination image may be due to the characteristics of tourism products/services: intangibility (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991), multidimensionality (Gartner & Shen, 1992), complexity (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993), and

subjectivity (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Such characteristics make it difficult to conceptualize and measure destination image. Destination image is also complex because of multiple views regarding its nature – collective vs. unipersonal. The content of destination image – the components that generate the image and the ways in which these components interact – is also debated. Therefore, destination image is relativistic because it is simultaneously subjective (varying by person) and multidimensional (attribute-based or holistic). Lastly, destination image is comparative because it involves assessments among various objects and destinations (Gallar et al., 2002).

Therefore, the destination selection attributes used in this study are based largely on the attractions of the destinations. Previous researchers have used unique images to study tourist attractions. For example, Chon, Weaver, & Kim (1991) used the unique images of tours of naval bases and ships to describe Norfolk, Virginia, Echtner & Ritchie (1993) used reggae music, tropical climate, and Montego Bay as unique images of Jamaica.

Based on the aforementioned literature review, a total of 32 attributes were mainly derived from the eight previous empirical studies to measure tourist destination image (Garner, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Tang & Rochananond, 1990; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Eizaguirre & Lake, 1996; Chen, 2001; Enright&Newton, 2004; & Chi, 2005). Some ambiguous attributes were transformed into more concrete terms and are adapted to suit to the Phuket situation, which results in designing more reliable and valid survey instrument. Table 9 shows the 32 attributes of tourist destination image used in this study.

Table 9: Attributes of Tourist Destination Image used in this study

Attributes	Factor
Accommodation	Variety of accommodation option Security and safety at accommodation Location of accommodation Reasonable price of accommodation
Attractions	variety of beaches and island Historical and cultural sites of Phuket Variety of entertainment & Amusements View Points Park and Natural in Phuket Visit Tsunami historical site (memorials) Reasonable price for sightseeing
Activities and Events	Variety of marine sports and activities Variety of golf courses Phuket festival and Events Variety of outdoor recreation Variety of spa/massage/healing options, Variety of evening entertainment, Availability of daily tour services to other destinations and attractions, Reasonable price for activities and events
Environment	Safety and security Beautiful scenery (sun sand sea) Tsunami protection and warning
Hygiene and cleanliness	Cleanliness of beaches and sea, Availability of space on beaches, Availability of facilities on beaches
Accessibility	Ease of access, Convenient for local transportation system, Available of travel information
Shopping	Variety of shops, Reasonable price of merchandise
Dinning	Variety of cuisine, Reasonable price of meals

Tsunami

Definition of Tsunami

Tsunami is a Japanese word that describes a 'harbor wave' and it is used within the scientific community to describe a series of waves that travel across the ocean with exceptionally long wavelengths (up to several hundred kilometers between the wave crests in the open ocean). Earthquakes, landslides, volcanic eruptions and large meteorite impacts all have the potential to generate a tsunami. As the waves approach a coastline, the speed of the waves decreases as they are deformed in shallow water. During this process of wave deformation, the height of the wave increases significantly and as the waves strike the coastline, they often cause widespread flooding across low-lying coastal areas and on many occasions, cause loss of life and widespread destruction of property. The effects of a tsunami can range from unnoticeable to devastating ("Tsunami, 2005").

Signs of an Approaching Tsunami

The following are the signs that have at various times been associated with a tsunami

- An earthquake is felt.
- Large quantities of gas bubble to the water surface and make the sea looks as if it is boiling.
- The water in the wave is unusually hot.
- The water smell of rotten eggs (Hydrogen Sulphide) or of petrol or oil.
- A thunderous boom is heard followed by a roaring noise such as of a jet plane
- A noise akin to the periodic whoop-whoop of a helicopter, a whistling sound.
- The sea recedes to a considerable distance.
- A flash of red light is seen near the horizon.

- As the wave approaches the top of the wave may glow red ("Tsunami, 2005").

Past Tsunami

On December 26, 2004 an earthquake occurred in the Indian Ocean, resulting in an Asian tsunami. It was not only Asian tsunami that has caused widespread destruction, historically tsunami also have affected coastlines and islands worldwide. The information in Table 10 shows past tsunami worldwide and cause of tsunami.

Table 10: Review of Past Tsunami Occurred

Year	Location	Cause
6100 B.C. and before	The North Atlantic Ocean	The Storegga Slides were a major series of sudden underwater land movements over the course of tens of thousands of years, which caused tsunamis across a wide area.
1650 B.C.	Santorini, Greek island	the volcanic Greek island Santorini erupted, causing a 100 m to 150 m high tsunami that devastated the north coast of Crete.
1755	Lisbon, Portugal	Lisbon earthquake caused tsunami that killed more than a third of Libon's population.
1883	Indonesia	The island volcano of Krakatoa in Indonesia exploded with devastating fury in 1883, blowing its underground magma chamber partly empty so that much overlying land and seabed collapsed into it. A series of large tsunami waves was generated from the explosion.
1929	Burin Peninsula on the south coast of Newfoundland	An earthquake of magnitude 7.2 occurred beneath the Laurentian Slope on the Grand Banks. The quake was felt throughout the Atlantic Provinces of Canada and as far west as Ottawa, Ontario and as far south as Claymont, Delaware. The resulting tsunami measured over 7 meters in height and took about 2½ hours to reach the Burin Peninsula on the south coast of Newfoundland.
1946	Pacific Tsunami	The Aleutian Island earthquake resulted tsunami that killed people on Hawaii and Alaska.
1960	Onagawa, Japan (Chilean Tsunami)	The Great Chilean Earthquake generated one of the most destructive tsunamis. It spread across the entire Pacific Ocean, with waves measuring up to 25 meters high. When the tsunami hit Onagawa, Japan, almost 22 hours after the quake, the wave height was 3 m above high tide.
1963	Northern Italy (Vajont Dam disaster)	The reservoir behind the Vajont Dam in northern Italy was struck by an enormous landslide. A tsunami was triggered which swept over the top of the dam (without bursting it) and into the valley below.
1964	Alaska, Britist Columbia, California, and coastal Pacific Northwest towns	Good Friday Earthquake generated tsunami that struck Alaska, British Columbia, California and coastal Pacific Northwest towns, killing 121 people.

1979	Colombian province of Nariño	The earthquake along the Pacific coast of Colombia and Ecuador and the resulting tsunami caused the destruction of at least six fishing villages and the death of hundreds of people in the Colombian province of Nariño.
1993	Hokkadaido (Okushiri tsunami)	A devastating tsunami occurred off the coast of Hokkaido in Japan as a result of an earthquake on July 12, 1993.
2004	Indian Ocean Tsunami	The tsunami killed people over an area ranging from the immediate vicinity of the quake in Indonesia, Thailand and the north-western coast of Malaysia to thousands of kilometers away in Bangladesh, India, Sri Lanka, the Maldives, and even as far as Somalia, Kenya and Tanzania in eastern Africa.

Source: Wikipedia, 2005

Tsunami in Phuket

The Indian Ocean tsunami on December 26, 2004 made the devastating short term impact in lost lives, as well as the long term impact in lost livelihoods and an uncertain future. Tourism was one of the more obvious non-human casualties of this tragic natural phenomenon (Weber, 2005).

Phuket and other areas of Thailand's west coast suffered extensive damage during the 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake and the resulting tsunami that struck on December 26, 2004 destroying some tourist sites in the region. Almost all the beaches, especially Patong, Kalim and Kamala beach sustained damage from the tsunami. Patong Beach, the main tourist resort in Phuket, is a beach on Phuket's west coast that connects the cities of Patong and Phuket. Patong is the centre of nightlife shopping on the island. The beach became popular with western tourists, especially Europeans, in the late 1980s. Numerous large hotels and chain hotels are located in Patong. Patong Beach was hit by the tsunami caused by the 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake on December 26, 2004. The wave caused a great deal of destruction to the waterfront of the beach, and many people were killed there. Patong was one of the worst affected areas of Phuket (Weber, 2005).

Signs and Warnings

At approximately 09:30 AM (local time), the sea started to retreat by about 100 meters within 5 minutes. While the sea was staying at a very low level quite far from the beach, people started to see that fish were stranded in pools of water and started to play with the fish. Suddenly, without warning and any visible sign of approaching danger, the sea started to rise again, inducing everyone to run to the higher part of the beach. The retreat-and-rise cycle was repeated several times that day, a full cycle taking between 30 to 45 minutes between each peak ("Tsunami, 2005").

Despite a time lag of up to several hours between the earthquake and the impact of the tsunami, nearly all of the victims were taken completely by surprise; there were no tsunami warning systems in the Indian Ocean to detect tsunamis, or equally important, no system to warn the people living around the ocean. Tsunami detection is not easy because when a tsunami is in deep water, it is also very low in height and a network of sensors is needed to detect it. Setting up the communication infrastructure to issue timely warnings is an even bigger problem, particularly in a relatively poor part of the world (Tsunami, 2005).

Economic Loss

Across the six provinces of Thailand's Andaman Sea Coast, namely Ranong, Phang-nga, Phuket, Krabi, Trang and Satun, many coastal areas and islands in their territories were affected by the tsunami. Total damages in the six provinces was estimated as amounting to 14,636.19 million baht, equivalent to US$ 3.7 billion (US$1.00@baht40.00) or Euro 2.9 billion (Euro1.00@baht 50.00) (Weber, 2005). According to Thailand's National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB),

the worst affected sector was the tourism and hospitality industry. Thailand was assumed to lose approximately 30,000 million baht (approximately equivalent to US$ 750 million or Euro 600 million) in revenue solely because of cancellations of holiday booking. The cancellations of holiday booking decrease Gross National Product (GNP) approximately 0.3%.

Prior to Tsunami occurs, tourism and hospitality industry of Thailand's Andaman Sea coast and island, especially in the province of Phuket, Phang-nga and Krabi had generated income approximately 400,000 million baht (equivalent to US$10 billion or Euro 8 billion), or one quarter of the national earning from the tourism and hospitality industry. Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) reported the impact on the tourism and hospitality industry for the first quarter of the year 2005 that the number of international tourists to Thailand decreases approximately 5 million travelers, which would cause a loss of income amounting to approximately 43,000 million baht (equivalent to US$1,075 million or Euro 860 million) (Weber, 2005).

According to Weber (2005), the valuation of losses in Phuket was:

- The biggest portion (90.81%) accounted for business enterprises in the industry and service sectors. It was estimated approximately to 3,954,082,932 baht, equivalent to US$ 100 million or Euro 80 million.
- An estimate of the damage caused by the Tsunami to fisheries sector was approximately to 344,911,169 baht, equivalent to US$8.6 million or Euro 6.9 million.

- An estimate of the damage caused by the Tsunami to livestock production was approximately to 303,650 baht, equivalent to US$ 7,600 or Euro 6,100.
- An estimate of the damage caused by the Tsunami to cropping enterprise was approximately to 300,000 baht, equivalent to US$ 7,500 or Euro 6,000.
- An estimate of the damage caused by the Tsunami to school building was approximately to 30,000,000 baht, equivalent to US$ 750,000 or Euro 600,000.
- Live damage: 260 people were dead (149 Thais and 111 foreigners). 1,111 people were injured (591 Thais and 520 foreigners). 646 people have been missing (261 Thais and 385 foreigners).

Destination in a Time of Crisis

A crisis may be defined as any unplanned event or situation emerging from the internal or external environment. Crisis can disrupt operations, threaten tourists and employees both physically and mentally, as well as endanger an economic status and future viability (Kash & Darling, 1988). Crisis is also seen as a surprise, panic, uncertainty, shock, fear, threat and stress (Burnett, 1998; Darling, 1994).

Tourism demand is particularly sensitive to security and health concerns (Blake & Sinclair, 2003). The list of cases where tourism has taken a sudden and unexpected downturn is long, and those events include the effects of the Gulf War on tourism in the Middle East, the Mediterranean, and other European countries, the 1997 terrorist attacks at Luxor in Egypt, the Kosovo conflict in 1999, the effects of the 2001 foot and mouth disease outbreak in the United Kingdom, the effects of the September 11 terrorist attacks in the United States, and most recently, the Indian Ocean tsunami in December, 2004 in most of these cases, where governments have actually recognized the importance of the tourism downturn and acknowledged the need for a policy response.

The case of the tsunami in Phuket is a notable example. Tsunami crisis has become an integral part of business activities, and tourism is no exception. The risks that lie within tourism are not only related to the individual tourist, but also related to the host society (Steene, 1999). The image of a destination is a critical factor in the tourists' destination selection process (Sirgy & Su, 2000). A positive image of destination results in more visitations (Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Gartner & Shen, 1992; Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999), but changing a negative image requires long and costly marketing efforts. Since the tourists' perceptions of safety concerning a destination will influence their intentions

to visit (Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998), it is important to reintroduce a destination by providing up-to-date information (Durocher, 1994).

Nowadays tourists have a wide choice for holiday travel. One destination can easily be substituted by a similar or even completely different place elsewhere. Tourists usually do not even consider traveling near places where they might be at risk. They prefer to wait until the crisis in the respective country becomes normal again. This is simply the basic attitude of tourists (Cavlek, 2002). Crisis leads to negative economic effects on international tourism flow in respective destinations. Hence, the tourism industry has to find ways to manage the disasters after effects (Sonmez, Apostopoulos and Tarlow, 1999).

Attitude towards Destination in Times of Crisis

In time of crisis, media and journalists will not recommend to their reader or viewers that it is safe to travel to a destination that their government considers to be a risky zone; even when they themselves might have been to the destination and are convinced that some parts of the destination are safe. In times of crisis people find negative reports far more interesting than positive. These influence the image of a destination and thus have a direct impact on the tourism industry (Croatia, 2002). There have been many examples of the reactions of tourists towards destinations hit by crisis, which support the points raised.

- In 1989, after Beijing China's Tiananmen Square incident, about 300 tour groups cancelled their travel plans, and the country's tourism earnings declined by $430 million in 1989 (Gartner & Shen 1992).

- In Egypt between 1992 and 1994, over 120 tourists were targeted by Islamic terrorists' attacks during this period. While some European tour operators removed the country from their program entirely, others reduced the number of tours significantly. During this time, Egypt recorded a significant drop in arrivals of 22% (Wahab 1996).
- Between 1992 and 1994, after several killings of foreign tourists in different locations in Florida, European tour operators still decided to keep Florida in their programs. The drop in tourists in 1993 from the British market alone was around 10% (Cavlek, 2002).
- In Moscow, during August of 1993, Moscow television broke a story reporting that more than 4,000 people were affected by diphtheria in Russia, with 900 in Moscow alone, the biggest British tour operator, Thomson, cancelled its whole Moscow and St. Petersburg program for the entire year (Cavlek, 2002).

Travel Motivation

Travel motivation refers to a set of needs that cause a person to participate in a tourist activity (Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979). According to Cropmton (1979) most tourist motivation related to travelers' decision making in choosing a destination involves the concept of push and pull factors. Tourists are pushed and pulled by some sources of inherent forces. These forces explain how individuals are pushed by internal variables, and how they are pulled by a travel destination (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). The push factors are socio-psychological motives such as the desire for escape, novelty seeking, adventure seeking, dream fulfillment, rest and relaxation, health and fitness, prestige, and socialization. Most push factors originate from intangible or intrinsic desires of human beings (Uysal & Jurowski, 1993; Chon, 1989). The pull factors are motives aroused by the destination rather than emerging exclusively from within the travelers themselves. Pull factors include tangible and intangible cues of a specific destination that pull people to realize the needs of particular travel experiences, such as natural and historic attractions, food, people, recreation facilities, and marketed image of the destination (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). The push motivations have been thought useful for explaining the desire to go on a vacation while pull motivations have been thought useful for explaining the choice of destination. For example, Dann (1977) states:

> While a specific resort may hold a number of attractions for the potential tourist, his actual decision to visit such a destination is consequent on his prior need for travel. An examination of "push" factors is thus logically, and often temporally antecedent to that of "pull" factors.

According to Kozak (2001), an empirical examination of tourist motivations should be undertaken because it helps identify the attributes that are to be promoted to match tourist motivations, or to identify markets in which destination features and

resources match tourist motivation. Recent recognition that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors has prompted researchers to explore the motivations of travel. Significant research has been done regarding motivation factor; however, different studies have identified different motivation factors. Table 11 reviews major attributes of travel motivation.

Table 11: Review of Major Attributes of Travel Motivation

Year	Author(s)	Research Topic and Objective	Attributes of Tourist Destination
1979	Crompton	Motivations for pleasure vacation: to identify motives which directed respondents' selection of destination	*Socio-Psychological Motive* (Escape from a perceived mundane environment, Exploration and evaluation of self, Relaxation, Prestige, regression, Enhancement of kinship relationships, Facilitation of social interaction. *Cultural Motives* (Novelty-curiosity-adventure-new and different, education).
1989	Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal	Attraction Attributes and Motivation: A canonical correlation Analysis: to investigate the relationship between two sets of variables(destination attributes and motives) by using canonical analysis	Visiting places important in history, Spending time with someone special, Experiencing a simpler lifestyle, Going place many people hasn't seen, Talking about the trip after I return home, Getting away from pressures and responsibilities, Experiencing different cultures. Ways of life, Traveling to places where I feel safe and secure, Being physically active, Having fun, being entertained, Having lots of different things to see and do, Visiting friends and relatives, Visiting places my family came from, Becoming more healthy and fit, Just resting and relaxing, Taking advantage of reduced fares, Fulfilling a dream of visiting a place I've always wanted to visit, Meeting someone of the opposite sex, Finding thrills and excitement, Meeting people of similar interests, Being pampered.
1990	Gitelson & Kerstetter	The relationship between sociodemographic variable, benefits sought and subsequent vacation behavior: a case study	*Relaxation* (Relax, Experience solitude, Get away from it all, Get recharged, Be able to do nothing, Release tension, Have privacy, Escape from the routine, Not have to rush).

			Explorer (Learns new things, See interesting sights, Explore new places, View scenery). *Excitement* (Do exciting things, Be entertained, Do a specific activity, Experience luxury, Be in control) *Social* (Visit friends, Share a familiar place with others, Return to favorite vacation site, Do something with the family) *Miscellaneous* (Eat good food, Go shopping) *Miscellaneous* (Meet new people, Learn about yourself)
1992	Loker & Perdue	A benefit-based segmentation of nonresident summer travel market: to examine the feasibility of segmenting a nonresident tourist market on the basis of vacation benefit sought.	*Escape/Relaxation* (To take it easy, To get away from daily routine, To get away from demands of everyday life, To relax and do nothing, To have a peaceful vacation). *Natural Surrounding* (To get away from commercialized tourist traps, To get away from crowds, To experience unpolluted/natural surrounding). *Excitement variety* (To visit new and exciting places, To do as many different things as possible, To experience new/ different places). *Family and Friends.* (To spend time with family and friends).
1995	Tinsley & Eldredge	Psychological benefits of leisure participation: taxonomy of Leisure Activities based on their Need-Gratifying Properties.	Novelty, Sensual enjoyment, Cognitive, stimulation, Self-expression, Creativity, (Vicarious) competition, Relaxation, Agency, Belongingness, and service.
1998	Ryan & Glewndon	Application of leisure motivation scale to tourism	Relax Mentally**,** Discover New Places and Things**,** Avoid the Hustle and Bustle of Daily Life**,** Relax Physically**,** Be in a Calm Atmosphere**,** Increase my Knowledge, Have a Good Time with Friends, Be with Others**,** Build Friendships with Others**,** Use my Imagination**,** Gain a Feeling of Belonging**,** Challenge my Abilities**,** Use my Physical Abilities/Skills in Sport, Develop Close Friendships.
1999	Kozak & Rimmington	Measuring tourist destination competitiveness: conceptual considerations and empirical findings	Relax, Enjoy good weather, Have fun, Forget day-to-day problems, Increase knowledge of new places, Be emotionally and physically refreshed,

			Visit historical sites, Get away home, Seek adventure, Mix with other fellow tourists, Be active, Engage in sports, Get close to nature.
2002	Park, Yang, Lee, Jang, & Stokowshi	Segmenting casino gamblers by involvement profiles: a Colorado example: to evaluate characteristics of casino gambles and to develop market segmentation profiles based on recreational involvement patterns of gamblers who visited a new gaming locale, Black Hawk, Colorado.	*Self-expression* (Gambling says a lot about who I am, Gambling helps me maintain the type of life I strive for, I find that much of my life is organized around gambling, Gambling is important to me, When I gamble, others see me the way I want them to see me, You can tell a lot about a person when you see them gambling). *Enjoyment(*Gambling offers me relaxation and fun when pressures Build up, Gambling is one of the most enjoyable things I do, When I am gambling I can really be myself, I have little or no interest in gambling, I get bored when other people talk to me gambling). *Centrality* (Most of my friends are in some way connected with gambling, When I am with friends, we often talk about gambling).
2003	Hung ,Tsai, & Hsien	The study of senior traveler behavior in Taiwan.	Get rest and relaxation, Meet people and socialization, Spend time with immediate family, Visit new place Seek intellectual enrichments, Visit museums and historical sights Visit festivals and or special events, Engage in special activities, Tell your friends about your trip, Engage in physical activities.
2004	Lee, Lee, & Wicks	Segmentation of festival motivation by nationality and satisfaction.	*Cultural exploration* (To increase my cultural knowledge, To know about the cultural events, To enjoy arts and crafts, To experience local customs and cultures, To experience foreign cultures, To enjoy new experiences, To enjoy art and folk performances, To enjoy culture in its cultural/historical setting). *Family togetherness* (To increase family kinship, To spend time with my family together, I thought the entire family would enjoy it, To help my family learn more about foreign cultures).

			Novelty (I seek adventure, I seek novelty, It offers excitement, I am curious, I expect benefits that will satisfy my personal needs). *Escape (recover equilibrium)* (To escape from routine life, To relieve boredom, For a change of pace from everyday life, To relieve daily stress). *Event attractions:* (To enjoy special events, To see new and different things, To enjoy the festival mood, To enjoy a unique atmosphere, I heard the culture Expo and it sounded like fun). *Socialization:* (To be with people who are enjoying themselves, To be with people who enjoy the same things I do, To see the event with a group together, To see the event with my friends, To meet people from all over the world)
2005	Swanson & Horride	Travel motivations as souvenir purchase indicators: to analyze what travel motivations influence the type of souvenirs tourists purchase, attributes of souvenir, and attributes of the store where the souvenir is purchased.	*Fitness and education* (Experiencing physical challenges, Developing skill in a sport or art, Taking part in adventuresome activities, Pursuing a hobby, Studying in a class for enrichment). *Nature and escape* (Seeing spectacular scenery, visiting places I've never seen before, Visiting exciting places). *Seeing the country* (Going to as many different places as possible, Going to famous places in the US). *Leisure and romance* (Having time for romance, not having a schedule)

Based on the aforementioned literature review, some motivation attributes are adapted to fit to the Phuket situation. A total of 33 attributes used in this study were mainly derived from the five previous empirical studies to measure tourist motivation (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1990; Loker & Perdue, 1992; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Hung & Tsai, 2003; & Lee, Lee, & Wicks 2004). Table 12 shows the 33 attributes of tourist destination selection variables used in this study.

Table12: Attributes of Travel Motivation used in this study

Attributes
1. Relaxation
2. Get recharged
3. Be able to do nothing
4. Release tension
5. Have privacy
6. Do exciting things
7. Be entertained
8. Do a specific activity
9. To get away from crowds
10. To experience unpolluted/natural surrounding
11. Getting away from pressures and responsibilities
12. Visiting friends and relatives
13. Share a familiar place with other
14. Return to favorite vacation site
15. Do something with family
16. Eat good food
17. Go shopping
18. Having lots of different things to see and do
19. To experience new/ different places
20. To visit new and exciting place
21. Spending time with someone special.
22. Having time for romance
23. To spend time with family and friend
24. Build friendship with other
25. Mix with other fellow tourists
26. Engage in sports
27. Visit festivals and or special events
28. Engage in special activities
29. Experiencing different cultures
30. To enjoy culture in its cultural/historical setting
31. To know about culture events
32. Taking advantage of reduced fares and special package
33. Visiting places important in history (eg.Tsunami historical site –memorials)

Travel Involvement

Involvement has been conceptualized in the consumer behavior field. Many studies view perceived personal relevancy and the resulting motivational function as the essential characteristics of involvement (Greenward & Leavitt, 1984; Rothschild, 1984; Park & Mittal, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Celsi & Olson, 1988).

Travel involvement, therefore, is defined as a person's perceived relevance to and interest in travel and tourism based on inherent needs, values, and interests (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Involvement can be divided into two dimensions, intention and behavior. Involvement is based on personal subjectivity. It explains how an individual develops involvement from an uninterested state to being involved positively (Mitchell, 1980).

Zaichkowsky (1985) defined involvement as a person's perceived relevance of an object based on inherent needs, values, and interests. Houston & Rothschild (1978) defined involvement as a function of an enduring involvement or a need, derived from a value in the individuals' hierarchy of needs.

Warrington & Shim (2000) considered involvement as a motivational force consisting of three fundamental features: intensity, direction, and persistence. Intensity refers to the degree of involvement, direction means the target of the involvement intensity, and persistence indicates the duration of the involvement intensity. Involvement is a goal-directed arousal capacity. It is a person's motivational state directed toward that capacity (Park & Mittal, 1985).

Broderick & Mueller (1999) found that involvement has a significant impact on all aspects of the consumption process including evaluation of alternatives, decision-

making, and the search for information. When a person's involvement increases, he or she is more inclined to have a positive attitude and decision-making paradigm due to his or her increased interest in the object (Koufaris, 2002). More specifically, as a tourist's involvement increases, he or she is more eager to search for product-related information and tends to develop more expertise by gaining familiarity with destination choices and tourism products (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004). Reid & Crompton (1993) found that the level of involvement significantly influences a person's response to leisure purchases. People with high involvement are more inclined to purchase leisure services.

Miguel, Caplliure, & Aldas-Manzano (2002) stated that people with a high level of involvement tend to show a greater level of product knowledge by realizing the strengths and weaknesses of alternatives. Applied to the tourism context, highly involved tourists tend to pay more attention to the search for information and are more likely to be opinion leaders by delivering that information to other individuals in a preferred manner (Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996). Quester & Lim (2003) studied the relationship between product involvement and loyalty. They found that highly involved consumers are more likely to exhibit high levels of psychological attachment, including brand commitment and brand loyalty. The entire consuming behavior is affected by involvement, which includes the desire to purchase again.

According to Zaichkowsky (1985), an individual's level of involvement is affected by three components: (1) personal characteristics including inherent needs, values, and interests toward the object; (2) physical elements of the object evoking a person's interest such as characteristics of the object that cause differential and increased

interest; and (3) situational factors, which temporarily increase relevance toward or interest in the object.

Repeat Travelers

A number of researchers have examined the differences between first-time and repeat travelers (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Gitelson & Crompton (1984) found that repeat travelers are more likely to be seeking relaxation, while new travelers are more likely to be seeking variety. According to Gitelson & Crompton's study (1984), people return to a familiar destination for one or more of five reasons: 1) reduce risk/are satisfied with a particular destination; 2) reduce risk/find the same kind of people; 3) have an emotional attachment to a particular destination; 4) further explore a destination, and 5) show the destination to other people.

Fakeye & Crompton (1991) studied the differences in motives between non-travelers, first-timer travelers, and repeat travelers. They found that a destination's pull factors (the physical attractions of the destination) are the key motivators for non-travelers and first-timer travelers, whereas push factors (an individual's social-psychological needs) are the key motivators for repeat travelers. Fakeye & Crompton also mentioned that travelers develop a more complex and differentiated image of a destination once they have spent time there. During the first visit, most aspects of a traveler's image of the destination can change. However, repeat travelers tend to reconfirm previously formed images of the destination.

Most destination choice models have included previous experience as one of the factors affecting destination awareness and traveler destination preferences. Familiarity

with a destination may produce a tendency for tourists to either quickly select or reject the destination. Familiarity may cause tourists to not even seek information on other destinations for their next destination choice (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

Definition of Terms

Attitude: An attitude is an index of the degree to which a person likes or dislikes an object, where "object" is used in the generic sense to refer to any aspect of the individual's world (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Behavioral Intention: Behavioral intention is an individual's decision or commitment to perform a given behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Crises: "Crises can be described as the possible but unexpected result of management failures that are concerned with the future course of events set in motion by human action or inaction precipitating the event" (Blake & Sinclair, 2003).

Destination Image: Destination image is the signal or symbol presented to the individual by a site or region. It is the aggregate sum of beliefs about each destination attribute (Mercer, 1981).

Disasters: "Disaster can be described as unpredictable catastrophic change that can normally only be responded to after the event, either by deploying contingency plans already in place or through reactive response" (Blake & Sinclair, 2003).

International Tourist: International Tourist is a people who visited Phuket, Thailand for both leisure and business purpose. Local residents are excluded from this definition

Perceived behavioral control (PBC): PBC is the individual's control beliefs weighted by the perceived facilitation of the control factor in either inhibiting or facilitating the behavior (Taylor & Todd, 1995).

Salient Beliefs: Salient beliefs are a small number of beliefs- perhaps five to nine- that a person can attend to at any given moment (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Subjective norm: Subjective norm is defined as a person's perception that most people who are important to him think he should or should not perform the behavior in question (Chang, 1998).

Theory: A set of interrelated constructs and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena (Kerlinger, 1979).

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA): The theory of reasoned action (TRA) is an expectancy value model to predict and understand an individual's behavior. The theory assumes that human beings are rational and motivation-based and thus a person's behavior is determined by his/her intention to perform the behavior and that this intention is, in turn, a function of his/her attitude toward the behavior and his/her subjective norm (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB): The theory of planned behavior (TPB) is an extension of the TRA. The only difference between the TRA and the TPB is that the TPB takes account for non-volitional control, named "actual control," over the behavior (Ajzen, 1985).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

Both descriptive and causal research design were used to investigate tourists' perceptions of destination attributes and to empirically test the applicability of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) model. Causal research design was employed to examine the causal relationship between predictor variables (attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and past experience) and tourist behavioral intention, and to test hypotheses to confirm the causal relationship. The target population for the study was international tourists who traveled to Phuket during the survey period.

Validity and Reliability

Validity

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Hair et al., 1998). The two types of validity checks are content validity and construct validity. To ensure the content validity of the questionnaire, both a pre-test and a pilot test were conducted. For the pre-test, ten research faculty in the field of hospitality, tourism, and marketing were asked to rate the appropriateness of the items in each scale, the format of the scale, and the length of the instrument. Some items and

some scales were changed. After the pre-test, 50 international tourists were randomly selected for the pilot test.

Construct validity is the extent to which a measure adequately assesses the theoretical concept it purposes to assess. Researchers can establish construct validity by correlating a measure of a construct with a number of other measures that should, theoretically, be associated with it (convergent validity) (Nunnally & Berstein, 1994). The scale used in this study was adapted from established existing measures that have been used and validated in previous tourism research. Convergent validity exists when a researcher's proposed scale items are correlates with the same construct. The standardized loadings and the squared multiple correlations (SMC) for the measurement items and the constructs were investigated as a confirmation of convergent validity (Bollen, 1989). Large factor loadings for a specified construct suggest evidence of convergent validity, demonstrating that indicators for a given construct are strongly correlated among themselves.

Reliability

Reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of variables (Hair et al., 1998). The initial research instrument, which was developed based on a review of the literature, was refined through the pilot study. The purposes of pilot study were to (1) assess the reliability of multiple measurements and (2) check the content validity of the questionnaire wording.

A total 50 international tourists participated in the pilot test, which yielded a response rate of 100%. Of the 50 respondents, 78% were male and 22% were female. About 76% of the respondents were in the age range of 21 to 50 years old.

Approximately 22% of the respondents reported an annual household income from $50,000 to $74,999, while 30% of them earned $100,000 or above each year. The results showed that 36% of respondents had earned a college degree, followed by those who reported high school/vocational school (34%).

The majority of respondents (76%) reported that the major purpose of their visit was vacation and pleasure. About 76% of respondents also reported that they had stayed at Phuket more than a week, while around 14% of them had stayed 3 to 5 days. Only 2% stayed less than a day at Phuket.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α) was used as a measure of internal consistency of measurements. The past behavior construct was not included in the reliability analysis because this construct had only one quantifiable measure (i.e., the frequency of visiting Phuket).

The details of the reliability of measurements are shown in Table 13. The reliability scores, ranging from 0.72 for perceived behavior control to 0.91 for attitude, indicated that the scales used in this study were relevant to measure the constructs of interest. Kline (1994) suggested that Cronbach's coefficient alpha is commonly used as a recommended benchmark.

Table 13: Reliability of Measurements in the Pilot Test

Construct	Number of variables	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Attitude	5	0.91
Subjective norm	4	0.86
Perceived behavior control	4	0.72
Behavior intention	4	0.81

Sampling Plan

Target Population

The target population was all international tourists who visited Phuket, Thailand, during the survey period.

Sample Size

According to Burns & Bush (1995), three factors should be considered to calculate the proper sample size for a survey:

1. The amount of variability believed to be in the population
2. The desired accuracy
3. The level of confidence required in the estimates of the population values

The formula for obtaining 95% accuracy at the 95% confidence level is:

$$\mathbf{n = Z^2\ (pq)/e^2}$$

$$= 1.96^2\ (0.5*0.5)/0.05^2$$

$$= 385$$

Where:

n = sample size

Z = standard error associated with chosen level of confidence (95%)

p = estimated variability in the population 50%*

q = (100 – p)

e = acceptable error ±5%

Note: * The amount of variability in the population is estimated to be 50%, a figure that is widely used in social research. From a practical standpoint, most researchers choose the 50% level of p because it results in the most conservative sample size (Burns & Bush, 1995).

Based on this formula, the sample size would be set at 385 with a confidence level of 95% and 95% desired accuracy. However, Hair et al. (1998) stated that the sample size suitable for most multivariate data analysis approaches should have a minimum ratio of at least 5 respondents for each estimated variable.

It was estimated that there would be 114 variables (excluding variables for travel and demographic characteristics) for measuring the constructs of perception of destination before the Tsunami (31 variables), perception of destination after the Tsunami (32 variables), motivation (33 variables), attitude (5 variables), subjective norm (4 variables), perceived behavioral control (4 variables), past behavior (1 variable), and behavior intention (4 variables). Based on this number of variables, the sample size suitable for the study was 570 (114*5), or approximately 600.

Sampling Approach

A two stage sampling approach including quota sampling and convenience sampling will be used to select 600 departing international travelers. First, quota sampling will be used to select departure flights which are posted on the web-site of the Phuket International Airport. The quota will be used to limit the amount of respondents in each region to the predetermined number in order to obtain a variety of respondents that represent the total population. Second, a convenience sampling will be used to select individuals within the selected flights.

According to Immigration Bureau and Police Department statistic from year 1999 to 2003, the top three inbound tourist markets to Phuket were Asia, Europe, and Oceania. In 2003, international tourists were primarily from Asia (49.37%), Europe (41.45%), Oceania (4.24%), and the Americas (3.55%) **(**Immigration Bureau and Police

Department, 2004). Base on statistic data in year 2003, the quota of the sample from the selected inbound tourist markets were Asia (50%), Europe (40%), and other (10%). The survey was conducted during weekdays and weekends from 6.00 am. to 01.00 am. The time spread will be designed in order to meet different groups of respondents.

The instrument, an exit survey, was given to these travelers as they waited for departure flights at Phuket International Airport. The survey was conducted in the restricted transit areas of the airport, the only location permitted by the airport authority to capture international tourists for the study of their behavioral intention of visiting Phuket. Once respondents agreed to participate, the purpose of the survey was explained and the self-administered questionnaire was distributed for completion. Questionnaires were collected on-site.

Instrument Development and Data Collection

A questionnaire was the instrument used for data collection. Survey items for the proposed study were developed based on the previous empirical research and modified to better fit the tourism industry in Phuket. The scale items used to measure tourists' perception and motivations were derived from the previous literature review. In addition, items derived from industry magazines issued by the Tourism Authority of Thailand were used to formulate the unique image and motivation attributes of tourist to Phuket.

Questionnaire Development

Based on the results of the pilot study, changes were made to the questionnaire's wording and design. However, all initial measurement items were kept for the actual survey.

The questionnaire was divided into five main sections. The first section consisted of items measuring tourist perception and motivation. The list of attributes of tourist destination selection and travel motivation are summarized in Table 9 and Table 12, respectively. Respondents were asked to rate their perceptions on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very unimportant) to 7 (very important).

The second section of the questionnaire was designed to collect information on the likelihood of choosing Phuket as a travel destination (behavioral intention), likely outcomes of choosing Phuket as a travel destination (attitude), groups or individuals whose views might influence respondent selection of Phuket as a travel destination (subjective norm), and factors that might facilitate or inhabit travel to Phuket (perceived behavioral control). Items on attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and behavior intention were based on the measurement scales of the theory of planned behavior (Ajen, 1988, 1991). Attitude was measured by statements using a semantic differential scale. The five questions used a seven-level semantic differential scale ranging from 1 (unenjoyable) to 7 (enjoyable), 1 (boring) to 7 (fun), 1 (unpleasant) to 7 (pleasant), 1 (harmful) to 7 (beneficial), and 1 (unfavorable) to 7 (favorable), respectively. Subjective norm was measured by four statements, each with a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Four statements were used to measure perceived behavioral control, each with a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Behavior intention was also measured by four statements, each with a seven-point Likert scale from 1 (most unlikely) to 7 (most likely).

The third section of the questionnaire collected information about international tourists' demographic characteristics.

The fourth section of the questionnaire collected information about tourists' trips to Phuket. This section included questions about the number of times each tourist had visited Phuket (including the current trip), purpose of visit, length of stay, mode of transportation, etc.

The fifth section consisted of questions about accommodation and activities. Questions included asking about hotels, attractions, and activities.

Survey Procedure

To collect the data, a questionnaire accompanied by a cover letter was distributed to international tourists at Phuket International Airport. According to Manfredo, Driver, and Tarrant (1996), a survey should be administered immediately after the trip or the activity in order to determine what the individual's past experience has been. Because the study was being used to determine tourist perception of destination attributes, it was appropriate to conduct the survey after the tourist experience. Phuket International Airport was chosen because tourists had already consumed tourism products or used services in Phuket. At the airport, while waiting for flights, tourists may have had time to complete the questionnaire. The data collection period included both weekdays and weekends during the airport's operating hours at the time of the study period.

Thai souvenirs including crystal, candle, and Thai silk books were given as incentives to stimulate survey participation. A field screening was conducted at the airport to check for completeness of the questionnaires. When international travelers

returned the questionnaires, research teams thanked the tourists and let them choose one of the three types of incentives.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed using both univariate and multivariate techniques with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and LISREL. Data analysis was undertaken in a series of steps. First, data screening was carried out to check the accuracy of the data. The second step was to analyze descriptive statistics of different variables. Third, the Paired Sample t-test was used to compare the means of image differences before the Tsunami and after the Tsunami. Fourth, factor analysis and reliability were conducted using principal component analysis with varimax rotation to examine the underlying dimensions of perception and motivation. Factor analysis is a useful technique to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of factor groupings. Next, the independent sample mean t test was used to determine the mean difference in travel motivation between first-time and repeat travelers. Finally, structural equation model (SEM) was adopted because this technique enables simultaneous estimation of multiple regression equations in a single framework. All direct and indirect relationships in the model are estimated simultaneously; therefore, this method allows all the interrelationships among the variables to be assessed in the same decision context.

Data Screening

According to Tabachnick & Fidell (1996), when data has been coded and collected, it should be checked for errors to maintain its accuracy and the honest analysis of it prior to commencing the data analyzes. Steven (1996) noted there are many possible

sources of data errors within research from the initial data collection to the final coding and entry; therefore, it is important that such errors be at a minimum. To ensure the accuracy of the data, all questionnaires were thoroughly examined. Results from the questionnaires were then cross-examined with the SPSS data file to ensure that data entry had been completed without any errors.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, and percentages were examined to determine information about tourists' trips to Phuket and generate demographic profiles of the survey respondents.

Paired Sample t-test

The paired sample t-test was used to compare the mean of two variables for a single group. This test computes the differences between values of the two variables for each case and tests the average difference from 0 (SPSS, 1999). In this study, the paired sample t-test was used to determine the image differences before the Tsunami and after the Tsunami.

Independent Sample Mean t-test

The independent sample mean t-test represents whether the mean of a single variable for subjects in one group differs from the mean of that variable in another group (SPSS, 1999). The independent sample mean t-test was used to determine the mean difference in travel motivation between first-time and repeat travelers in this study.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix. It is also used to reduce the number of

variables into a smaller set of dimensions (factors), while maximizing the amount of information found within each factor.

The advantage of a multivariate technique, over a univariate or a bivariate technique is the ability to accommodate multiple variables in an attempt to understand the complex relationships among variables. However, when the number of variables increases, it is possible that the variables are not all uncorrelated and representative of distinct concepts. Therefore, groups of variables may be interrelated to the extent that they are all representative of a more general concept. In this case, factor analysis should be conducted.

The two general types of factor analysis are exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and each is used for quite different purposes.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA is normally used in the early stage of research to describe and summarize data by grouping variables that are correlated with one another, but largely independent of other subsets of variables, into a specific factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). According to Pallant (2001), factor analysis consists of three steps: (1) assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, (2) factor extraction, and (3) factor rotation and interpretation.

(1) Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

The first step of factor analysis is to assess the suitability and appropriateness of data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996; Pallant, 2001). The techniques available to determine the suitability of data for factor analysis include correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity, & the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (Nunnally &

Berstein, 1994; Pallant, 2001). A correlation matrix refers to a set of correlation coefficients between numbers of variables. Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) state that there should be a correlation coefficient of 0.30 or above in the correlation matrix. The Bartlett test of sphericity recommends that the test of sphericity should be significant ($p<0.05$) for the factor analysis to be considered appropriate (Pallant, 2001). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy index is another, more sophisticated, test for factorability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). This index helps measures which variables belong together and are appropriate for factorability. The index can range from 0 to 1, but a minimum value of 0.6 should be obtained for the data to be considered appropriate for factor analysis (Pallant, 2001).

These three techniques were used to assess the suitability of data for factorability, and the following criteria had to be met for the data to be considered appropriate for factor analysis: (1) correlation coefficient of 0.30 or above in the correlation matrix, (2) value of Bartlett's test of sphericity at the significance level of ($p<0.05$), and (3) Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy index of 0.6 or greater.

(2) Factor Extraction

Factor extraction refers to "determining the smallest number of factors that can be used to best represents the inter-relations among the set of variables" (Pallant, 2001). Principal component analysis can be employed to extract the factors. According to Pallant, the principal component analysis technique is one of the more commonly used techniques that are "psychometrically sound, more mathematically simple and it avoids some of the potential problems with 'factor indeterminacy' associated with factor analysis" (2001).

Pallant (2001) also mentioned that there are two techniques that can be used to assist in the decision as to how many factors should be retained, Kaiser's criterion and scree test. With regard to Kaiser's criterion, only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or above should be retained. However, this technique often leads to retaining many factors; therefore, it is recommended that the technique be used in combination with a Catell's scree test (Pallant, 2001). The scree test involves plotting the eigenvalues of every factor and inspecting the plot to find a point at which a curve line changes its direction and becomes horizontal. All factors above the point at which the curve line changes direction should be retained as these factors normally contribute to most of the explanation of the variance in the data (Pallant, 2001).

In this study, factor analysis using principal component analysis was carried out to determine the number of underlying factors of tourist perception of destination attributes and motivation. All factors to be retained had to have an eigenvalue greater than one.

(3) Factor Rotation and Interpretation

The Varimax rotation procedure is the technique used for factor rotation (Pallant, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). This technique is used to minimize the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black (1998) recommended that factor loadings greater than 0.30 are the minimum level, loadings of 0.40 are considered more important, and loadings of 0.50 or greater are considered practically significant. Ticehurst & Veal (1999) suggested it is important to assess the internal reliability of all factors to be retained. Kline (1994) stated that

Cronbach's coefficient alpha is commonly used to measure the internal reliability of factors, and the alpha of .60 is commonly used as a minimum threshold recommended.

Therefore, this research used the Varimax rotation procedure and only variables with factor loadings greater than 0.4 and a contamination of less than 0.3 were retained in each factor grouping. To measure the internal reliability of factors, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was employed.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is used to investigate the model's goodness of fit, the magnitude of individual relationships, and the hypothesized paths. To examine the overall fit of the structured model, χ^2 statistics are used. A significant χ^2 statistic shows an inadequate fit, but this statistic is sensitive to sample size and model complexity. Other measures of fit compensating for sample size are goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The recommended acceptance of a good fit to a model requires that the GFI, AGFI, NFI, and CFI values should be greater than or equal to 0.90. An acceptable value of RMSEA ranges from 0.05 to 0.08 (Hair et al., 1998).

After the overall model fit has been evaluated, the measurement of each construct can then be assessed for unidimensionality and reliability. The fit of the measurement model is assessed by significant indicator loadings, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). The convergent validity of the measures with values between zero and one is represented by both CR and AVE; the closer the value is to one, the better the variable acts as an indicator of the latent construct. The validity of the construct is questionable when the AVE of a construct is less than 0.5 because it indicates

that the variance, due to measurement error, is larger than the variance captured by the construct. Discriminant validity is conducted by comparing the AVE values with the square of the correlations between each pair of constructs. AVE values should exceed the squared correlations values (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

In this research, factor analysis used both EFA and CFA. The EFA technique was employed for the purpose of reducing tourist perception of destination attributes into a more manageable set of factors to be used for subsequent analysis. This same technique was employed to reduce the motivation items in the tourist participation decision-making process into a more manageable set of factors to be used for subsequent analysis. CFA was used to investigate the model's goodness of fit for the proposed factor solution. CFA is particularly useful in the validation of scales for measurements of specific constructs.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) encompasses an entire family of models known by many names, among them covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and often LISREL analysis (the name of one of the more popular software packages) (Hair et al., 1998).

SEM was adopted because it can simultaneously estimate multiple regression equations in a single framework. Moreover, the direct and indirect relationships in the model can be estimated simultaneously, and this method also allows the entire interrelationship among the variables to be assessed in the same decision context. This method can "estimate many equations at ones, and they can be interrelated, which means that the dependent variable in one equation can be an independent variable in other equation(s)" (Hair et al., 1998, p. 586). In simple terms, SEM estimates a series of

separate, but interdependent, multiple regression equations simultaneously by specifying the structural model used by the statistical program. Therefore, some dependent variables become independent variables in subsequent relationships, giving rise to the interdependent nature of the structural model. In addition, many of the same variables affect each of the dependent variables, but with differing effects. The structural model expresses these relationships among independent and dependent variables, even when a dependent variable becomes an independent variable in another relationship (Hair et al., 1998).

Stages in Structural Equation Modeling

The advantage of SEM comes from the benefits of using the structural and measurement models simultaneously, each playing distinct roles in the overall analysis. To ensure both models (as shown in Figure 2) are correctly specified and the results are valid, the seven-stage model-building process developed by Hair et al. (1998, p. 592 and 602) was used. The seven stages are listed below:

1) Develop a theoretically based model
2) Construct a path diagram of causal relationships
3) Convert the path diagram into a set of structural equations and a measurement model
4) Choose the input matrix type and estimate the proposed model
5) Assess the identification of the structural model
6) Evaluate goodness-of-fit criteria
7) Interpret and modify the model (if theoretically justified)

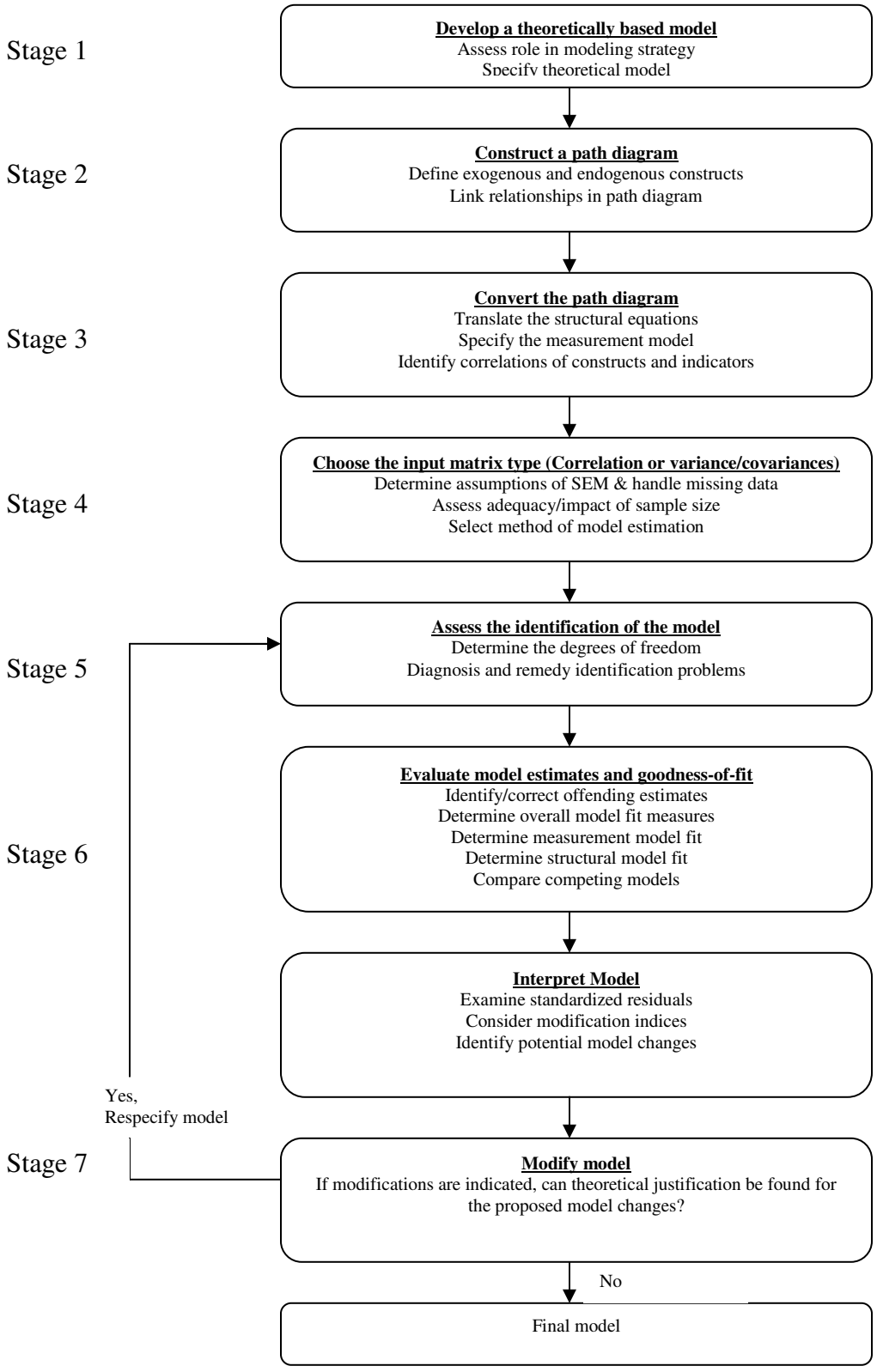


Figure 2: **The seven-stage process for structural equation modeling (Hair et al., 1998, p. 598 and 602).**

Stage 1: Develop a theoretically based model

SEM is based on causal relationships in which the change in one variable is assumed to result in a change in another variable (Hair et al., 1998). The latent constructs and their observed variables included in the model were identified based on theories and the "requirement" for asserting causation. According to Hair et al. (1998), there is general agreement with at least four established criteria for making causal assertions: 1) sufficient association between the two variables, 2) temporal antecedence of the cause versus the effect, 3) lack of alternative causal variables, and 4) a theoretical basis for the relationship. Although in many instances all of the established criteria for making causal assertions are not strictly met, causal assertions can possibly be made if the relationships are based on a theoretical rationale (Hair et al., 1998).

Stage 2: Construct a path diagram of causal relationships

A path diagram is useful in depicting a series of causal relationships. It is more than just a visual portrayal of the relationship because it allows the researcher to present not only the predictive relationships among constructs (i.e., the dependent-independent variable relationships), but also associative relationships (correlations) among constructs and even indicators. Therefore, a path diagram is developed at this stage.

Before examining a path diagram, two basic elements must be defined. The first is the concept of a construct, a theoretically based concept that acts as a "building block" used to define a relationship. The path diagram is defined in term of constructs and then finds variables to measure each construct. The second element is the arrow, used to present specific relationships between constructs. A straight arrow presents a direct causal relationship from one construct to another. A curved arrow (or a line without

arrowheads) between constructs indicates simply a correlation between constructs. A straight arrow with two heads presents a recursive, or reciprocal, relationship between constructs (Hair et al., 1998).

The two types of constructs in the path diagram are "exogenous construct" and "endogenous construct." An exogenous constructs acts as a predictor or "cause" for other constructs or variables in the model. In a path diagram, the exogenous constructs have only causal arrows leading out of them and are not predicted by any other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 1998). They are indicated by ξ1… ξ4 in Figure 3. An endogenous construct is the dependent or outcome variable in at least one causal relationship. In a path diagram, there are one or more arrows leading into the endogenous construct or variable. They are indicated by η1 in Figure 3.

Hair et al. (1998) stated that two assumptions underlie path diagrams. First, all causal relationships are indicated and justified by theories. Second, casual relationships are assumed to be linear. Table 14 indicates the exogenous and endogenous constructs defined in the path diagram.

Table 14: Endogenous and Exogenous Constructs Defined in the Path Diagram

Endogenous construct	Exogenous constructs
η1 Tourist Behavioral Intention	ξ1 Attitude
	ξ2 Subjective Norm
	ξ3 Perceived Behavioral Control
	ξ4 Past Behavior

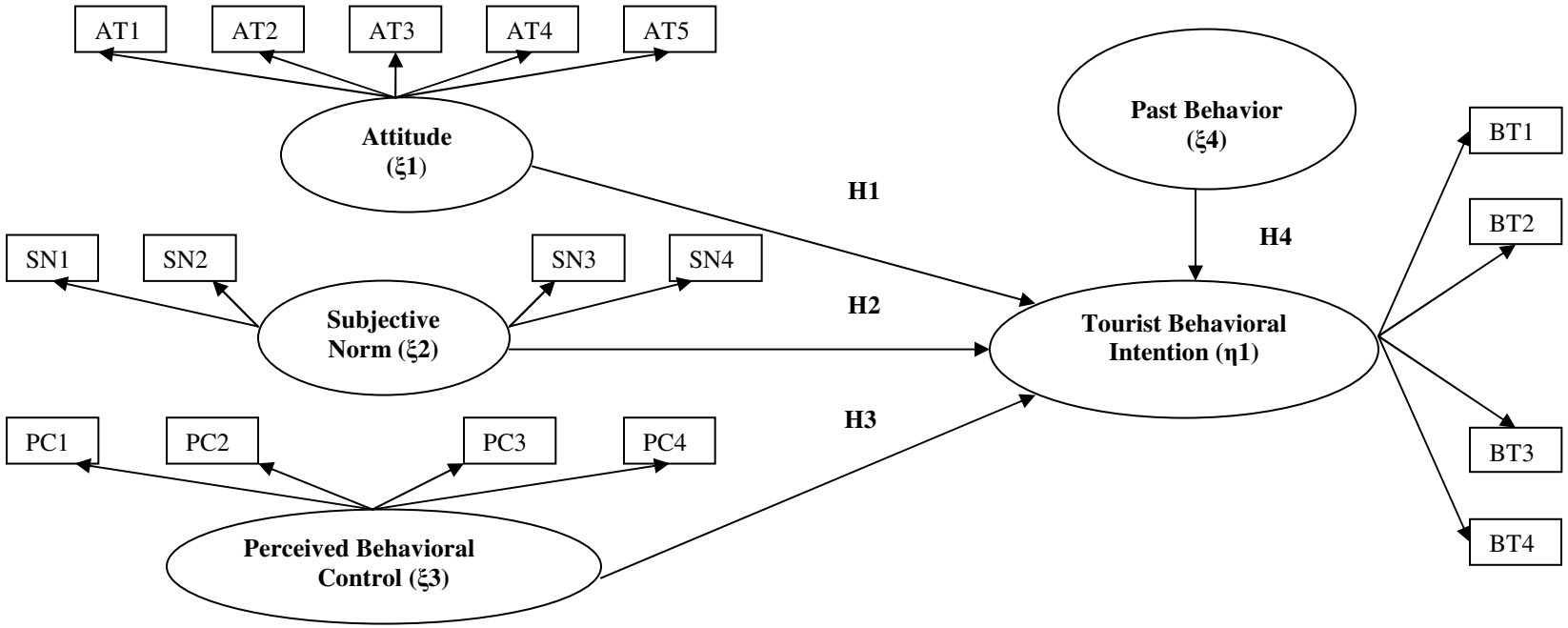


Figure 3: Path diagram for the proposed model.

Where

AT1…AT5 = Observed measure associated with exogenous latent variable (Attitude)

SN1…SN4 = Observed measure associated with exogenous latent variable (Subjective Norm)

PC1…PC4 = Observed measure associated with exogenous latent variable (Perceived Behavioral Control)

BT1…BT4 = Observed measure associated with endogenous latent variable (Tourist Behavioral Intention)

ξ1-ξ4 = Exogenous latent variable; η1= Endogenous latent variable

As mentioned previously, this study included the following hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1: A positive attitude (AT) toward destination positively affects tourist behavior intention (BI).
- Hypothesis 2: A subjective norm (SN) about a popular destination positively affects tourist behavior intention (BI).
- Hypothesis 2-1: The positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention will be greater among tourists from an Asian country than from a Western country.
- Hypothesis 3: Perceived behavioral control (PBC) positively affects tourist behavior intention (BI).
- Hypothesis 4: Past behavior positively affects tourist behavior intention.

Table 15 summarizes the variables used in the structural modeling approach in this study.

Table 15: Summary of Scale Items Used in this Study

Construct	**Indicator name**	**Scale Items**
Behavior Intention	BI1 BI2 BI3 BI4	I intend to select Phuket as my travel destination in the future. I would be willing to pay a higher rate to visit Phuket. I will recommend Phuket to others. I will revisit Phuket.
Attitude	AT1 AT2 AT3 AT4 AT5	Unenjoyable/Enjoyable Boring/Fun Unpleasant/Pleasant Harmful/Beneficial Unfavorable/Favorable
Subjective Norm	SN1 SN2 SN3 SN4	Most people I know choose Phuket as a travel destination. Members of my family think that it is a good idea to choose Phuket as a travel destination. Members of my family approve of my visiting Phuket. Most of my friends and acquaintances think that choosing Phuket as a travel destination is a good idea.
Perceived Behavioral Control	PC1 PC2 PC3 PC4	If I want, I could easily visit Phuket from now on (after crisis recovery). It is mostly up to me whether or not I select Phuket as my travel destination (after crisis recovery). Visiting Phuket is wholly under my control even in case of crisis (Tsunami, bird flu, SAR-Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, and terrorist in Southern Thailand). Recovery campaign (reduced fares and special packages) factored in selecting Phuket as my travel destination.
Past Behavior	PB	How many times have you visited Phuket, including this trip?

Stage 3: Convert the path diagram into a set of structural equations and a measurement model

After developing the theoretical model and designing the path diagram, the model needs to be specified in more formal terms through a series of equations that define (1) the structural equations linking constructs, (2) the measurement model specifying which variables measure which constructs, and (3) a set of matrices indicating any hypothesized correlations among the constructs or variables. The purpose is to link operational definitions of the constructs to theory for the appropriate empirical test (Hair et al., 1998).

Structural model: The path diagram is translated into a series of structural equations. Each endogenous construct (any construct with one or more straight arrows leading to it) is the dependent variable in a separate equation. The predictor variables are all constructs at the ends or "tails" of the straight arrows leading into endogenous variables. Therefore, each endogenous construct η_j can be predicted either by an exogenous construct(s) ξ_j or by other endogenous construct(s) (Hair et al., 1998).

Measurement model: In order to specify the measurement model, the issues regarding the number of indicators per construct and the process of specifying the reliability of each construct needs to be defined. This process is quite analogous to factor analysis. To specify the measurement model, the researcher makes the transition from factor analysis, in which the researcher had no control over which variables describe each factor, to a confirmatory mode, in which the researcher specifies which variables define each construct (factor). The indicator variables in the measurement model are called manifest variables because they are used to "indicate" the latent constructs. According to Hair et al. (1998), the minimum number of indicators for a construct is one, but the use of only one indicator requires the researcher to provide estimates of reliability. Two indicators can be presented, but three is the preferred minimum number of indicators because using only two indicators increases the chances of reaching an infeasible solution. However, in practice, five to seven indicators should be able to represent most constructs (Hair et al., 1998).

After the measurement model has been specified, the reliability of the indicators has to be determined. The two principal methods to establish reliability are empirical estimation and specification by researcher. The exact steps required for this approach will be illustrated further in Stage 6 of this process.

In addition to the structural and measurement models, the researcher needs to specify any correlations between the exogenous constructs or between the endogenous constructs. Mostly, exogenous constructs are correlated, representing a "shared" influence on the endogenous variables.

Stage 4: Choose the input matrix type and estimate the proposed model

Input used in a program is a correlation or variance-covariance matrix of all indicators used in the model. The measurement model specifies which indicators correspond to each construct, and the latent construct scores are then employed in the structural model. SEM shares three assumptions with the other multivariate methods: independent observation, random sampling of responds, and linearity of all relationships. However, SEM is more sensitive to the distributional characteristics of the data, particularly the departure from multivariate normality (critical in the use of LISREL) or a strong kurtosis (skew ness).

An important issue in interpreting the results is the use of the variance-covariance matrix and the correlation matrix. The covariance matrix can provide valid comparisons between different populations or samples, a feature not possible when models are estimated with a correlation matrix. A correlation matrix can be used when the researcher is concerned only with the pattern of relationships, not with total explanation as is needed in theory testing. Hair et al. (1998) recommended that researchers employ the variance-covariance matrix any time a true "test of theory" is being performed as the variances and covariance satisfy the assumption of the

methodology and are the appropriate form of the data for validating causal relationships.

Sample size also plays an important role in the estimation and interpretation of SEM results. According to Hair et al. (1998), sample size provides a basis for the estimation of sampling error. Four factors impact the sample size requirement: 1) model misspecification, 2) model size, 3) departures from normality, and 4) estimation procedure. The model that suffers from specification error is called model misspecification. Specification error is the omission of relevant variables from the specified model. Hair et al. (1998) suggested that the absolute minimum sample size must be at least greater than the number of covariances or correlations in the input data matrix. However, the most appropriate size is a minimum ratio of at least five respondents for each estimated parameter, with a preferred ratio of ten respondents per parameter. Although there is no correct sample size, Hair et al. (1998) recommended that the sample size should range from 100 to 200. If misspecification is suspected, the model is overly large or complex, the data exhibit abnormal characteristics, or an alternative estimation procedure is used, and the sample size should be increased to more than 200 responses (Hair et al., 1998).

Stage 5: Assess the identification of the structural model

Degree of Freedom: According to Hair et al. (1998), an identification problem is the inability of the proposed model to generate unique estimates. For the purpose of identification, the researcher needs to consider the size of the covariance or correlation matrix relative to the number of estimated coefficients. The degree of freedom is the difference between the number of correlations or covariances and the actual number of coefficients. The number of degrees of freedom for a proposed model is

$$df = \frac{1}{2}[(p+q)(p+q+1)]-t$$

Where:

p=the number of endogenous indicators

q=the number of exogenous indicators

t=the number of estimated coefficients

Rules for Identification: In SEM, the sample size does not affect the degree of freedom, but it is used to estimate sampling error. Two basic rules that will establish the identification of a model are order and rank conditions.

The order condition states that the model's degree of freedom must be greater than or equal to zero, which corresponds to what are called just-identified or over-identified models. A just-identified model has exactly zero degrees of freedom. Although zero degrees of freedom will provide a perfect fit of the model, the solution is uninteresting because it has no generalizability. An over-identified model has more information in the data matrix than the number of parameters to be estimated. It means that there are a positive number of degrees of freedom. An over-identified model is the goal for all structural equation models. An under-identified model is one that fails to meet the order condition. It has negative degrees of freedom and it tries to estimate more parameters than there is information available. The model cannot be estimated until some parameters are fixed or constrained (Hair et al., 1998). The order condition is necessary, but the model also has to meet the rank condition, in which each parameter is uniquely identified (estimated).

Diagnosing Identification Problems: Perform tests can be used when the equation is identified to see whether the results are unstable because of the level of identification. With the first perform test the model can be reestimated several times, each time with a different starting value. The identification should be examined more

thoroughly if the results do not converge at the same point for different starting values. The second test, to assess the identification's effect on a single coefficient, estimates the model and obtains the coefficient estimate then "fixes" the coefficient to its estimated value and reestimates the equation. Identification problems are indicated if the overall fit of the model varies markedly.

Other possible symptoms of an identification problem include 1) very large standard errors for one or more coefficients, 2) the inability of the program to invert the information matrix, 3) unreasonable or impossible estimates such as negative error variances, or 4) high correlations ($\pm$.90 or greater) among the estimated coefficients (Hair et al., 1998).

Three common sources of identification problem exist: 1) a large number of estimated coefficients relative to the number of covariances or correlations, indicated by a small number of degrees of freedom, 2) the use of reciprocal effects (two-way causal arrows between two constructs, and 3) the failure to fix the scale of a construct.

The solutions for an identification problem are to eliminate some of the estimated coefficients (deleting paths from the path diagram) until the problem is solved, to fix the measurement error variance of constructs if possible, to fix any structural coefficients that are reliably known, to remove multicollinearity by using data reduction methods like principal components analysis, to eliminate highly correlated or redundant variables, and to check for missing values and outliers (Hair et al., 1998).

Stage 6: Evaluate goodness-of-fit criteria

The first step in evaluating the results is an initial inspection for "offending estimates." After the model is established and provides acceptable estimates, the goodness of fit must be assessed at several levels, first for the overall model and then for the measurement and structural models separately.

Offending Estimates: Offending estimates are estimated coefficients in either the structural or measurement model that exceeds acceptable limits. The most common examples of offending estimates are negative error variances or no significant error variances for any construct, standardized coefficients exceeding or very close to 1.0, or very large standard errors associated with any estimated coefficient. If offending estimates are identified, each occurrence should be resolved before evaluating any specific results of the models, as changes in one portion of the model can have significant effects on other results.

In the case of negative error variances (also known as Heywood cases), the offending error variances can be fixed by changing to a very small positive value (0.005). If correlations in the standardized solution exceeding one or two estimates are highly correlated, the researcher should consider elimination of one of the constructs or should ensure that true discriminant validity has been established among the constructs (Hair et al., 1998).

Overall Model Fit: If there are no offending estimates, the next step is to assess the overall model fit with one or more goodness-of-fit measures. According to Hair et al. (1998), goodness-of-fit measures the correspondence of the actual or observed input (covariance or correlation) matrix with that predicted from the proposed model.

The three types of goodness-of-fit measures are absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures.

- Absolute fit measures assess only the overall model fit (both structural and measurement models collectively), with no adjustment for the degree of "over fitting" that might occur.
- Incremental fit measures compare the proposed model to another model specified by the researcher.
- Parsimonious fit measures "adjust" the measures of fit to provide a comparison between models with differing numbers of estimated coefficients.

Table 16 summarizes the statistical and non-statistical measures and their acceptable ranges for different fit measures as suggested by Hair et al. (1998).

Table 16: Summary of Statistical Measures and Their Acceptable Ranges for Different Fit Measures

Fit measures	Statistical measures	Acceptable range
Absolute fit measures	Likelihood ratio chi-square to the degree of freedom	Acceptable level between 0.05 to 0.10 or 0.20. A large value of chi-square indicates poor fit of the model to the data while a small value indicates a good fit.
	Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	Range from 0 (poor fit) to 1.0 (perfect fit). Higher values indicate better fit. A marginal acceptance level is 0.90.
	Root mean square residual (RMSR)	The closer the value is to zero, the better the fit. Marginal acceptance level is 0.08. Must be interpreted in relation to the sizes of the observed variances and covariance.
	Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	Values between 0.05 and 0.08 are acceptable.
Incremental fit measures	Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	Should exceed the minimum level of 0.90.
	Normed fit index (NFI)	Should exceed the minimum level of 0.90.
Parsimonious fit measures	Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	Value between 0 and 1. Recommended level is 0.90.
	Normed chi-square ($\chi 2$/df)	Recommended level is between 1.0 and 2.0.

Source: Hair et al. (1998).

Measurement Model Fit: After the overall model fit has been accepted, the measurement of each construct can be assessed for unidimensionality and reliability. Unidimensionality is the process for calculation of reliability and is demonstrated when the indicators of a construct have acceptable fit on a single-factor (one-dimensional) model. This can be done by examining the indicator loadings for statistical significance and assessing the construct's reliability and variance extracted. Reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of the construct indicators, showing the degree to which they "indicate" the common latent (unobserved) construct. More reliable measures give greater confidence that the individual indicators are all consistent in their measurement. Variance extracted measure

represents the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct. Higher variance extracted values are generated when the indicators are truly representative of the latent construct. Both the construct reliability and the variance extracted measures should exceed 0.50 (Hair et al., 1998).

Structural model fit: Structural equation modeling methods present not only estimated coefficients, but also standard errors and calculated t values for each coefficient. However, the most obvious examination of the structural model involves the significance of estimated coefficients. The selection of a critical value also depends on the theoretical justification for the proposed relationships. If a hypothesis is a positive or negative relationship, a one-tailed test of significance can be employed. However, if the direction of the relationship cannot be specified, a two-tailed significance test must be used. An overall coefficient of determination (R^2) is calculated to measure the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable about its mean that is explained by the independent, or predictor, variables. The higher the value of R^2, the greater the explanatory power of equation, and therefore, the better the prediction of the dependent variable (Hair et al., 1998).

Stage 7: Interpret and modify the model

After the model is deemed acceptable, the results for its correspondence to the proposed theory should be examined as follows:

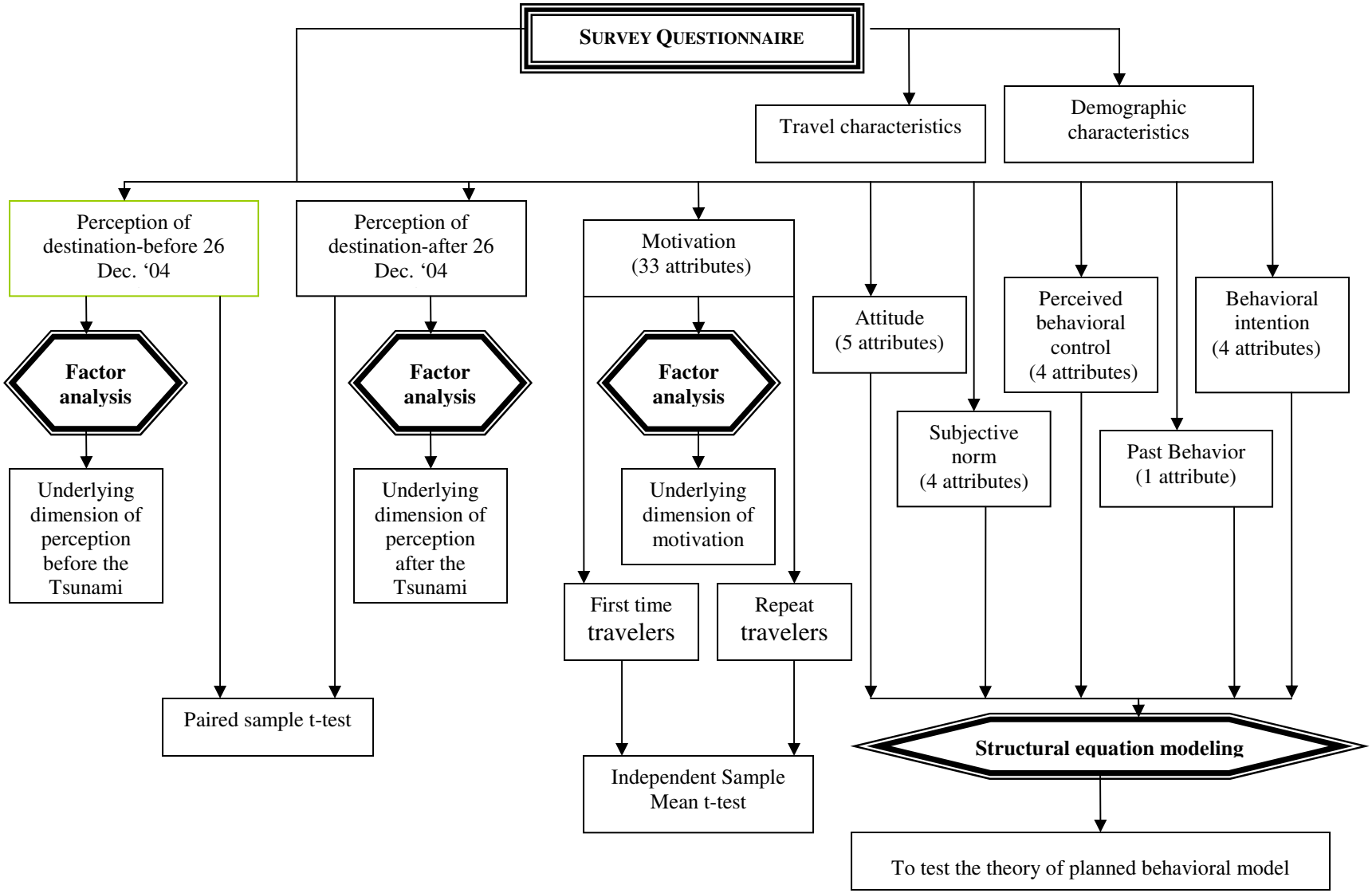
- Are the principal relationships in the theory supported and found to be statistically significant?
- Are all of the relationships in the hypothesized direction (positive or negative)?

Two issues of interpretation need to be considered: the use of standardized versus unstandardized solutions and model respecification.

Standardized coefficients are useful for determining relative importance, but are sample specific and are not comparable across samples. In contrast, unstandardized coefficients are comparable across samples and retain their scale effect because the scale varies for each construct. However, comparison between coefficients is more difficult than with standardized coefficients.

Model respecification is the process of adding or deleting estimated parameters from the original model. However, obtaining theoretical justification for what is deemed empirically significant should be considered before undertaking the process of model respecification (Hair et al., 1998). Figure 4 depicts the research framework of this study.

Figure 4: Research Framework



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of data analysis and hypothesis testing. First, descriptive statistics are reported from respondent demographic profiles, respondent travel profiles, sources of information, and activities. Second, descriptive statistics are reported regarding perceived images of Phuket before and after the Tsunami. Third, a paired-samples t test examines whether there is a significant in the perceived image of Phuket before and after the Tsunami. Fourth, factor analysis and reliability tests examine the underlying dimensions of the perceived image of Phuket before and after the Tsunami and the underlying dimensions of travel motivation. Fifth, an independent sample mean t-test examines whether there is a significant difference in the travel motivations between first-time and repeat travelers. Sixth, structural equation model (SEM) was adopted to answer research questions related to the proposed model and the effects of the four determinants on tourist behavior intentions. And seventh, the existence of a moderational effect of country of origin was tested to see if the positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention is greater among tourists from Asian countries than from Western countries.

Respondent Profiles

Respondent Demographic Profiles

Table 17 provides a demographic profile of international tourists who participated in this survey. Among the 600 respondents, 387 respondents (64.5%) were male and 213 respondents (35.5%) were female. The majority of the respondents were between 22 and 35 years old (40.5%), while only 1.8% of the respondents were over 65 years old. Approximately one-third (33.3%) of respondents were 36-50 years old. Education levels were fairly high, with 69.8% having a college education (2-year, 4-year, or post-graduate education). About 17% of the respondents were in management positions, followed by students (14.2%), self-employed (12.8%), and professionals, such as doctor or lawyer, (10.7%).

Approximately 20% of the respondents earned under $25,000 annually, while nearly 23% of them earned $25,000 to $49,999 per year. About one-fourth (25%) of respondents had annual income in the range of $50,000 to $74,999, while 12.5% earned $75,000 to $99,999. The remaining respondents (19.7%) earned $100,000 or more. Respondents were primarily from Asia (41.8%), Europe (37.2%), Oceania (11.2%), and the Americas (5%).

Table 17: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (n = 600)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	387	64.5
Female	213	35.5
Total	600	100.0
Age		
Under 21 years old	63	10.5
22-35 years old	243	40.5
36-50 years old	200	33.3
51-65 years old	83	13.8
Over 65 years old	11	1.8
Total	600	100.0
Education level		
Elementary School (Grade1-8)	31	5.2
High school/vocational school	150	25.0
2-year college	71	11.8
4-year college	190	31.7
Master's degree	137	22.8
Doctorate degree	21	3.5
Total	600	100.0
Occupation		
Management	102	17.0
Administrative support	16	2.7
Government/military	33	5.5
Construction	32	5.3
Production	22	3.7
Professional related	64	10.7
Sale	31	5.2
Service	13	2.2
Student	85	14.2
Housewife	30	5.0
Self-employed	73	12.8
Retired/not in the workforce	22	3.7
Other	77	12.2
Total	600	100.0
Annual household income		
Under $25,000	120	20.0
$25,000-$49,999	136	22.7
$50,000-$74,999	151	25.2
$75,000-$99,999	75	12.5
$100,000 and above	118	19.7
Total	600	100.0
Country of residence		
Europe	223	37.2
Asia	251	41.8
The Americas	30	5.0
Oceania	67	11.2
Africa	9	1.5
Middle East	20	3.3
Total	600	100.0

Respondent Travel Profiles

Table 18 presents the travel behaviors of international tourists who participated in the survey. More than half of the respondents were first-time travelers, while around 16% were visiting Phuket for the second time. Approximately one-third (32.6%) had made more than two trips to Phuket. The majority of respondents (85%) reported their major purpose for the visit was vacation, pleasure, and leisure. Around 7% went for business and visits with friends or relatives. Only 0.2% of respondents reported their major purpose for traveling to Phuket was for shopping, while 3.3% went to Phuket for a wedding and honeymoon, and another 2.3% were en route to somewhere else.

Over half of the visitors (55%) stayed at Phuket more than a week, while about 18% stayed for one week. Approximately 4% stayed at Phuket for 1-2 days, while 21.5% stayed 3-5 days. Only 0.8% stayed less than a day at Phuket. Approximately one-third of the respondents (31.3%) traveled with friends or relatives, 25.2% traveled with family and children, and 22.7% traveled with a spouse. Other travel party statistics were those who traveled by themselves (17.8%), those who traveled with a tour group (2.2%), and those who traveled with business associates (0.8%). The majority of visitors (80%) stayed at hotels near the beach. Other forms of accommodation were homes of friends or relatives (5.3%); hotels in Phuket town (5.2%); timeshare, vacation hotel, or condo (5%); commercial cottage, cabin, or suit (3.2%); and bed and breakfast hotel (1.3%).

Table 18: Travel Characteristics of Respondents (n = 600)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Frequency of visits		
First time	309	51.5
Second time	95	15.8
3-4 times	69	11.5
5-6 times	53	8.8
More than 6 times	74	12.3
Total	600	100.0
Primary purpose of visit		
Vacation/pleasure/Leisure	510	85
Business/professional	21	3.5
Visit friends/relatives	21	3.5
Wedding/honeymoon	20	3.3
Shopping	1	0.2
En route to somewhere else	14	2.3
Other	13	2.2
Total	600	100.0
Length of stay		
Less than one day	5	0.8
1-2 days	25	4.2
3-5 days	129	21.5
A week	109	18.2
More than a week	332	55.3
Total	600	100.0
Travel party		
With friends/relative	188	31.3
With family and kids	151	25.2
With spouse	136	22.7
By yourself	107	17.8
With tour group	13	2.2
With business associates	5	0.8
Total	600	100.0
Type of accommodation		
Hotel near beach	480	80.0
Home of friends/relatives	32	5.3
Hotel in Phuket town	31	5.2
Time share/vacation hotel/condo	30	5.0
Commercial cottage/cabin/suit	19	3.2
Bed and Breakfast	8	1.3
Total	600	100.0

Sources of Information, Tourist Activities, and Money Spent

Table 19 reports the sources of information tourists considered when planning travel to Phuket; respondents were asked to check all sources they had used. The primary ways in which tourists learned about Phuket were word-of-mouth (39.7%) and previous trips (28%). The dominance of these two forms of information emphasizes the important role "informal" information sources play in promoting Phuket as a travel destination. Other information sources used by tourists included the internet (21.2%), travel agent (19.7%), and brochures and travel guidebooks (15%). Many tourists learned about their hotels from one of these three sources: internet (30.8%), travel agent (29.5%), and word-of-mouth (19.3%).

Table 19: Sources of Information

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Where did you learn about Phuket?*		
Word-of-mouth	238	39.7
Previous trips	168	28.0
Internet	127	21.2
Travel agent	118	19.7
Brochures/travel guidebooks	90	15.0
Other (Airline offices)	76	12.7
Advertising	50	8.3
Tourist information/welcome center	42	7.0
Where did you learn about the hotel you stayed in?*		
Internet	185	30.8
Travel agent	177	29.5
Word of mouth	116	19.3
Previous trips	85	14.2
Other (Airline Offices)	63	10.5
Brochures/travel guidebooks	60	10.0
Tourist information/welcome center	37	6.2
Advertisements	12	2.0

Note: *Respondents may have given multiple responses.

Table 20 summarizes the activities in which tourists participated during their travel to Phuket; respondents were asked to check all activities in which they participated. The attractions that respondents visited in Phuket were beaches and islands (90.2%), the Tsunami site (38.5%), and scenic views (29.7%). Most tourists (90%) visited the southern beaches, including those in Naihan, Kata, Karon, Patong, Kalim, and Larm Ka.

The primary activities in which tourists participated during their trips were activities at sea (56.3%), spas (34.3%), and activities on land (32.7%). In addition, the special events that tourists attended in Phuket were seafood festivals (6.8%), vegetarian festivals (4.2%), and tourist season opening festivals (3.2%). Tourists did not attend many special events as evidenced by the small number of responses.

Table 20: Tourist Activities

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
What tourist attractions did you visit in Phuket during this trip?*		
Beach and island	541	90.2
Tsunami site	231	38.5
Scenic views	178	29.7
Natural wonder (e.g., Mangrove forest)	86	14.3
Other	84	14.0
Historic site (Wat Chalong)	72	12.0
What beaches did you visit during this trip? *		
Southern beach -Naihan Beach, -Kata Beach, -Karon Beach, -Patong Beach, -Kalim Beach, -Larm Ka Beach	540	90.0
Middle beach - Kamala Beach - Laem Sing Beach - Pansea Beach - Bang Tao Beach	179	29.8
Northern beach -Nai Thon Beach -Naiyang Beach -Mai Khao Beach	60	10.0
In what activities did you participate during this trip?*		
Activities at sea	338	56.3
Spa	206	34.3
Activities on land	196	32.7
Other	84	14.0
Golfing	45	7.5
What special events did you attend in Phuket during this trip?*		
Seafood Festival	41	6.8
Vegetarian Festival	25	4.2
Tourist Season Opening Festival	23	3.8
Annual Gay Festival	16	2.7
Laguna Phuket Triathlon	16	2.7
Chao Le (Sea Gypsy) Boat Floating Festival	13	2.2
Phuket King's Cup Regatta	9	1.5
Phuket Travel Fair	9	1.5
Turtle Releasing Fair	1	0.2
Other	68	11.3

Note: *Respondents may have given multiple responses.

The last open-ended question on the survey asked respondents to report the amount of money they had spent for accommodations, dining, shopping, transportation, attractions, activities, and festivals. Approximately 26% (159) of the total respondents (600) answered this question. The low response rate may be attributed to the inconvenience in calculating the amounts of money tourists had spent for the various items. It may also reflect the unwillingness of respondents to report the money they spent during their trip. Regardless of the low response rate, tourist expenditures reported serve as valuable information to better understand the socio-economic profile of international tourists.

The amount of money that tourists spent during their trips is shown in Table21. Of the 159 respondents, approximately one-third (32.1%) spent 5,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 125: US$1.00@baht40.00) for accommodations, while 15% spent 8,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 200). Over half of respondents (52.8%) paid 2,000 to 4,000 baht per day (US$ 50 to US$ 100) for accommodations.

Approximately 40% of the respondents spent 1,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 25) for dining. More than one-fourth (27%) spent 2,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 50) for dining, followed by 1,500 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 37.5) (21.4%), 3,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 75) (6.3%), 4,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 100) (3.1%), 500 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 12.5) (1.3%), and 800 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 20) (0.6%).

About 34.6% of the respondents spent no money for shopping. The percentage of tourists who spent 1,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 25) for shopping (13.8%) was almost equal to the percentage that spent 3,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 75) for shopping (11.3%). Approximately one-fourth of the respondents (25.2%) spent 2,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 50) for shopping.

Over half of respondents (50.9%) spent 2,000 baht per day (equivalent to US$ 50) for attractions, activities, and festivals, while 20% of them spent 1,500 baht (equivalent to US$ 37.5) and approximately 13% spent 3,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 75).

Approximately one-fourth (25.2%) of the respondents spent 40,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 1,000) for transportation to Phuket, followed by 35,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 875) (18.9%), 30,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 750) (17.6%), 20,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 500) (13.8%), and 12,000 baht (equivalent to US$ 300) (8.2%).

There are three mode of transportation to Phuket; by air, by sea, and by road. By air, Phuket has an international airport; both regularly scheduled and charter flights from around Asia, Australia, and Europe. Most other international flights arrive via Bangkok. There are at least ten daily flights leaving from Bangkok to Phuket. From the airport tourists have many choices to reach their hotel, Phuket town, or beaches. There are official airport limousine taxis, which are booked in the arrivals hall. Official airport minibuses are also available and leave when they are full, to all the major beaches. Private cars can be rented at the airport or at the most major hotels.

By Sea: The Deep Sea Port at Phuket is visited by both cargo and cruise ships from Thailand and from abroad. If tourists come from abroad by yacht, it's necessary to check in with Immigration and Customs on Chalong Bay, on the southern end of Phuket.

By Road: Phuket, 885km south of Bangkok, is connected to the mainland by a 1200m causeway. The bus ride from Bangkok takes 12hrs, leaving from the Southern Bus Terminal.

Table 21: Tourist Expenditure

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Accommodations (per day: baht)		
2,000	7	4.4
3,000	41	25.8
4,000	36	22.6
5,000	51	32.1
8,000	24	15.1
No Response	441	
Dining (per day: baht)		
500	2	1.3
800	1	0.6
1,000	64	40.3
1,500	34	21.4
2,000	43	27.0
3,000	10	6.3
4,000	5	3.1
No Response	441	
Shopping (total: baht)		
0.0	55	34.6
500	9	5.7
1,000	22	13.8
2,000	40	25.2
3,000	18	11.3
4,000	15	9.4
No Response	441	
Attractions, Activities, and Festivals (total: baht)		
500	8	5.0
1,000	3	1.9
1,500	32	20.1
2,000	81	50.9
2,500	14	8.8
3,000	21	13.2
No Response	441	
Transportation to Phuket (total: baht)		
12,000	13	8.2
15,000	9	5.7
20,000	22	13.8
25,000	9	5.7
30,000	28	17.6
35,000	30	18.9
40,000	40	25.2
45,000	8	5.0
No Response	441	

Perceived Image of Phuket before the Tsunami

Table 22 presents the mean scores and standard deviations of the 31 attributes that indicated how important each attribute was in attracting tourists to visit Phuket before the Tsunami.

Table 22: Importance of Attributes in Attracting Tourists to Phuket before the Tsunami

Attributes	Mean	Std. Deviation
Beautiful scenery (sun, sand, sea)	5.94	1.12
Cleanliness of beaches and sea	5.80	1.22
Reasonable price of meals	5.56	1.16
Variety of cuisine	5.50	1.25
Availability of space on beaches	5.49	1.16
Location of accommodation	5.39	1.39
Variety of beaches and islands	5.38	1.29
Reasonable price of accommodation	5.36	1.29
Safety and security	5.32	1.42
Security and safety at accommodation	5.31	1.38
Reasonable price for activities and events	5.31	1.18
Reasonable price of merchandise	5.19	1.21
Variety of evening entertainment	5.08	1.39
Availability of facilities on beaches	5.04	1.36
Availability of travel information	5.02	1.38
Variety of shops	5.01	1.37
Convenience of local transportation system	5.01	1.36
Variety of accommodation options	4.99	1.42
Ease of access	4.97	1.21
Reasonable price for sightseeing	4.94	1.28
Variety of outdoor recreation	4.92	1.27
Variety of entertainment & amusements	4.92	1.49
Parks and nature in Phuket	4.89	1.48
Availability of daily tour services	4.86	1.47
Scenic views	4.74	1.67
Variety of spa/massage/healing options	4.69	1.55
Variety of marine sports and activities	4.64	1.61
Historical and cultural sites of Phuket	4.32	1.53
Disaster protection and warning system	4.19	1.62
Phuket festivals and events	4.00	1.61
Variety of golf courses	2.92	1.88

Note: The mean score is based on a 7-point Likert scale.
Scale: 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = somewhat unimportant, 4 = neutral, 5 = somewhat important, 6 = important, 7 = very important

Six hundred international tourists answered the 31 destination attributes questions. They considered “beautiful scenery” the most important attribute when selecting a destination. “Cleanliness of beaches and sea” and “reasonable prices of meals” were ranked as the second and third most important attributes.

For international tourists, “variety of golf courses” was the least important attribute with a mean score of only 2.92.

Other attributes receiving lower scores were “variety of accommodation options,” “ease of access,” “reasonable price for sightseeing,” “variety of outdoor recreation,” “variety of entertainment & amusements,” “parks and nature in Phuket,” “availability of daily tour services,” “scenic view,” “variety of spa/massage/healing options,” “variety of marine sports and activities,” “historical and cultural sites of Phuket,” “disaster protection and warning system,” and “Phuket festivals and events.” The mean scores for these attributes ranged from 4.99 to 4.00.

Perceived Image of Phuket after the Tsunami

Table 23 displays the mean scores and standard deviations of the 32 attributes that indicated how important each attribute was in attracting tourists to visit Phuket after the Tsunami.

Table 23: Importance of Attributes in Attracting Tourists to Phuket after the Tsunami

Attributes	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cleanliness of beaches and sea	6.21	1.03
Beautiful scenery (sun, sand, sea)	6.20	0.97
Safety and security	6.03	1.22
Reasonable price of meals	5.85	1.06
Security and safety at accommodation	5.83	1.31
Location of accommodation	5.78	1.25
Variety of cuisine	5.68	1.24
Availability of space on beaches	5.67	1.18
Disaster protection and warning system	5.66	1.67
Variety of beaches and islands	5.55	1.23
Reasonable price of accommodation	5.52	1.28
Reasonable price for activities and events	5.47	1.26
Availability of travel information	5.45	1.27
Convenience of local transportation system	5.42	1.38
Availability of facilities on beaches	5.35	1.28
Ease of access	5.32	1.24
Reasonable price of merchandise	5.30	1.32
Variety of accommodation options	5.25	1.30
Variety of evening entertainment	5.24	1.44
Available of daily tour services	5.13	1.49
Variety of shops	5.12	1.49
Reasonable price for sightseeing	5.08	1.51
Variety of entertainment & amusements	5.05	1.42
Parks and nature in Phuket	5.01	1.44
Variety of spa/massage/healing options	4.96	1.62
Variety of outdoor recreation	4.91	1.47
Scenic views	4.90	1.54
Variety of marine sports and activities	4.90	1.67
Historical and cultural sites of Phuket	4.47	1.61
Visit Tsunami site	4.16	1.95
Phuket festivals and events	4.04	1.72
Variety of golf courses	2.74	1.94

Note: The mean score is based on a 7-point Likert scale.
Scale: 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = somewhat unimportant, 4 = neutral, 5 = somewhat important, 6 = important, 7 = very important

Six hundred international tourists answered the 32 destination attribute questions. They considered “cleanliness of beaches and sea” as the most important attribute when selecting a destination. “Beautiful scenery” and “safety and security” were ranked as the second and third most important attributes. For international

tourists, “variety of golf courses” was the least important attribute, followed by “Phuket festivals and events,” and “visit the Tsunami site.”

This study found that after the Tsunami, respondents paid more attention to the “safety and security” attribute (mean score = 6.03) when compared with before the Tsunami occurred (mean score = 5.31), to the “security and safety at accommodation” (mean score = 5.83; before the Tsunami mean score = 5.31), and to “disaster protection and warning system” (mean score = 5.66; before the Tsunami mean score = 4.19). The results suggest that all stakeholders at both local and national levels implement safety and security systems and disaster protection systems in order to enhance Phuket’s image as a safe destination.

Several attributes remained low in importance to respondents after the Tsunami. “Variety of spa/massage/healing options,” “variety of outdoor recreation,” “scenic views,” “variety of marine sports and activities,” “historical and cultural sites of Phuket,” “visiting the Tsunami site,” and “Phuket festivals and events” received mean scores ranging from 4.96 to 4.04. The perception of “variety of golf courses” was very weak in respondents’ minds, with a mean score of only 2.74.

Perceived Image Differences before and after the Tsunami

The paired-samples t test for two dependent samples was employed to determine whether there is a significant difference in the importance of attributes before and after the Tsunami. As shown in Table 24, the results of the test indicate a statistically significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between the perception of how important each attribute was in attracting international tourists to visit Phuket before the Tsunami and after the Tsunami.

Significant differences between the groups were found for twenty-seven attributes: "variety of accommodation options," "security and safety at accommodation," "reasonable price of accommodation," "variety of beaches and islands," "historical and cultural sites of Phuket," "scenic views," "parks and nature in Phuket," "reasonable prices for sightseeing," "variety of marine sports and activities," "variety of golf courses," "Phuket festivals and events," "variety of outdoor recreation," "variety of spa/massage/healing options," "availability of daily tour services to other destinations and attractions," "safety and security," "beautiful scenery," "disaster protection and warning system," "cleanliness of beaches and sea," "availability of space on beaches," "availability of facilities on beaches," "ease of access," "convenience of local transportation system," "availability of travel information," "variety of shops," "reasonable price of merchandise," "variety of cuisine," and "reasonable price of meals." Travelers who visited Phuket after the Tsunami perceived these attributes as being much more important in their decision to visit the island than did those who traveled to Phuket before the Tsunami.

Table 24: Image Differences before the Tsunami and after the Tsunami

Attributes	Before Tsunami (N=269)		After Tsunami (N=269)		Mean Difference	t value	Sig(2 tailed)	95% Confidence Interval	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				Lower	Upper
Variety of accommodation options	**4.99**	1.42	**5.16**	1.36	-0.18	**-3.64**	**.000**	-0.28	-0.08
Security and safety at accommodation	**5.31**	1.38	**5.66**	1.26	-0.35	**-6.29**	**0.00**	-0.46	-0.24
Location of accommodation	5.39	1.39	5.53	1.30	-0.13	-1.87	0.06	-0.27	0.01
Reasonable price of accommodation	**5.36**	1.29	**5.56**	1.16	-0.21	**-3.81**	**0.00**	-0.31	-0.10
Variety of beaches and islands	**5.38**	1.29	**5.53**	1.23	-0.15	**-2.67**	**0.01**	-0.26	-0.04
Historical and cultural sites of Phuket	**4.32**	1.53	**4.58**	1.64	-0.26	**-4.12**	**0.00**	-0.38	-0.13
Variety of entertainment & amusements	4.92	1.49	5.04	1.46	-0.12	-1.81	0.07	-0.25	0.01
Scenic views	**4.74**	1.67	**4.89**	1.71	-0.15	**-2.73**	**0.01**	-0.27	-0.04
Parks and nature in Phuket	**4.89**	1.48	**5.12**	1.44	-0.22	**-4.00**	**0.00**	-0.33	-0.11
Reasonable price for sightseeing	**4.94**	1.28	**5.10**	1.35	-0.16	**-3.03**	**0.00**	-0.26	-0.06
Variety of marine sports and activities	**4.64**	1.61	**4.81**	1.69	-0.17	**-2.48**	**0.01**	-0.30	-0.03
Variety of golf courses	**2.92**	1.88	**3.17**	2.07	-0.25	**-4.82**	**0.00**	-0.35	-0.15
Phuket festivals and events	**4.00**	1.61	**4.23**	1.73	-0.23	**-4.45**	**0.00**	-0.33	-0.13
Variety of outdoor recreation	**4.92**	1.27	**5.13**	1.33	-0.21	**-3.70**	**0.00**	-0.32	-0.10
Variety of spa/massage/healing options	**4.69**	1.55	**4.91**	1.65	-0.22	**-4.85**	**0.00**	-0.31	-0.13
Variety of evening entertainment	5.08	1.39	5.15	1.44	-0.07	-1.39	0.17	-0.17	0.03
Availability of daily tour services to other destinations and attractions	**4.86**	1.47	**4.97**	1.46	-0.12	**-2.38**	**0.02**	-0.21	-0.02
Reasonable price for activities and events	5.31	1.18	5.38	1.16	-0.07	-1.48	0.14	-0.16	0.02

Safety and security	**5.32**	1.42	**5.88**	1.20	-0.55	**-9.25**	**0.00**	-0.67	-0.44
Beautiful scenery (sun, sand, sea)	**5.94**	1.12	**6.08**	0.99	-0.13	**-2.53**	**0.01**	-0.24	-0.03
Disaster protection and warning system	**4.19**	1.62	**5.90**	1.33	-1.71	**-17.9**	**0.00**	-1.90	-1.53
Cleanliness of beaches and sea	**5.80**	1.22	**6.12**	0.96	-0.32	**-6.19**	**0.00**	-0.42	-0.22
Availability of space on beaches	**5.49**	1.16	**5.65**	1.09	-0.16	**-3.95**	**0.00**	-0.24	-0.08
Availability of facilities on beaches	**5.04**	1.36	**5.30**	1.36	-0.26	**-5.43**	**0.00**	-0.35	-0.17
Ease of access	**4.97**	1.21	**5.21**	1.21	-0.24	**-4.98**	**0.00**	-0.33	-0.14
Convenience of local transportation system	**5.01**	1.36	**5.43**	1.30	-0.42	**-6.27**	**0.00**	-0.56	-0.29
Availability of travel information	**5.02**	1.38	**5.33**	1.30	-0.32	**-6.03**	**0.00**	-0.42	-0.21
Variety of shops	**5.01**	1.37	**5.14**	1.50	-0.13	**-2.33**	**0.02**	-0.23	-0.02
Reasonable price of merchandise	**5.19**	1.21	**5.33**	1.26	-0.14	**-2.33**	**0.01**	-0.25	-0.03
Variety of cuisine	**5.50**	1.25	**5.84**	1.11	-0.34	**-5.72**	**0.00**	-0.45	-0.22
Reasonable price of meals	**5.56**	1.16	**5.91**	0.99	-0.35	**-5.94**	**0.00**	-0.47	-0.23

The results reveal a significant difference in the perception of "variety of accommodation options" before and after the Tsunami. The paired samples t test, applied to the overall variety of accommodation scores, yielded a value of -3.64, which is significant at the .05 level. Travelers who visited Phuket after the Tsunami rated the importance of "variety of accommodation options" higher (mean=5.16) than those who visited before the Tsunami (mean = 4.99). The results of the paired samples t test also indicate a significant difference in the perception of "security and safety at accommodation" between those who visited Phuket before and after the Tsunami ($t = -6.29$, $p \leq 0.00$). Travelers who visited Phuket after the Tsunami rated the importance of "security and safety at accommodation" higher (mean = 5.66) than those who visited before the Tsunami (mean = 5.31).

Moreover, the paired samples t-test found significant differences in the perception of the following attributes: "reasonable price of accommodation" ($t = -3.81$, $p \leq 0.00$), "variety of beaches and islands" ($t = -2.67$, $p \leq .01$), "historical and cultural sites of Phuket" ($t = -4.12$, $p \leq 0.00$), "scenic views"($t = -2.73$, $p \leq 0.01$), "parks and nature in Phuket" ($t = -4.00$, $p \leq 0.00$), "reasonable prices for sightseeing" ($t = -3.03$, $p \leq 0.00$), "variety of marine sports and activities" ($t = -2.48$, $p \leq 0.01$), "variety of golf courses" ($t = -4.82$, $p \leq 0.00$), "Phuket festivals and events" ($t = -4.45$, $p \leq 0.00$), "variety of outdoor recreation" ($t = -3.7$, $p \leq 0.00$), "variety of spa/massage/healing options" ($t = -4.85$, $p \leq 0.00$), "availability of daily tour services to other destinations and attractions" ($t = -2.38$, $p \leq 0.02$), "safety and security" ($t = -9.25$, $p \leq 0.00$), "beautiful scenery" ($t = -2.53$, $p \leq 0.01$), "disaster protection and warning system" ($t = -17.90$, $p \leq 0.00$), "cleanliness of beaches and sea" ($t = -6.19$, $p \leq 0.00$), "available of space on beaches" ($t = -3.95$, $p \leq 0.00$), "availability of facilities on beaches" ($t = -5.43$, $p \leq 0.00$), "ease of access" ($t = -4.98$, $p \leq 0.00$), "convenience of local transportation system" ($t = -6.27$, $p \leq 0.00$), "availability of travel information" ($t = -6.03$, $p \leq 0.00$), "variety of shops" ($t = -2.33$, $p \leq 0.02$), "reasonable price of merchandise" ($t = -2.32$, $p \leq 0.01$), "variety of cuisine" ($t = -5.72$, $p \leq 0.00$), and "reasonable price of meals" ($t = -5.94$, $p \leq 0.00$). In each of these cases, travelers who visited Phuket after the Tsunami rated the importance of these attributes higher than those who visited before the Tsunami.

Underlying Dimensions of the Perceived Image of Phuket before the Tsunami

To verify the dimensions of the perceived image of Phuket before the Tsunami, exploratory factor analysis was performed. Factor analysis helps obtain a relatively smaller number of dimensions that explain most of the variations among the important attributes that attracted travelers to visit Phuket.

Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

To assess whether the data were suitable and appropriate for common factor analysis, the data set was examined to ensure that assumptions were met. Three techniques were used to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis. The following criteria need to be met for the data to be considered appropriate for factor analysis: (1) a correlation coefficient of 0.30 or above in the correlation matrix, (2) the value of Bartlett's test of sphericity (using a chi-square test) at the significant level of ($p<0.05$), and (3) a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy index (MSA) of 0.60 or greater.

Table 25 shows that the Bartlett Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy indicated the appropriateness of using an exploratory factor analysis for the set of attributes perceived as being important. The Bartlett Test of Sphericity showed a value of 4063.17 at a significance level of .00, indicating that a nonzero correlation exists among variables. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was above .60, indicating that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

Table 25: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Perceived Image of Phuket before the Tsunami

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	**0.87**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approx. Chi-Square	**4063.17**
Df	**465**
Sig	**0.00**

Factor Extraction

The criteria to determine the smallest number of factors that can be used to best represent the inter-relations among the variables in the set were based on the size of eigenvalues and the pattern of factor loading. All factors to be retained must have an eigenvalue greater than one.

Factor Rotation and Interpretation

The Principal Component Analysis with eigenvalues greater than one was rotated by the varimax analysis. Only factor loadings of 0.40 or higher were retained, indicating good correlations between the items and the factors to which they belonged (Hair et al., 1998). The final factor analysis generated five factors, consisting of 19 items, which accounted for 64.38 percent of the total variance (see Table 26).

Factor Reliability

To test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was performed and the factors with alpha of 0.60 were retained for further analysis (Kline, 1994). The Cronbach's alphas for the five factors were robust, ranging from 0.66 to 0.80, which indicates high internal consistency among the variables within each factor.

Table 26: Underlying Dimensions of the Perceived Image of Phuket before the Tsunami

Attributes	Factor Loadings	Eigen value	Variance Explained	Cronbach's α
Factor 1: Accessibility and Price		6.54	34.43%	.80
Ease of access	.78			
Reasonable price of meals	.75			
Variety of cuisine	.71			
Availability of space on beaches	.68			
Availability of facilities on beaches	.64			
Reasonable price of merchandise	.63			
Convenience of local transportation system	.60			
Factor 2: Entertainment and Relaxation		1.81	9.51%	.71
Variety of evening entertainment	.75			
Variety of entertainment & amusements	.71			
Variety of shops	.60			
Variety of spa/massage/healing options	.47			
Factor 3: Accommodation, Beaches, and Islands		1.50	7.90%	.66
Variety of accommodation options	.74			
Location of accommodation	.68			
Variety of beaches and islands	.64			
Factor 4: Outdoor Activities and Historic Attractions		1.31	6.87%	.69
Variety of outdoor recreation	.75			
Parks and nature in Phuket	.74			
Historical and cultural sites of Phuket	.71			
Factor 5: Safety and Security		1.08	5.68%	.78
Safety and security	.82			
Security and safety at accommodation	.76			
Total variance explained			64.38%	

As shown in Table 26, five factors represented 64.38% of the total variance. These five factors are "Accessibility and Price," "Entertainment and Relaxation," "Accommodation, Beaches, and Islands," "Outdoor Activities and Historic Attractions," and "Safety and Security."

Factor 1, "Accessibility and Price," had an eigenvalue of 6.54 and explained 34.43% of the total variance. It consisted of seven items: "ease of access," "reasonable price of meals," "variety of cuisine," "availability of space on beaches," "availability of facilities on beaches," "reasonable price of merchandise," and

"convenience of local transportation system." The alpha coefficient, which was 0.80, is considered acceptable as it is greater than 0.60.

Factor 2, "Entertainment and Relaxation," captured 9.51% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 1.81. It contained four items: "variety of evening entertainment," "variety of entertainment and amusements," "variety of shops," and "variety of spa/massage/healing options." The alpha of 0.71 is considered acceptable.

Factor 3, "Accommodation, Beaches, and Islands," included three items: "variety of accommodation options," "location of accommodation," and "variety of beaches and islands." It explained 7.90% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 1.50. The alpha coefficient was 0.66 and well within the acceptable range.

Factor 4 was "Outdoor Activities and Historic Attractions." It contained three items and explained 6.87% of the variance in the data with an eigenvalue of 1.31. The three items were "variety of outdoor recreation," "parks and nature in Phuket," and "historical and cultural sites of Phuket." The alpha was 0.69.

Factor 5, "Safety and Security," included two items: "safety and security" and "security and safety at accommodation." It represented 5.68% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 1.08. The alpha coefficient was 0.78.

Underlying Dimensions of the Perceived Image of Phuket after the Tsunami

To verify the dimensions of the perceived image of Phuket after the Tsunami, exploratory factor analysis was performed. Factor analysis helps obtain a relatively smaller number of dimensions that explain most of the variations among the important attributes that attracted travelers to visit Phuket after the Tsunami.

Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

To assess whether the data were suitable for common factor analysis, the data set was examined to ensure that assumptions were met. Three techniques were used to assess the suitability of data for factor analysis. The following criteria need to be met for the data to be considered appropriate for factor analysis: (1) a correlation coefficient of 0.30 or above in the correlation matrix, (2) the value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (using a chi-square test) at the significant level of ($p<0.05$), and (3) a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy index (MSA) of 0.60 or greater.

Table 27 shows that the Bartlett Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy indicate the appropriateness of using an exploratory factor analysis for the set of attributes perceived as being important. The Bartlett Test of Sphericity shows a value of 7121.21 at a significance level of .00, indicating that a nonzero correlation exists among variables. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was above .60, indicating that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

Table 27: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Perceived Image of Phuket after the Tsunami

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	**0.87**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approx. Chi-Square	**7121.21**
Df	**496**
Sig	**0.00**

Factor Extraction

The criteria to determine the smallest number of factors that can be used to best represent the inter-relatedness among the variables were the size of eigenvalues and the pattern of factor loading. Factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1 were considered significant. Five factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extracted.

Factor Rotation and Interpretation

The Principal Component Analysis with eigenvalues greater than one was rotated by the varimax analysis. Only factor loadings of 0.40 or higher were retained, indicating good correlations between the items and the factors to which they belong (Hair et al., 1998). The final factor analysis generated five factors, consisting of 32 items, which accounted for 57.02 percent of the total variance (see Table 28).

Factor Reliability

To test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was found and the factors with alpha of 0.60 were retained for further analysis (Kline, 1994). The Cronbach's alphas for the five factors were robust,

ranging from 0.60 to 0.74, which indicates high internal consistency among the variables within each factor.

Table 28: Underlying Dimensions of the Perceived Image of Phuket after the Tsunami

Attributes	Factor Loadings	Eigen value	Variance Explained	Cronbach's α
Factor 1: Outdoor Activities and Attractions		4.89	27.14%	.73
Parks and nature in Phuket	.76			
Scenic views	.71			
Historical and cultural sites of Phuket	.70			
Variety of outdoor recreation	.55			
Factor 2: Accessibility and Infrastructure		1.81	10.05%	.70
Availability of facilities on beaches	.78			
Availability of space on beaches	.77			
Ease of access	.63			
Variety of cuisine	.40			
Factor 3: Safety and Security		1.30	7.20%	.74
Security and safety at accommodation	.84			
Safety and security	.84			
Disaster protection and warning system	.65			
Factor 4: Entertainment and Relaxation		1.19	6.61%	.72
Variety of evening entertainment	.86			
Variety of entertainment & amusements	.72			
Variety of spa/massage/healing options	.45			
Factor 5: Price and Value		1.08	6.02%	.70
Reasonable price for activities and events	.73			
Reasonable price of accommodation	.72			
Convenience of local transportation system	.47			
Total variance explained			57.02%	

As shown in Table 28, five factors explain 57.02% of the total variance. These five factors are "Outdoor Activities and Attractions," "Accessibility and Infrastructure," "Safety and Security," "Entertainment and Relaxation," and "Price and Value."

Factor 1 was labeled "Outdoor Activities and Attractions." It accounted for 27.14% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 4.89 and an alpha coefficient of 0.73. It included four items: "parks and nature in Phuket," "scenic views," "historical and cultural sites of Phuket," and "variety of outdoor recreation."

Factor 2 was labeled “Accessibility and Infrastructure.” It represented 10.05% of the total variance explained with an eigenvalue of 1.81 and an alpha coefficient of 0.70. It included four items: “availability of facilities on beaches,” “availability of space on beaches,” “ease of access,” and “variety of cuisine.”

Factor 3, “Safety and Security,” accounted for 7.20% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 1.30 and an alpha coefficient of 0.74. Three items are included in this factor: “security and safety at accommodation,” “safety and security,” and “disaster protection and warning system.”

Factor 4, “Entertainment and Relaxation,” consisted of three items: “variety of evening entertainment,” “variety of entertainment and amusements,” and “variety of spa/massage/healing options.” It accounted for 6.61% of the total variance with an eigenvalue of 1.19. The alpha coefficient was 0.72 and greater than the threshold of .60, indicating that the reliability is considered acceptable.

Factor 5 was labeled “Price and Value.” It contained three items and explained 6.02% of the variance in the data with an eigenvalue of 1.08 and an alpha coefficient of 0.70. The three items included were “reasonable price for activities and events,” “reasonable price of accommodation,” and “convenience of local transportation system.”

Underlying Dimensions of Travel Motivation

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to describe and summarize the data related to travel motivation by grouping variables that correlate with one another. Factor analysis helps obtain a relatively smaller number of dimensions that explain most of the variation among the travel motivation attributes.

Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

To assess whether the data were suitable and appropriate for common factor analysis, the data set was examined to ensure that assumptions were met. Three techniques were used to assess the suitability of data for factor analysis. The following criteria must be met for the data to be considered appropriate for factor analysis: (1) a correlation coefficient of 0.30 or above in the correlation matrix, (2) the value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (using a chi-square test) at the significance level of ($p<0.05$), and (3) a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy index (MSA) of 0.60 or greater.

Table 29 shows that the Bartlett Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy indicate the appropriateness of using an exploratory factor analysis for the set of travel motivation attributes. The Bartlett Test of Sphericity shows a value of 10479.05 at a significance level of .00, indicating that a nonzero correlation exists among variables. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was above .60, indicating that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

Table 29: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Travel Motivation Attributes

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	**0.87**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approx. Chi-Square	**10479.05**
Df	**528**
Sig	**0.00**

Factor Extraction

The criteria to determine the smallest number of factors that can be used to best represent the inter-relatedness among the variables were the size of eigenvalues and the pattern of factor loading. All factors to be retained must have an eigenvalue greater than one.

Factor Rotation and Interpretation

The Principal Component Analysis with eigenvalues greater than one was rotated by the varimax analysis. Only factor loadings of 0.40 or higher were retained, indicating good correlations between the items and the factors to which they belonged (Hair et al., 1998). The final factor analysis generated six factors, consisting of 24 items, which accounted for 66.80 percent of the total variance (see Table 30).

Factor Reliability

To test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was obtained and the factors with alpha of 0.60 were retained for further analysis (Kline, 1994). The Cronbach's alphas for the six factors were robust, ranging from 0.71 to 0.87, which indicates high internal consistency among the variables within each factor.

Table 30: Underlying Dimensions of Travel Motivation

Attributes	Factor Loadings	Eigen value	Variance Explained	Cronbach's α
Factor 1: Cultural Events and Place Exploration		6.90	28.75%	.87
Enjoy culture in its cultural/historic setting	.87			
Know about cultural events	.85			
Experience different cultures	.81			
Visit new and exciting place	.61			
Take advantage of reduced fares and special package	.60			
Visit places important in history (e.g., Tsunami site)	.59			
Visit festivals and/or special events	.58			
Factor 2: Socialization		2.40	10.01%	.76
Visit friends and relatives	.79			
Share a familiar place with other	.73			
Return to favorite vacation site	.69			
Mix with fellow tourists	.44			
Factor 3: Relaxation		2.21	9.19%	.78
Relaxation	.79			
Get recharged	.77			
Be able to do nothing	.76			
Release tension	.75			
Factor 4: Excitement		1.58	6.59%	.74
Be entertained	.78			
Do exciting things	.78			
Do a specific activity	.65			
Engage in sports	.47			
Factor 5: Leisure and Romance		1.34	5.58%	.71
Spend time with someone special	.85			
Have time for romance	.78			
Eat good food	.47			
Factor 6: Escape		1.13	4.69%	.76
Get away from crowds	.86			
Experience unpolluted/natural surrounding	.80			
Total variance explained			66.80%	

As shown in Table 30, six factors explained 66.80% of the total variance. These six factors are "Cultural Events and Place Exploration," "Socialization," "Relaxation," "Excitement," "Leisure and Romance," and "Escape."

Factor 1, “Cultural Events and Place Exploration,” contained seven items and explained 28.75% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 6.90. The seven items were “enjoy culture in its cultural/historic setting,” “know about cultural events,” “experience different cultures,” “visit new and exciting places,” “take advantage of reduced fares and special packages,” “visit places important in history (e.g., Tsunami site),” and “visit festivals and/or special events.” Alpha was calculated to be 0.87, and as it is greater than 0.60, it is considered acceptable.

Factor 2, “Socialization,” contained four items and explained 10.01% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 2.40. The four items were “visit friends and relatives,” “share a familiar place with others,” “return to a favorite vacation site,” and “mix with fellow tourists.” Alpha was calculated to be 0.76, and as it is greater than 0.60, it is considered acceptable.

Factor 3 was labeled “Relaxation.” It contained four items and explained 9.188% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 2.21. The four items were “relaxation,” “get recharged,” “be able to do nothing,” and “release tension.” Alpha was calculated to be 0.78. Because it is greater than 0.60, it is considered acceptable.

Factor 4 was “Excitement,” which contained four items and explained 6.59% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 1.58. The four items were “be entertained,” “do exciting things,” “do a specific activity,” and “engage in sports.” Alpha was calculated to be 0.74, and as it is greater than 0.60, it is considered acceptable.

Factor 5, “Leisure and Romance” contained three items and explained 5.58% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 1.34. The three items were “spend time with someone special,” “have time for romance,” and “eat good food.” Alpha was calculated to be 0.71, which is acceptable because it is greater than 0.60.

Factor 6 was named "Escape." It contained two items and explained 4.69% of the variance in the data, with an eigenvalue of 1.13. The two items were "get away from crowds" and "experience unpolluted/natural surrounding." Alpha was calculated to be 0.76; it is acceptable because it is greater than 0.60.

Travel Motivation Differences by Number of Visits

To determine whether there is a significant difference in the travel motivations between first-time and repeat travelers, the Independent Sample Mean t-test was employed. In addition, the Levene's test was performed to check for the homogeneity of variance assumption. The Levene's test showed there were unequal variances in five out of thirty-three travel motivation attributes (see Table 31). Therefore, the separate-variance t test for means (the equal variances not assumed) was used for comparing means of these four attributes (SPSS, 1999).

The results of the independent sample t-tests revealed a significant difference in the "relaxation" motivation between first-time and repeat travelers ($t = -2.58$, $p \leq 0.01$). Repeat travelers were more motivated by "relaxation" than were first-time travelers. The finding is consistent with the previous literature. Gitelson & Crompton (1984) reported that repeat travelers were more likely to be seeking relaxation. The results of the independent sample t-tests also indicated a significant difference in the following attributes: "do specific activity" ($t = -2.89$, $p \leq 0.00$), "visit friends and relatives" ($t = -7.25$, $p \leq 0.00$), "share a familiar place with others" ($t = -6.49$, $p \leq 0.00$), "return to favorite vacation site" ($t = -11.42$, $p \leq 0.00$), "do something with family" ($t = -3.80$, $p \leq 0.00$), "eat good food" ($t = -2.03$, $p \leq 0.04$), "spend time with someone special" ($t = -2.4$, $p \leq 0.02$), "have time for romance" ($t = -2.68$, $p \leq 0.01$), "spend time with family and friends" ($t = -3.67$, $p \leq 0.00$), "build friendship with

others" (t = -2.59, p ≤ 0.01), "mix with fellow tourists" (t = -1.99, p ≤ 0.05), and "visit places important in history" (t = -2.56, p ≤ 0.01). In each of these cases, repeat travelers were more motivated than were first-time travelers.

Moreover, significant differences were also found in the following attributes: "do exciting things" (t = 2.70, p≤ 0.01), "experience new/different places" (t = 5.97, p = 0.00), "visit new and exciting places" (t = 6.60, p ≤ 0.00), "engage in special activities" (t = 2.15, p ≤ 0.03), "experience different cultures" (t = 3.18, p ≤ 0.00), and "enjoy culture in its cultural/historic setting" (t = 2.97, p ≤ 0.00). In each of these cases, repeat travelers were less motivated than were first-time travelers.

Table 31: Travel Motivation Differences by Number of Visits

Attributes	**First Time Travelers (N=309)**		**Repeat Travelers (N=291)**		**Mean Difference**	**t value**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**95% Confidence Interval**	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				Lower	Upper
Relaxation	**5.96**	1.02	**6.18**	1.01	-0.22	**-2.58**	**0.01**	0.052	0.39
Get recharged	5.83	1.32	5.64	1.20	0.19	1.84	0.07	-0.01	0.39
Be able to do nothing	5.21	1.67	5.32	1.38	-0.11	-0.90	0.37	-0.36	0.13
Release tension	5.49	1.42	5.48	1.32	0.00	0.04	0.97	-0.22	0.22
Have privacy	5.11	1.49	5.09	1.42	0.02	0.20	0.84	-0.21	0.26
Do exciting things	**5.34**	1.45	**5.01**	1.54	0.33	**2.70**	**0.01**	0.09	0.57
Be entertained	4.91	1.50	4.93	1.51	-0.03	-0.21	0.84	-0.27	0.22
Do a specific activity	**4.46**	1.70	**4.85**	1.57	-0.39	-2.89	**0.00**	-0.65	-0.12

Get away from crowds	5.05	1.58	4.98	1.69	0.07	0.54	0.59	-0.19	0.33
Experience unpolluted/ natural surrounding	5.59	1.38	5.52	1.27	0.06	0.58	0.56	-0.15	0.28
Get away from pressures and responsibilities	5.70	1.51	5.81	1.32	-0.11	-0.91	0.36	-0.33	0.12
Visit friends and relatives	**2.79**	2.09	**4.03**	2.11	-1.25	**-7.25**	**0.00**	-1.58	-0.91
Share a familiar place with others	**3.50**	1.99	**4.53**	1.90	-1.03	**-6.49**	**0.00**	-1.34	-0.72
Return to favorite vacation site*	**3.44**	2.06	**5.19**	1.65	-1.75	**-11.42**	**0.00**	-2.05	-1.45
Do something with family*	**4.04**	2.33	**4.71**	1.95	-0.67	**-3.80**	**0.00**	-1.01	-0.32
Eat good food*	**5.56**	1.62	**5.80**	1.24	-0.24	**-2.03**	**0.04**	-0.47	-0.01
Go shopping	4.80	1.74	4.90	1.65	-0.10	-0.73	0.47	-0.37	0.17
Have lots of different things to see and do	5.41	1.37	5.24	1.48	0.17	1.49	0.14	-0.06	0.40
Experience new/ different places	**5.86**	1.30	**5.18**	1.50	0.68	**5.97**	**0.00**	0.46	0.91
Visit new and exciting place	**5.86**	1.29	**5.10**	1.55	0.77	**6.60**	**0.00**	0.54	1.00
Spend time with someone special	**5.00**	1.94	**5.34**	1.54	-0.34	**-2.40**	**0.02**	-0.63	-0.06

Have time for romance*	**4.77**	2.06	**5.18**	1.71	-0.42	**-2.68**	**0.01**	-0.72	-0.11
Spend time with family and friend*	**4.79**	1.98	**5.33**	1.64	-0.55	**-3.67**	**0.00**	-0.84	-0.25
Build friendship with others	**4.20**	1.90	**4.59**	1.75	-0.39	**-2.59**	**0.01**	-0.68	-0.09
Mix with fellow tourists	**3.81**	1.83	**4.11**	1.88	-0.30	**-1.99**	**0.05**	-0.60	0.00
Engage in sports*	4.06	1.91	3.91	1.96	0.15	0.94	0.35	-0.16	0.46
Visit festivals and/or special events*	3.95	1.83	3.97	1.72	-0.03	-0.19	0.85	-0.31	0.26
Engage in special activities	**4.39**	1.73	**4.08**	1.75	0.31	**2.15**	**0.03**	0.03	0.59
Experience different cultures	**5.46**	1.54	**5.07**	1.47	0.39	**3.18**	**0.00**	0.15	0.63
Enjoy culture in its cultural/ historic setting	**5.09**	1.57	**4.71**	1.62	0.39	**2.97**	**0.00**	0.13	0.64
Know about cultural events*	4.66	1.68	4.52	1.62	0.15	1.10	0.27	-0.12	0.41
Take advantage of reduced fares and special package*	4.48	1.92	4.54	1.75	-0.05	-0.36	0.72	-0.35	0.24
Visit places important in history (e.g., Tsunami site)	**4.33**	1.81	**4.71**	1.84	-0.38	**-2.56**	**0.01**	-0.67	-0.09

Note: * equal variances are assumed for these t-tests.

Applicability of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) Model to Tourism

The main objective of this study was to empirically test the applicability of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) model in predicting tourist behavior intention toward a destination recovering from debilitating Tsunami. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied in order to test four hypotheses that were based on a comprehensive review of the literature.

In Chapter 2, the literature review discussed the theoretical foundation for the interrelationships among the latent constructs in the proposed model. In this model a positive attitude, a subjective norm, and perceived behavior control toward a destination are posited to positively affect a tourist behavior intention.

Measurement Items

Descriptive statistics for the measurement items of the latent constructs were assessed. Table 32 presents the mean value, the standard deviation of each measurement item, and the reliability alpha for each construct. The mean value of the five measures of "attitude toward destination" ranged from 5.31 to 6.04 with a reliability alpha value of 0.91. The mean value of the four items of "subjective norm" ranged from 4.77 to 5.53 with a reliability alpha value of 0.86. The four indicators of "perceived behavior control" showed a mean value ranging from 4.48 to 5.88 with a reliability alpha value of 0.72. Lastly, the four measures of "behavior intention" showed a mean value ranging from 4.24 to 5.87 with a reliability alpha value of 0.81. The Cronbach's alphas for all constructs were robust, ranging from 0.72 to 0.91, above the generally agreed upon lower limit of 0.60 (Kline, 1994). These results demonstrate that the scale is appropriate for further analysis.

Table 32: Descriptive Statistics for the Measurement Items of Latent Constructs

	Reliability	Mean	SD
Attitude	0.91		
AT1: For me visiting Phuket was unenjoyable (1)/enjoyable (7)		6.04	1.08
AT2: For me visiting Phuket was boring (1)/fun (7)		5.59	1.60
AT3: For me visiting Phuket was unpleasant (1)/pleasant (7)		5.52	1.61
AT4: For me visiting Phuket was harmful (1)/beneficial (7)		5.31	1.59
AT5: For me visiting Phuket was unfavorable (1)/favorable (7)		5.54	1.55
Subjective norm	0.86		
SN1: Most people I know choose Phuket as a travel destination.		4.77	1.78
SN2: Members of my family think it is a good idea to choose Phuket as a travel destination.		5.22	1.55
SN3: Members of my family approve of my visiting Phuket.		5.50	1.44
SN4: Most of my friends and acquaintances think that choosing Phuket as a travel destination is a good idea.		5.53	1.39
Perceived behavioral control	0.72		
PBC1: If I want, I could easily visit Phuket from now on (after crisis recovery).		5.74	1.15
PBC2: It is mostly up to me whether or not I select Phuket as my travel destination (after crisis recovery).		5.88	1.10
PBC3: Visiting Phuket is totally under my control even in case of crisis (Tsunami, Bird Flu, SARS-Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, and terrorist in Southern Thailand).		5.67	1.23
PBC4: A recovery campaign (reduced fares and special packages) factored in selecting Phuket as my travel destination.		4.48	1.85
Behavior intention	0.81		
BI1: I intend to select Phuket as my travel destination in the future.		5.70	1.33
BI2: I would be willing to pay a higher rate to visit Phuket.		4.24	1.60
BI3: I will recommend Phuket to others.		5.87	1.16
BI4: I will revisit Phuket.		5.78	1.36

Table 33 shows that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavior were all significantly correlated to behavior intention.

Table 33: Correlation Matrix

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Attitude	-			
(2) Subjective norm	.13**	-		
(3) Perceived behavioral control	.22**	.10*	-	
(4) Behavior intention	.33**	.27**	.45**	-

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to assess the adequacy of the measurement model. Overall model fit shows the degree to which the specified indicators represent the hypothesized constructs. The following are the overall model fit measures. 1) Chi-square (χ^2) test and absolute fit measures include the goodness-of-fit (GFI) index. These indices directly assess how well an a priori model reproduces the sample data. 2) Incremental fit measures include the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Normed Fit Index (NFI). These indices measure the proportionate improvement in fit by comparing a target model with a more restricted, nested baseline model. Finally, 3) parsimonious fit measures include the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The parsimonious indices are non-independent of both absolute fit measures and incremental fit measures because some of the absolute fit and incremental fit indices have already adjusted their formulas for the degrees of freedom.

To assess the adequacy of the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed. The fit between the structural model and the data was evaluated by the goodness of fit indices, including goodness of fit (GFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the normed fit index (NFI).

The various fit indices of the measurement model ($\chi^2 = 131.79$, df = 64, $p < .001$; GFI = 0.97; RMSEA = 0.054; CFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.98) implied that the model provided a good fit to the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Because the proposed measurement model achieved an acceptable fit, each of the constructs was evaluated by 1) assessing the convergent validity of the constructs by examining the statistical significance of the indicator loading and 2) assessing the

reliability coefficients of the study's constructs by examining the composite construct reliability (CCR). Construct validity was evaluated by examining the statistical significance of each estimated loading and the CCR (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

As shown in Table 34, factor loadings on latent constructs provided evidence of convergent validity, which demonstrates satisfactory item convergence on the intended constructs. All indicators loaded significantly on their specified construct. CCR was also computed for the latent constructs. All four constructs surpassed the threshold value of 0.70. Taken together, these results indicate that the proposed measurement model is appropriate for further analysis.

Table 34: Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	Standardized Loadings	*t*-value	CCR [b]
Attitude			.93
AT1[a]: For me visiting Phuket was unenjoyable (1)/enjoyable (7)	-	-	
AT2: For me visiting Phuket was boring (1)/fun (7)	.81	18.19	
AT3: For me visiting Phuket was unpleasant (1)/pleasant (7)	.91	20.29	
AT4: For me visiting Phuket was harmful (1)/beneficial (7)	.85	18.95	
AT5: For me visiting Phuket was unfavorable (1)/favorable (7)	.90	20.12	
Subjective norm			.77
SN1: Most people I know choose Phuket as a travel destination.	.51	8.78	
SN2: Members of my family think it is a good idea to choose Phuket as a travel destination.	.75	12.58	
SN3: Members of my family approve of my visiting Phuket.	.79	13.09	
SN4: Most of my friends and acquaintances think that choosing Phuket as a travel destination is a good idea.	.77	13.21	
Perceived behavioral control			.70
PBC1: If I want, I could easily visit Phuket from now on (after crisis recovery).	.86	17.07	
PBC2: It is mostly up to me whether or not I select Phuket as my travel destination (after crisis recovery).	.59	12.50	
PBC3: Visiting Phuket is totally under my control even in case of crisis (Tsunami, Bird Flu, SARS-Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, and terrorist in Southern Thailand).	.51	10.17	
PBC4 [a]: A recovery campaign (reduced fares and special packages) factored in selecting Phuket as my travel destination.	-	-	
Behavior intention			.77
BI1: I intend to select Phuket as my travel destination in the future.	.70	15.57	
BI2 [a]: I would be willing to pay a higher rate to visit Phuket.	-	-	
BI3: I will recommend Phuket to others.	.77	18.00	
BI4: I will revisit Phuket.	.77	17.59	

Note: $\chi^2 = 131.79$, d.f. = 64 ($p < .001$), GFI=.97, RMSEA=.054, CFI=.99, NFI=.98.
a. The item was deleted after reliability test.
b. CCR: Composite construct reliability.

Structural Model

Since the proposed measurement relationships were consistent with the data, the structural model was evaluated. An examination of the structural model involves significance tests for the estimated coefficients (paths), which provide the basis for accepting or rejecting the proposed relationships between latent constructs. Table 35 shows the results of the model estimation with parameter estimates of the hypothesized paths, standard path coefficient, t-values, and goodness of fit indices for the model.

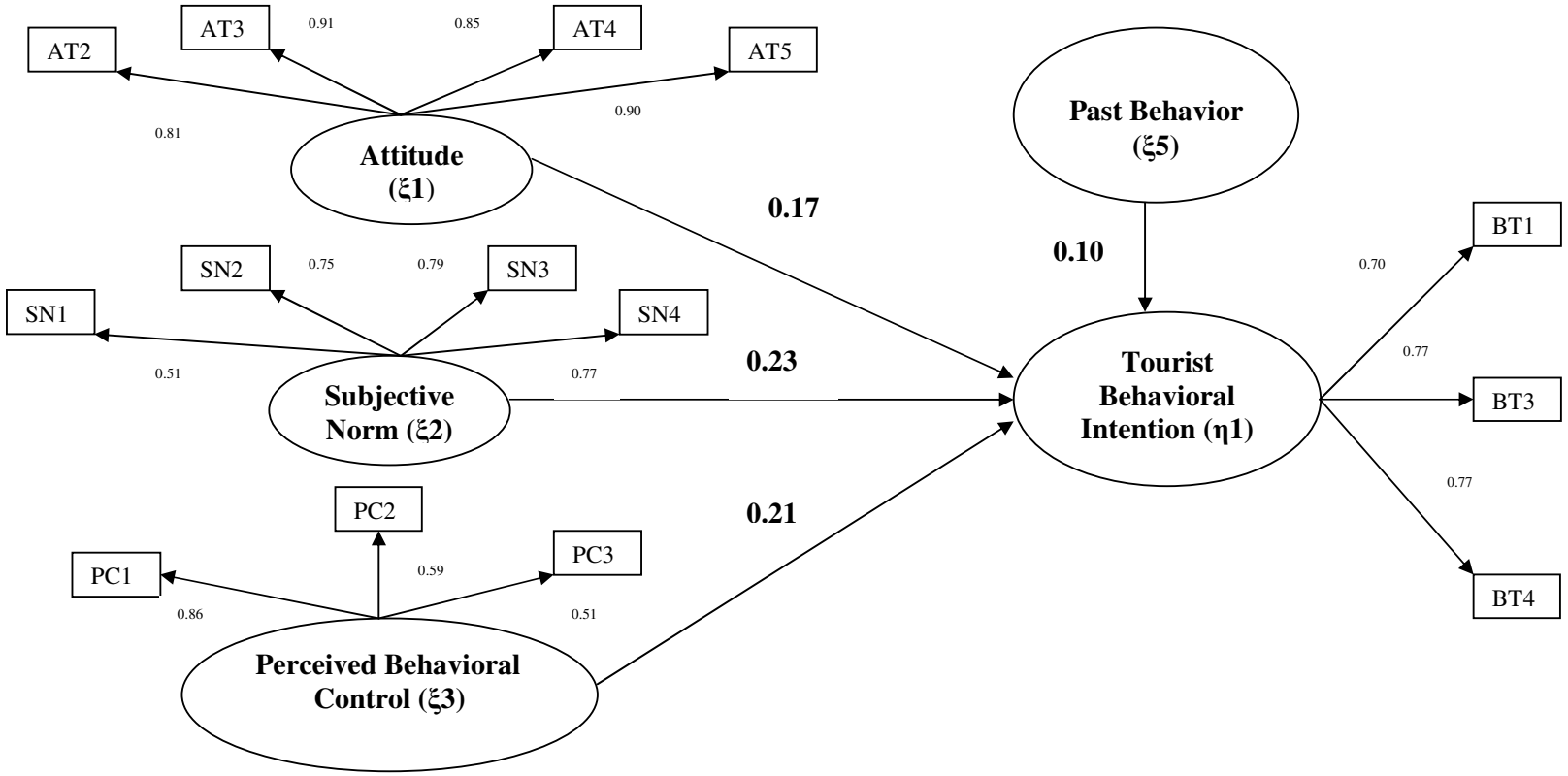
Structural equation modeling revealed a good level of fit (χ^2 = 155.61, df = 75, p < .001; GFI = .96; RMSEA = 0.049; CFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.97). An examination of the standardized path coefficients among variables showed that all the paths have statistically significant effects on behavior intentions [attitude (γ_{11} = 0.17; p <0.001), subjective norm (γ_{12} = 0.23; p <0.001), perceived behavior control (γ_{13} = 0.21; p <0.001), and past behavior (γ_{14} = 0.10; p <0.05)]. The significant, positive signs of all structural paths also supported all four hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, and H4). These findings indicate that a positive attitude toward destination, a subjective norm about a popular destination, tourists' perceived behavioral control, and past behavior all positively affect tourist behavior intention. The full structural model shown in Figure 5 was derived from the hypotheses since the proposed measurement relationships were consistent with the data.

Table 35: The Results of Hypothesized Tests[a]

Hypothesized relationship	Proposed model	
	Standardized path coefficient (t-value)	Results
H1: Attitude → Behavior intention (γ_{11})	.17 (3.44)***	Supported
H2: Subjective norm → Behavior intention (γ_{12})	.23 (4.94)***	Supported
H3: Perceived behavioral control → Behavior intention (γ_{13})	.21 (4.61)***	Supported
H4: Past behavior → Behavior intention (γ_{14})	.10 (2.53)*	Supported

Note: χ^2 = 155.61, d.f. = 75, $p < .001$, GFI=.96, RMSEA=.049, CFI=.99, NFI=.97.
[a] R^2 (Behavior intention) = .48.
*** $p < .001$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Figure 5: Final Model of the Destination Choice Intention after Crisis



Where

AT1…AT5 =Observed measure associated with an exogenous latent variable (Attitude)

SN1…SN4 =Observed measure associated with an exogenous latent variable (Subjective Norm)

PC1…PC4 =Observed measure associated with an exogenous latent variable (Perceived Behavior)

BT1…BT4 =Observed measure associated with an endogenous latent variable (Tourist Behavior Intention)

ξ_1- ξ4 = Exogenous latent variable; η1= Endogenous latent variable

Moderation Tests

A moderation test was introduced to account for situations in which the relationship between the antecedent and the consequent variable is presumed to depend on some third variable. That is, the presence of a third variable (the moderating variable) modifies the original relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

The significant causal relationship between subjective norm and intention has been successfully supported in empirical studies. In the review of 137 TPB studies, Armitage and Conner (2001) found that the average correlation of subjective norm and intention is 0.34. Similarly, in the review of 87 TRA studies, Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988) found that the average correlation of subjective norm and intention is 0.62.

This study considered in detail the specific analysis procedures for appropriately measuring and testing a moderational hypothesis (H2-1). Within this framework, moderation implied that the causal relation between subjective norm and intention changes as a function of the tourist's country of origin: Asian or Western countries.

The sample was split by the nationality of the respondents to form two subgroups that represent Westerners and Asians, 320 and 251, respectively. To assess how the hypothesized relationship (H2-1) varies according to country of origin, two subgroup models were tested and compared: the baseline model and the constrained model. The baseline model is based on the assumption that all estimated hypothesized structural paths are allowed to vary across Western and Asian subgroups. On the other hand, the constrained model assumes that only the hypothesized structural paths are constrained to be equal across the two subgroups (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). Because the two models

are nested, the resulting one degree of freedom χ^2 difference test provides a statistical test for the moderating effect of country of origin. A significant chi-square difference suggests that the equality constraints are not consistent with the data, and thus that a moderating effect exists (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). The results show that the effect of subjective norms and behavioral intention differs across the two subgroups ($\Delta\chi^2$= 3.79, df = 1, p < .10). However, the relative importance is not consistent with the expected direction across the subgroups. Interestingly, Westerners (β_{12} = .26, p < .001) displayed a stronger positive relationship between subjective norms and behavioral intention than did Asians, who demonstrated no statistically significant difference (β_{12} = .06, n.s.), thus do not support H2-1 (see Table 36).

Table 36: Structural Parameter Estimates for Two-Group Comparison

Parameter				Western (n = 320)		Asian (n = 251)	
				Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value
Subjective norm	→	Behavior intention	B_{12}	.26	3.39***	.06	1.19 n.s.
Free model: χ^2 (151) = 543.11 (p < .001) – Constrained model: χ^2 (152) = 546.90 (p < .001) $\Delta\chi^2$ (1) = 3.79 (p < .10)							

** p < .01; *** p < .001; n.s. = non significant

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary, discussion of the findings, and recommendations. Once the summary, discussion, and theoretical implications of the hypotheses tested are reported, the practical implications and recommendations are discussed. Finally, the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are presented.

The main purpose of this study was to compare tourists' perceptions of destination attributes before and after the Tsunami disaster occurred, to empirically test the applicability to the tourism context of the extended theory of planned behavior (TPB) model, and to identify the underlying dimensions of motivation for choosing Phuket as a travel destination recovering from a major natural catastrophe. The study also examined travel characteristics and demographic backgrounds. The major findings reported in Chapter 4 are summarized in the context of the research objectives stated at the outset.

Perceived Image Differences Before and After the Tsunami

The descriptive statistics of attributes that are directly related to attracting tourists to visit Phuket have been reported. The superiority of natural beauty to manmade environments (such as shopping facilities, outdoor activities, festivals, night entertainment, and golf courses) was found both before and after the Tsunami; however, the findings showed that after the Tsunami, tourists paid more attention to "safety and security" and "disaster protection and warning system" than before the Tsunami.

Underlying Dimensions of Perceived Image of Phuket Before and After the Tsunami

In this study, a set of attributes was generated from a review of the literature. Exploratory factor analysis verified the dimensions of attributes perceived as important by tourists visiting Phuket before and after the Tsunami. Before the Tsunami, the final factor analysis generated five factors consisting of 19 items that accounted for 64.38% of the total variance. The five factor groupings were "Accessibility and Price," "Entertainment and Relaxation," "Accommodation, Beaches, and Islands," "Outdoor Activities and Historic Attractions," and "Safety and Security." Another exploratory factor analysis was performed to identify the dimensions of attributes perceived as important by tourists visiting Phuket after the Tsunami. The five factors represented 57.02% of the total variance. These five factors were "Outdoor Activities and Attractions," "Accessibility and Infrastructure," "Safety and Security," "Entertainment and Relaxation," and "Price and Value."

Implications

The salient attribute that first comes to the minds of foreign tourists is still beautiful scenery (beaches and seas), which restrains tourist spending in value-added areas and limits a significant multiplier effect on local businesses. It is important for the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) to take the necessary steps to reposition Phuket's image as a popular destination for night entertainment, shopping, and festivals and events. Understanding the change in tourists' images of Phuket as a travel destination after a natural disaster will aid destination marketers in implementing effective promotional strategies that will eventually lead to a dramatic increase in tourist expenditures and thus contribute to the local economy through the Inflow of foreign currency.

After the Tsunami, tourists were concerned more about "safety and security" and "disaster protection and warning system" than they were before the Tsunami. These results suggest that operators and managers of TAT give their best efforts to improve the safety and security system and the disaster protection and warning system, both of which will enhance Phuket's image as a safe destination. In order to bring tourists back to Phuket following a catastrophic disaster like the Tsunami, destination marketers should be aware of the changes in tourist destination selection attributes.

One of the challenges of tourism disaster management in Phuket is to ensure that the destination has substantially enhanced the attributes that concern tourists' most–safety and security issues, as well as disaster protection and warning system, thus fully restoring tourism business activities to the pre-disaster level. Without significant improvement in a disaster protection and warning system, many tourists may not return to Phuket.

Achieving the goal of returning Phuket to its former level of success is a very difficult task, regardless of broad marketing campaigns that highlight the natural and scenic beauty and other attractions and entertainments. After a crisis, all stakeholders, at both local and national levels, should commit to adopting up-to-date technology to establish a Tsunami warning system and to develop disaster risk mitigation strategies by improving the physical structure of existing or new tourist facilities within a direct impact area of another Tsunami.

Travel Motivations

"Motivation to travel" refers to a set of needs that cause a person to participate in a tourist activity (Pizam, Neumann, & Reichel, 1979). Travel motivation should be investigated because it helps identify the attributes that should be promoted to match the motivations of potential tourists. In this study, a set of thirty-three motivation items was initially developed based on the aforementioned literature review. Some attributes were transformed into more concrete term that suited the Phuket situation. Responses to these items were factor-analyzed using the principle component method and the varimax rotation procedure in order to delineate underlying dimensions of motivation. Six factor groupings emerged: "Cultural, Event and Place Exploration," "Socialization," "Relaxation," "Excitement," "Leisure and Romance," and "Escape." In general, the factor structure that was extracted was consistent with previous motivation studies.

Travel motivation differences by number of visits were investigated. The results revealed that repeat travelers were less motivated than first-time travelers to explore new places, and do exciting things, whereas repeat travelers were more motivated than first-

time travelers by "Socialization," which included visiting friends and relatives, doing something with the family, spending time with someone special, having time for romance, sharing a familiar place with others, and relax. Most of the findings indicate that fear and anxiety of an unknown place make tourists revisit a proven destination with which they were satisfied. Returning to a previous destination avoids the risk that an unfamiliar alternative may not be as satisfactory as a previously experienced destination (Crompton, 1979; Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell, 1973). Tourists who return to a previously visited destination may be motivated primarily by socio-psychological, rather than cultural, motives (Crompton, 1979).

Implications

Travel motivations may be used as a basis for market segmentation, a technique that enables marketers to identify groups of tourists with similar needs or characteristics. Such a strategy helps marketers evaluate new product opportunities and improve advertising strategies by better understanding tourists (Swason & Horridge, 2005). Therefore, TAT and marketers at tourist destinations may be able to closely match available tourism products with the needs of diverse tourists and their differentiated travel motivations. For example, as the number of family vacations has increased, the travel and tourism industry has developed products and services such as family suites, grand travel activities, and vacation packages for family reunions and weddings to target this particular segment (Blum, 1996; Feder, 1996; Wong, Ap, & Li, 2001). National hotel chains currently offer extra-large rooms equipped with bedding options (such as day beds and pullout sofas) to accommodate family vacationers (Gardyn, 2001). Marketers must comprehend the market trend and develop tourism products and services in response.

Destination promotions targeted at the family vacation or social interaction motive may emphasize programs that enhance relationships. Such a program might include long drives in an automobile around Phuket Island or to nearby provinces such as Pangna or Krabi. During such drives, family members are forced to interact with one another. These trips are people-oriented rather than place-oriented and may be useful for promoting family pleasure vacations. However, if a destination seeks to cater to the relaxation motive, it might stress familiarity and the availability of facilities to enjoy preferred activities such as spas and special food tour packages rather than to promote different environments or new activities. Rather than attempting to be all things to all tourists, the marketer may elect to meet the special needs of selected tourists based on their travel motivations.

The study also found a difference between first-time travelers and repeat travelers. First-time travelers and repeat travelers may have different demands and requirements regarding tourism products and services offered by a destination. Marketing strategies to entice new travelers to a destination may be inappropriate for encouraging repeat travelers to return. Therefore, destinations should develop multiple promotional campaigns and tourism packages that appeal effectively to specific segments of potential tourists.

Destination Choice Intention Model after Crisis

Although a number of empirical studies have shown that the theory of planned behavior (TPB) is successful in explaining human behavior in the tourism and hospitality areas, the theoretical and conceptual foundations for predicting the intention for choosing a travel destination after a major disaster have not been fully examined. Hence, the purpose of this analysis was to empirically test the applicability of the extended TPB model in the tourism context. The hypothesized structural model was tested by the structural equation model (SEM), which included a test of the overall model and individual tests of the relationships among the latent constructs.

SEM was performed to examine the relationships between the criterion variable of behavior intention and the respective predictor variables of attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavior control, and past behavior. The significant, positive signs of all structural paths supported all four hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, and H4). Therefore, it can be said that selecting Phuket as a travel destination after a crisis was determined by positive attitude toward destination, subjective norm, tourists' perceived behavior control, and past behavior.

Consistent with the finding of Lam & Tsu (2005), subjective norm has the largest impact on tourist behavioral intention among the four antecedents. Overall, international tourists' behavioral intention to visit Phuket is strongly influenced by the opinion of reference groups. Perceived behavioral control showed the second highest effect on tourists' behavioral intention to visit Phuket. This result concurs with the finding of Oh & Hsu (2001). It is important to notice that tourists' behavioral control over their decision to

visit Phuket, even in a crisis such as the bird flu or a natural disaster like the Tsunami, has a strong influence on their revisit intention.

Implications

The destination selection model studied, which applied the TPB model, may advance the understanding of determinants of tourist behavior intention, especially in the context of a recovery process after a debilitating natural disaster.

A number of salient implications can be derived from the results of the study. Positive attitude positively affects tourist intention in choosing Phuket as a travel destination. Therefore, TAT and the Phuket government should make their best effort to develop and maintain a positive attitude toward international tourists. They should focus on advertising Phuket as a safe place with much more to offer visitors than just Phuket's natural heritage, which includes the sun, sea, sand, sky, beach, and world-renowned diving sites. The results of this study demonstrated that subjective norm has the largest impact on tourist behavioral intention among the four antecedents. Therefore, social influence from referent groups is an important factor influencing travel intention. All stakeholders at both the local and national levels should take a serious approach to ensure tourist satisfaction. If tourists are satisfied with their travel experiences, they are more willing to revisit destinations and to spread positive comments to friends and family members. To achieve a high overall level of satisfaction, it is essential for all stakeholders to be aware of delivering quality services and products, as well as monitoring the service quality.

On the other hand, results of this study indicated that international tourists are influenced by non-volitional factors, too. The findings showed that past behavior

positively affects tourist behavior intention, even if the relative magnitude of the impact is the lowest among the antecedents. The past behavior of traveling to Phuket was measured by the frequency of visits, too, and travelers who visited more often in the past were more likely to revisit if they had a good experience and had good memories. Travelers who had good experiences are more likely to encourage potential tourists to travel to a destination through positive conversation. One way to increase the number of frequent travelers is to provide incentives for frequent travel. TAT might wish to offer travel packages to Phuket at a special promotional rate. During their stays at Phuket, visitors could also take advantage of discount offers that had been extended by participating travel, hotel, airline, and tourism operators. In addition to shopping and dining offers, discounts could include tour programs and special interest activities such as yachting and diving.

The results of the study also showed that perceived behavioral control had a significant impact on tourist behavior intention. Thus, a certain number of constraints should diminish. These constraints were related primarily to perceptions of safety and security. In a move to restore traveler confidence and encourage the resumption of travel, TAT should launch a natural disaster early warning system to enhance Phuket's image as a safe destination and conduct media briefings in overseas markets to keep all targeted tourists well informed of the precise situation in affected areas.

Moderation Tests

Another theoretical contribution of this study is the test of whether the relationship between subjective norm and tourist behavior intention varies depending on a tourist's country of origin (Asian vs. Western countries). Traditionally, Asian people have intended to perform an act based on the opinions of family members (Yang & Rosenbatt, 2000). An Asian person is expected to respond to the needs of the group, while a Western person tends to emphasize the privacy and individual rights within the community (Kim & Markus, 1999). Therefore, the positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention was expected to be greater among tourists from Asian countries than among those from Western countries. Interestingly, the findings in this study disclosed that the positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention was greater among tourists from Western countries than among those from Asian countries. These unexpected findings may be attributed to the fact that most Western tourists were independent travelers and therefore were more likely to have had a high involvement level during their travel planning process. Many aspects of traveler decisions are affected by level of involvement (the importance and intensity of interest in a trip in a particular situation). The traveler's level of involvement determines why he or she is motivated to plan the trip. On the other hand, a majority of the Asians were package tourists, who tend to take advantage of reasonably priced package deals and have a low level of involvement. Tourists with a low level of involvement are less likely to rely on reference group opinion when they make a travel destination choice. Therefore, additional studies are needed to test the hypothesis for the two groups, Asian and Western

tourists. Future researchers may be able to confirm the hypothesis when groups of Asian and Western tourists who have the same level of involvement are compared.

Implications

Due to the distinctiveness of the positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention among tourists from Western and Asian countries, these two groups may have different demands and requirements in selecting a destination. Therefore, it is necessary to develop different marketing strategies in Western and in Asian countries.

Western tourists who responded were independent travelers who are more likely to have had a high involvement level in their travel planning process. Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman (1996) found that highly involved tourists tend to pay more attention to searching for information and are more likely to be opinion leaders by delivering that information to other individuals in a preferred manner. Miguel, Caplliure, & Aldas-Manzano (2002) also found that tourists with a high level of involvement tend to show a greater level of product knowledge by realizing the strengths and weaknesses of various alternatives. Tourists may need to evaluate several sources of information in assessing the situation or in understanding the current situation at the destination.

The Internet provides great opportunity for customizing destination offerings. Therefore, destination websites should be created that allow visitors to search for information about attractions, activities, and special events, or even to purchase airline tickets and make hotel reservations. Such sites might offer bulletin boards with tips from people who have traveled to the destination recently; they might also offer the opportunity to chat with travel experts, residents of the destination, and TAT staff.

Because the majority of Asian travelers are package tourists, these individuals tend to take advantage of reasonably priced package deals and may have a low level of involvement. For package tourists, tour operators play a very important role in creating the images of the destinations. After a crisis, tour operators analyze all possible aspects of safety and security risk and make a decision on the destination. After this process, tour operators can significantly influence tourist flow toward the destination. Therefore, it is necessary to coordinate all post-crisis activities with foreign tour operators to give accurate information. Rebuilding destination images can be accomplished with the help of foreign tour operators. In addition, TAT should inform the media about the steps taken at a destination to solve problems and invite journalists to the destination to show them the real situation. In cooperation with tour operators, the private sector, and airlines operating in Phuket, TAT should launch a series of marketing and publicity campaigns designed to show that Phuket has fully recovered from the Tsunami.

Sources of Travel Information and Activities

The following section discusses research findings and theoretical and practical implications of the data gathered on sources of travel information and activities.

Source of Travel Information

This study found that travelers used both "informative" and "persuasive" information to select Phuket as a travel destination. Respondents indicated that the main sources of information they had used in planning a trip to a destination were word-of-mouth, previous trips, the Internet, and travel agents; word-of-mouth was the most important source. These results are consistent with the findings of Mok & Armstrong (1996), which indicated that word-of-mouth from friends and relatives is an informative and credible source of information. Mok & Armstrong (1996) found that Taiwanese and Hong Kong travelers considered word-of-mouth from friends and relatives as the most important source of travel information.

A previous trip was also perceived as an important source of information. This result is consistent with the findings of Um & Crompton (1990), indicating that previous experience is one of the factors affecting destination awareness and traveler destination preference. Familiarity with a destination may produce a tendency for tourists to quickly select or reject that destination. Returning to a familiar and satisfying destination may reduce the risk of fear or anxiety that an unknown destination may not be as satisfactory as those previously experienced. Therefore, if tourists are satisfied with a previous destination, they may not even look for information on other destinations for their next destination choice (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989).

This study found that the Internet was widely used among travelers in planning travel destinations. In addition, travel agents were perceived as important, persuasive sources of information, which confirms the findings of Worrall (1990) that travel agents are considered to be an important source of information. Mok & Armstrong (1996) indicated that travelers who join all-inclusive package tours depend on travel agencies as their main source of information, whereas independent travelers gather information mainly from friends and relatives. Many tourists heavily rely upon travel agencies to help them make the final choice of a travel package (Kent, Meyer, & Reddam, 1987). Travel agencies and tour operators have played a critical role as travel intermediaries in satisfying the travel demand and expanding the market. They give advice on destinations and tourist attractions, and make arrangements for transportation, hotel accommodations, car rentals, tours, and recreation. They also give information on customs regulations, required papers (passports, visas, and certificates of vaccination), and currency exchange rates.

This study found that brochures, travel guidebooks, advertising, and information at welcome centers were not major sources of travel information. This result is consistent with the findings of Mok & Armstrong (1996), which indicated that Taiwanese and Hong Kong tourists ranked brochures and TV/radio advertising as unimportant sources of travel information.

Implications

It can be concluded that international tourists rely heavily on recommendations from friends, family, and relatives and on experience from previous trips as their major sources of travel information. This finding is consistent with the study of Bateson (1995),

which showed that word-of-mouth has a more significant impact on tourists' perceptions than do other forms of mass communication. In addition, word-of-mouth is perceived as more credible and less biased (Lovelock, 1991), and it can reach more potential customers than other promotional techniques because it has a multiplying effect.

Therefore, stakeholders at both the local and national levels should improve tourism products and services in a destination to increase the quality of tourist experiences, because satisfied tourists leaving Phuket will spread positive word-of-mouth communications. Quality is an important factor that can make visiting a destination more attractive (Stevens, 1992). Quality perceptions can be generated from encounters with the service infrastructure including shopping services, recreation and attraction services, food services, travel services, transportation services, and accommodation services (Cai & Woods, 1993; O'Neill & McKenna, 1994; Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000). Gotlieb, Grewal, & Brown (1994) mentioned that both the focal (service) and the contextual (environment) dimensions of tourism products play important roles in determining quality. For this reason, destination managers should consider the role of quality in developing destination loyalty. Destinations that do not meet tourist quality expectations are less likely to be revisited than those that satisfy tourists (Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000). If tourists are satisfied with their travel experiences, they are more willing to return to a destination, as well as to spread positive comments to others. The results of this study suggest that TAT should focus on meeting or exceeding tourist satisfaction levels. However, many elements are involved in the formation of tourist satisfaction: local residents, providers of accommodations and transportation, tourism information

offices, natural resources, etc. Therefore, in order to achieve a high overall level of satisfaction, all stakeholders should work closely to minimize dissatisfied tourists.

As mentioned earlier, this study found the sources of information tourists used most in planning travel destinations were informative and persuasive information to form the organic and induced image of destination. The organic images were derived primarily from word-of-mouth and travel agencies, while the induced images were derived primarily from travel brochures and the Internet. The Internet is, therefore, gaining in importance as an information distribution channel for the tourism and hospitality industry. The Internet is an economical and efficient marketing channel for promoting a destination, so tourism marketers need to do more promotion on the Internet. The potential benefits of an online business are also important for the travel industry, given that current trends have demonstrated the importance and implications of an online business in the tourism industry (Wang & Fesenmaire, 2004). An increasing number of travelers make extensive use of the Internet for information (Jang, 2004).

Due to flourishing tourism resources, such as beautiful sandy beaches and crystal clear and calm ocean waters with colorful coral reefs, Phuket became one of the well-known "sun, sand, and sea" tourist destinations in the Far East. Phuket's magnificent natural resources are the main attractions and reasons for tourists to visit. However, "sun, sand, and sea" tourist destinations have also been developed in nearby regions such as Bali in Indonesia, New Zealand, and Australia. Therefore, it is important for TAT to take the necessary steps to promote Phuket as a destination with a variety of shops, festivals and events, and night entertainment to differentiate its destination image from

competitive destinations. Doing so will result in more value-added tourism, which will have a significant multiplier effect on local businesses.

Limitations and Future Research Avenues

Some study limitations need to be acknowledged. First, a cross-sectional survey sampling from the target population during a limited time of the year was used to determine perceptual differences in attributes affecting tourist travel behavior intention before and after the Tsunami. The respondents may have had difficulty in recollecting previous experiences, resulting in problems with accuracy. In addition, this study was conducted in the peak season, so the results were limited to travelers who travel during this period of time. Tourists who travel in different seasons may have different points of view toward destinations. To overcome this limitation, a similar survey in a different season could be administered in future research to gain a more general understanding of tourist behavior changes across time. The two sets of survey findings could be compared to identify similarities and differences across seasons.

Another possible limitation is that this study collected the data at Phuket International Airport. Administering the survey at this location may have introduced bias in the sample because only international tourists who were visiting Phuket were included and those who visited Thailand via other international airports such as Bangkok and Changmai were excluded. It is also possible that only tourists with favorable feelings toward Phuket were visiting, which would result in sample bias. To overcome these limitations, future studies may include a more representative sample by conducting data collection in other airports, such as Bangkok International Airport and Changmai

International Airport. Therefore, the results of this study should be interpreted with caution.

This study was not longitudinal; therefore the results should be interpreted with some caution. Ideally, the research would have been started before the Tsunami and followed both tourists who returned to Phuket after the Tsunami and tourists who did not. In reality, only tourists who returned to Phuket after the Tsunami and during the survey period were able to participate. Individuals, who chose not to return to Phuket, or at least not during the survey period, may have formed different opinions regarding the destination following the Tsunami.

The use of a self-report measure of tourist behavior intention may be limited in terms of reliability, another limitation to consider as self-evaluation may have inflated some parts of the hypotheses tested. The respondents may have had different points of view, and it is possible that tourists with favorable feelings toward their destination may have been over reported, whereas those with unfavorable feelings toward their destination may have been under reported. In addition, respondents had to interpret questions with regard to their own personal experience and understanding. Another consideration is that behavior intention may change after it has been measured (Young & Kent, 1985). To overcome this limitation, actual behavior data should be utilized in future research and longitudinal research design should be adopted to collect actual behavior data. However, many TPB studies have found a strong and significant causal link between behavior intention and actual behavior (Ajen, 2002). Therefore, the choice of intention over actual behavior as a dependent variable does not seem to pose a serious problem for analyzing the results of this study.

The survey instrument used in this study was originally designed in English because English is the language most commonly understood among international tourists. Conducting surveys with different languages could cause back-translation biases. To eliminate the potential back-translations an error, this study was designed only in English. However, for practical reasons, some international tourists who are not familiar with the English language chose not to complete the survey, which could have resulted in response biases. Future researchers should provide the survey instrument in other languages such as Japanese, Mandarin, Korean, Swedish, German, and French to overcome this limitation. Furthermore, the questionnaire should be back-translated in other languages such as Japanese, Mandarin, Korean, Swedish, German, and French to overcome this limitation. Care must be taken, however, to insure that the meaning and content of the questionnaire is consistent among all languages in which it is presented.

Lastly, "attitude," "subjective norm," "perceived behavior control," and "past behavior" were studied as antecedents to tourist behavior intention in this study. Additional antecedents of tourist behavior intention should be investigated in future research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) APPROVAL

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	Thursday, December 08, 2005
IRB Application No	HE0629
Proposal Title:	Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior to Select Phuket as a Travel Destination
Reviewed and Processed as:	Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 12/7/2006

Principal Investigator(s

Kullada Phetvaroon
85 S. Univ. Place, Apt. 7
Stillwater, OK 74075

Woody Kim
210 HES West
Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

☑ The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Sue C Jacobs

Sue C. Jacobs, Chair
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES

Dear Participants,

I am Kullada Phetvaroon, a Ph.D. student in the College of Human Environmental Sciences at Oklahoma State University, majoring in Hospitality Administration, located in the State of Oklahoma, United States of America. This survey is designed to evaluate tourists' attitudes and opinions about Phuket as a tourist destination. This survey will enable the researcher to make suggestions to the tourism bodies at both local and national levels to improve tourism products and services in this province. Thus, the quality of your experience could possibly increase in the future because of information obtained through this research and the actions taken as a result of this study.

Please take a few moments to answer the following questions. There will be no risk involved with participating in this survey, and your responses will be anonymous. Your voluntary participation in this survey is greatly appreciated. Your opinions and comments will be kept confidential, and will be of great value. The completion of this survey implies consent to consolidate your data with others and to publish results in reports without identifying any respondents.

The survey instrument has been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Oklahoma State University and has met all the human subjects and ethical requirements. If you have any questions regarding this research, please contact me or the IRB office. My contact information is provided below.

Thank you for your consideration, and participation in this research project.

Yours Sincerely,

Kullada Phetvaroon
Ph.D. Student
Oklahoma State University
College of Human Environmental Sciences
School of Hotel & Restaurant Administration
E-mail: kullada@okstate.edu
Phone: 405-332-0482

Woody Kim, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Oklahoma State University
College of Human Environmental Sciences
School of Hotel & Restaurant Administration
E-mail: kwoo@okstate.edu
Phone: 405-744-8483

Dr. Sue C. Jacobs
University Research Compliance
415 Whitehurst
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Ok 74078
E-mail: irb@okstate.edu
Phone: (405) 744-1676

I. About your perception and motivation

1. Below is a list of Phuket's features and activities. Using the following scale, please circle only <u>ONE</u> appropriate number that indicates how important each attribute was in attracting you to visit Phuket. If this is your <u>first</u> trip, fill out the "This trip" only column.

If this is a return visit, was your last visit before 26 December 2004. If so, answer both columns.

Attributes	Before 26 December 2004 Importance Very unimportant → Very important	This trip Importance Very unimportant → Very important
Variety of accommodation options	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Security and safety at accommodation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Location of accommodation (near beach, sea view, in town)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Reasonable price of accommodation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of beaches and islands	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Historical and cultural sites of Phuket	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of entertainment & amusements	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
View Points	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Park and nature in Phuket	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Visit Tsunami site	_____	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Reasonable price for sightseeing	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of marine sports and activities	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of golf courses	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Phuket festival and events	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of outdoor recreation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of spa/massage/healing options	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Variety of evening entertainment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Availability of daily tour services to other destinations and attractions	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Reasonable price for activities and events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Safety and security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beautiful scenery (sun, sand, sea)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disaster protection and warning system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cleanliness of beaches and sea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of space on beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of facilities on beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ease of access	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Convenience of local transportation system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Availability of travel information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Variety of shops	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reasonable price of merchandise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Variety of cuisine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reasonable price of meals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2). **Below is a list of statements assessing your motivation for travel to Phuket. Please circle only ONE appropriate number that indicates how important each attribute is in motivating you to visit Phuket.**

Attributes	**Importance**						
	Very unimportant ⟶					**Very important**	
Relaxation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Get recharged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Be able to do nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Release tension	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Have privacy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do exciting things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Be entertained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do a specific activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Get away from crowds	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experience unpolluted/natural surrounding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Get away from pressures and responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visit friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Share a familiar place with other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Return to favorite vacation site	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do something with family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Eat good food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Go shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Have lots of different things to see and do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experience new/ different places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visit new and exciting place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Spend time with someone special	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Have time for romance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Spend time with family and friend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Build friendship with other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mix with other fellow tourists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Engage in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visit festivals and or special events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Engage in special activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experience different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To enjoy culture in its cultural/historical setting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To know about culture events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Take advantage of reduced fares and special package	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visit places important in history (eg.Tsunami site)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

II. <u>About your attitude and intention</u>

1) Below is a list of statements assessing your perception of Phuket as a travel destination. Please circle only ONE appropriate number that best represents your agreement with the statements on scale of 1-7.

Your perception of Phuket	**Agreement**						
	Strongly	**disagree**					**Strongly agree**
Most people I know choose Phuket as a travel destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Members of my family think that it is a good idea to choose Phuket as a travel destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Members of my family approve of my visiting Phuket	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most of my friends and acquaintances think that choosing Phuket as a travel destination is a good idea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I want, I could easily visit Phuket from now on (after crisis recovery)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is mostly up to me whether or not I select Phuket as my travel destination. (after crisis recovery)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting Phuket is totally under my control even in case of crisis (Tsunami, bird flu, SARS-Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, and terrorist in Southern Thailand)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Recovery campaign (reduced fares and special packages) factored in selecting Phuket as my travel destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2) For me visiting Phuket was

	Very low						**Very high**	
Unenjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Beneficial
Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Favorable

3) Behavior intention	**Most unlikely**						**Most likely**
I intend to select Phuket as my travel destination in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be willing to pay a higher rate to visit Phuket	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend Phuket to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will revisit Phuket	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4) How would you rate your satisfaction	**Strongly disagree**						**Strongly agree**
I am satisfied with my decision to select Phuket as my travel destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The service and quality I received as a tourist met every aspect of my personal expectation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My travel experience in Phuket has been a wonderful experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Phuket is the finest travel destination among the choices in the area.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5) How would you rate your overall traveling experience in Phuket on a scale of 1-7?

Very Dissatisfied			**Neutral**			**Very Satisfied**
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6) How many times have you visited Phuket, including this trip?

□ First time □ 2nd time □ 3-4 times □ 5-6 times □ more than 6 times

7) If this was the first time you were visiting Phuket, please go to question number eight. If it is not the first time, when was your last trip to Phuket prior to this trip?

□ Before year 2002 □ Between year 2002-2004 □ After January 2005

8) What was the primary purpose of your trip to Phuket?

□ Vacation/pleasure □ Leisure □ Business/professional □ Visit friends/relatives □ Convention/exhibition □ Wedding/honeymoon □ Shopping

□ En route to somewhere else

□ Attend special events (family occasions, concert, etc.)

□ Other (please specify) _____

III. About yourself

1. Your gender : □ Male □ Female

2. Your age group: □ Under 21 years old □ 22-35 years old □ 36-50 years old

□ 51-65years old □ Over 65 years old

3. Your Nationality: _____

4. Your highest level of education

□ Elementary School (Grade1-8) □ High school/vocational school □ 2-year college

□ 4-year college □ Master's degree □ Doctorate degree

5. Your current occupation

□Management □Administrative support □Government/military

□Professional related (doctor, attorney, etc.) □Sales □Construction

□Production □Service □Student □Self-employed

□Housewife □Retired/not in the workforce

□Other (please specific) _____

6. Your total annual household income (please provide your best estimate)

□Under $25,000 □$25,000-$49,999 □$50,000-$74,999

□$75,000-$99,999 □$100,000 and above

IV. About your trip to Phuket

1. How long did you stay in Phuket?

□ Less than one day □ 1-2 days □ 3-5 days □ a week □ more than a week.

2. **How did you travel to Phuket?**

□ Car □ Plane □ Tour bus

□ Other (please specify) _____

3. You are traveling

□ By yourself □ With your spouse □ With your family & children

□ With friends/relatives □ With business associates □ With tour group

4. **Including you, how many persons are in your travel group _____**

5. Where did you learn about Phuket? (Check all that apply)

□ Previous trip(s) □Travel agent □ Advertising

□ Internet □ Word-of-mouth □ Brochures/travel guidebooks

□ Tourist information/welcome center □ Other (please specific) _____

V. About your accommodations and activities

1. Where did you stay during your trip in Phuket?

□ Hotel in Phuket Town □ Hotel near beach □ Home of friends/relatives □ Bed and Breakfast

□ Time share/vacation hotel/condo □ Camping ground/tent sites □ Commercial cottage/cabin/suite

2. Where did you learn about the hotel you stayed in? (check all that apply)

□ Previous trip(s) □ Internet □ Brochures/travel guidebooks □ Travel agent

□ Word of mouth □ Advertisements □ Tourist information/welcome center □ Other _____

3. **What tourist attractions did you visit in Phuket during this trip? (Check all that apply)**

□ Beach and island □ Tsunami site □ Natural wonder (etc. Mangrove forest)

□ View point (etc. Leam Phromthep, Kata view point) □ Historic site (etc. Wat Chalong, Saphan Hin)

□ Other (please specify) _____

4. What beaches did you visit during this trip? (Check all that apply)

□ Southern beach (Naihan beach, Kata beach, Karon beach, Patong beach, Kalim beach, Larm Ka beach)

□ Middle beach (Kamala beach, Laem Sing beach, Pansea beach, Bang Tao beach)

□ Northern beach (Nai Thon beach, Naiyang beach, Mai Khao beach)

5. **What outdoor activities did you participate in during this trip? (Check all that apply)**

□ Activities at sea (scuba diving, water skiing) □ Activities on land (horse-riding, elephant trekking)

□ Golfing □ Spa □ Other (please specify) _____

6. What special events did you attend in Phuket during this trip? (Check all that apply)

□ Chao Le (Sea Gypsy) Boat Floating Festival □ Laguna Phuket Triathlon

□ Tourist Season Opening Festival □ Phuket King's Cup Regatta □ Phuket Travel Fair

□ Seafood Festival □ Turtle Releasing Fair □ Vegetarian Festival

□ Annual Gay Festival □ Other (please specify) _____

7. **Approximately how much have you spent for this trip? (in your own currency)**

Accommodation (**total)** _____

Dinning (**total**) _____

Shopping (**total)** _____

Attraction, activities, and festival (**total**) _____

Transportation to Phuket _____

VITA

Kullada Phetvaroon

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR TO SELECT A DESTINATION AFTER A CRISIS: A CASE STUDY OF PHUKET, THAILAND

Major Field: Human Environmental Sciences

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Phuket, Thailand, the daughter of Prakit and Jariya Phetvaroon

Education: Graduated from Triamudaomsuksa School, Bangkok, Thailand in June1990; received Bachelor of Science in Economics from Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand in October 1993; Received Master of Business Administration in Finance from University of Tennessee, USA in December 1996; Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with the concentration in Hospitality and Tourism Administration at Oklahoma State University, USA in December, 2006.

Experience: Management trainee in marketing section at Ando Atlanta Transportation Co., Ltd., Atlanta, Georgia, USA, in summer 1994; Management trainee in financial section at Ando Atlanta Transportation Co., Ltd, Atlanta, Georgia, USA, in summer 1995; Assistant Financial Analyst, Merrill Lynch, USA, 1996-1997; Credit Controller, Hachette Filipacchi Post Co., Ltd, Bangkok, Thailand, 1997-1998; Vice President, Kiatsin Co., Ltd., Phuket, Thailand, 1999 to present; Managing Director, K.D. Trading, Phuket, Thailand, 1999 to present; Lecturer for undergraduate student in Principle of Economics and Mathematics Intensive Course, and for Post Graduate student (MBA) in Foundation of Economics, Faculty of Service Industries, Prince of Songkla University, Phuket Campus; 2000-present.

Professional Memberships: The International Association of Lion Club.
Thai Stationeries and Office Supplies Association.

Name: Kullada Phetvaroon Date of Degree: December 2006

Institution: Oklahoma State University Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR TO SELECT A DESTINATION AFTER A CRISIS: A CASE STUDY OF PHUKET, THAILAND

Pages in Study: 199 Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Human Environmental Science

Scope and Method of Study: The objectives of this study were 1) to compare tourists' perceptions of destination attributes before and after a disaster occurred; 2) to empirically test the applicability of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) model, with the addition of past behavior, in the tourism context; and 3) to identify the underlying dimensions of motivation for choosing Phuket as a travel destination. A cross-sectional sample survey was conducted. The target population was all international tourists who traveled to Phuket, Thailand, during the survey period. Data was analyzed using both univariate and multivariate techniques with SPSS and LISREL 8.5. Using LISREL 8.5, the Structural Equation Model (SEM) was employed to determine the causal relationship between predictor variables and to test hypotheses to confirm the causal relationships.

Findings and Conclusions: Results indicate that after the Tsunami, tourists were more concerned about "safety and security" and "disaster protection and warning system." In descending order, subjective norm, perceived behavior control, attitude, and past behavior had positively significant effects on tourist behavior intention when choosing Phuket as a travel destination after the Tsunami. The existence of a moderating effect of country origin between subjective norm and behavioral intention was tested. Interestingly, the study disclosed that the positive influence of subjective norm on tourist behavior intention was greater among tourists from Western countries than from Asian countries. These unexpected findings may be attributed to the fact that most Western tourists were independent travelers, who are more likely to have a high involvement level during their travel planning process. On the other hand, since a majority of Asian counterparts were package tourists, they tend to take advantage of reasonably priced package deals and may have had a low level of involvement. Tourists with a low level of involvement are less likely to rely on other reference groups' opinions when making a travel destination choice. Lastly, dimensions of motivation for choosing Phuket as a travel destination were identified. The results of this study suggest that travel motivations may be used as a basis for market segmentation. The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) and marketers at tourist destinations may be able to closely match available tourism products with the diverse needs of tourists who have differentiated travel motivations.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. Woody Kim