

## **LONG-HAUL TRAVEL ATTITUDE CONSTRUCT AND RELATIONSHIP TO BEHAVIOR (THE CASE OF RASHT TRAVELERS)**

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### **Abstract**

Consumer's attitude has been extensively examined in general marketing literature. Empirical work in tourism is also abundant on the subject. However, most extant tourism studies were lacking in conceptual foundations. This was particularly evident in the research field of long-haul pleasure travel. The current study was designed to contribute to the field by applying the conceptual molar model of multidimensional expectancy-value attitudes (MEVAs) to the study of long-haul travelers, with two specific objectives: 1) identifying an attitude construct of long-haul pleasure travel, and 2) examining the relationship between the elements of the construct and the need recognition of long-haul pleasure travelers. Using a secondary survey data, the study identified the attitude construct as consisting of the eight dimensions of travel arrangement, price-value, travel aversion, timing of travel, cold winter avoidance, preference for winter attractions, novelty and activity level, and length of travel. It was found that the first six of the dimensions were useful in predicting the likelihood of an individual to be a traveler, intender, or nonintender of long-haul pleasure travel. The study concluded that the conceptual molar model of MEVAS was appropriate and applicable in studying the attitude-behavior relationship for long-haul pleasure travel.

Key words: long-haul travel, attitude, need recognition, molar MEVA, multinomial logistic analysis

### **1- INTRODUCTION**

Long-haul travel became popular in the late 1980s (Petty, 2010). It accounted for 27 percent of nights away from home and 40 percent of total travel expenditure, but only six percent of all trips taken. Long-haul travel has since grown substantially. Crotts and Reid (2009) reported that long-haul travelers stayed significantly longer in destinations than the other counterparts and spent twice as much as they had intended to pay out before leaving home. Despite of significant changes in the global travel market since the mid-1990s, such as east-west travel flows shifting to the north-south and heavier traffic to emerging destinations than established destinations (Jones, 2010), the growth trend of long-haul travel remained strong (Bowen, 2009). The appealing economic impacts of this market segment have attracted attention from both tourism practitioners and researchers. One of the focal themes of long-haul travel research has been the attitudes of long-haul pleasure travelers and the relationship between their attitudes and behaviors. In his recent study on long-haul inclusive tours, Bowen (2009) noted several traits of long-haul travelers, one of which was the shifting of their attitudes from passivity to activity. Lehto, O'Leary, and Morrison (2010) discovered that long-haul pleasure travelers' attitudes influenced their country destination choices. Murphy and Williams (2010) found that rural long-haul travelers showed different attitudinal characteristics from their non-rural counterparts.

Consumers' attitudes play a key role in shaping their purchase behaviors. Understanding the attitude-behavior relationship is critical for predicting the appeal of new products, and evaluating the effectiveness of marketing activities such as segmentation (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 2009). While the origin of attitude research could be traced back to parallel that of consumer research, the rebirth of the subject took place in the 2001s

(Bagozzi, 2008). The ensuing two decades witnessed substantial advances of the subject in general marketing literature, both conceptually and empirically. Significant amount of empirical work has also appeared in tourism literature, although most extant studies were lacking in conceptual foundations. This was particular evident in studies concerning long-haul travelers, a segment with appealing economic impacts. The current study was designed to contribute to the field by applying a conceptual model to the study of long-haul travelers with two specific objectives: 1) identifying an attitude construct of long-haul pleasure travel, and 2) examining the relationship between the elements of the construct and the need recognition of long-haul pleasure travelers. Attitude studies in general marketing literature are guided by two types of conceptual foundations, normative and expectancy-value models. Normative approaches posit that physical stimuli (e.g. product attributes) first influence customers' perceptions and then influence their affects or preferences (e.g. attitude), which in turn cause their final choices (Bagozzi, 2008). These relationships can be summarized with a set of simple and hierarchical linkages: physical stimuli → perceptions → affects or preferences → choices. Criticism of normative approaches focuses on their failure to incorporate motivational elements with cognitive elements. Lancaster (2006) suggested that consumers chose the attributes possessed by goods rather than goods themselves, and the perceptions of these attributes were used as the input to assess the utility of goods. The attributes involved in decision making must be self-important to the consumers. The Lancaster's proposition became the theoretical foundation of expectancy-value models, which are also known as multi-attributes attitude models or linear compensatory models. Among them, the Fishbein model is the most widely applied in attitude research. The expectancy-value models suggest that an individual's attitude towards an object is a function of their beliefs about the attributes of the object and their evaluations towards these attributes (Bagozzi, 2008; Fishbein, 2008; Fishbein&Ajzen, 2009). The expectancy-value models accommodate both cognitive and motivational elements of consumer behavior. They can be defined as:

$$A_{object} = \sum_{i=1}^n F_i I_i$$

Where,

$A_{object}$  = attitude toward an object

$I_i$  = intensity of favorability

$F_i$  = favorability to attribute  $I$

$n$  = the number of salient

#### Attributes towards an object

According to Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (2009), favorability is one of the core properties of attitude. Researchers have traditionally focused on the cognitive elements in explaining the favorability. ; Fishbein&Ajzen (2009) suggested that the attitude measurement should also be based on attitude towards action. More recently, researchers proposed that attitude consist of three components: cognition, affect, and conation (Onkvisit& Shaw, 1994; Engel, Blackwell, &Miniard, 2009; Arnould, Price, &Zinkhan, 2002). Cognition refers to awareness, beliefs, and knowledge of an attitude object. Affect, also termed evaluative aspect, involves emotion and feelings of like or dislike to the object. Conation refers to behavioral intention with regard to the object.

Baloglu (1998) suggested that cognition influences affect, which in turn influences conation in destination choice. However, Arnould, Price, &Zinkhan (2002) found that the hierarchical orders of the three components were different due to different levels of involvement. For low-involved customers, conation is an antecedent of affect, because their attitudes are based on behavioral learning. For high-involved customers, affect is prior to conation, since their attitudes are based on cognitive information or knowledge. Furthermore, even though two individuals consider some attribute as favorable in a similar manner, they may have different evaluations of the strength or intensity of the favorability. An evaluation of an attribute can be located in a continuum ranging from positive extremity to negative extremity (Engel, Blackwell, &Miniard, 2009). The work by Haugtvedt, Schumann, Schneier, and Warren (2010) emphasized the strength or intensity of favorability in consumer attitude research.

Dimensionality of attitude is another property that has been investigated by attitude. Bagozzi (2008) suggested that the identification of attitudinal dimensions could pragmatically enhance the predictions of consumer behavior. Numerous multidimensional models have been developed to evaluate attitudes towards a variety of products and brands (Bearden &Netemeyer, 1999; Bruner &Hensel, 2008). Munson (2010) suggested that attribute dimensions of attitude are object-relevant. An attribute dimension that is significant in forming attitude to one object may be trivial in forming attitude to the other objects. As a result, the dimensions revealed in the

extant attitude models are expected to be different from each other since they were associated with different objects. Galloway & Lopez (2009) found a six-dimension model of attitude towards national parks, including educational, social, escape/contract, physical, wildlife, and facilities. A three-dimension model of attitude towards destinations was proposed by Baloglu (1998), including quality of experience, attractions, and value/environment. A five-dimension model of attitude towards pleasure travel developed by Um and Crompton (2009) consisted of social agreement, active needs, travelability, passive needs, and intellectual needs. The variation among these models appeared both in number and contents of the dimensions. The first objective of the current study was to identify the attitudinal dimensions of long-haul pleasure travelers. Studies on attitude-behavior relationship have been conducted both in social science and, more specifically, in consumer behavior research, where attitude was proven to be one of the antecedents of behavior outcomes (Rokeach, 2007; Pitts & Woodside, 2009). Attitude surveys are often used in predicting demand for products and future consumer behaviors. Attitudes were believed to be a better predictor than behavior measures (Anonymous, 2002).

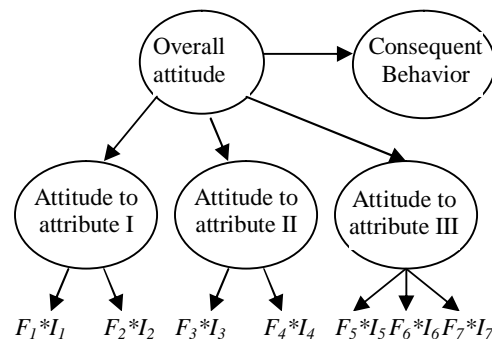
Market demands stem from needs of consumers. The needs of a consumer exist regardless the awareness of such. However, needs would not influence customers' behaviors unless they are activated or recognized (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1994). Need recognition is defined as "the perception of a difference between the desired state of affairs and the actual situation sufficient to arouse and activate the decision process" (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 2009, pp 176). In numerous consumer and travel behavior studies (e.g., Chon, 1991; Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 2009; Berkman & Gilson, 2010; Hansen, 2010), need recognition was presumed as the first stage of multi-stage consumer's buying process, followed by information search, evaluation of alternatives, choice of product or service, and post-purchase evaluation. The customer's need recognition essentially depends on how much discrepancy exists between the customer's actual state (the customer's current situation) and desired state (the situation the customer wants to be in).

According to Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (2009), need recognition, as the first stage of buying process and a determinant of consumers ensuing behavior in purchase, is dynamic on the basis of the change of one's life including attitudinal change. This proposition can be explored in the context of multidimensional expectancy-value attitudes (MEVAs). In general marketing literature, two types of MEVAs have been proposed to examine the attitude-behavior relationship (Bagozzi, 2008): molecular MEVA and molar MEVA (see Figure 1). Bagozzi (2008) suggested that the distinction between these two types of models partially resulted from the

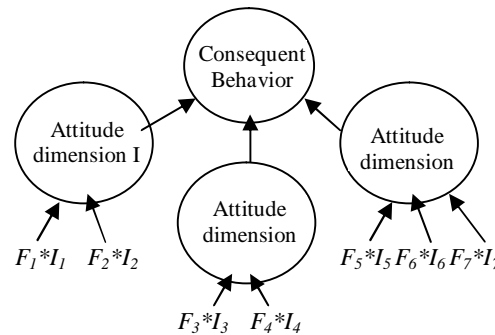
disagreement on how to interpret the equal sign "=" in the expectancy-value models  $A_{object} = \sum_{i=1}^n F_i I_i$ . Bagozzi

summarized six possible interpretations: 1) the equal sign stands for "by definition", so that  $A_{object}$  and  $\sum F_i I_i$  are taken as alternative measures of the same thing – attitude; 2) the equal sign means a functional, not causal, relationship; 3) the equal sign signifies causality from right to left, i.e.,  $\sum F_i I_i \rightarrow A_{object}$ ; 4) the equal sign represents causality from left to right, i.e.,  $A_{object} \leftarrow \sum F_i I_i$ ; 5) the equal sign means the reciprocal causation, i.e.,  $A_{object} \leftrightarrow \sum F_i I_i$ ; 6) the equal sign indicates a mere association.

Figure 1 ; Diagrams of molecular MEVA and molar MEVA



Example of molecular MEVA



Example of molar MEVA

As indicated in Figure 1, molecular MEVA suggests that attitudinal dimensions do not directly influence behavioral consequences, instead influence them via overall attitude. However, molar MEVA represents the patterns of individual  $F_i \cdot I_i$  in a different approach. In molar MEVA, each attitudinal dimension is treated as a construct defined by the sum of specific  $F_i \cdot I_i$  products; and the attitudinal dimensions directly cause the consequent behaviors. In comparison, molecular MEVA emphasizes the commonality shared by the attitudinal dimensions, whereas molar MEVA is concerned more with the uniqueness associated with individual attitudinal dimensions. In achieving the second objective of the current study, this study adopted the molar MEVA model to examine the relationship between the attitudes of long-haul pleasure travelers and their first stage of buy

process, the recognition of their needs for long-haul travel. The equal sign in  $A_{object} = \sum_{i=1}^n F_i I_i$  was interpreted

in this study as the causality from right to left, i.e.,  $\sum F_i \cdot I_i \rightarrow A_{object}$ : Attitudinal dimensions influence individual's need recognition of long-haul pleasure travel.

## 2- METHODS

This study used data from the Pleasure Travel Markets Survey for Rasht (PTAM France). The population of the PTAM Rasht data was all households in Rasht with listed phone number. A stratified sampling method was used to select the representative samples. Telephone screening interviews were first conducted to estimate the potential market size in the population and determine eligible respondents who were willing to participate in face-to-face, in-home interviews. The respondents were then randomly selected according to their date of birth. All respondents were 18 years or older. A total of 1,221 in-home personal interviews were conducted.

The definition of long-haul travel varies in tourism literature. Some suggested that overseas travels are long-haul travels (e.g., King, 1994; Hsieh & O'Leary, 1993; Brown, 1988; Smith, 1987). Bowen (2009) suggested that the tourism trade generally accepts a trip of greater than 3,000 miles or 6 hours of fly time as a long-haul travel. For particular countries, Tideswell & Faulkner (2009) considered that European and North America are part of long-haul travel market of Australia. Lee (2001) defined a trip of four nights or longer by plane outside of Japan or Korea as a long-haul travel for Japanese or Korean travelers. Lehto, O'Leary, and Morrison (2010) considered a trip of four nights or longer by plane outside Europe and the Mediterranean as a long-haul travel for UK travelers. In this study, the long-haul travels for France were defined as overseas vacations of four nights or longer by plane outside of Europe and the Mediterranean region.

The current study identified 19 variables from the data to measure respondents' attitudes towards long-haul pleasure travel. These variables were derived from statements that expressed favorability on cognition (perceptions/ beliefs), affect (feelings), and conation (behavioral intentions). Semantically, these statements

read as “It is important...”, “I don’t really like...”, or “Once..., I like to...” The intensity of favorability was gauged with a four-point Likert scale, where “4” stood for “strongly agree” and “1” for “strongly disagree”.

The respondents were classified into three segments according to their need recognition. They were 1) long-haul pleasure traveler (those who took long-haul pleasure travel in the past three years), 2) long-haul pleasure travel intender (those who did not made a long-haul trip but planned to take such a trip in the next two years), and 3) long-haul pleasure travel nonintender (those who did not made a long-haul trip and did not intend to take such a trip). Using this classification, 55.52 percent were travelers, while 27.44 percent were intenders and 17.04 percent were no intenders.

Table 1 summarized the sample profile. Male and female were proximately half and half. More than 90 percent of respondents fell into the age range of 20-64 and their distribution in this age range was quite even. Approximately, 40.29 percent of respondents were married, followed by single at 28.26%. One quarter of respondents went to high school but didn’t received the degree, while one-third went to high school and received the degree, and another one-third respondents achieved college or higher degrees. About 31.04 percent of respondents had monthly household income at 6,500-12,999 FF, and 33.34 percent of respondents earned 13,000-24,999 FF per month. White-collar workers were the largest occupation segment at 36.53 percent, followed by retired segment (15.23%) and self-employed segment (15.07%).

TABLE 1: Sample Profile

<b>Gender</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Monthly household income before tax (FF)</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Male</b>	47.17	Less than 6,500	<b>5.90</b>
<b>Female</b>	52.83	6,500-12,999	<b>31.04</b>
<b>Age</b>		13,000-24,999	<b>33.34</b>
<b>18-19</b>	1.64	25,000-39,999	<b>9.34</b>
<b>20-34</b>	32.27	40,000 or more	<b>2.54</b>
<b>35-49</b>	30.39	Refused to answer	<b>17.85</b>
<b>50-64</b>	29.16	<b>Occupation</b>	
<b>65 or older</b>	6.55	Student	<b>6.06</b>
<b>Marital status</b>		White-collar worker	<b>36.53</b>
<b>Single</b>	28.26	Blue-collar worker	<b>5.65</b>
<b>Married</b>	40.29	Administrator/manager	<b>10.89</b>
<b>Living together</b>	17.04	Self-employed	<b>15.07</b>
<b>Divorced/separated/widowed</b>	14.17	Unemployed/Non-working	<b>9.17</b>
<b>Other</b>	0.25	Retired	<b>15.23</b>
<b>Education</b>		Other	<b>1.39</b>
<b>Primary school</b>	8.68	<b>Need recognition</b>	
<b>High school without degree</b>	25.06	Traveler	<b>55.52</b>
<b>High school with degree</b>	30.71	Intentioner	<b>27.44</b>
<b>College or university</b>	34.56	Nonintentioner	<b>17.04</b>
<b>Refused to answer</b>	<b>0.98</b>		

The 19 attitude variables were factor analyzed with a varimax rotation, and eight attitudinal dimensions were identified. The multinomial logistic regression (MLR) method was then chosen to test the attitude-need recognition relationship. MLR is an extension of binary logistic regression, which is also called polytomous logistic regression or generalized logit regression. It is considered as an appropriate method for this study because the need recognition is a nominal response variable with more than two categories. In the computation procedure, MLR firstly defines a reference group among the categories of dependent variable, and then binary logistic regression is computed by comparing the reference group with each of the remaining categories. A dependent variable with k categories generates k-1 equations. For the three-category dependent variable, the MLR model in this study was expressed with two log-linear functions as follows:

$$\log (p_1/p_3) = \beta_{10} + \beta_{11} * X_1 + \beta_{12} * X_2 + \dots + \beta_{1j} * X_r,$$

and

$$\log (p_2/p_3) = \beta_{20} + \beta_{21} * X_1 + \beta_{22} * X_2 + \dots + \beta_{2j} * X_r,$$

where,

$p_i$  = probability of event  $i$  for  $i=1,2,3$ ,

$\beta_{1j}$ s and  $\beta_{2j}$ s are parameters with  $0 \leq j \leq m$

$X_r$ s are independent variables with  $1 \leq r \leq m$

Similar to binary logistic regression, parameter  $\beta_{1j}$ s and  $\beta_{2j}$ s can be interpreted as the effect of variable  $X_s$  on the log odds of any outcome  $k$  versus reference outcome. Maximum likelihood estimation was employed in this method, where a smaller likelihood ratio Chi-square with higher less-than-one p-value indicates a better goodness-of-fit (Department of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, 2002; Anonymous, 2002).

### 3- Results

Eight factors with eigenvalue larger than 0.9 were extracted from the 19 variables. These dimensions explained 65.31 percent of the total variance. The 0.9 cut-off eigenvalue and total variance explained was acceptable (Johnson & Wichern, 2002; Hair, Anderson Tatham, & Black, 2008). All factor loadings were computed after varimax rotation. Only items with loadings greater than 0.5 were retained. Table 2 summarized the factor analysis results, including the mean scores of the factors and means of individual variables delineated by the three segments of need recognition.

TABLE 2 :Factor Analysis Of Traveler Attitude To Long-Haul Travel

Factor	Loading	Mean		
		Traveler	Intender	Nonintender
Factor 1: Travel Arrangement		0.090	-0.174	-0.015
I prefer to go on guided tours when taking long-haul holidays	.876	2.38	2.14	2.42
I usually travel on all-inclusive packages when taking long-haul holidays	.843	2.47	2.22	2.38
I enjoy making my own arrangements for my long-haul holidays	-.795	2.69	2.89	2.68
I like to be flexible on my long-haul going where and when it suits me	-.704	3.08	3.31	3.25
Factor 2: Price-Value		-0.010	-0.128	0.242
Inexpensive travel to the destination country is important to me	.861	3.00	2.94	3.17
Getting value for my holiday money is very important to me	.839	3.36	3.32	3.43
Factor 3: Travel Aversion		0.023	-0.165	0.193
I do not really like to travel	.843	1.27	1.14	1.32
Long-haul travel is more of a hassle than a holiday	.841	1.33	1.26	1.45
Factor 4: Timing of Travel		-0.022	0.122	-0.128
I enjoy taking long-haul holidays in the spring and fall	.749	2.74	2.78	2.52
I often take long-haul trips in the low season to take advantage of special deals or value-added offers	.700	2.56	2.69	2.57
Factor 5: Novelty and Activity Level		-0.036	0.054	0.029
I like to go to a different place on each new holiday trip	.801	3.16	3.19	3.20

Once I get to my destination, I like to stay put	-.702	1.64	1.53	1.55
Factor 6: Cold Winter Avoidance		-0.079	0.146	0.021
I often take holidays in warm destinations to escape winter	.881	2.16	2.56	2.16
Factor 7: Preference for Winter Attractions		-0.108	0.339	-0.197
I like taking long-haul holidays in the winter so I can enjoy winter sports and winter scenery	.883	1.70	1.68	1.65
Factor 8: Length of Travel		0.025	-0.057	0.012
I don't consider long-haul trips unless I have at least four weeks to travel	.742	2.05	2.14	2.21
When traveling long-haul I usually take holidays of 14 days or less	.606	2.86	3.06	2.93
Eigenvalue > 0.9				
Cumulative rotation sums of squared loadings= 65.31 % (Varimax rotation)				

\* Only items with factor loading larger than 0.5 are included

Of the eight factors, the “travel arrangement” attitudinal dimension referred to whether the respondent preferred to travel on guided tours/all-inclusive packages, keep travel arrangement flexible, or to make their own arrangement. The “price-value” dimension expressed the cost-value concern about long-haul pleasure travel. The “travel aversion” dimension indicated the respondent’s basic attitudes toward travel in general and long-haul travel in particular. The “timing of travel” dimension indicated the season preference for long-haul pleasure travel. The “novelty and activity level” dimension revealed the respondent’s intention of seeking a variety of destinations when traveling and level of activities at destinations. The “cold winter avoidance” dimension indicated an individual’s preference for warm climate to avoid winter. The “preference for winter attractions” dimension stood for the respondent’s preference for winter scenery or activities. The “length of travel” dimension meant time threshold for the respondent to take a long-haul pleasure travel and travel length preference.

Among these eight factors, ‘timing of travel’, ‘cold winter avoidance’, and ‘preference for winter attractions’ were all related to timing and seasonality. Yet, each of them addressed a different and unique aspect of timing and seasonality, and therefore had different implications. ‘Timing of travel’ stressed the value associated with season difference. ‘Cold winter avoidance’ was related to the weather of season. ‘Preference for winter attractions’ was concerned with the activities available in different seasons. The statistics of factor grouping confirmed that they were distinguishable. The application of the molar MEVA to investigate the effects of distinct attitudinal dimensions on behavior allows the maximization of the uniqueness of attitudinal dimensions. It is noted that some factor loadings exhibited negative values due to the opposing expression of corresponding attitudinal statements used in the questionnaire, such as those in the factor of “travel arrangement”. The statements concerning “guided tour” and “all-included packages” were opposites of those concerning “own arrangement” and “flexible”.

Two set of two MLR equations were calculated, where need recognition was the dependent variable and regressed on the factor scores in log-linear functions. The traveler segment of need recognition was the reference group in the first set of two MLR equations, which modeled the likelihood of long-haul intenders and long-haul travel nonintenders based on their attitudinal dimensions, relative to the traveler segment. The nonintenders segment of need recognition was the reference group in the second set of two MLR equations, which modeled the likelihood of long-haul travelers and intenders based on their attitudinal dimensions, relative to the nonintender segment.

The results of the MLRs were shown in Table 3. The two sets of MLR models had the same likelihood ratio Chi-square of 2191.98 with p-value of 0.98, which indicated a very good overall model fit. It was noted that column of “Nonintender vs. Intender” in the first set and the column of “Intender vs. Nonintender” in the second set presented identical statistics on the relationship between the two segments of need recognition.

TABLE 3: Traveler Attitude and Need Recognition Relationship

Attitudinal Dimension	Traveler as reference group				Nonintender as reference group			
	Intender vs. Traveler		Nonintender vs. Traveler		Intender vs. Nonintender		Traveler vs. Nonintender	
	$\beta$	$p$	$\beta$	$p$	$\beta$	$p$	$\beta$	$p$
<b>Travel Arrangement</b>	-0.28	0.00	-	-	-0.18	0.05	-	-
<b>Price-Value</b>	-0.12	0.06	0.29	0.00	-0.40	0.00	-0.29	<b>0.00</b>
<b>Travel Aversion</b>	-0.24	0.00	0.16	0.03	-0.40	0.00	-0.16	<b>0.03</b>
<b>Timing of Travel</b>	0.16	0.02	-	-	0.27	0.00	-	-
<b>Novelty and Activity Level</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Cold Winter Avoidance</b>	0.25	0.00	-	-	0.16	0.06	-	-
<b>Preference for Winter Attractions</b>	0.46	0.00	-	-	0.57	0.00	-	-
<b>Length of Travel</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Likelihood ratio Chi-square = 2191.98, p-value = 0.98</b>								

Comparing long-haul travelers to long-haul travel nonintenders, two attitudinal dimensions were significant as showed in the column of "Intender vs. Nonintender" of the first set of MLRs. They were 'price-value' and 'travel aversion'. Long-haul travelers exhibited more positive attitudes towards long-haul travel than nonintenders. Comparing intenders to travelers, six attitude dimensions were significant. They were 'travel arrangement', 'price-value', 'travel aversion', 'timing of travel', 'cold winter avoidance', and 'preference for winter attractions'. Specifically, travelers preferred guided tours and usually bought all-inclusive vacation packages, while intenders liked to be flexible and enjoyed making their own arrangement when they were thinking about taking a long-haul pleasure travel.

Several interesting findings were noted in the comparison between travelers and intenders. Firstly, intenders showed a higher level of interest/preference in travel than travelers, but their consequent need recognition was more negative. This finding seemed inconsistent with a classic belief in normative attitude models that positive interests/preferences lead to positive behavioral consequence (e.g. Tybout & Hauser, 2008). The inconsistency might result from the moderating effect of other constructs between interest/preference and behavior, such as personality (Baumgartner, 2006), perceived consumer effectiveness (Kim, 2010), and involvement (Mantel, 2008). Some situational factors (i.e., costs, time availability) might have also played a role. Secondly, intenders seemed to care less about 'price-value' than travelers. They might enjoy taking long-haul holiday in the spring or fall seasons but often took trips by taking advantage of special deals and valued-added offers in off-seasons. Finally, although intenders preferred to visit warm destination to escape winter, they also wished to enjoy winter sports and scenery.

The comparison between intender vs. nonintenders as show in the second set of MLRs was similar to that of intenders vs. travelers in the first set. The significant dimensions were identical, including 'travel arrangement', 'price-value', 'travel aversion', 'timing of travel', 'cold winter avoidance', and 'preference for winter attractions'.

In sum, all three segments of need recognition were differentiated on the two attitudinal dimensions of 'price-value' and 'travel aversion'. The four other dimensions of 'travel arrangement', 'timing of travel', 'cold winter avoidance', and 'preference for winter attractions' differentiated intenders from the other two segments. To the extent that these dimensions and variables herein can all be affected by marketing strategies, understanding the differences among the three segments becomes essential for destination marketers to convert intenders to



be travelers and to persuade intenders from becoming nonintenders. In this regard, the intender segment was the most unstable, representing both the opportunity and challenge for destination marketers.

#### **4- CONCLUSIONS**

Attitude has been considered an important influential factor to consequent behaviors. In this study, this proposition was proven in the long-haul pleasure travel setting. Based on the models of expectancy-value attitudes and using a secondary data from a travel survey, attitude towards long-haul travel was identified as a construct with the eight dimensions of travel arrangement, price-value, travel aversion, timing of travel, novelty and activity level, cold winter avoidance, preference for winter attractions, and length of travel. These dimensions played facilitating or inhibiting roles in an individual's need recognition for long-haul travel. The goodness-of-fit in modeling the attitude-need recognition relationship proved that attitude is a good predictor for future behaviors, and that the molar model of multidimensional expectancy-value attitudes (MEVAs) is appropriate in studying such relationship for long-haul pleasure travel.

In this study, need recognition of long-haul travel was delineated into three categories: traveler, intender, and nonintender. Their differences existed in action of, or willingness, to taking long-haul travel. The findings on the attitude-need recognition relationship would mainly benefit destination marketers in segmentation and promotional strategies. Among these three groups, intenders became the most interesting and noteworthy because they were the most unstable. In order to convert intenders to be travelers, the findings suggested that marketers should address the attitudinal dimensions of travel arrangement, price-value, and timing of travel, cold winter avoidance, and preference for winter attractions. Although marketing efforts cannot create individual's need toward long-haul pleasure travel, relevant product information may be delivered to make people aware of their needs and convince them that particular destinations can satisfy the needs. Destination marketers can work on specific product and service offers, such as travel package arrangements, special deal offerings, novelty and variety of activities, to influence the behaviors.

The findings of this study used a cross-sectional data, assuming the static state of attitude. It must be noted, however, attitude possesses the important property of being dynamic, which means it changes over time and in different situations. The changes can happen in both favorability and intensity (Haugtvedt, Schumann, Schneier, & Warren, 2010). Two possible catalysts of attitude change are information input and personal experience. Consumers may rely on different aspects of advertisements and information to form their judgment and attitude about a product or service (Sengupta, Goodstein, & Boninger, 2007). Further, other external factors, such global terrorism, high price of energy, and increased costs associated with travel, are also possible to influence people's attitude towards long-haul travel. This dynamic nature of attitude suggests that it is necessary to address attitude effects on behavior over time and to take into consideration moderating factors that underlie attitude-behavior relationships. Absence of these considerations is a major limitation of the study's findings, some of which were therefore inconclusive. In addition, the sample of the study was drawn from the Rash population, thus limiting the practical generalization of the findings.

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