



**DESTINATION IMAGE OF SELECTED TOURIST SITES IN THE
VOLTA REGION OF GHANA AND THE FUTURE BEHAVIOURAL
INTENTIONS OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS**

by

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DECLARATION

I, Matthew Opoku Agyeman-Duah, Ghanaian ID No. #####-#####-# and student number ##### declare that this thesis submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the Doctor of Philosophy in Management Science (Marketing Management) is my own work; and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted by me at another university. I, moreover, acknowledge copyright of the dissertation in favour of the Central University of Technology, Free State.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late parents Rev. Fr. Dr. Joseph Agyeman-Duah and Nancy Agyeman-Duah. For their encouragement and dedication towards my academic work. And to my children Nana Kwaku Duah Agyeman-Duah (alias Joseph Agyeman-Duah) and Nana Afia Sarpon Agyeman-Duah (alias Nancy Agyeman-Duah). That they emulate their forbears in their quest to acquire knowledge and wisdom.

ABSTRACT

This study explored the destination image of selected tourist sites in the Volta Region of Ghana, investigating its impact on the future behavioural intentions of international tourists.

Based on a robust deductive approach and incorporating the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), a quantitative method was employed to statistically analyse the data. The study followed a cross-sectional descriptive and inferential design. A survey and structured questionnaire were used to collect data. A probability sampling method (disproportionate stratified sampling) was used to sample international tourists that visited the Volta region. Through statistical analysis involving structural equation modelling of data collected from a diverse sample of 403 international tourists, the research integrates the constructs of the TPB (attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control) with destination image to predict tourist intentions. Specifically, the data were analysed using SmartPLS-SEM (partial least square structural equation modelling).

The research findings highlight a strong correlation between the perceived destination image and tourists' attitudes towards revisiting and recommending the Volta Region, indicating the profound impact of destination image on their behavioural intentions. Further, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control also exhibit significant influence, with well-managed tourist sites and positive peer influences driving tourists' intentions to return and recommend the destination.

However, the study reveals that infrastructure improvements and better information dissemination about the region could further enhance the perceived behavioural control, and thus, tourists' future intentions. The findings provide valuable insights for local stakeholders, enhancing their ability to shape policies and strategies that



foster a positive image of the Volta Region and encourage repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth among international tourists.

This research provides critical insights for policymakers, tourism marketers, and local businesses in the Volta region, offering them strategies to improve their destination marketing efforts, strengthen the local tourism industry, and consequently, positively shape the future behavioural intentions of international tourists.

Key Words: destination image, behaviour intention, volta region, ghana tourism, segmentation, positioning, tourism marketing.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABC	Affect, Behaviour and Cognition
AfDB	Africa Development Bank
AIDA	Awareness Interest Desire Action
AVE	Average Variance Extract
CB-SEM	Co-variance Based -Structural Equation Model
CTA	Confirmatory Trade Analysis
DMO	Destination Management Organisations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
HOLSAT	Holiday satisfaction
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio
IPMA	Importance-Performance Map Analysis
LV	Latent Variables
MoTAC	Ministry of Tourism Arts Culture
MTE	Memorable Tourism Experience
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PBC	Perceived Behavioural Control
PLS-SEM	Partial-Least Square - Structural Equation Model
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SRMR	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual

TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USD	United States Dollars
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council



CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTORY

This section of Chapter 1 states the focus of the study followed by providing a general picture of tourism industry's contribution to the global, continental regional national and local economies with a specific focus on international tourists. The section provides a discussion on the role of marketing in promoting tourism globally, continentally, regionally nationally, and locally again focusing on international tourists.

1.1.1 Focus of the study

This study examined the international tourist's perceptions of destination image and their motives, attitudes, satisfaction, and the impact thereof on future behavioural intentions regarding willingness to revisit and word-of-mouth intentions and willingness to recommend the selected tourist sites in the Volta region of Ghana. The study aimed to understand international tourists' behaviour, assist tourism officials in making well-informed planning and development decisions, and help service providers increase tourist satisfaction, generating memorable experiences and intentions in the Volta region of Ghana. To achieve this, the study focused on the key behavioural variables of destination image, perception, satisfaction, motivation, attitude, demographic factors and behavioural intention. In addition, the study sought to find out international tourist perceptions of the key tourist sites and tourism destinations of Ho Municipal, Ho, West District, Keta Municipal, Agotime Ziope District, Hohoe District and Afadjato South District, as well as the overall image of Volta region as a tourist destination.

The study falls within the broad marketing field and, more specifically, consumer behaviour. In today's competitive tourism business environment, consumer

behaviour studies are imperative and topical because as alluded to by Mukherjee and Banerjee (2017) it is crucial in every tourism marketing activity to customise products and services that meet consumer expectations for competitiveness and sustainability. Although tourism activities relate to almost all the SDGs, the current study directly contributes to 'No Poverty', 'Decent Work and Economic Growth' (SDGs 1 and 8) as the results of the study could lead to greater efficiencies, cost savings and competitiveness for the tourism businesses while enhancing employment creation and economic growth in the Volta Region.

1.1.2 Contribution of the tourism industry

Globally, tourism is touted as a significant source of economic activity (Dogru et al., 2020; Tohmo, 2018; Falade, Obalade & Dubey, 2014). At its peak in 2018, the sector accounted for over 10.4% of global domestic product (GDP) but declined to 7.6% in 2022 due to Covid-19 (WTTC 2022). Significantly, 22 million jobs were created in 2022 representing a 7.9% increase of 2021 (WTTC 2022). Many countries have benefited from tourism revenue (Odunga et al., 2019; Cavagnaro & Staffieri, 2015; Falade, Obalade & Dubery, 2014). For instance, Africa experienced 7% increase of international arrivals that accounted for 67 million which generated UDS 38 billion in 2018 (UNWTO 2019). Again, according to the UNWTO (2020), Sub-sahara Africa recorded 44.9 million international tourists' arrival with Ghana and Gambia seen as some of the most popular destinations. The tourism sector has been classified as a trillion-dollar industry that employs one in every 11 people and contributes greatly to GDP (Zhou, 2019; Mbaiwa et al., 2019; Musavengane 2018; UNWTO 2018a; WTTC 2017). Importantly, global tourism has the potential to contribute to all the SDG goals and the 2030 agenda (UNWTO, 2019a, b),

Tourism is seen as a main driver of growth in Africa and as a result, countries like Rwanda, Kenya, Egypt, South Africa, Ghana among others have linked their economic prosperity to it. Consequently, there are many economic programmes geared towards tourism to boost development. According to Diakite et al. (2020),

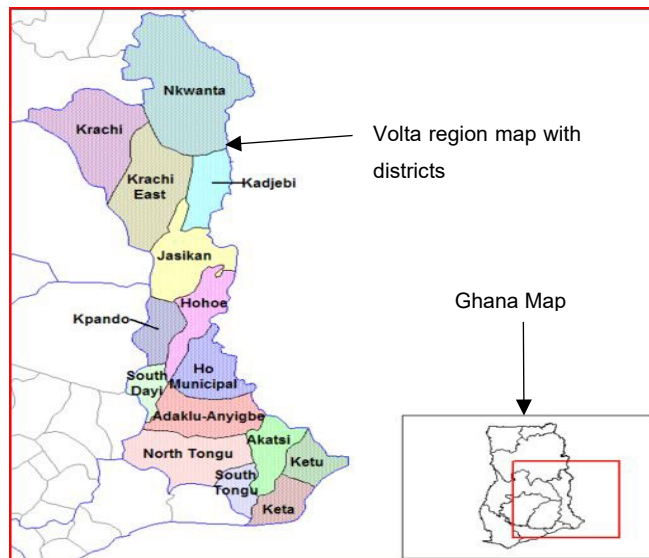
Africa generated \$194.2 billion of revenue from tourism inspite of its challenges like lack of infrastructure, lack of direct flights, accessibility issues, lack of proper promotional marketing strategies and techniques and been continually seen as a continent ravaged by war, poverty, disease, hunger by foreign media. According to the African Development Bank (AfDB) Africa recorded 62.5 million visitors, generated 9.1 million direct jobs and \$39.2 billion in international tourism receipts in 2015 (AfDB 2016:14). It has been forecast that the region expects \$262 billion in revenue from 1 billion people travelling internationally (Zhou 2022). And according to the UNWTO (2020), the continent international tourist's arrival will reach 1.8 billion by 2030 if it is able to keep the pace hinged on globalization and rising income levels of tourist income.

In Ghana, tourism is the third income generating sector (Motac, 2022) providing the much-needed foreign exchange as well as employment. In 2021, the country's travel and tourism sector contributed over \$3 billion to the economy. Despite the setback of Covid-19 pandemic the sector recorded 411,164 international tourist's arrivals corresponding to \$335.5 million by the end of September 2021. According to the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MoTAC), the sector generated over \$2.5 billion from 914,892 international tourists in 2022. The Ministry has made a short-term projection to attract 1.2 million tourists to the country in 2023 and expect to generate \$3.4 billion to the economy. In the medium term the Ministry is hoping to realise 2 million international arrivals with a matching receipt of \$5 billion by 2025.

The scramble for resources has persisted for several years (Adu-Ampong, 2018) among nations. And globalization has compounded it resulting in competition among tourism hot spots. This situation has compelled tourism businesses to find ways of enhancing the image of their tourist destinations in order to attract and retain visitors (Agayi, 2020; Adu-Ampong, 2018; Akyeampong, 2009:4). To achieve its target, the Ministry launched a major marketing campaign dubbed "Year of Return" in 2019, a year long programme of activities to recognise the 400th anniversary of the arrival of first recorded enslave Africans in the State of Virginia.

This campaign was to attract international tourists and investors to Ghana. The second phase of the campaign called “Beyond the Return” was planned for 2020 but was postponed due to Covid-19 pandemic. A new tourism marketing campaign called ‘Destination Ghana’ has also been launched in London to attract Europeans and international tourists to Ghana.

Volta region is one of Ghana’s 16 regions with Ho being the capital. Volta region is divided into 18 administrative districts. The region lies at the eastern side of Ghana and shares common boundaries with five (5) major regions namely Greater Accra, Eastern, Oti, Bono-East and Northern regions. Geographically, the region is located at 3^o 45 Latitude N and 8^o 45 Longitude N and covers a total land area of 20,572km². The region is multi-ethnic constituting groups like the Ewe, Guans, Akans and Gurmas. The Ewe’s are the natives constituting (68.5%), the Akans (8.5%), Guans (9.2%) and Gurmas (6.5%) of the population. Tourism in the region is classified into recreations, mountains and attractions. The mountains include Mount Afadja, Mount Gemi, Mount Adaklu among others. The recreation covers the Volta Lake, Beaches and Lagoons and Museums whilst the Falls are made up of Wli Waterfalls, Tagbo Waterfalls, Biakpa Falls, Amedzofe/Ote Falls, Kpoeta Water Falls, Adidime Water Fall, Akpom Falls, Tsatsadu Falls etc. Other attraction sites include the following Tafi Atome, Snake Village, Fort Prinzenstein, Cape St. Paul Lighthouse, Atorkor Slave Market, Kpetoe Kente Weaving Village among others (see appendix 2 and 3). The region celebrate 25 festivals by various communities and states and the notable ones are Hobetsotso, Asogli Yam, Keta-Sometutu, Dzawuwu festival of Agave-Ewes, Akwantutenen, Amu festival among others.



Map of Ghana and Volta regional district

The region is known to be a microcosm of Ghana but its yet to harness its enormous tourism potential for economic gains. According to the Ghana Tourism Authority the implementing arm of the Ministry of Tourism, the Volta region recorded 27,755 tourists and generated a revenue of GHC 281,527 in 2021. Out of the total number generated, 24,349 were Ghanaians (domestic) and 3,446 non-Ghanaians (international). In 2022, the number surged with 44,676 tourists visiting and generating a revenue of GHC 626,282. Out of the number 36,839 comprised of domestic tourists and 7,834 international tourists. The Authority has attributed the increase to factors such as the regions stunning natural beauty, diverse cultural heritage, improved tourism infrastructure and calculated awareness creation at the national, regional, district and individual level. However, not much attention and research has been granted to ascertain how international tourists perceive the image of the place, what motivates them to visit, whether they are satisfied and willing to return back in future and also recommend to family and friends. Also, they lack the proper marketing planning process to develop a coherent marketing plan that will attract and increase international tourists to visit the destination and attraction sites.

1.1.3 Role of marketing in promoting tourism

Marketing is an important aspect of tourism. In tourism, marketing involves promotional techniques to attract tourists to a destination. All promotional activities are situated in the Attention-Interest-Desire-Action (AIDA) model. Before a tourist embark on a trip to visit a destination, they need to know about the place and marketing's role is first to attract the attention of the tourist which will further be supported by creating interest in that destination by showing the key attraction sites, the beauty, culture etc of the destination. According to Mill and Morrison (2013) cited by Sharma and Hazarika (2017:85), this continuous process and the tourist memorable experience makes tourists to revisit the place. Marketing, therefore, provides a comprehensive framework for destination/tourism marketing.

The competitive nature of the tourism industry has had a toll on countries and DMO's that do not have the requisite marketing strategies. The Volta region's inability to reach optimum levels of international tourists arrivals coupled with the abundant resources at its disposal is a testament of the lack of appropriate marketing strategy. Apart from the development of a coherent marketing strategy the media and the application of digital marketing (IT) can be used to reach a larger coverage to create the necessary awareness at various stages on the international platform and improve communication between the organisation and its target audience. These roles that marketing plays if put into practice will help increase international tourist arrivals in the Volta region.

1.2 PROBLEM BACKGROUND

The determinants of (factors influencing) consumer behaviour have traditionally been classified under three broad categories: psychological, sociological, and economic (Wahono & Kartika, 2017; Quinlan & Carmichael, 2010). On the other hand, different authors such as Mukherjee and Banerjee (2017) and Fratu (2011) grouped these factors as personal, social and situational or contextual. A closer look at the two variants of categorisations shows no significant differences except

that Fratu (2011) appears to substitute the economic factor with the situational or contextual factor. Therefore, these two classifications are the same and, at face value, quite simple. However useful these classifications might appear, many other factors, elements or activities exist. For example, according to Andreades, Dimanche and Ilkevich (2015), the socio-psychological elements are destination image, tourist motivation, attitudes and demographics. Demographics, such as family (familial) factors, combined with specific elements of destination images, would have more impact on the future behavioural intention of international tourists.

The tourist experience of a destination is a key driver of competitive advantage (Andreades et al., 2015:102). Furthermore, Chen, Suntukil and King (2020) agree with O'Dell (2007) that experiences are the most important determinant of consumer behaviour. From this psychological perspective, it is argued that the future behavioural intentions of international tourists could be negatively or positively impacted by their lived experiences and perceptions of the destination image. Therefore, in line with Kastenholz (2002) and Kim and Lee (2018), knowledge of the image perceptions of tourists and understanding the impact of destination image can be beneficial for branding and marketing campaigns that could become an essential aspect of attracting tourists to the selected sites precisely because destination image is directly related to tourist behaviour (Kim & Lee, 2018; Ispas & Saragea, 2011; Kastenholz, 2002).

While past experiences can be highly subjective and controversial (Chen et al., 2020; Quinlan & Carmichael, 2010; Wang & Hsu, 2010) argue that such experiences can lead to consequential behavioural intentions of international tourists due to the perceptions of destination image created by their lived experiences. Destination image is important because its enhancement is a strategic aspect of tourism marketing (Vijoli & Marinescu, 2017; Ispas & Saragea, 2011). In a highly competitive tourist market, understanding one's international customers is vital in producing goods and services they want and like so that satisfied tourists can return, recommend the destination to others and say good things about it. Therefore, image studies are imperative to a successful marketing

strategy (Kotler et al., 1993). Moreover, in the current highly competitive global marketplace for tourists, international tourists need to understand their experiences to produce the goods and services they want. Therefore, by understanding what tourists want and providing goods and services they like, the tourism business will most likely make a healthy profit. At the same time, the customer will be happy to make a return recommend the destination to others and say good things about the destination – leading to both tourists and businesses benefiting.

In the marketing process, destination images play a vital role in how tourists recognise the place (Ivanović & Milojica 2019; Vijoli & Marinescu, 2017). Consequently, as Ispas and Saragea (2011) suggested, the content of image policies must contain an assessment of the recognised destination image. In line with the famous saying “beauty lies in the eyes of the beholder”, it is the visitors (tourists) who must eventually make judgements about the destination image and based on this, they would then decide whether to buy or not to buy the tourism package. This reasoning is easy to understand because the image of a destination is directly related to tourist behaviour, as destination image influences behaviour via image manipulation (Kastenholz, 2002). Thus, creating tourism products/packages for tourists may not be appropriate without knowing visitors' image perceptions. Therefore, image studies are very imperative to a successful tourist destination marketing strategy because it leads marketers to the set of beliefs, ideas and impression that tourists have of a specific place (Kotler et al., 1993).

While studies on the impact of destination image and its constituents are topical research areas in tourism (Duirube & Van Der Merwe, 2022; Rajesh, 2013; Prayag, 2009), the literature search revealed that the topic had received little attention on the behavioural intention of international tourists visiting Ghana. Because destination image influences the behavioural intention of tourists (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2017; Vijoli & Marinescu, 2017), understanding the behavioural intention of international tourists to Ghana is important for marketing tourism destinations and policy for tourism promotion in Ghana. Therefore, there is direct and indirect benefit arising from exploring the behavioural intention to improve understanding

of the requirement for market segmentation, branding and promotional campaigns appropriate for destination branding of Ghana's tourism sites. In the context of marketing and brand management, understanding international tourist experiences and perceptions of the selected tourist destinations and their behavioural intentions is relevant, useful and practical for the image promotion of selected tourism destinations (Kim & Lee, 2018). Whilst the destination's image and family factor, determinism provides an opportunity to understand behavioural intentions; further exploration of these elements would be helpful for tourism marketing companies and policymakers.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the discussion above, it is obvious that empirical studies on tourism destination images have paid little attention to its implications for future behavioural intentions (Elsayeh, 2020; Rajesh, 2013; Wang & Hsu, 2010; Prayag, 2009). This situation has created a knowledge gap in the literature as it relates to the Ghanaian context. The knowledge generated from such types of research can be useful for developing marketing strategies that can be used to implement creative marketing activities to project tourist sites as choice destinations. In the regional context, Ghana needs to understand the feelings of international tourists to be competitive in the West African tourist industry. For the Volta region, it is imperative that it exploits the economic potentials and opportunities that the tourism industry provides because of the abundance of naturally attractive resources at its disposal. Due to these reasons and many more, this study examined the international tourist's perceptions of destination image, their motives, attitudes, satisfaction and the impact thereof on future behavioural intentions regarding willingness to revisit and word-of-mouth intentions and willingness to recommend the selected tourist sites in the Volta region.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This section sets out both the main research questions and subsidiary research questions which have been derived from the objectives.

1.4.1 Main research question

What impact does international tourists' perception of destination image have on their future behaviour toward the selected tourist sites in the Volta region of Ghana?

1.4.2 Subsidiary research questions

Given the above main research question, the subsidiary research questions are as follows:

1. How do international tourists perceive the selected tourist' sites in the Volta Region as choice destinations?
2. What are the attitudes of international tourists towards the selected tourist' sites in the Volta Region as choice destinations?
3. How satisfied are international tourists with the selected sites in the Volta Region?
4. To what extent do tourist push and pull factors motivate international tourists to visit the selected tourist sites in the Volta region?
5. To what extent are international tourists willing to pay a return visit to selected tourist sites in the Volta region?
6. To what extent are international tourists willing to say positive words about the selected tourist sides in the Volta region?
7. To what extent are international tourists willing to recommend the selected sides in the Volta region as tourist destinations to others?
8. What is the relationship between destination image, on the one hand, and future visit intentions, word-of-mouth behaviour and willingness to recommend the selected tourist sites as a choice destination for tourists?

9. What roles do tourists' attitudes, motivations, and demographic factors play in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions?

1.5 HYPOTHESES

To achieve the expected outcome of the study, the following main hypothesis and subsidiary hypotheses were developed in line with the objectives and aims of the research.

1.5.1 Main hypothesis

The main hypothesis developed for the study is that: Destination image positively affects tourist behaviour intentions.

1.5.2 Subsidiary hypotheses

The subsidiary research hypotheses developed for the study are as follows:

- H₁: Destination image positively influences tourists' revisit intentions.
- H₂: Destination image positively influences tourists' recommendations to others.
- H₃: Destination image significantly influences tourist's perception.
- H₄: Destination image positively influences pull motives.
- H₅: Destination image positively influences push motives.
- H₆: Perception positively influences tourist satisfaction.
- H₇: Push motive positively influences tourists' perception.
- H₈: Pull motives positively influence tourist's perceptions.
- H₉: Push motives have a positive influence on satisfaction.
- H₁₀: Pull motives have a positive influence on satisfaction.
- H₁₁: Satisfaction has a positive influence on attitude toward a destination.
- H₁₂: Attitude towards destination positively influence return to visit.
- H₁₃: Attitude towards destination positively influences recommendation.

1.6 OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study was achieved by addressing the following objectives.

1.6.1 Main Objective

The main research objective is to assess the impact of international tourists' perception of destination image on their future behavioural intentions towards the selected tourist sites in the Volta region of Ghana.

1.6.2 Subsidiary Objectives

The subsidiary objectives of the study are as follows:

1. Determine how international tourists perceive the selected tourist' sites in the Volta Region as choice destinations.
2. Determine the attitudes of international tourists towards the selected tourist' sites in the Volta Region as choice destinations.
3. Determine how satisfied international tourists are with the selected tourist' sites in the Volta Region.
4. Determine the extent to which tourist push and pull factors motivate international tourists to visit the Volta region's selected tourist sites.
5. Determine the extent to which international tourists are willing to pay a return visit to selected tourist sites in the Volta region.
6. Determine the extent to which international tourists are willing to say positive words about the selected tourist sides in the Volta region.
7. Determine the extent to which international tourists are willing to recommend the selected tourist sides in the Volta region as tourist destinations to others.
8. Determine the relationship and the nature of that relationship (if any) between destination image, on the one hand, and tourist future visit intentions, word of mouth behaviour and willingness to recommend the selected tourist sites as a choice destination for tourists.

9. Determine the roles of tourists' attitudes, motivations and demographic factors in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions.
10. Recommend actions that can be taken to improve the destination images of tourist sites in the Volta region and other tourist sites in Ghana to attract international tourists.

1.7 AIM OF THE STUDY

This research aims to contribute towards a fuller understanding of international tourist behaviour that will assist tourism officials in making well-informed planning and development decisions. It is also intended to provide insights that can assist or enable tourism service providers to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty hence financial success through memorable visitor experiences.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This research provides critical insights for policymakers, tourism marketers, and local businesses in the Volta region, offering them strategies to improve their destination marketing efforts, strengthen the local tourism industry, and consequently, positively shape the future behavioural intentions of international tourists.

1.8.1 Contribution towards a theory

This research contributes to the existing literature in tourism studies, destination marketing, and behavioural economics in several ways. Firstly, this research contributes to the existing body of knowledge on destination image and its impacts on tourist behaviour in the rural developing country context by providing empirical insights into how international tourists perceive the destination image of the Volta Region which is a largely rural area in Ghana.

By focusing on the Volta Region of Ghana, the research provides unique insights into how specific regional attributes contribute to the overall perception of a destination. By analyzing the future behavioural intentions of international tourists, the research contributes to continued theory development regarding tourist behaviour and destination decision-making processes. The research also offers a case study material for future research in tourism and international travel with specific reference to Ghana, a developing country context. The study provides new empirical insights into the factors influencing destination image, in the context of the Volta Region in Ghana which has led to the development of a new fit-for-purpose or context specific model of destination image.

Lastly, the research has created an expanded understanding of the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions of international tourists that could be used to challenge or confirm existing theories.

1.8.2 Contribution towards policy

This research could inform policy making related to tourism in the Volta region of Ghana, nationally and globally. The policy contributions include the following: National, regional and local government and government entities in Ghana can utilize the findings of this research to develop policies that encourage tourism growth. In other words, the study provides insights that can guide how current national, regional and local tourism promotion policies in Ghana could be fine-tuned or adapted to increase the appeal of the Volta Region to international tourists. The study also highlights the economic value of tourism in the region, prompting the need for policy changes to further support and enhance this sector. There are recommendations made in this study for the government to improve the tourism infrastructure and other elements impacting the destination image in the Vola region.

1.8.3 Contribution towards practice

The research has various practical contributions including the following: The findings of this research are of direct benefit to tourism industry stakeholders in the Volta region of Ghana and other regions, including local governments, tourism boards, travel agencies, and businesses. Firstly, this study has led to the identification of key elements of the destination image of tourism sites in the Volta region that drive tourist attractions, which can be used to tailor marketing strategies. In other words, for marketers in the Volta Region of Ghana, the research results highlight what aspects of the Volta Region are most appealing to tourists and should therefore be emphasized in promotional materials. Specifically, the research can be used by tourism marketers and businesses to design marketing strategies that are effective at attracting international tourists to destinations like the ones found in the Volta Region of Ghana. The same research results can be used in enhancing the tourist experience because the understanding of the future behavioural intentions of international tourists provides guidance on how to enhance the visitor experience, ensuring repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth recommendations. Lastly, the findings can be beneficial for destination management organizations (DMOs) in the Volta Region to strategically manage and develop their tourism products and services. Insights into future behavioural intentions of international tourists, could help in forecasting tourist inflow and making necessary preparations. Furthermore, the cleaning of the beaches and waterfalls recommended in the study will curtail the littering of the destinations resulting in achieving clean water and sanitation, which is goal six (6) of the SDG development goals contributing to the Decent Work and Economic Growth (8) components of the SDG. Practically, the study can support and contribute to the development and implementation of the destination marketing strategy for the region.

1.9 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 provides a general introduction to the study. It includes the problem and its background, research questions, hypothesis, objectives, the study's aim, scope, and significance. Finally, it concludes with the demarcation of the thesis chapters.

The introductory chapter is followed by three literature chapters (Chapters 2, 3 and 4). As stated earlier, the current study falls within the broad marketing field, specifically consumer behaviour focusing on selected socio-psychological factors. These factors include destination image; tourist motivation and attitudes; demographics as well as family factors and how these factors impact the future behaviour of international tourists to key tourist sites and destinations in the Volta region of Ghana based on the theory of planned behaviours. Based on these variables and theory, the literature review is arranged as follows. Chapter 2 focuses on destination image, tourist perception and the marketing of tourist sites. Chapter 3 deals with international tourist motivation, satisfaction, attitudes and future behavioural intentions. Chapter 4 draws on the broad theories of consumer behaviour and identifies the theory of planned behaviour to predict tourists' behavioural intentions. The chapter also developed a conceptual framework to identify the relationship among the variables: destination image (independent variable), perception, motivation, satisfaction, attitude, demographic and family factors and behaviour intentions (dependent variables). It also revealed the testable hypothesis to test the relationship among these variables.

Following the literature chapters, Chapter 5 deals with the methodology applied to the study. This chapter outlines how the research was designed and conducted. In addition, this chapter includes the philosophical assumptions and paradigms, the research approaches, the research methods, the research purpose, sampling, data collection and the method of analysis.

Chapter 6 is devoted to the analysis presentation and discussion of the results. The analysis comprises descriptive demographic statistics such as the

measurement and structural models. In contrast, the descriptive analysis comprises the demographic components of age, gender, education, marital status, occupation, and residential place. The measurement model is used to determine the reliability and validity of the items. The structural model covers the collinearity and model fit assessment to determine the predictive power and relevance of the model for hypothesis testing. The chapter also discusses the results based on the research questions, the conceptual framework and the hypothesis in relation to the extant literature.

Chapter 7 is the final chapter and concludes the study by presenting the summary, conclusion and recommendations based on the results. It also presents the contributions of the study, its limitations and directions for future research.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the study overview and the context of the investigation (perception of international tourists on the destination image and future behavioural intentions). It further outlined the introduction, the problem background and statement and the scope of the study. Furthermore, it contained the hypotheses, the research questions and objectives and the significance of the study. The next chapter contains the details of the literature review, focusing on the study's key variables.

CHAPTER 2

DESTINATION IMAGE AND MARKETING OF TOURIST SITES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is the first part of three literature review chapters undertaken for this study to determine the research gaps. The chapter reviews destination image and perception, which are key variables used by researchers in the field.

2.2 DESTINATION IMAGE

This section discusses the nature of destination image and how destination image is formed in individuals.

2.2.1 The nature of destination image formation

Destination image studies in tourism have been trendy since the 1970s (Pike, Kotsi & Tossan, 2018; Crompton, 1979b; Goodrich, 1978; Scott, Schewe & Frederick, 1978; Mercer, 1971; Hunt, 1975). Its conceptualisation is considered a relevant research domain in tourism literature because of its significance in the branding and marketing of destinations (Lee & Jeong, 2018; Pike et al., 2018; Li, Wen & Ying, 2017; Song, Su & Li, 2013). According to Zhang, Cai and Lu (2014), it is an important area because of its great impact on destination choice, satisfaction and post-purchase behaviour. It is also used to understand tourists' actual and future behaviour intentions towards a destination (Lin & Kuo, 2018).

According to Loi, et al. (2017), destination image is a concept with vague and shifting meanings, used in many contexts and disciplines such as psychology, behavioural geography and marketing. From a brand image perspective, it refers to: “a set of beliefs associated with a particular brand widely studied in marketing and consumer behaviour perspectives” (Moreira & lao, 2014:95) “a set of beliefs,

ideas and impressions an individual has toward specific brand” (Kotler, 2009:208) and cited by Sudaryanto, (2019:86) “the brand relations retained in consumers mind causes the assumptions about a brand” Keller (1993) cited by Otundo (2018:4). As such, there are many definitions for the concept of destination images. Although destination image can be conceptualised in various ways, it is frequently approached from different perspectives (holistic, cognition or image as a knowledge structure, the affectivity and the subjective function of behavioural outcome) (Banki, Ismail, Dalil &Kawu, 2014; Kastenholz, 2012).

Borrowing from Fakeye and Crompton (1991); MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997); Baloglu and McCleary (1999); Septchenkova and Mills (2010); Zhang et al. (2014), the destination image is defined from an image projection perspective as the cognitive expression of a tourist’s knowledge, feelings, thoughts, opinions, and overall perception of a destination based on the evaluation of destination attributes.

Destination images are holistic in nature, making their measurement problematic. To solve this situation, Echtner and Ritchie proposed the attribute-holistic of the dimensions and used it to make meaning to the whole destination measurement. Thus, based on the framework, an image of a destinate is not only defined from the perspective of perception but also from the holistic connotations associated with the destination.

After explaining the relationships of the three-continuum dimension, Echtner and Ritchie (1993) extended the framework to incorporate the three-component attributes. Their three-component approach has since been used in destination image research as a theoretical framework (Lin et al., 2007; Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002) and cited by Xu et al. (2018). These components are the affective, cognitive and conative attributes. The cognitive dimensions are linked to the attributes and functional features. The affective is linked to the holistic and psychological attributes, while common and unique features are associated with both dimensions. Although according to Afshardoost & Eshagi, (2020), these dimensions are valid for assessing destination image. These components of

affective, cognitive and conative dimensions make destination images multi-dimensional (Lee & Jeong, 2018; Assaker & Hallak, 2013). Furthermore, tourism studies confirm that a destination's overall image is more than just the sum of individual components (Stylos & Andronikidis, 2013; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Phelps, 1986).

As presented in some research works, cognitive image dimensions are linked to the beliefs of the tourist or how they perceive a particular destination. Cognitive image is a tourist's knowledge and perception of a destination and its attributes (Stylydis, Shani, & Belhassen, 2017). It is again classified as the knowledge about the attributes of the destination (Tessitore, Pandelaere & Kerckhove, 2014). Cognitive attributes are mostly associated with experiential and physical factors such as climate, natural attractions, accommodation, shopping facilities, culture, cleanliness, safety and costs/price level, infrastructure, nightlife and entertainment, tourist sites etc. On the other hand, the affective image is the feeling and affection tourists have towards a destination (Song et al., 2013). It is affirmed by Tessitore et al. (2014), who also further addresses the affective image as the individual impressions about a destination. Russell et al. (1981) developed a circumplex model for assessing tourists associated with a destination. The model has been used by researchers and scholars to assess affective destination image and is composed of the bipolar dimensions; unpleasant-pleasant, sleepy arousing, gloomy-exiting and distressing-relaxing (Moon, Kim, Ko, Connaughton & Lee, 2011; Byon & Zhang, 2010; Prayag, 2010; Konecnik, 2002). This sequential effect of cognitive (belief) and affective (emotional reaction to belief) was confirmed by (Huete-Alcocer & Martinez-Ruiz, 2019; Gartner, 1993; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Prasertwong, (2001) and Mayo and Jarvis's (1981:190) studies on cognitive-affective also reveal the "overall image" associated with the link. This study, therefore, conceptualises destination image as a holistic image. However, when the cognitive and affective components are combined, it leads to the evolution of conative image, the third component (Chan & Pratt, 2018; Peña, JAMILENA, & MOLINA, 2012; Pike & Ryan, 2004).

A conative image is a tourist's action based on creating a cognitive and affective image (Kim, 2017). It is mostly expounded as the consumption behaviour of the traveller (Zhang et al., 2014). Conative elements show how tourists consider a destination as an active place (Rosa et al., 2020; Gartner 1993). Furthermore, it is associated with intention (King, Chen & Funk, 2015), constituting why the selection of a destination is facilitated by the affection and comprehension of repeat or new visitors (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007; Pike & Ryan, 2004). However, the difference between conative image and intention has proven to be distinct by researchers. The destination image theory, however, indicates that destination characteristics relate to the perceptions of individuals or subjective associations (Stylos et al., 2016; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Chen & Uysal, 2002; Gartner, 1993), whilst conative image delineates the future developments that the individual carves for himself/herself (Dann, 1996).

Lee, Lee, and Lee (2014) also found the perception of tourists to their destination to be dynamic. Scholars identified that tourists from pre-visit, post-visit, and during-visit images of a destination depending on their specific stage of touristic experience (Xu & Ye, 2018; Gunn, 1988). Pre-visit image is established before actually visiting a tourist destination (Kim, 2017). Post-visit image is established through the tourist's personal experience after visiting the destination (Song et al., 2013). Finally, an on-site image is created when the tourist is present at the destination or attraction site (Stylidis et al., 2017). As a yardstick, the study will assess international tourists' perceptions based on their on-site and post-visit intentions as they visit the key tourist sites and destinations in the Volta region.

2.2.2 Destination image formation

Destination image formation has been defined by Reynolds (1965), quoted by Foroudi et al. (2018:98) as the “development of a mental construct based upon a few impressions chosen from a flood of information” ranging from promotional literature, opinion of others, general media, to one's own experience (Kastenholz, 2012). However, the impressions are altered in the tourist's mind as the tourist

consumes more information. Llodra-Riera et al. (2015) also affirm that tourist perception depends, to a large extent, on the information that they receive. The information is then converted to be more meaningful to the tourist, thus serving as a positive image.

Destination marketers use advertising and other promotional campaigns to demonstrate a positive image or alter negative tourist perceptions towards an image (Ray, 2018). However, having these campaigns does not necessarily mean they will impact tourist perceptions. This is because the key messages from these campaigns are changed by the source that transmits them (Young, 1999; Bramwell & Rawding, 1996) or altered by the perceiver (Court & Lupton, 1997). Furthermore, image formation can occur as a result of personal experience (Gaude, 2017; Kastenholz, 2012), mainly from information sources (Gartner 1993; Bojanic 1991; Gunn 1972) or where there is no even commercial information (Alhemoud & Armstrong 1996).

Baloglu and Mcleary (1999a) proposed a destination image formation model. In their model, the facilitation of the formation is done with the stimulus and personal factors. Stimulus factors are based on previous experience or physical factors, while personal factors are characterised by the individual's psychological and social factors. Studies on the stimulus factors have found that "variety and type of information sources" and "previous experience" tend to have a significant effect on how individuals perceive the destination (Iordanova-Krasteva, 2013; Kastenholz, 2012; Baloglu, 1999; Baloglu & Mcleary, 1999a, 1999b; Fakeye & Crompton, 1999). In addition, however, social characteristics (sex, age, education and others) are found to influence tourist perception of destinations (Mak, Lumbers & Chang, 2012; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Hui & Wan, 2003; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Brown., 2001; Baloglu & Mcleary, 1999a, Chen & Kerstetter, 1999; Mackay & Feseinmaier, 1997).

Pursuits of exposure, attention, external stimuli and rendition engineer tourist perception. However, stimuli also depend on individual internal factors (Nazrin, Ismail & Merican, 2018; Hawkins, Best & Coney, 2003). It is processed by the

stimuli, and psychological factors play an important role in influencing the tourist. This research will focus more on tourist perception and motivations in the next section. But the internal and external factors that affect tourist perception during the destination formation stages are classified into perception “a priori”, perception “in situ”, and perception “a posteriori”. The “a priori” of perception is when the individual has no physical contact with the place but tries to figure out how it looks through their mental construction. The “in situ” perception is when the tourist confirms what they have imagined of the place and what they have witnessed. It forms the experience they encounter because they entered the place with a preconceived image that must be confirmed whether it suits their thoughts. The “a posteriori” of perception is what part of the tourist becomes after consumption of the product and the experience.

Other scholars have also researched the formation of the destination image. For example, Gunn, in the 1970s, introduced the notions of “organic”, “induced”, and later “modified” images. Organic image, according to Gunn, is when non-commercial information is directed to the target audience (tourists), whilst induced, on the other hand, is the information directed at potential markets or tourists. The organic is associated with people’s assimilation of everyday information to include different forms of medium, knowledge from readings, the media, and visiting a particular place. Through tourism promotions and advertising, marketers influence the formation of the induced image. Gunn’s (1988a) model of tourist experience and formation, elucidates the effect on the behaviour of tourists. Gunn makes it clear that destination images are based on a large amount of non-commercial information than is made for “common” product images. According to Gunn, people may even picture the image before visiting the place or not even visiting the place. One may differentiate between images for the first time, the first visit and those after repeat visits. Gunn's theory depicts differences in the perception of images held by non-visitors, potential visitors, and first-time and repeat visitors.

Gartner and Hunt (1987) and cited by Kastenholz (2012:136) also assert that the combination of induced and organic determines the destination image “...because

image change is a slow process, it is not possible to separate the contributions of any particular factor.” Gartner (1989) further suggests a continuum between an organic (experience-based) and an induced (advertising-based) image. However, it requires extensive information search due to the associated risk and importance of tourism products.

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) also adopt a different approach using a combination of the traditional decision-making model and the Gunn image formation model. Fakeye and Crompton believe that within the decision-making process, organic, induced and complex images all contribute to an overall image that leads to choosing destinations in future decision-making.

2.2.3 Destination image and tourist behaviour

Gartner (1993) and Kastenholz (2012:149) state that “due to the inability to pretest the tourism product, the touristic image will often be based more on perceptions than on reality.” This, therefore, gives room for marketers to influence the decision-making of potential tourists as they try to understand the market (Jenkins, 1999, Crompton 1975b, Woodside, 1982, Court & Lupton, 1997,) or achieve satisfaction via the market (Chon, 1990a).

According to Fesenmaier and Mackay (1996), satisfaction results from a comparison between expectation and encountered reality, with imagery intervening as a consumptive experience connecting image and satisfaction. Images that tourists encounter connote imagery with meanings and feelings that influence the experiences they are likely to encounter. According to Ryan (1994), once tourists choose a destination, it is fulfilment, hence the need to invest in it. It is, therefore, paramount to have a powerful or strong positive image that facilitates the selection and contributes to the expectations before, during and after the travel.

Hunt (1975) emphasises the meaning of images as “the major cause of demand”, implying the brand-self-image-congruity to determine the choice of a tourist

destination. According to Gartner (1989) cited by Kastenholtz (2012:151), the choice of destination relates to selecting “benefit package, unique to the destination expected to provide the greatest intrinsic reward to the traveller”. Other researchers also make references to the destination choice models. Um and Crompton's (1990) cognitive model of pleasure travel destination explains the formation of choice-relevant destination images through external and internal inputs leading from the awareness over the evoked set to a finally chosen destination. Chon (1990b) also merges the image and buying process (need recognition information search, evaluation of alternatives, choice, and post-purchase behaviour). Chon refers to the initial image and how it guides all new incoming information. To understand, interpret and evaluate the information and experience, Clawson and Knetsch (1966) also revealed the tourist experience stage model (anticipation, travel to site, on-site behaviour, return travel, recollection).

Destination images have been seen to affect tourists' choice of destination, satisfaction, and post-purchase behaviour (Zhang et al., 2014). The analysis and discussion above have revealed the impact of image on tourist's behaviour in terms of destination choice, on-site behaviour, satisfaction and the probability of recommending the destination.

2.3 PERCEPTION AND DESTINATION IMAGE

This section discusses the two variables of perception and destination image. It begins with the definitions of perception and how tourists' perception of destination the image is formed. Again, this section identifies the classification of tourist sites and reveals the key tourist sites for the study.

2.3.1 Defining perception

The cues of destination attributes facilitate tourist assessment and attitude of image. They act as a stimulus that induces specific associations; thus, the image

is what tourists tend to believe but not what the product comprises (Haarhoff, 2018; Kim & Brown, 2012). Perception is defined as “the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the destination” (Gnanapala, 2015; Lamb, Hair & McDaniel, 2014; Rajesh, 2013; Cant et al., 2009:79; Jordaan & Prinsloo, 2004:177). Other scholars also define perception as the process by which the individual selects, organises and interprets their sensory impressions to give meaning to their environment (Robins, 2005; Solomon, 2001; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). For example, Solomon (2001) and Robins (2005) stress how tourists use their sensory receptors, i.e. nose, mouth, eyes, and skin, to the basic stimuli such as smells, sights, taste, sound and feelings in making meaning to the environment. According to Kotler and Keller (2006:185), “stimulus is any unit of input that triggers the senses and in marketing is associated with brands, prices advertisements, products and services” and destination image.

Understanding and measuring perceptions is a daunting task in tourism, especially regarding international tourists, since people have different ways of making judgments (Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2014). As a result, international tourists’ interpretation of tourist sites they visit may be perceived differently using their senses. Furthermore, these differences lead to variations in behavioural intentions, which is key in constructing the destination image of the key tourist sites (Cohen et al., 2014). Therefore, how an international tourist to the selected sites in the Volta region might choose, organise and interpret stimuli could affect how the destination is perceived.

2.3.2 Perception of tourist destination image formation

Tourists make decisions based on their perception of a destination image (Chaturuka, 2019; Ateljevic, 2000). However, these decisions can change through their experiences at different stages in their travel plans (Chaturuka, 2019; George, 2004; King & Woodside, 2001).

Before the tourist embarks on travel, perception is developed based on information researched, their past experiences and consultations with other groups. Hence their perception will be positive if the destination image's attributes align with their expectations and preferences. Once the various destinations are evaluated, they choose their preferred image (Reisinger & Turner, 2003: 148).

The tourists' travel/holiday experience occurs when they return from holidays or trips after leaving home (Bennett & Strydom, 2005a: 11). This is mainly determined by the physical setting and the tourism and service infrastructure (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2006: 118; Bresler, 2005: 117). The Physical setting (macro-environment) comprises the environmental forces comprising economic, political and social factors, competitive, demographic, natural, and technological, which directly influence tourist perception and experiences. And the tourism and service infrastructure, which comprises service elements, involves various services such as transport, accommodation, restaurants and other facilities. At the same time, their attributes affect how the traveller perceives quality and value.

Peter and Austin (1985) further show the importance of perception and sum it up as “perception is all there is”. This also means that perception affects tourists heavily (Sussmann & Unel, 2000: 208) in choosing destinations to select. Therefore, the onus on tourism organisations is to develop destination images that will drive the stimulus to achieve a positive perception. According to Bennet and Strydom (2005a:10), “perceptions are created from the image formation process”, as outlined by Gunn.

2.4 DESTINATION IMAGE OF TOURIST SITES

According to Gunn (1972:24), cited by Kušen (2017), there would be no tourism without tourist attraction sites. Many researchers and scholars believe that tourism thrives on attraction sites, and they constitute the key elements on which tourism thrives (Gunn, 1979:48-73) cited by Kušen (2017). George (2004:335) also argues that “tourist attractions play a key role in tourism destination, as the core of the

tourism offering, which includes the main travelling motivator”, but according to Bennet and Schoeman (2005:3a), sites are the main “pull” drivers of the tourist. MacCannell (1989) points out that for one to experience an attraction, it should encompass: a tourist and a site that makes the image a delight in the eyes of the tourist. When these are combined, there is attraction. This clearly defines attraction and draws the link with a site.

2.4.1 Classification of tourist attraction sites

Attraction sites play a key role in developing tourism in every destination. But there are different ways in which tourist sites are classified. The most common tourist attraction classifications are primary and secondary attractions. The primary attractions are the main pull drivers that attract tourists to a trip. Tourist spends more of their time at such a destination because the site or event serves their need, or when they spend more time or hours, the outcome will give them value (Bennett & Schoeman, 2005). Secondary attractions are more complimentary features which provide more activities to enhance the tourist's stay. Based on this, Wanhil (1993:206) classified attractions into four categories “(1) sites of natural resources;(2) events of natural resources (3) man-made sites; and (4) man-made events”. Weaver and Lawton (2006:129) also present their view on the classification into “(a) natural sites; (b) natural events, (c) socio-cultural sites; and (d) socio-cultural events”.

Natural attractions are typically associated with picturesque views, animal parks, and plant gardens. It's challenging for destinations to modify these natural resources to enhance their appeal, necessitating photographers to adjust the images to cater to the interests of tourists (Weaver & Lawtin, 2006:130). Natural occurrences, like volcanic eruptions, tidal movements, and animal migrations, are site-independent phenomena. Hence, such natural sites and events generally function as standalone attractions.

On the other hand, "built," "constructed," or "man-made" sites, often referred to as socio-cultural sites, showcase more variety than their natural counterparts. They encompass several types: (1) historical, for instance, ancient townships, museums, or old monuments; (2) prehistoric, like rock art or indigenous sites; (3) modern cultures, including architecture, university campuses, or culinary experiences; (4) recreational, such as golf courses, spas, amusement parks, or casinos; (5) economic, like vineyards; and (6) smaller-scale attractions, like shopping districts or wine cellar sales.

Socio-cultural events are categorized across different dimensions: (1) They can vary in magnitude from local exhibitions to worldwide mega-events like the Olympics; (2) Their occurrence may be regular (like annual food festivals) or irregular (one-off art exhibits) and could take place at fixed or varying locations (like the Stellenbosch Wine Festival or the rotating Rugby World Cup venue); (3) They can be a "single destination" event (like marathons in Cape Town or London) or "multiple destinations" spread over space or time (like the 2010 Soccer World Cup held across various South African cities); and (4) They can be categorized by themes, such as history, sports, music, and art.

The Volta region in Ghana is endowed with enormous tourism potential that is made up of historical/cultural, natural/wildlife, arts/crafts, as well as forts and castles. The region attracts a lot of international tourists to its various sites. The most attractive sites include the following; The ancestral caves at Likpe, Nyagbo and Logba, the Akpafu Iron Mines, Atorkor Slave Market, The Snake Farm, Tafi Atome Monkey Sanctuary, Mount Afadja and Tagbo falls Alavanyo and Ayafie falls, German historical sites at Kpando, European Bell at Ho, Ote waterfalls at Amezorfe, Kalapa Resource Reserves at Abutia and Adaklu among others.

The above literature has revealed the significant role of destination image in marketing destinations and tourist attraction sites. Therefore, this study will apply destination image attributes to ascertain international tourists' attitudes and perceptions towards the Volta region and the marketing implications.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed two key variables: destination image (independent variable) and tourist perception of key attraction sites and destinations. First, several definitions were reviewed, and it was found that the concept of 'destination image' is defined from different perspectives. Still, it all sums up to be the evaluation of the elements and attributes of the destination based on tourist knowledge, feelings, thoughts and opinions. Therefore, destination image was identified as the tourist's overall perception (beliefs, ideas and impressions) towards a destination. It was also found that the destination structure (cognitive, affective and conative) is more associated with the three-dimensional continuum of attribute—holistic, functional-psychological and common-unique approaches. It was identified that researchers in measuring destination images have frequently used these three dimensions. It was identified that internal and external factors greatly influenced tourist image formation stages.

Second, the definitions of perception in the literature pointed towards how consumers process information using the stimuli. It also revealed that tourist perception of a destination is based on previous experience, values, motivations and beliefs. Tourists' perception also depends on the image they form before and after their travel, influencing their choice of destination to visit destination. It was noted that both destination image and perception affect the tourist in making decisions about the destination to select. Lastly, the chapter has revealed that tourists decide based on their image, beliefs and perceptions. As such, it is important in marketing tourist attraction sites.



CHAPTER 3

BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS TOWARDS TOURIST DESTINATION: ROLES OF MOTIVES, SATISFACTION, ATTITUDE, AND DEMOGRAPHICS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section outlines the fundamental background regarding factors influencing travel behaviour and destination selection. In particular, the internal characteristics and external environment influencing tourist decision-making processes are discussed. It also identifies motivation as the way to study tourist behaviour. In particular, the push-pull motivation framework derived from the internal and external motives used to understand tourist travel motivation and how they influence behaviours is being viewed and discussed. The chapter also reviews the mediating variables of satisfaction, attitude, demographics and the dependent variable behavioural intentions.

3.2 MOTIVES FOR TOURISTS' DESTINATION VISIT/ RE-VISIT

This section discusses factors that motivate tourists to visit a destination.

3.2.1 What motivates tourists to visit a destination?

According to Kurtz and Boone (2006:167), "the consumer is always driven by a motivation to satisfy a need that is the disparity between actual and desired states". The motivation process is the driving force that compels them to act to satisfy their need through purchase and consumption (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2012; 1997). All needs are fulfilled through a goal, but at the same time, it will depend on personal experiences and psychological and environmental conditions. But according to Brink (2006), need arousal in motivation is triggered by a stimulus, and the stimuli

can be categorized into four (1) emotional arousals, (2) physiological arousal) (3) cognitive arousal, (4) environmental arousal.

Marketers must understand the drivers influencing people's travel to make better-informed decisions about tourism products and services (Goossens, 2000; Fodness, 1994). One of the drivers that influence tourists' travels is motivation. According to Crompton (1979), all human behaviours are motivated even though their satisfaction can depend on other psychological factors. Motivating tourists is achievable by investigating the various motivational factors that make the tourist visit destination. Furthermore, understanding tourist motivations would lead tourists to repurchase and recommend products to their families and friends (Antón, Camarero & García, 2017; Correia, Kozak & Ferreira, 2013).

Tourist motivation is a topic of interest to academics and tourism practitioners and is considered very important in the analysis of tourism and in improving tourist behaviour (Omran & Kamran, 2018; Chikuta, du Plessis & Saayman, 2017; Bashar & Abdelnaser, 2011). For decades, its understanding has been at the bone of contention in tourism research and has led to the development of many frameworks used by researchers and scholars (Caber, González-Rodríguez, Albayrak & Simonetti, 2020). Tourist motivation comprises needs and desires that affect the wish to travel (O'Leary & Deegan, 2005) or push the individual to achieve satisfaction (Komalasari & Ganiarto, 2019; Bashar & Abdelnaser, 2011). This is derived from internal and external motives (Wu and Wall, 2016; Yousefi and Marzuki, 2015). Crompton (1979) argues that motive is the only means one can use to explain tourist behaviour.

Some authors have argued that motivation cannot be studied alone without satisfaction, but other researchers have investigated them simultaneously (Li & Ryan, 2015; Kao, Patterson, Scott & Li, 2008; Dunn Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). This study investigates international tourist perception of motivation and satisfaction towards the Volta region of Ghana. Specifically, the study delves into the key motives of push and pull that affect tourist decision-making. However, according to

Heckhausen and Heckhausen (1989), the expected results from tourists' behaviour reflect through motivation, whilst their motives, on the other hand, are reflected through the goal (consequences of one action). Therefore, the physical dissatisfaction or psychological factors that drives the individual to meet their needs is motivation (Kassin, 1998).

Dahiya, (2020) and Gnoth (1997) used the socio-psychological factors in the tourism model and stated that different forces (motives) make people act, and these forces are expressed differently by people. He further developed a model to determine that felt needs or motives become motivation when the tourists' needs are met. Ozdemir, & Celeb, (2018) and Gnoth (1997) again stresses that the push factors are drivers towards motives and the motives turn into motivation when tourists' perceptions and expectations align with their objectives. Thus, according to him, motivation is geared towards the pull factors.

Various theories have been used to explain the concept of motivation. While each could be useful, this study focuses on Crompton's (1979) push and pull framework because it is widely used and contains relevant attributes to evaluate the tourist that visits the destination (Tseng et al., 2019; Kanagaraj & Bindu, 2013). For instance, it has been used to establish tourists' motivations (Nikjoo & Ketabi, 2015); why tourists select some destinations, the experiences they seek, and the activities they prefer (Chen et al., 2011). It has also been applied in various contexts. For instance, it has been used to assess travellers' perceptions in Western and Asian countries (Caber & Albayrak, 2016; Wong & Musa, 2015; Mohammad & Som, 2010). However, the literature has revealed a gap in the context of this study. Therefore, this study will use the Crompton framework to assess international tourists' motivations to visit the Volta region's key destinations and tourist sites.

3.2.2 Overview of the push and pull motivation framework

Several theories of motivation have been proposed to understand the reason why people travel. However, the push and pull dimension theories are the ones that

attracted the attention of researchers the most (Giachino, Truant & Bonadonna, 2019; Chen and Chen, 2015).

Since Dann (1977) introduced the push-pull motivation framework, researchers have used it in studying travel motivation (Giachino et al., 2019; Tseng et al., 2019; Beltramo, Rostagno, & Bonadonna, 2018; Cohen et al., 2013; Prayag & Hosany 2014). Dann (1977) explains the push factors as the desire for a vacation and the pull factors to determine why a destination should be chosen. While push motivation is associated with internal or emotional elements, on the other hand, pull motives are more associated with cognitive, situational and external issues (Michael, Wien and Reisinger, 2017; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Hanafiah Othman, Zulkifly, Ismail and Jamaluddin, 2010;). Therefore, the push-pull framework is useful when assessing tourist motivation and behaviours (Xu and Chan 2016).

Yoon and Uysal (2005) classify the push motives to be rest, desires such as self-actualization, social interaction or leisure, and the pull motivations to be related to cognitive factors such as climate, landscape, hospitality or facilities. The pull factors are also made up of the attributes and attractions of the destination (Madden, Rashid & Zainol, 2016; Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). This study will explore the destination attributes that may “pull” international tourists to experience the destinations and sites and the emotional desires driving them to visit the Volta region.

Despite the views expressed by Dann, Crompton and other scholars on the link between the pull–push frame, other researchers also have different opinions. For instance, Yoon and Uysal (2005) posit that the traveller's destination choice precedes external characteristics or destination attributes. Lou and Deng (2008) also believe that destinations are the only means that can be used to fulfil tourists' needs. This assertion is bolstered by Hanlan, Fuller and Wilde et al. (2006), that the traveller evaluates a destination based on its ability to satisfy internal needs. However, by influencing the destination selection and choice, push and pull

motivations may interact simultaneously (Yousefi & Marzuki, 2015; Mehmetoglu, 2011; Prayag, 2012).

The correlation between the push and pull motives has been revealed by earlier researchers (Phau, Lee & Quintal, 2013; Correia & Pimpaño, 2008; Correia, Valle & Moco, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), depicting it as a point where tourist decision begins (Kim et al., 2003; Dann, 1981). They are also found within the global stream of motivational and satisfaction surveys (Bangwal et al., 2017). For instance, in investigating international tourists who visited Mauritius (Prayag & Ryan, 2011) found the pull factors of sand, sun, and sea to be associated with push elements of escape and relaxation, while the push factors of kinship and social interaction were associated with pulling factors that reflected the opportunity to visit relatives and friends. This study seeks to use the approach to find out how tourists in the Volta region are pulled to visit key destinations and tourist sites while exploring the push characteristics that influence them to choose the destination.

The relationship between tourist motivation and future behaviour has been well established (Nilplub, Khang & Krairit, 2016; Um, Chon & Yo, 2006). However, the moderating effect of tourist motivation has not been researched widely (Xu and Chan 2016), especially in destination understudy. Therefore, the study seeks to explore the behavioural intentions of international tourists in recommending tourist attraction sites to others. It will also identify their intentions of revisiting the tourist sites in future.

3.3 TOURIST SATISFACTION WITH DESTINATIONS

Within the consumer behaviour literature, satisfaction is the final step of the psychological process when there is a need to recognise and evaluate the product (Peter & Olson, 1999). It is seen as a very important concept in marketing (Philip's et al., 2013) and serves as a source of competitive advantage in tourism (Sun, Chi & Xu, 2013). There have been so many definitions of satisfaction because of its complexity. In the tourism context, it is the evaluation of the service received from

providers that customers use in predicting future experiences (Crosby, Evans & Cowles, 1990).

Satisfaction is often understood as a two-tier process involving the evaluation of both satisfiers and dissatisfiers linked with a product (Maddox, 1981, as quoted by Atila, 2008:49). Alternatively, it can be perceived as a phase in an intricate sequence involving preliminary brand attitude, followed by a consumption experience which either confirms or contradicts expectations, leading to feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction that mediate post-consumption attitude, thereby influencing future purchasing behaviours (Atila, 2008:50). Oliver (1997:13) suggests that satisfaction represents the consumer's response to fulfilment, a judgment that a product or service, or an aspect thereof, has delivered a satisfying degree of consumption-related fulfilment, encompassing under or over-fulfilment.

In marketing theory and practice, tourist satisfaction stands as a crucial concept and serves as an instrumental factor in tourism activities. As Dmitrovic et al. (2009) note, it's a vital area that bolsters the revenue and profits of service providers, steering managerial performance within the tourism sector. It's also seen as a primary goal and metric in the management of tourist destinations (Stumpf & Vojtko, 2016). Cheng et al. (2017) describe tourist satisfaction as "the comprehensive subjective verdict a tourist makes about destination products and service by juxtaposing pre-trip expectations with actual experiences during the trip." The concept of comparing pre- and post-travel experiences is reaffirmed by Chen and Chen (2010) as well as Su, Huang, and Hsu (2018).

Destination satisfaction is when tourists' expectations and perceptions of the destination attributes they experience from the tourist area satisfy their feelings and are fulfilled (Prebensen, 2017; Baker & Crompton, 2000). Tourists are satisfied when comparing the destination, and their expectation of experience is favourable and dissatisfied when the outcome of the "expectation-actual experience" is negative (Cong, 2016; Chen & Chen, 2010; Chi & Qu, 2008). It is the expectation of pre-travel and experiences of post-travel that results in satisfaction Moutinho

(1987). For instance, if international tourists can meet their expectations during their stay, they will be satisfied. However, they will be dissatisfied if they experience hiccups or negative feelings during their stay. It has been gathered that in tourism, consumer satisfaction is the positive impression and reaction of tourists after visiting the destination.

Drawing from the above definitions, satisfaction is often described as a result, a procedure, a thinking process, or an emotional state. Howard and Sheth (1969:45), for instance, view satisfaction as "the buyer's mental state of receiving adequate or inadequate rewards for the sacrifices made," whereas Westbrook and Reilly (1983:145) depict customer satisfaction as "an emotional reaction to the experiences offered by, and associated with, particular products or services purchased" (cited in Yi, 1990). In support of the views that it's an outcome and cognitive process, Atila (2008:51) defines it as "an assessment (cognitive) of a selected alternative that aligns with previous beliefs regarding that alternative." Nevertheless, Westbrook (1980:49) contests the notion that satisfaction is solely a cognitive process. He further claims that "satisfaction also incorporates an aspect of emotions or feelings, such that consumers experience subjective contentment in relation to satisfaction, and discontent in relation to dissatisfaction". Oh, and Parks (1997) suggest that satisfaction may involve mechanisms beyond the cognitive process.

Some researchers use the cognitive approach to conceptualise tourist satisfaction based on the post-consumption evaluation approach of whether expectations are met (Eusebio & Vieira, 2013). Other studies also see it as the emotional reaction from the consumption experience (Huang, Weiler & Assaker, 2015). Finally, some studies have adopted the cognitive-affective perspective and implemented satisfaction in the cognitive-affective state that ensues from the destination experience (Žabkar, Makovec-Brenčič & Dmitrović, 2010). But regardless of its conceptualization (either cognitive, affective, or both), most studies measure it from the aggregate level (Huang, Weiler & Assaker 2015; Engeset & Elvekrok 2015;

Bigne, Sanchez & Sanchez 2001; Chen & Chen 2010; Lee, Yoon & Lee 2007) contrary to the attribute level (Eusebio & Vieira 2013; Chi & Qu 2008).

Within tourism studies, satisfaction is often considered a cumulative concept (Engeset & Elvekrok, 2015; Assaker & Hallak, 2013; Sun et al., 2013). The practice of measuring satisfaction via an overall image is well-recognized in tourism literature (Prayag, 2009; Wang & Hsu, 2010). Additionally, the overarching image has been shown to impact tourist satisfaction (Wang & Hsu, 2010; Bigne, Sanchez & Sanchez, 2001; Prayag, 2009). Since tourism involves a tourist evaluating their experience provided by the service, tourist satisfaction is occasionally viewed as a comprehensive evaluation of the entire consumption experience. It is therefore distinguished at three separate levels: product-service satisfaction, dimensional (component) satisfaction, and total satisfaction.

Product-service satisfaction refers to the contentment a tourist derives from a product when the organization delivers it within the supply chain. For instance, the satisfaction a tourist gets from hotel service staff exemplifies product-service satisfaction. Dimensional satisfaction, on the other hand, is the total satisfaction obtained from individual products and services throughout the tourism process. An apt example would be overall satisfaction with hotel aspects such as the room, service personnel, restaurant, and facilities. Total satisfaction integrates individual product-service satisfactions and dimensional satisfactions accumulated by the tourist. Therefore, all unique characteristics of the products and services constituting the holiday could contribute to the total satisfaction experienced by the tourist (Haber & Lerner, 1999; Pizam, 1994; Teare, 1998).

3.4 MODELS FOR MEASURING TOURIST SATISFACTION

Measuring and managing satisfaction is crucial in developing tourist destinations. The four commonly used models for measuring or evaluating tourists' satisfaction are discussed in this section.

3.4.1 Servqual model

The SERVQUAL scale is used to gauge and contrast tourist's expectations with the perceived service to identify any service quality gaps (Badri, Abdullah, & Al-Madani, 2005; Parasuraman, Zeithman & Berry, 1988; Johns & Howard, 1998; Carman, 1990; Babakus & Boller, 1992). The SERVQUAL service quality model was devised by Parasuraman et al. (1985). According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), the model evaluates service quality by assessing the disparities between what the customer expected and their perceived service experience. In other words, the customer evaluates the service delivery process and the service outcome against the expected service. A high-quality service is one that either meets or surpasses the consumer's expectations of the service (Parasuraman, 1985:46). The model has ten dimensions of service quality namely responsiveness, credibility, courtesy, tangibles, communication, reliability, security, access, and customer understanding (Parasuraman, 1985:47-48).

3.4.2 Servperf model

Gronin and Taylor (1992) registered their displeasure with Servqual and developed the performance-based measurement only as the SERPERF model. Instead of focusing on the difference between the consumer's perception of performance and their service quality, Servperf focuses on only the performance of the organization Akdere, Top & Tekingunduz (2018). This is used to determine the tourist experience after visiting the destination. Servqual's drawback is that it is unable to accurately determine the relationship between actual service quality and the gap.

3.4.3 Equity model

The Outcome-input model (EQUITY) proposed by Oliver and Swan (1989) also determines tourist satisfaction by comparing what the tourists believe they have gained against their input in terms of resources. When the tourists assess the

outcome as more than input, the experience is seen as high satisfaction and vice versa.

3.4.4 Norm theory

The NORM theory was also proposed by LaTour and Peat (1979). This model uses a reference point as a norm to judge service quality. There is tourist dissatisfaction when disconfirmation relates to the norm. The reference point can be a destination or a place that has been visited before. The reference point evaluates tourist satisfaction by comparing the current travel destination to the past travel experience.

3.4.5 Holsat model

HOLSAT model by Tribe and Snaith (1998) is an expectation-performance model. HOLSAT can measure tourist satisfaction more than the service provider at a destination. It adopts a particular attribute that suits a destination rather than having a fixed or already designed attribute for one destination to the other to evaluate tourist satisfaction.

3.5 ATTITUDE TOWARDS A TOURIST DESTINATION

According to the literature, attitude is considered the most distinguished and essential concept in psychology (Schade et al., 2016; Ajzen, 2012). However, it is marked by a great deal of blurriness and dissent regarding its structure, definitions and functions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Consumer attitude plays a significant role in determining consumer behaviour. Schiffman and Kanuk (2010) posit that consumer behaviour is carried by attitude that is, consumers' consistency of purchase, a recommendation to others, evaluations and intentions are all interplayed by attitude. This has resulted in consumer attitude assisting in

predicting or influencing behaviour (Ajzen, 2001). Therefore, to ascertain what tourists hold, it is best first to explain their attitude.

According to Gifford (2007), psychologists believe that attitude is inherent and comprises affective, cognitive and conative elements that show consistency and persistent action. However, Schiffman and Kanuk (1997) cited by Scot (2014:885) view attitude as "a learnt behaviour and a function of the consumer's perception and assessment of the critical attributes or beliefs towards a particular object." Solomon (2010) and Katz (1960) identify the features of attitudes as follows: degree of intensity (affective dimension), degree of specificity versus generality (cognitive dimension), degree of action relevance (intentional/behavioural dimension), degree of differentiation (between objects) and degree of centrality/correlation with individual value system (personality link). Some theorists affirm this and relate attitude to the affect, behaviour and cognition model (ABC model).

Affect is the feelings that a tourist has towards an object; behaviour refers to the actions that are taken with regards to the object; cognition is the belief that the tourist holds about the attitude object (Kim & Stepchenkova, 2015; Solomon, 2006: 237, Vincent & Thompson, 2002). The importance of the attitude depends on the tourist's motivation towards the object and whether they are heavy or light users (Jewell and Unnava, 2004). The affect, behaviour and cognition model (ABC model) explains the impact of the component. As described above by Katz (1960), they also constitute the ways to form an attitude.

According to Trommsdorff and Hamm (1975) and cited by Zips (2019), the three components theory does not contradict the assumption of uni-dimensionality of attitude, as attitude components are no independent dimension. However, others have empirically identified dimensions via factor analysis of rating scale or multidimensional scaling. According to Trommsdorff and Hamm (1975), this analysis usually reveals one general factor with high loadings frequently, representing an evaluative dimension, which could be considered an indicator. In

contrast, the other factors are suggested to be more cognitive. He defends that “attitude” is uni-dimensional represented by the continuum “good- bad”.

Based on the theory of planned behaviour model (which is a theoretical framework utilized in this study), an individual's opinion regarding their fondness or aversion towards their behaviour is termed as attitude. A person demonstrating a more positive attitude towards behaviour is more likely to possess a stronger intention for that behaviour (Ajzen, 2020). Essentially, a positive attitude towards a destination could imply a positive intention to return to that destination and endorse it to relatives and friends. This study assesses tourists' attitudes towards prominent destinations and tourist sites in the Volta region to determine whether they intend to return to the destination and recommend it to others.

From the definitions and discussions above, people tend to evaluate attitudes along dimensions of good or bad or like or dislike from their beliefs, concepts and objects (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). This study also follows suit by evaluating attitudes on the dimensions of good or bad from the perspective of international tourists visiting Ghana's Volta region.

3.6 BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS TOWARDS A DESTINATION

Tourist behaviour intentions are a very important topic in tourism and are mostly referred to as loyalty intentions (Jeaheng, Al-Ansi & Han, 2019; Hwang & Lyu, 2015; Alin & Amin, 2014). But, according to Lee (2009) and Tasci and Gartner (2007), the terms *tourists' loyalty intention*, *destination loyalty intention*, *behavioural intentions*, *future behaviour*, and *conative loyalty* are interchangeable because they mean the same thing. Therefore, this study adopts the same sentiments.

The term is widely used in different fields, and the commonly agreed definition is ‘an individual’s future likelihood for fulfilling a particular action’ (Chi & Han, 2020:365; Chua, Kim, Lee, & Han, 2019; Oliver, 1997). Spears and Singh (2004) and as cited by Koo et al. (2014:129) defined behaviour intentions “as an

individual's tendency to behave according to his or her feelings, knowledge, or evaluations of previous experiences." This definition is profound because tourists' intentions are multi-dimensional, involving attitude and behaviour (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Therefore, it is vital to ensure their first experience is pleasant (Osman & Sentosa, 2013).

Scholars observe that loyalty comprises four components: cognitive, affective, conative, and action loyalty (Oliver, 1999). However, studies on tourism lack the conceptualization of tourists' loyalty using all the above components of loyalty (Oliver, 1999). According to Oliver (1999), the cognitive-affective-conative elements are used at the loyalty stages depending on the level of attitude in the developmental structure. Consumers are first loyal in the cognitive sense (rational), followed by the affective sense (emotional), and the conative sense before behaviour, also known as inertia action. The stages are further enumerated below.

Cognitive loyalty: The first phase of the loyalty stages, and therefore loyalty cannot exist without satisfaction. Loyalty is based on indirect knowledge, a belief. It is a stage which is associated with routine transactions or purchases. But when loyalty develops, and experience is generated, emotions will give way to the next stage, which is affective loyalty.

Affective loyalty: The repetitive buying or experience develops into a positive attitude. The consumer becomes committed while at the same time developing affection towards the product or service. It becomes difficult to disassociate oneself at this stage when there is a connection. The level of affection (taste) for the product or service is the same as that of affective loyalty. However, it is not firmly established as a level of loyalty because consumers can switch to other products serving their needs even though they are satisfied.

Conative loyalty: This level translates to behavioural intention. The repeated affective cases in the second stage affect this level. Connation insinuates some

level of repurchase. This stage would mean confirming purchased loyalty and translates to repurchasing, which is related to motivation. However, it could be associated with any positive intention since the desire may not be perceived. As such, a further stage should be reached.

The loyalty of action: According to Kuhland Beckmann (1985), studying the apparatus makes intentions a reality and is acknowledged as 'action control.' The unearthed conative stage intentions are then translated to a willingness to act.

Despite its application to the stages above, loyalty also faces some challenges. Consumers have different behaviours or attitudes towards products and services. They are always seeking new experiences and products to meet their needs. This makes Oliver's (1999) proposed stages difficult to be achieved. For instance, cognitive loyalty can be thwarted by competition because of changes in prices and product characteristics. With affective loyalty, consumers can try other products once they are fed up with a preferred taste. Furthermore, cognitive loyalty can be changed through persuasive communication messages by competitors. These weaknesses exhibited has established affective loyalty as a path for consumers to achieve true loyalty. This is bolstered by Forgas, Moliner, Sanchez and Palau (2011) that loyalty is repudiated in attitude rather than behaviour. Other authors, like Yoon and Uysal (2005), believe that whether a tourist may return or recommend the destination cannot be determined by loyalty since it is not enough to measure.

In the field of tourism studies, destination loyalty is typically gauged through behavioural intentions rather than actual tourist behaviour. It's been observed that tourists' behavioural intentions consistently offer a reliable estimate of destination loyalty. Owing to the complexity and challenge of accurately determining tourists' loyalty, researchers often opt to measure their behavioural intentions as these are meaningful, practical, and achievable (Song et al., 2013). Many studies have posited that the critical metrics for assessing loyalty towards a destination are the

intentions to revisit and recommend the destination to friends and family (Stylidis et al., 2017).

Favourable behavioural intention generally signifies the conative stage of loyalty (Chen & Chen, 2010), and is defined as “the extent to which an individual has consciously planned to enact or refrain from a specific future behaviour” (Warshaw & Davis, 1985). It has been found that a favourable intention is associated with promoting positive word-of-mouth, future purchases, increased spending with a company, and maintained loyalty (Alin & Amin, 2014). Moreover, favorable behavioural intention is particularly significant in the context of tourist attraction sites with high visitor volumes (Bilgihan, 2014).

Destination loyalty manifests in tourists' intentions to revisit, their word-of-mouth communications, and their willingness to recommend the destination (Stylidis et al., 2017) - all of which are specific forms of behavioural intentions. Some researchers gauge positive behavioural intentions based on repeat visits and recommendations (Alin & Amin, 2014; Oliver, 1997). Various scholars have employed behavioural intentions as a measurement in diverse studies (Chen & Tsai, 2007), such as in the contexts of a coastal wellness resort (Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010), a coastal destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), and tourist visits to urban destinations (Forgas et al., 2012).

It's also been observed that tourist loyalty is measured by the intentions to revisit and recommend the destination to others (Yen, Chen, Cheng, & Teng, 2018). Moreover, word-of-mouth behaviour and intent can be used to anticipate customer loyalty (Lingling, 2009). Therefore, both the intention to revisit and the willingness to recommend will be used in this study to ascertain international tourists' intentions to visit selected destinations and tourist sites in the Volta region. This study employs these same measures of behavioural intention, i.e., the intention to revisit and the willingness to recommend key destinations and tourist attractions in Ghana's Volta region to friends and relatives.

3.7 DEMOGRAPHICS IN TOURIST BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

Demographic attributes such as age, marital status, income, educational level, and gender are measures that characterize individuals (Chang, 2017). Because interpretations are inherently personal and subjective, people collect information differently. Based on these inherent characteristics, "people possess different needs, tendencies, interests, and motivations, which shape what they opt to see, hear, read, contemplate, and focus on" (Mano & da Costa, 2015; Tasci & Gartner, 2007:422).

Socio-demographic features like country of origin, educational level, and social class, among others, have been analyzed by several researchers. These features have been found to influence image perception, albeit with varying results (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Beerli & Martín, 2004a; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Multiple scholars also report that the country of origin is the socio-demographic feature that most significantly influences tourists' destination image perception, both cognitively and affectively (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Beerli & Martín, 2004a, 2004b). Therefore, it is wise to align segmentation and communication strategies with the targeted geographic area (Beerli & Martín, 2004a), as in the case of the Volta region.

Numerous studies have examined demographic differences in various research fields such as motivation (Zhang & Lam, 1999), attitude (Lee & Hwang, 2011), and destination image (Beerli & Martín, 2004). Zhang and Lam's (1999) groundbreaking work on demographic differences in travel motivation found significant variance in the pull and push motivation factors for people differing in age, income, gender, and travel frequency. In the food and beverage field, demographic characteristics vary in consumers' attitudes towards luxury restaurants. For example, middle- and high-income populations have a more favourable attitude towards luxury restaurants than low-income individuals. However, age and gender were found to be insignificant (Lee & Hwang, 2011). As for destination image, the affective and cognitive attributes show significant differences across the socio-demographic factors of tourists such as education level, age, gender, and social class. Given the

above assertions that socio-demographic characteristics do influence destination perceptions to some degree, this study aims to investigate the impact of demographic attributes on the perception of destination image and behavioural intentions of international tourists visiting the Volta region's attractions.

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter delved into other dependent and mediating variables of attitude, motivation, satisfaction, demographics and behavioural intention. It was revealed that motivation was the means through which tourist/consumer behaviour can be explained. Different theories have been used to buttress up that assertion. Among the theories the most commonly used one is the pull-push framework which has been applied across different borders. But some researchers and scholars had contrary views with regards to its application. It was found that some theorist relate attitude to the key dimensions of destination image; cognitive, affective and conative. And that evaluations are based on beliefs and behaviours towards a rating of good or bad.

Also, the literature revealed myriad definitions of satisfaction. It was identified that satisfaction is the outcome of consumer attitude and the evaluation of their experience based on perception and other attributes. Researchers associated satisfaction with the cognitive-affective perspective as a result of the destination experience that is derived from that process. Consumers are satisfied when the experience is favourable and dissatisfied when the experience is unfavourable.

The behavioural intention was identified as having the same meaning with loyalty intentions, future behaviour and conative loyalty. The term is seen to be involved with attitude and behaviour. It is associated with the cognitive-affective process but again the literature revealed that consumers have different attitudes and behaviours and they may be affected by different circumstances. The conative element was identified as a key to measure intentions because it constitute both the cognitive and affective elements. The study revealed that several researchers



evaluate intentions base on spreading word of mouth, revisit intentions and recommendations to friends, family etc. Demographic factors have influence on tourist perception of destination image and behaviour intentions.

The next chapter identifies the possible theories and appropriate theoretical framework based on the literature. It will also feature the conceptual framework and hypothesize the key variables.

CHAPTER 4

THEORISATION AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter draws on the broad theories of consumer behaviour to identify the main theory applied to the study. Thereafter, a conceptual framework is developed, and hypotheses are formulated based on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks. The relationships among the variables, namely destination image (independent variable), perception, motivation, satisfaction, attitude, demographics and familial factors and behavioural intentions (independent variable) based on the theoretical and empirical literature, are enumerated. The theoretical foundation and how the variables will be measured are also laid out for the study. Finally, the study proposes that the predicting variable destination image will positively influence tourists' future behavioural intention through the mediating effect of perception, motives, satisfaction and attitude.

4.2 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Consumer behaviour is shaped by various models that fall into analytical and prescriptive categories. Analytical models serve as a blueprint for understanding and explaining consumer behaviours. They highlight the variables that shape consumer decision-making. Based on the views of Kassarian (1982) analytical models follow the conventional five-stage consumer decision-making process of problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, choice, and evaluation of outcomes. On the other hand, prescriptive models place importance on identifying stimuli that can be modified to provoke certain consumer responses (Bray 2008:9). The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985) are among the most frequently used prescriptive models. This research is founded on TPB. However, it is considered important to understand buyer behaviour to comprehend the relevance

of TPB to this study. Consequently, the next section is devoted to examination of the theory of buyer behaviour.

4.2.1 The theory of buyer behaviour

It is important to mention also that there is not a singularly accepted "Theory of Buyer Behaviour" with a specific founder. Different researchers have proposed different models and theories, and our current understanding of buyer behaviour is based on a synthesis of these models and theories. However, the "Theory of Buyer Behaviour," is often referred to as the Howard and Sheth model because they brought it to prominence in 1969, following Howard's creation of the consumer decision model in 1963. This theory offers a comprehensive amalgamation of diverse social, psychological, and marketing impacts on consumer selection, presenting them as a systematic sequence of information processing (Foxall, 1990:10).

Also known as consumer buying behaviour, the theory examines the decision-making processes that consumers go through when making purchases. According to Kotler and Armstrong (1994), this involves several key elements embodied in five steps as surmised as follows. The first stage is termed problem recognition. The buying process starts when the buyer recognizes a problem or need (Howard & Sheth, 1969). This could be triggered by internal stimuli (such as hunger or thirst) or external stimuli (such as advertising or word-of-mouth) (Blackwell et al., 2001). The second stage is termed information search. According to Howard and Sheth (1969) and Prasad and Jha (2014), once a problem or need is recognized, the consumer may seek more information about potential solutions. This can involve both internal search (recalling past experiences or information) and external search (looking for information from various sources, such as online, friends, or in-store) (Kotler & Armstrong, 1994; Blackwell et al., 2001). Next, is the evaluation of alternatives. At this stage, the consumer evaluates different products or brands based on varying attributes and the perceived satisfaction that will be gained from them. According to Kotler and Armstrong (1994), the decision-making process is

heavily influenced by the consumer's personal and psychological characteristics, which may include perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs. Following evaluating the alternatives, the consumer must make a purchase decision. For Kotler and Armstrong (1994), purchase decision can be influenced by situational factors (such as the purchase context or timing) and social factors (such as the influence of family or peers) (Kotler & Armstrong, 1994; Blackwell et al., 2001). Finally, post-purchase behaviour occurs. At this stage, the consumer evaluates the product based on their expectations and the actual performance of the product and this can lead to post-purchase satisfaction or dissatisfaction and will influence future purchase decisions (Kotler & Armstrong, 1994).

Having examined the theoretical tenets of buyer behaviour, the next section discusses the theory of planned behaviour which is the basic theoretical framework for the study.

4.2.2 TPB as the choice theoretical framework

The TPB was first proposed by Icek Ajzen in 1985 as an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), which he developed with Martin Fishbein in the late 1960s and 1970s. The TPB is a theory that predicts deliberate behaviour because behaviour can be deliberative and planned (Ajzen, 1985). The TPB added the component of perceived behavioural control to address the limitations of the TRA in dealing with behaviours over which people have incomplete volitional control. This addition was intended to improve the predictability of a wider range of behaviours. Since its development, the TPB has been widely applied and tested in numerous fields such as health, environment, and consumer behaviour. It has also been extended and refined to better capture the complexities of human behaviour. The TPB underpins this research.

TPB has three key components namely attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. According to Ajzen (1985), attitude towards the behaviour refers to the individual's positive or negative feelings about

performing a behaviour. For example, tourists' attitudes could be influenced by the destination's image, which could be shaped by factors like natural beauty, culture, safety, cleanliness, and the friendliness of locals. If the destination image is positive, then tourists might have a positive attitude towards visiting. Secondly, according to Ajzen (1985), subjective norms refer to the perceived social pressures to perform or not to perform the behaviour. It involves how much an individual feels that they should perform a particular behaviour. These norms would be the social pressures perceived by tourists about visiting the Volta Region. If family, friends, or influential individuals have positive views of visiting this region or if it's considered a popular or trendy destination, then the subjective norms might encourage tourists to visit. Thirdly, perceived behavioural control refers to the individual's belief in their capability to perform the behaviour and it is about the perceived ease or difficulty of the behaviour and is assumed to reflect experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles to (Ajzen, 1985). For example, tourists' perceived ability to visit the Volta Region might be influenced by factors like financial capability, availability of time, ease of obtaining a visa, availability of direct flights, or understanding of the local language. If tourists perceive high control over these factors, they are more likely to visit.

The combination of these three factors leads to the formation of a behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1985). In other words, motivational factors influence the likelihood that a person will engage in a particular behaviour. The stronger the intention to perform the behaviour, the more likely it should be that the behavior is performed. However, the TPB acknowledges that intention cannot be the sole determinant of behaviour where an individual's control over the behaviour is incomplete. Therefore, even with strong intention, the behaviour might not be performed due to non-control factors. In spite of these shortcomings, TPB has wide usage and acceptance. Therefore, the TPB could explain that: *the future behavioural intentions of international tourists (whether they intend to visit the Volta Region) will be influenced by their attitudes towards visiting (shaped by the destination image), the subjective norms about visiting (shaped by their social circle), and their perceived behavioural control over visiting (shaped by practical considerations).*

TPB is used in this study to find out international tourist's behavioural intentions regarding the destinations and tourist attraction sites that they visit in the Volta region. The TPB also considers demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, religion, education, income etc.), intelligence, general attitude and life values, traits, emotions, etc. These variables are also known as background factors in TPB. They influence intentions and behaviours only directly by their effects on behavioural, normative and control beliefs.

4.3 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Drawing on aspects of Ajzen's (1991) TPB construction, it is postulated that international tourists' behavioural intentions regarding word-of-mouth behaviours, willingness to recommend the destinations and sites, and willingness to pay return visits depend on how they perceive the image of the selected destinations. Should tourists hold a positive image, they will develop positive attitudes towards the sites. Consequently, they will plan to pay return visits, spread good things about the sites and recommend the places to other visitors. On the other hand, the opposite will also happen when they hold negative perceptions. The framework, therefore, regards destination image as the independent variable, the behavioural intentions (return visit, word-of-mouth behaviour, willingness to recommend) as the dependent variable, motives, satisfaction and attitudes as mediating or intervening variables and demographic variables as moderating variables.

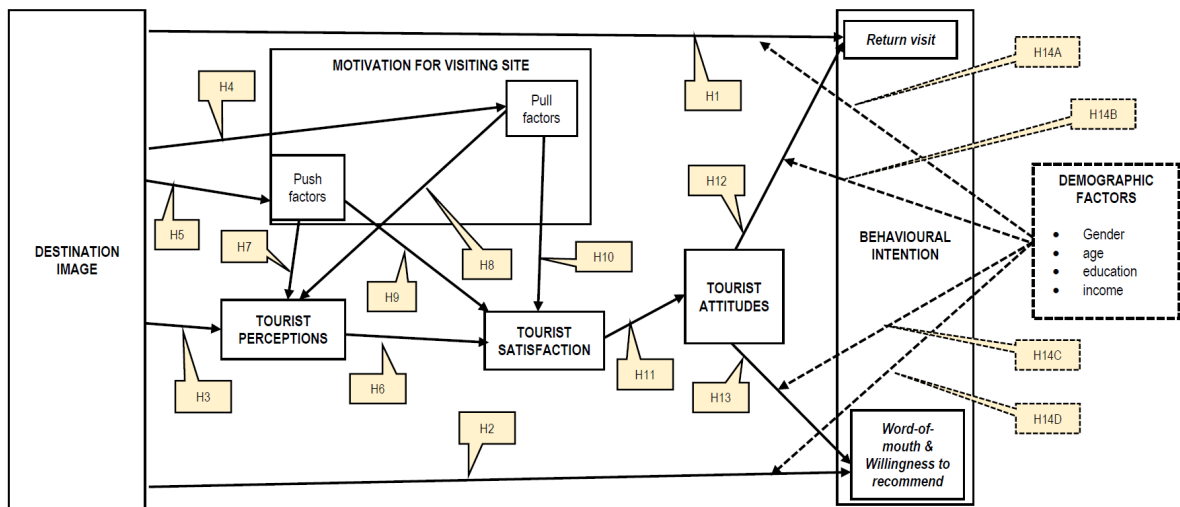


Figure 4.8: Proposed conceptual framework.

4.4 HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

The hypotheses developed for this study are based on the key variables used in the conceptual framework, as shown in Figure 4.8. The theory of planned behaviour is used to explain the relationships of destination image of the tourist sites, the perception of the tourists, tourist motives for visiting the sites, the tourist attitude towards the selected sites, tourist satisfaction with the selected destinations and sites and their behavioural intentions towards the sites. The study will also focus on the key dimensions of behavioural intentions to measure tourist willingness to recommend the attraction sites to friends, families etc., to spread positive messages about the tourist sites and also return to/visit the site in future. Based on the theory of planned behaviour and the conceptual framework, the following hypotheses are developed from the variables.

4.4.1 Relationship of the variables and hypotheses development

This section identifies the relationship of key variables namely (destination image, perception, motivation, satisfaction, attitude, behavioural intentions and demographic factors) that are applicable to the study. It identifies all the fourteen

(14) hypotheses that have been developed to predict the outcome or empirical evidence of the study.

4.4.1.1 Destination image and behavioural intentions

Destination image is defined differently across various literature, as detailed in the second chapter of the literature review. Zhang, Xu, Leung, and Cai (2016:9), for example, describe it as "the core related to tourist attractions and tourism facilities which directly meet tourists' core needs". However, this study employs the definition provided by Crompton (1979) and Fakeye and Crompton (1991), characterizing destination image as the mental construct of knowledge or feelings towards a specific destination. This image of the destination serves as the basis upon which tourists make their decisions. Extensive research in the field of tourism has uncovered a positive correlation between the image of a destination and intentions to visit that destination (Fu, Ye & Xiang, 2016; Alcañiz, García & Blas, 2009; Baloglu, 2000; Chen & Tsai, 2007).

The total impression by tourists also constitutes the attributes and attractions that come with the destination (Mackay & Fesenmaier, 1997). Researchers have come out with various forms of attributes that have been used to measure destination images. For instance, Chi, Qing and Qu (2008), cited by Rajesh (2013), classified destination attributes into nine aspects, namely natural attractions, entertainment and events, travel environment, historical attractions, accessibility, infrastructure, relaxation, price and value and outdoor activities. Similar nine attributes were developed by Beerli and Martin (2004), including tourist leisure and recreation, natural environment, natural resources, culture history and art, general infrastructure, social environment, leisure and recreation, and political and economic.

While a plethora of empirical studies have shown that the destination image positively affects future tourist behaviours directly and indirectly (Zhang et al.,

2014; Chen, Chen & Okumus, 2013; Wang & Hsu, 2010; Lee, 2009; Chen & Tsai, 2007), it needs to be pointed that none of these studies has been conducted in the Volta region of Ghana.

Some of the studies conducted by researchers Kim, Kang, and Kim (2014) and Zahra (2012) found destination image as an antecedent of tourist behavioural intentions towards Asian locations. In a study relating to tourists visiting coastal destinations in Asia, Chen and Tsai (2007) found the quality of the trip to affect destination image directly, and it also indirectly affected satisfaction and future behavioural intentions. In the context of Eureka Spring Resort, Chi (2012) evaluated destination image, tourist attribute, overall satisfaction and destination loyalty among first-time and repeat visitors and found destination image to influence first-time visitors directly.

Oliver (1999) refers to intention as the predetermined ability to promise action." According to Abd-Elaziz, Aziz, Khalifa and Abdel-Aleem (2015:196), "word-of-mouth is the transmission of opinions, thoughts, and ideals between two or many individuals without any individual as a marketing source." It has been identified to positively affect oral information and destination choice (Alkutbi, Alrajawy, Nusari, Khalifa & Abuelhassan, 2019; Jalilvand and Heidari, 2017; Molina *et al.*, 2010). It has also been noted that significant referrals and improvement of word of mouth by those who revisit affect potential tourists (Jalilvand & Heidari, 2017).

Many studies have revealed that tourists' future behavioural intentions are influenced by destination image (Chaulagain, Wiitala & Fu, 2019; Foroudi, Akarsu, Ageeva, Foroudi, Dennis & Melewar, 2018; Stylidis *et al.*, 2017). For instance, in a meta-analysis, Zhang *et al.* (2014) found destination image directly affects behavioural intentions. In another study, Ryan (2012) found that destination images indirectly affect tourists' future behavioural intentions. Other scholars have also argued that destination images have a direct and indirect effect on tourists' future behavioural intentions simultaneously (Kani, Aziz, Sambasivan & Bojei, 2017; Chen & Jahaari, 2014; Assaker & Kallak, 2013; Chen & Tsai, 2007).

A study by Styliadis et al. (2017) showed destination image to affect place attachment and tourist revisit intentions indirectly. However, Bigne et al. (2001) assert that destination image positively affects revisit intention and willingness to recommend to others through quality and tourist satisfaction (Kani et al., 2017). A study by Song et al. (2017) in Hainan Area, China, revealed that destination image significantly impacts tourist revisit intention towards a destination. Also, results from a study on tourists by Allameh, Pool, Jaber, Salehzadeh and Asadi (2015) in Iran found that destination image positively influences tourist intention to revisit the place as a sports tourism destination. Similarly, Sharmam and Nayk (2018) empirically reaffirm that a positive destination's image significantly influences tourists to revisit and recommend the destination to others. Also, a study by Pratminingsih, Rudatin and Rimenta (2014) to examine the impact of destination image on the intention of tourists to revisit, the study which was done in Bandung region in Indonesia between December 2012 and January 2013 with 268 tourists found that destination image influences the intentions of tourist.

Hallmann, Zehrer and Muler (2015) also carried out a similar study with 795 tourists visiting the destinations of Obserstdof, Germany and Hininterglemm in Austria for winter sports. They found that destination image impacted tourists' intentions to revisit the country. A study by Allameh, Pool, Jaber, Salehzadeh and Asadi (2014) on 886 tourists who had come to Mazandaran province in Iran for sports tourism showed that destination image perceived by tourists had a significant impact on repeated visits. This means that if the destination image is affected, it will affect the tourist's decision to revisit the place. Thus, based on the above, the following hypotheses are formulated. *H₁: Destination image influences tourists to revisit intentions; and H₂: Destination image influences tourist word-of mouth behaviour and willingness to recommend the destination site to others.*

4.4.1.2 Destination image and perception

Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) define destination image as “tourist perceptions or impressions of a destination in relation to the expected benefit or consumption values”. Therefore, what a person expects from a destination will directly impact his or her motivation to visit that destination. Moreover, motivation has also been found to directly affect attitude towards visiting the destination (Hsu, Cai & Li, 2010). Destinations with available images and tourists’ positive perceptions have a higher chance of being selected by tourists; therefore, there is a need to pay proper attention and manage such destinations well. The destination image tourists perceive after visiting influences their satisfaction and their intentions to revisit in future. In formulating their destination choices, travellers group them into facilitators and inhibitors and expound on the perception of the destination attributes. Assaker and Hallak (2013) pointed out that perceptions of tourist destination image and tourists’ product preferences are mostly associated with affective responses and visitation behaviours. The literature has revealed a significant moderating effect of the relationship among destination image, satisfaction, and temporal return intentions on tourists’ novelty-seeking tendencies. It can therefore be hypothesised that: *H₃: Destination image significantly influences tourist perception.*

4.4.1.3 Destination image and motivation

The push-pull framework has been used as an instinctive way of explaining the motivation underlying tourist behaviour. Whilst the push motives or factors are the internal drives that cause tourists to decide on a holiday, the pull motives are the factors that attract the individual to a destination. The push-pull motive has been defined by Gunaydin et al. (2021), as the elements that affect tourists' destination choice. For instance, the international tourism literature has shown that the following researchers have researched it Kim and Lee (2002); Mazzarol and Soutar (2002); Kim, Lee and Klenosky (2003); Yoon and Uysal (2005); Kao et al. (2008); Yousefi and Marzuki (2012). In one study, Ünal (2020) researched Turkish tourists

visiting the City of Skopje in North Macedonia. The study found that pull motives were price, touristic opportunities, culture and national environment, hospitality and infrastructure, cleanliness, and hygiene. On the other hand, the push factors were comfort, escape, adventure and excitement, obtaining new knowledge and friendship.

As revealed in the tourism literature, the tourism destination image comprises the cognitive, affective, and conative elements and the overall impression of the destination that the tourist holds. According to Zhang et al. (2014), the cognitive relates to the knowledge and beliefs the tourist interprets, while the affective refers to the emotions and pertains to the natural environment (Költringer & Dickinger 2015). The third component, conative, refers to the tourist's intention to visit a destination (Ryu, Decosta & Audelin, 2016; Xie & Lee, 2013). Some researchers (Servidio, 2015; Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou & Kaplanido, 2013) believe that in measuring destination image, the three should be measured together to satisfy the needs and interests of the tourists. According to Baloglu (1999), cited by Akgün et al. (2020), the cognitive image comprises the destination attributes like the tourism environment, infrastructure, history and culture etc., while emotions are the feelings about the destination. It can therefore be hypothesised that: *H₄: Destination image positively influences pull motives*; and *H₅: Destination image positively influences push motives*.

4.4.1.4 Perception and Satisfaction

Oliver (1997:13) defines satisfaction as the “customer’s judgment if a product or service provides pleasurable feeling of fulfilment.” Additionally, Greenwell, Fink and Pastore (2002:131) defined satisfaction as “subjective perception, evaluation or judgement held by customers based on their experience with a service performance rather than a firm’s objective standards of quality.” In a study to find the satisfaction of tourists that had visited Hokkaido, Japan, it was realized that the factors of scenic beauty and meals caused influenced the overall satisfaction of

tourist satisfaction. In addition, Huang and Sarigollu (2008) argued that tourist satisfaction is affected by the perception of core and secondary factors of the destination image. They classify the core as outdoor adventures, sea sport, fun and sun, and ecotourism, while the secondary factors are convenience and cost, infrastructure and services and safety. In another investigation of tourist perception and satisfaction of Asian and Western tourists that used Malaysian hotels facilities, Poon and Low (2005) found that the Asian tourists were satisfied with factors like host hospitality, recreational and entertainment, location, security and safety, accommodation facilities, food beverages and Western travellers were also satisfied with the hotel factors like host hospitality, accommodation facilities, location, transportation and payment, security. In destination marketing, tourist satisfaction influences the choice of destination, how products/services are consumed, and tourist revisits intentions (Koazak & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Thus, based on this, the study, therefore, hypothesises that: *H₆: Perception positively influences tourist satisfaction.*

4.4.1.5 Motivation (push and pull motives) and perception

The extant literature has revealed that perception and motivation influence tourist behaviour towards tourism activities. For instance, perception is seen to be how people experience, understand and interpret the world in which they live. This is achieved through the five senses (sights, sounds, smells, touch and taste) from different sources of information such as media and the internet. Fan et al. (2012) define tourist perception as “the comprehensive perception on the attraction, environment, products and services.” Tourists, therefore, evaluate based on the designative attributes related to the perceptual and cognitive components and evaluative attributes of the affective components of the destination image.

The literature has again revealed that push and pull motives are a key framework for assessing tourist motivations to travel. Whilst the push factors are internal drive or desire, such as to travel, the need for novelty, the need for escape, or the need

for self-esteem, the pull factors are those that attract and motivates tourist to visit the destination and comprised of beaches, shopping centre (Kassean, Hemant & Rhaalib, 2013; Dann, 1981). In a study by Siri et al. (2012) to find the Indian tourists' perception and motivation towards Bangkok, it was found that both pull and push factors had a great impact. The push factors were made out of seeing and experiencing new destinations, having fun, escaping from the routine of work, reducing stress, doing something exciting and learning new things. The pull factors that attract tourists include scenery and beaches, enjoyment of the beautiful environment, shows and entertainment. In another study by Yiamjanya and Wongleede (2014) to find out the push and pull motives of international tourists visiting Thailand showed that the push items "get experience in a foreign land," "relax in a foreign land," "learn a new culture," "want to learn new things," "enjoy activities," "interested in Thai centre," "adventure," and the pull items are "Thai food," "traditional markets," and "good weather" were the items that influenced international tourist to visit Thailand. In the tourism literature, perception is influenced by both the pull and push motives. And according to Gnoth (1997), perception is more associated with behavioural or cognitive perception. This is because the cognitive structures of internal and external stimuli are woven into the "awareness set" Correira et al. (2005). Based on this, the study, therefore, hypothesises that: *H₇: Push motive positively influences tourist perception;* and *H₈: Pull motives positively influence tourist perception.*

4.4.1.6 Destination image, motivation and satisfaction

As mentioned in the tourism literature by Crompton (1979), behaviours are mostly driven by motivation. Motivation drives people to behave to fulfil their needs where there is felt deprivation (Solomon, 2004). Several factors have been used to motivate tourists. For instance, Ryan (1991) identifies an opportunity to play, strengthening family bond, prestige, shopping and social interaction, whilst Mak et al. (2009) also comes out with the general tourist motivation factors as autonomy, nature, relationship (strengthen), self-development (host-site involvement),

isolation, romance and recognition, self-actualisation, romance, recognition stimulation and self-development (personal development). It is therefore important to analyse motivation to understand tourist behaviour and its influences on destinations.

Tourist motivation is used to understand how tourist's make choices of a destination while heightening destination image and impact on tourist satisfaction and loyalty Scrogin et al. (2010). In studying tourist motives, the theory of push-pull has been used by several scholars to explain the reasons why tourists travel Uysal and Jurowski (1994). This argument has been supported by the following researchers Crompton (1979); Dann (1981); Iso-Ahola (1982); Chul et al. (1995); Baloglu and Uysal (1996); Yoon and Uysal (2005); Battour, Ismail, Battor, and Awais (2014); Dayour (2013); Albayrak and Caber (2018); Giachino et al. (2019); Tseng et al. (2019). In the extant literature, the push factors have been identified as the socio-psychological that influences tourist decision (Jang, Bai, Hu & Wu, 2009), while the pull factors are those features that attract tourists to the destination when a decision to travel has been made (Baniya & Paudel, 2016; Khuong & Ha, 2014). Therefore, they are used in most studies to measure tourists' motivation effectively and, at the same time, provide more specific travel motivations Caber and Albayrak, (2016) related to different destination contexts.

Though motivation is an area that has been researched, studies relating to specific travel motivations are over-researched, especially in a developed country context (see, Farmaki et al., 2019a); thus, in a developing country, there is a gap. A typical example is the context understudy, the Volta region of Ghana. According to Farmaki et al. (2019a), understanding travel motivations helps forecast travel patterns. When one understands travel motivations, one can forecast travel patterns. By identifying what makes a tourist visit, destination managers can increase tourist satisfaction by knowing the needs of tourists (Dmitrovic et al., 2009) and through positive tourism experiences that the tourist encounters (Adam, Adongo & Amuquandoh, 2019). In addition, the information obtained helps develop marketing messages (Battour et al., 2012) that can attract tourists (Woyo, 2018).

Battour et al. (2012) also stressed the symbiotic relationship between satisfaction and motivation. However, Albayrak and Caber (2018) believe that satisfaction is an evasive construct in the context of tourism.

Satisfaction is a “positive feeling” that tourists develop Beard and Ragheb (1980) and is “conveyed or demonstrated during the post-purchase assessment of expectation, experiences or perceived gifts” Albayrak and Caber (2018:02). It is an important construct in the destination image. It has also been revealed in the literature that consumers' decision-making is affected by the outcome of the satisfaction component. This assertion is bolstered by the works of Devesa, Laguna, and Palacios (2010), Battour et al. (2012) and Uysal (2005), that have all proved the importance of satisfaction in marketing a destination. The implication is that how a consumer will be motivated to influence others willing to travel is determined by their satisfaction level. Based on this, Qu and Ping (1999) advised that knowing the significance of the two is necessary since they could behave in different ways. Furthermore, studies by (Wong, Musa & Taha, 2017; Battour et al., 2012; Battour et al., 2014) show push-pull factors' influence on satisfaction.

In an attempt to measure tourist satisfaction, researchers, including Battour et al., (2012); Lee and Hsu (2013), have found travel motivation to be a predictor of satisfaction. Applying the push-pull factors to Muslim travellers to Malaysia, it was identified by Battour et al. (2012) that they positively influence tourist satisfaction. The pull factors such as “natural scenery, wide space and activities, shopping and modern atmosphere” are found to be important to the Muslim traveller. In contrast, push factors of “achievement, exciting, adventure, family togetherness, knowledge education and escape” emerged as important among Muslim travellers in Malaysia (Battour et al., 2012:293). In an earlier study, the destination attributes of “reliable weather, cleanliness and shopping, nightlife and local cuisine” have all been identified as important antecedents of tourists' overall satisfaction (Lee & Hsu, 2013; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, no studies have been done in the Volta region of Ghana to use these constructs to understand tourist satisfaction and to develop tourism products. Moreover, research on these is lacking in the

destination. Thus, based on the empirical reviews, it is therefore hypothesised that: H_9 : *Push motives has a positive influence on satisfaction*; and H_{10} : *Pull motives has a positive influence on satisfaction*.

4.4.1.7 Satisfaction and attitude towards behaviour intention

Assessments that tourists make are more related to the experiences they get, perceived value and overall satisfaction, and the behavioural intentions are the judgement made to re-visit and recommend to friends, family and others (Khalifa & Fawzy, 2017; Morsy, Ahmed & Ali, 2016; Khalifa, 2015). Therefore, a favourable image can point to a positive attitude, and subsequently, the positive appraisal will lead to the possibility of a revisit. The tourism literature has established a positive relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Hashemi et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2018; Coban, 2012), but little attention has been paid to tourist satisfaction, their attitude and behavioural intentions. This assertion is not different from the context under study. It has also been established that satisfied tourists will probably return to the same destination and are willing to share their travel knowledge, satisfaction and experiences with friends and relatives (Zhang et al., 2018).

There is a controversy among researchers on the relationship between attitude and satisfaction. Some see satisfaction as an attitude, but according to LaTour and Peat (1979), there is no difference between satisfaction and attitude because they are used to evaluate products. In addition, Zeipel and Rosenberg (1977) see satisfaction as corresponding to attitude because it can be used as an evaluative tool to measure response. On the other hand, some researchers also explain the difference between the two. According to Oliver, the disconfirmation of expectation satisfaction is different from attitude. Satisfaction is the result expected after a total purchase situation, whilst attitude is the “liking” towards the product and doesn’t compare. The satisfaction and attitude concepts are more related. For instance, customers pre-existing attitude towards a product affects satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1992), while satisfaction is influenced after usage (Bolton & Dew, 1994).

Mouthinho (2000:50) states, “attitude is a predisposition towards a service created by learning and experience.” According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2011), “consumers’ attitude is consistent, and therefore the consumer will act according to the attitude they hold.” In the context of consumer behaviour, Chon (1989) defines attitude as “a consumer’s constant evaluative inclination towards or against any element in his or her market domain”. Naupane, Teye and Paris (2008) state that tourists’ attitude emanates from the country they visit. Thus, attitude is a psychological construct that experiences can change people get (Pierce & Jussila, 2010). For instance, when tourists go on holiday, they want a good and quality experience (Chen & Tsai, 2007) because they have invested in it. However, suppose they encounter negative experiences with facilities. In that case, attitudes towards that country or place will not be positive but negative (Sirakaya-Turk, Nyaupane & Uysal, 2013). Therefore, tourists are suggested to have a positive attitude if they are satisfied with a destination.

It has been established in the literature that the overall quality of services and satisfaction with a destination accelerates tourists’ attitude formation and loyalty intention (Hasan, Abdullah, Lew & Islam, 2019; Hasan, Ismail & Islam, 2017; Choi & Choo, 2016). Also, it has been found that a higher positive attitude makes customers have a higher level of satisfaction, which leads to higher behavioural intention and loyalty (Hasan et al., 2019; Hasan et al., 2017; Choi & Choo, 2016; Johnson et al., 2006; Harris & Goode, 2004). Huang and Hsu (2009) found that Chinese visitor’s satisfaction positively affects their attitudes and revisit intention towards Hong Kong. The study, therefore, hypothesises that: *H₁₁: Satisfaction has a positive influence on attitude toward a destination.*

4.4.1.8 Attitude and behaviour intention

Drawing from literature, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) which is derived from is a well-researched framework researchers have used to predict behavioural intentions (Chen & Tung, 2014). The TPB is based on the premise that people’s

behaviour is controlled by their intentions, which are then affected by attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Lam & Hsu, 2004; Ajzen 1985, 1991). The theory of reasoned action is a tool that describes how an individual's attitude predicts actual behaviour (Dean & Suhartanto, 2019; Spears & Singh, 2004). It shows that attitude is a factor that drives intentions and proposes that behaviour is a predictor of intentions (Conner, Rhodes, Morris, McEachan & Lawton, 2011). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2010), attitude "is a learned predisposition through direct experience with a product/service or from certain sources of information." Attitude directs people to behave in certain ways. It is the feelings that are associated with a behaviour. Individuals, therefore, form positive or negative attitudes through behaviour (Bianchi et al., 2017).

Previous researchers have defined future behavioural intentions of tourists as their willingness to visit or re-visit a destination and to recommend it to others (Yen et al., 2018; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Others have also addressed it as a multi-dimensional construct, but the two (revisit and willingness to recommend) are mostly used in the tourism literature to capture future behavioural intentions (Stylidis et al., 2017; Prayag, 2012). A measure of behavioural intention, word of mouth recommendation, which provides a credible source of information and dwells on the experiences of past travellers, their opinions and comments (Zhang et al., 2014), while revisit intention which is also a measure of behaviour intentions relies on tourist loyalty that reflects the destinations enlargements (Stylidis et al., 2017).

The tourism literature has revealed a significant positive relationship between tourist attitude and their intentions in leisure (Teng et al., 2015; Hsu & Huang, 2012; Ajzen & Driver, 1992). However, attitude has been seen broadly as relating to an object, with few studies investigating attitude as the behaviour concept and its effect on tourist behaviour intentions. There is currently a dearth of no studies leading to the investigation of the relationship between tourist attitudes and behavioural intentions in the Volta region of Ghana. Past studies in the tourism literature have shown that attitude plays a key role in predicting, describing and

influencing tourist behavioural intentions (Bianchi et al., 2017; Choo et al., 2016) and facilitates behaviour like revisiting a destination (Meng & Choi, 2019; Soliman, 2019; Quintal et al., 2015; Hasan et al., 2017; Huang & Hsu, 2009). Furthermore, studies have found a significant positive relationship between tourist attitudes to a destination and their intentions (Hasan et al., 2019; Bianchi et al., 2017; Hasan et al., 2017). Other studies have found attitude to be a predictor of tourist revisit (Meng & Choi, 2019; Soliman, 2019; Hasan et al., 2017; Quintal et al., 2015;). Again, the literature has shown that a tourist repeating a visit to a destination indicates that the visitor is satisfied and has a positive attitude, and he/she is likely to revisit (Hossain, Quaddus & Shankar, 2015). According to Kozak and Rimmington (2000), tourists that will revisit are likely to recommend the destination to their friends and relatives. Their views have been supported by Choo et al. (2016) that tourists with a positive attitude towards a festival will likely have a high revisit intention to such a destination. The study, therefore, hypothesises that: *H₁₂: Attitude towards destination positively influence return to visit;* and *H₁₃: Attitude towards destination positively influence recommendation.*

4.4.2 Demographic factors and destination image and behavioural intention

Based on the literature review and conceptual model developed for this study, this section considers the demographic factors that affect the relationship between destination and behavioural intentions. Mak et al. (2012) identifies the measures used for demographic features as (age, marital status, income, education level and gender). The literature also revealed that demographics affect tourists' decisions regarding their destination and behavioural intentions. For instance, Beerli and Martin (2004a; 2004b) found the country of origin to have the greatest influence on tourist destinations from the cognitive and affective perspective. Also, a report from Royal Caribbean International found that mainland China's cruise passengers are highly educated, young and middle-class customers (Sun, Feng & Gauri, 2014). Individual age has also influenced the perceived image of some destinations (Baloglu & McCleary, 2000). And gender is also found to influence the perceived image of tourists (Ragavan, Shubramonian and Sharif 2014).

Even though it is an area that is very important and used to segment the tourism market, few studies have been conducted to find the link between tourism behaviour and gender (Huang et al., 2018). For instance, few studies have been conducted to find the differences between gender groups and how they perceive destination images. For example, Beerli Martin (2004b) researched first-time international tourists to Lanzarote, Spain. It was revealed that the cognitive domain of the destination of females was rated based on the natural/cultural resources and the general tourist infrastructure. In addition, their affective image of the island was significantly higher than their male counterparts. In a different study, Wang, Qu, and Hsu (2016) also confirmed the moderating role linking the affective image and tourist expectation. The female tourist's affective image effect on tourist expectation was found to be significantly stronger than that of male tourists. Moreover, the effect of affective image on tourist expectation was found to be significantly stronger for female tourists than for male tourists. Gender has also been found in the extant literature to moderate the relationships among behavioural constructs (e.g. Jin, Line & Goh, 2013; Beauregard, 2012; Karatepe, 2011). Though there have been several studies showing the significance of gender destination, there was no statistically significant difference between perceived image and income, education and the demographic variables of gender in a study conducted by Baloglu (1999) in an attempt to find out German tourists view on the image of US.

The literature has shown the positive relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions. Still, it has also revealed that in some cases, the past experiences of tourists can affect their assessment of a destination. For instance, Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) argued that a tourist forms an attitude after visiting a destination. This attitude contributes to the tourist expectation, not just the behavioural consequences of revisiting Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003). Therefore, the positive-negative attitude formed can affect future decisions. Based on the above, it is therefore hypothesised that: *H₁₄: Demographic factors (gender, age, education, income) have a moderating effect on the relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions.*

4.5 MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES IN THE HYPOTHESES

This section identifies the measurement techniques mostly applied to the key variables (destination image, perception, motivation, attitudes, satisfaction and behaviour intentions) and the appropriate ones that were used for the study.

4.5.1 Destination image

The term “destination image” is often used in the tourism literature but has varied definitions, as identified earlier in the literature. This means that researchers do not use one measure in determining the destination image. For instance, Echtner and Ritchie (1993) suggested incorporating both attribute-based components and a holistic perspective. Chun and Chen (2018:57) define a holistic image as “a composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression.” Other researchers have also argued that the holistic representation of destination image is greater than its components put together (Liang et al., 2021; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991).

There are also contrasting views among the cognitive, affective and holistic images. For instance, Khan, Chelliah and Ahmed (2017) and Baloglu (1997) shows that both the affective and cognitive image predicts holistic image, whiles Xu et al. (2018), Baloglu and McCleary (1999a, 1999b) also present the relationship between the holistic image and cognitive image. There is, therefore, no established confirmation that only holistic or attribute is a determining measure. Instead suggest combining both holistic and cognitive attributes (Souiden, Ladhari & Chiadmi, 2017; Ahmed, 1991; Qu, Kim & Im, 2011; Bigne, Sanchez & Sanz, 2009). Based on the argument above and the definition adopted from the literature, this study will look at measurement from attributes and holistic impressions. As Echtner and Ritchie point out, the components revolve around the psychological (or more abstract and the functional (or more tangible) features. They developed a conceptual framework depicting the component, as shown in Figure 1.1 in the literature. Based on the framework, the attributes are perceptions the individual

holds of the characteristics of the destination, which vary from functional to psychological. The holistic, functional impressions contain the mental picture or the imagery of the physical characteristics of the destination, whilst psychological impressions relate to the atmosphere or mood of the place (Yusof & Ramli, 2015; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

The attribute-holistic continuum contains information on individual features or attributes from a holistic perspective (Yusof & Ramli, 2015). The common-unique also pinpoints that destination images can vary from perception hinged on the common and unique features or auras. At the end of the continuum, the image can comprise the impressions of the core group of traits that determine how destinations are rated. For instance, the image can add ratings on functional characteristics such as transport, price level, climate etc. The destination can also be rated along the lines of the characteristics such as the level of safety, quality of service, friendliness etc. The holistic and unique image is crucial in shaping how a destination is classified into holistic impressions and differentiated by its unique attractions in the minds of tourists. This study measured variables from the functional and psychological characteristics whilst also capturing the unique features or auras which distinguish them.

There are two approaches or techniques that are used in the measurement of the image. These are structured and unstructured. As indicated in Table 4.1, researchers have most often preferred structured methodologies. The Likert and semantic differential type scales are used to measure images. This study measured destination images using structured methodologies on the common, attribute-base component while addressing the holistic and unique components.

Table 4.1: Methodologies used by Destination Image Researchers

Reference	Type of methodology	Techniques for the generation of attributes
Hunt (1975)	Structured: - 20 Attributes - 7 and 5 point Sem. Diff. Scale	Tourism experts Researcher's judgement.
Crompton (1977)	Structured: - 18 Attributes - 7 point sem. Diff. Scale	General reading material/brochures Consumer interviews (N=36)
Goodrich (1977)	Structured - 10 Attributes - 7 point Likert Scale	- Tourism experts - Travel brochures
Crompton (1979)	Structured - 30 Attributes - 7 point Sem. Diff. Scale	- General reading material/brochures - Consumer interviews (N=36)
Pearce (1982)	Structured - 13 Attributes - 6 point Likert Scale	- Modified Kelly Repertory Grid technique (N=10)
Haahti & Yavas (1983)	Structured - 10 Attributes - 9 point Likert Scale	- Literature review - Focus group of travel agents
Crompton & Duray (1985)	Structured - 28 Attributes - 5 point Sem. Diff. Scale	- General reading material/brochures - Consumer interviews (N=100)
Kale & Weir (1986)	Structured - 26 Attributes - 7 point Likert Scale	Not discussed
Phelps (1986)	Structured 32 Attributes Check list of attributes	- Researchers' judgement?
Tourism (1986-1989)	Structured - 29 Attributes - 5 point Likert Scale	- Not Discussed
Gartner & Hunt (1987)	Structured 11 Attributes - 5 point Sem. Diff. Scale	Tourism - Researchers' judgement
Richardson & Crompton (1988)	Structured - 10 Attributes - 4 point Comparative Scale	- Used attributes from Tourism Canada Vacation Patterns Survey
Gartner (1989)	Structured - 15 Attributes - 5 point Likert Scale	- Not Discussed
Calantone et al. (1989)	Structured - 13 Attributes - 7 point Likert Scale	- Not Discussed
Reilly (1990)	Unstructured - open-ended questions	- Not Applicable

Source: Ecthner and Ritchie (2003:42)

4.5.2 Perception

A comprehensive analysis of John Barnes's works on 'perception in tourism and hospitality' reveals that the term "perception" carries three different connotations within the tourism and hospitality industry. First, perception can be defined as the capability to see, hear, or become cognizant of something through the senses. It involves becoming aware of something in a certain way, a method of understanding, interpreting something, and intuitive comprehension (Stevenson & Waite, 2012). Second, perception may be defined as the neurophysiological processes, encompassing memory, through which an organism becomes aware of and interprets external stimuli (Stevenson & Waite, 2012). The distinction between the two definitions lies in the involvement of all senses in the academic context, rather than focusing solely on visuals, whereas the vernacular definition involves sensing, understanding, and interpreting "something" through the senses.

In the context of tourism, two academic definitions are prevalently used in related literature. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999:436), "perceptions are the subjective interpretations by individuals of available data, leading them to form a specific opinion of and attitude towards products, places, and organizations." However, John Barnes's (2015) research, which involved 45 studies on perception, did not use Swarbrooke and Horner's (1999) definition, suggesting that most research aligns with the vernacular definition implying visual perception. The second academic definition, according to Reisinger and Turner (2003:91), is that "perception is a process whereby an individual selects, organizes, and interprets stimuli into a coherent and meaningful image of the world". Reisinger and Turner (1999) borrowed their definition from Schiffman and Kanuk's (1987:14) work on consumer behaviour, and Samovar and Porter (1991) as cited in John Barnes (2015:91), who defined perception as "the process by which stimuli are selected from the external environment and interpreted into significant internal experiences".

According to Reisinger and Turner (1999), perception can be viewed at three different levels. Level 1: Perceptions of other people (tourist perceptions of hosts

and host perceptions of tourists); Level 2: Perceptions of oneself (tourist perceptions of themselves and their hosts' perceptions of themselves); and Level 3: Meta-perceptions, which are perceptions of perceptions, denoting how others perceive that they are perceived (tourist perceptions of how they are perceived by their hosts) (Reisinger and Turner, 2003:151).

Table 4.2 Perception Measurement Items

Attitude	A way of thinking or feeling
Belief	A feeling that something exists or is true especially one without Proof.
Impact	An act of one object hitting another; a marked effect or influence.
Opinion	A personal view not necessarily based on fact or knowledge; The views of people in general; An estimate of quality or worth.
Preference	A greater liking for one alternative over another

Source: Catherine Soanes and Sarah Hawker, (2008)

A Likert scale for an agreement related to attitude and beliefs of perception was used to measure tourist perception of the destination.

4.5.3 Motivation

Researchers have used the pull-push framework to study travel motivation, as presented in the literature review. The pull factors are inherent attributes that attract tourists, whilst the push factors are inertly exerted by the tourists. The tourist attraction sites, facilities, events, activities or weather attributes are used to measure pull factors. (Phau et al., 2013; Prayag, 2012). The push-pull motivation framework identifies 'motives' for the push factors and destinations for the pull factors. However, the pull factors are also termed "destination-induced motives". Crompton (1979:41) states that "pull factors are motives aroused by the destination" and later refers to them as "cultural motives". This has supported the argument by Awaitefe (2004:308) that "destination components (pull factors) may similarly reflect in their (tourists) travel goals or aspiration ('push motives') that they associate with these destination attributes".

Push motives: The push factors will motivate international tourists to travel outbound. The items of motives are derived from the literature review and based on push factors of tourists to travel. Pull motives: These are attributes that attract international tourists. The items used to measure are adapted from the literature review base on pull factors for international tourists. This study relies on the destination literature review above (motivation, destination image, destination attributes). It comes up with a comprehensive questionnaire with pulling effect tangible (e.g. attributes) and intangible (imagery) items. These tangibles and intangibles include an image, destination activities, culture, history, physiography and tourism frame (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Dann, 1977).

4.5.4 Satisfaction

In the literature above, satisfaction has many definitions. It is mostly seen as the post-purchase construct in line with whether the consumer likes or dislikes the product or service after experiencing it (Woodside, Frey & Daly, 1989). In the view of Moutinho (1987), the post-purchase construct is a function of pre-travel expectations and travel experience. Others have also criticized expectation as a determining factor in assessing satisfaction. Tourist satisfaction is analysed from two main methods. First, it is measured when the needs and motives of the tourist or traveller are met by the destination features (Fang et al., 2008). According to Albayrak and Caber (2018), this version of tourist satisfaction qualifies as “a static fulfilment” of the traveller’s motives. Second, the “expectation-disconfirmation” approach by Oliver (1980) whereby the expected experiences are compared with the perceived experiences by the tourist (Albayrak and Caber 2018). In that case, satisfaction is not achieved when the tourist expectation is unmet and vice versa (Agyeiwaah, Otoo, Suntikul & Huang, 2019). Despite the arguments by scholars on the expectation-experience continuum, it has been established by Cadotte, Woodruff, and Jenkins (1982) that comparing experience with expectation in the context of destination is well established than individuals providing service. Satisfaction is the result of comparing expectations and experience. Earlier

researchers have used the difference between expectation and perception to generate gaps in measuring satisfaction (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Among such scholars are Moutinho (1987), Nightingale (1986), Chon and Olsen (1991), Pizam, Jafari, and Milman (1991), Chadee and Mattsson (1996), Danaher and Arweiler (1996), Qu and Li (1997), Knutson, Stevens, and Patton (1995) and Kozak and Rimmington (2000). However, applying it to tourism (measuring satisfaction with the individual service) is not holistic, and it doesn't cover the whole holiday experience by the tourist. The key attributes and experience matter in measuring satisfaction.

Tribe and Snaith (1998) developed the HOLSAT model to evaluate holiday satisfaction. They define tourist satisfaction as “the degree to which a tourist assessment of that destination exceeds his or her expectation for those attributes”. Comparing their techniques to others, the SERVPERF (Cronin and Taylor 1994) measures only performance, the SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al.1998) uses Importance-Performance Assessment or performance related to the best quality, and HOLSAT measures the relationship between performance and prior expectation. HOLSAT compares the performance of the holiday attributes against customer expectations. However, it does not apply a fixed list of attributes generic to all destinations. Instead, it factors in attributes that suit a particular destination. The HOLSAT model uses positive and negative attributes. The positive portrays the favourable impression, while the negative is the opposite of the destination. Tribe and Snaith (1998) believe that the negative attributes are paramount because they contribute to holiday satisfaction. With the HOLSAT model, respondents rate their expectations of each holiday attribute using a questionnaire. Then, the respondent uses a Likert scale to score the holiday attributes based on his impression before the travel and again rates the experiences or performance on the same attributes after the holiday experience. This research adopted the HOLSAT model to measure tourist satisfaction, with respondents rating their experiences and what they expected to get based on their travels.

4.5.5 Attitude

Attitude assessment mostly relies on Rosenberg's (1956) means-end-analysis, which uses the evaluation-based weighted sum of perception (cognitions), representing an indicator of a unidimensional attitude (McGuire, 1969). This assessment may also employ the simple rating **scale (“good \longleftrightarrow bad”)**.

Measuring tourist attitudes towards a particular tourist destination and site will be adapted from Jalilvand et al. (2012). Jalilvand et al. (2012) examined tourist attitudes towards visiting Iran and developed statements examining their attitude and intentions. According to Ajzen (1991), tourist attitude refers to the positive or negative outcomes expressed by behaviour as a result of psychological tendencies. Therefore, Jalilvand (2012) measured a tourist's attitude towards a destination using items as “very bad/very good”, very worthless/very valuable”, and “very unpleasant/very pleasant. This study adopted Jalilvand's (2012) statements and 11 items on cognition, affection and conation, which has also been developed and used by Engel et al. (2000); Vincent and Thompson (2002) to suit tourist attitude towards the key tourist sites and destinations in the Volta region of Ghana.

4.5.6 Behavioural intentions

Consumer needs vary depending on their choices and preferences (Mohamed et al., 2019; Mohamed et al., 2018). Therefore, it is prudent to understand buyer behaviour and their intentions to return to destinations (Agwa, Aziz, & Khalifa, 2018a, 2018b; Abou-Shouk & Khalif, 2017; Badran & Khalifa, 2016; Khalifa, 2015). Chen Tsai (2007) emphasises that tourist behaviour is more rooted in the choice of destination assessments and behavioural intentions. The assessment contains the travel experience, the perceived value and the customer's overall satisfaction, while the future behavioural intention entails visitor judgement to recommend the destination to others and revisit (Khalifa & Fawzy, 2017; Khalifa & El Hussein, 2017; Morsy et al. 2016, Khalifa, 2015). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), behavioural intention is an important indicator of visitor behaviour and the best

predictor of human behaviour. Gitelson and Crompton's (1984) first study on the importance of tourist repeating visitor destination reveals that destination acknowledges the importance of tourist re-visiting destinations.

Three items were used to measure tourist future behaviour intentions: willingness to revisit, willingness to recommend to others and positive word-mouth. This is based on studies by Baker and Crompton (2000), Bigne et al. (2001) and Petrick (2004). A 7-point Likert scale (7=strongly agree, 1=strongly) disagree was used.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter reviewed the various theoretical models of consumer behaviour and identified the theory of planned behaviour as the appropriate theory for predicting tourist behavioural intention for the study. It also detailed the conceptual framework that was used to outline the hypotheses. In all, fourteen (14) hypotheses were developed made up of thirteen (13) direct hypotheses and one moderating hypothesis. The chapter also discussed how all the key variables were measured. The next chapter discusses the philosophical perspectives and the research design and methodology that were use for the study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the various philosophical perspectives of research and delineates to establish the research methodology. The research methodology has been defined by Muhaise et al. (2020:271) “as the general regulations and principles for organizing research activity”. The beginning of the chapter is a description of the philosophical assumptions and competing research paradigms. The study, therefore, follows the same research methodology procedure proposed by Saunders et al. (2019). It specifically covers the research philosophy, purpose, approach and strategy needed for the study, methods, design, and data collection instrument and analysis. Also discussed in the chapter are the reliability and validity of the research instruments, the sampling techniques employed and the ethical considerations. The final section looks at the data analysis of the research.

5.2 PARADIGMS AND PHILOSOPHICAL PERSPECTIVES

Philosophical assumptions are beliefs that drive the research process (Creswell, 2013). The diverse philosophical frames of reference are known as paradigms in the scientific community and refer to the researchers' philosophical or theoretical orientation (Kuhn,1970). Muhaise et al. (2020) and Kuhn (1962) cited by Desphande (1983:101) define paradigm as “a set of linked assumptions shared by scientists that provides a conceptual framework for research. The research paradigm is made up of three parts namely ontology, epistemology, and axiology.

Ontology refers to assumptions and beliefs about the nature of reality (Abdul-Hamid, 2019; Dieronitou, 2014; Hannam & Knox, 2010) which can be objective or subjective (Scotland, 2012; Bryman, 2012; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This research is founded on the objectivity ontology. Epistemology has its roots in Greek and

comes from the word episteme, which mean knowledge. In research, epistemology describes how how truth or reality is known (Kelly, 2021). The two main epistemologies are positivism and interpretivism. This study is based on the positivist epistemology. Axiology concerns the role of values in research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). A research can be value free or value laden. In other words, a researcher can be distant from the research or be actively involved in the research. The current research follows the value free axiology.

As previously pointed out, a researcher's research philosophy emanates from epistemology, axiology and ontology (Creswell, 2014). The logical relationship among these assumptions can therefore be obtained from the paradigms. According to Saunders et al. (2019) the two most used research paradigms are positivism and pragmatism. The current research is based on the positivist paradigm. The stance is related to natural scientists (Saunders, Thornhill & Lewis, 2019). Positivism is characterized by using existing theory to develop a hypothesis which is then tested and a confirmation of whole or part or refuted through measurement of observable social realities. According to Saunders et al. (2019), positivism explains the causes and effects of relationships which leads to predicting outcomes and development of theoretical models. Interpretivism is rooted in the works of German, French and English thinkers in the early and mid-twentieth century (Crotty, 1998). Interpretivists believe that people have different backgrounds, times, and circumstances and experience different social realities. Consequently, interpretivists develop new understanding and interpretation of the social world of what is meaningful to their research participants (Saunders et al., 2019). Thus, this paradigm is subjective and is often associated with qualitative data gathering (Saunders et al., 2019; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

As stated already, this study is situated within the positivism paradigm. The positivist affirms that there is only one reality independent of human perception and that reality is empirically observed and explained with logical analysis (Saunders et al., 2019; Hunt, 1991). The positivist believes that the researcher and the topic are independent entities and that the investigator is not influenced by exploring a

concept or being able to find a concept (Saunders et al., 2019; Sale, Lohfeld & Brazil, 2002). According to Muhaise et al. (2020) the following are assumptions related to positivism (1) the world is external and objective where the observer is independent; (2) researchers should base assumptions on fact and seek causality from variables to generalize fundamental laws; and (3) positivist research should be specific and hypothetically tested using quantitative methods on large samples in order to increase objectivity. The topic under study involves international tourist perception and attitudes towards various key destinations and their intentions in the Volta region of Ghana and contain the same criteria above. Again, the paradigm choice can be justified as follows: According to Orlikowski and Baroundi (1991), research is deemed to be known as positivism when there is a formal proposition, testing of hypothesis, and where there are inferences about the phenomenon from the sample to a state population. The positivist also tests the theory in trying to predict phenomena. This study sought to follow the path the previous researchers identified above. Another justification is that this study adopted a deductive approach that aligns with the positivist paradigm.

5.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

A research approach is a process through which theories are developed and tested in social science research (Saunders, Thornhill & Lewis, 2009; 2016; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Gill & Johnson, 2002). There are three main approaches to research which are – deductive, inductive and abductive.

5.3.1 Deductive approach

The deductive approach is based on creating a hypothesis on a pre-existing theory and formulating a hypothesis to test it (Silverman, 2013). This approach, therefore, suits the positivist paradigm which also includes formulating hypothesis and testing (Sneider & Lerner, 2009). However, according to Saunders et al. (2019) and Chen & Baptista (2023), the deductive approach can adopt a qualitative research

technique in a situation whereby pre-existing research is formulated by a different means other than hypothesis testing. One advantage of the deductive approach is that it can be used to determine whether a research conclusion is valid. However, its shortcoming is that it does not provide an in-depth understanding of human behaviour (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The deductive approach was followed in this research.

This study determines the impact of destination image on international tourist behavioural intention in the Volta region of Ghana. After reviewing the literature, a hypothesis was developed to determine the relationship between the variables or concepts in the study. To test the relationships, quantitative data was analysed using inferential statistics. All these are aligned to the deductive and predictive approach, hence the study's choice.

5.3.2 Inductive approach

The inductive approach is a way to build theory. Observations are the basis and patterns that are looked for in the data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Inductive approach is also associated with qualitative research and, in the absence of a theory, may be beneficial by reducing bias in the data collection stage (Bryman & Bell, 2011). An advantage of the inductive approach is that generalisation based on limited observation also holds for the general population (Darabi & Clark 2013; Bryman & Bell, 2011). However, it is not easy making generalisations because the inference is not hinged on any premise. This approach was not adopted.

5.3.3 Abductive approach

The use of both inductive and deductive approaches in the same research constitutes the abductive approach (Mukumban, Kabongo & Eastwoo, 2021; Saunders et al., 2016). It adopts a theory-building approach by accepting or rejecting a hypothesis by testing observed data using exploratory study (Saunders et al., 2016). According to Saunders et al. (2012) and Vila-Henninger, (2020), the

abductive approach adopts a -back-and-forth approach rather than starting from data to theory (as used in the inductive approach) and from theory to data (as in the deductive approach). As Dubois and Gadde (2002) identified, one advantage is that the abductive approach can solve anomalies resulting from the inductive and deductive. This approach was also not followed.

5.4 RESEARCH METHOD

Research method is how research is investigated and is defined as “a way to systematically solve the research problem” (Kothari, 2004:1). It comprises the various procedures, techniques and methods employed in conducting research regarding data collection, analysis and dissemination results (Creswell, 2014).

5.4.1 Qualitative method

The qualitative method explores and understands the meaning of groups and individuals associated with a social or human problem (Creswell, 2014). It is associated with soliciting bigger information from a small number of people than small information from a larger audience (Veal, 2006). According to Saunders et al. (2019), qualitative research uses different data collection approach and procedures to understand respondents and their relationships and develop a conceptual framework and theoretical contributions. Meanings are obtained from words and images and use structured or semi-structured methods. According to Saunders et al. (2019), qualitative is suitable for strategies like Action research, Case study research, Ethnography, Grounded Theory and Narrative Inquiry (Sarfo et al., 2021; Saunders et al., 2019). However, a case study strategy or mixed-method research design can be used for quantitative research. One strength of qualitative is its attention to a context to churn out meanings and experiences of people in explaining a research phenomenon (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). This method was not adopted.

5.4.2 Quantitative method

This study utilized the quantitative method. It aligns with this study's research paradigm, which seeks to gather descriptive narratives from international tourists. The quantitative method adopts a numerical approach to examine the relationship between variables using different statistical and graphical techniques for measurement and analysis (Saunders et al., 2019). According to Leedy and Omrod (2013:100), "a quantitative approach is useful when the study is designed to determine the incidence, frequency and distribution of specific characteristics in a population and where the data collected can be expressed in numbers and analyzed using statistical procedures." With a quantitative method, data is collected in a standardised manner. This study involves several international tourists from around the globe, all answering the same questionnaire. And it adopted all the above measures in examining tourists' perception of the destinations and tourist sites. Quantitative methods also use probability sampling techniques to ensure generalization (Saunders et al., 2019). The quantitative procedures measure large quantities of data and test hypotheses statistically. This study evaluated tourist perceptions of the key tourist sites and destinations to determine their future behavioural intentions and also tested hypotheses using a probability sampling technique. A quantitative study adopts a positivist approach, assuming that realities are more systematic and objective and are studied sequentially (O' Dwyer & Bernauer, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2012). Quantitative research adopts a survey strategy, questionnaires, or structured observation (Bloomfield & Fisher, 2019; Saunders et al., 2019). Tourism researchers mostly use questionnaires rather than experiments. In soliciting for information from the tourists, the researcher used structured questions. For instance, Choisis and Murray (2010) examine residents' attitudes towards sustainable community tourism. In Southern Africa, researchers have adopted quantitative data for a questionnaire, where a 5-point interval (Likert) scale has been examined in tourism (Snyman, 2012). An advantage of the quantitative research method is that since it is more generalised, the knowledge gained can benefit a large population (Punch, 2013).

5.4.3 Mixed method

Both quantitative and qualitative combined are referred to as mixed method strategy and applies data collection techniques and analytical procedure in a single study (Molina-Azorin, Bergh, Corley & Ketchen, 2017). Two philosophical assumptions are related to mixed method design: pragmatism and critical realism. The mixed method is used to achieve validity for methods and results (Hall & Hall, 1996). The doubts in evaluation are mostly minimal when two different methodological processes are used; hence it is viability (Imran & Yusoff, 2015). A mixed method can apply deductive, inductive or abductive in theory development. For instance, in testing and understanding a theory, quantitative or qualitative, can be adapted to provide a focus for the scope of the research (Tashakkari & Teddie, 2010).

The concurrent triangulation strategy entails qualitative and quantitative data collection simultaneously (Creswell, 2014; Morgan, 2007). It aims to allow results to be interpreted concurrently for deeper understanding concerning the research question and, in comparison, using a mono-method design. The sequential mixed method uses more than one set/phase to set findings. This method was not adopted.

5.5 RESEARCH STRATEGY

Saunders et al. (2019) cited by Mtisi (2022:1) refer to a research strategy as “a plan of how a researcher will answer his or her research question”. Denzin and Lincoln (2018) describe it as the methodological links between the research philosophy, methods of data collection and data analyses. Bryman (2012:35) also defines it as “a general orientation to the conduct of research”. Based on these definitions, research strategy can be inferred as the guide or process to conduct research. Therefore, a researcher's choice towards strategy is influenced by the research questions, objectives, knowledge already existing, the time and resources available and the theoretical underpinnings (Saunders et al., 2019). There are

different research strategies, but the most common strategies mostly applied in business and management include (experiment, survey, archival and documentary research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory and narrative inquiry (Saunders et al., 2019). According to Saunders et al. (2019), the first two strategies outlined above are prone to a quantitative research design, the third and fourth could be quantitative or qualitative research or a combination of the two, i.e. mixed research design and the last four are linked to qualitative design. From the above definition, the survey strategy addresses the research question enumerated in the thesis. The survey strategy was adopted for this study. It is associated with the adopted deductive research approach (Saunders et al., 2019). It is more suited to exploratory and descriptive studies.

5.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Vinayak Bairagi and Munot (2019), research design directs how a research study is run to realise the objectives. Creswell (2014) terms it as the frame used to research, whilst Polit and Beck (2012) also posit that the researcher mostly uses it as a plan to answer a research question. Lastly, it is regarded as the blueprint or guide used to collect and analyse data (Abutabenjeh, 2018). The study followed the cross-sectional descriptive and inferential research design. This design allowed the researcher to collect numeric data and statistically analyse the data for relationships among variables of interest.

5.6.1 The study population

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014:97), the population of a study refers to “all the units, or the universe (people or things) possessing similar attributes or characteristics which is the focus of a research study.” And according to Fowler (2014), population refers to the total elements from which a study draws its data which can be made up of individuals and organizations.

Numerous tourists visit the designated sites and destinations. While no official data is available, it was estimated that over 2000 tourists of different nationalities make visits to key destinations and tourist sites. The main research objective is to assess the impact of international tourists' perception of destination image on their future behaviour intentions regarding return visit intentions and willingness to recommend as a tourist destination. The population in this study was the international tourists that visited the destinations and tourist attraction sites.

5.6.2 Sampling techniques or methods

Sampling is “a procedure that uses a small number of units of a given population as a basis for concluding about the whole population” (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014:142). Sampling techniques are grouped into two main types: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, individuals or elements in the population have an equal chance of being selected in determining the sample that is statistically representative of the population, whilst individuals or elements in non-probability sampling are determined by the researcher (Greener, 2008), and as a result, it is not always possible to answer or address research questions or objectives statistically about the characteristics of the population (Saunders et al., 2019). Furthermore, Anderson (2009) states that non-probability sampling techniques mostly apply qualitative studies, while probability uses quantitative studies. This study used a probability (non-proportional stratified) sampling and selected international tourists visiting the Volta region's key destinations and tourist sites. In the non-proportional stratified sampling, Ho municipal, Ho West District, Keta Municipal, Agotime Ziope district, Hohoe district and Afadjato South district were selected. International tourists were selected based on the guidelines of the extant literature and questionnaire designed for the study.

5.6.3 Sample size

The sample size comprises the number of units in a study (Kumar, 2014; Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Considering financial limitations, 400 tourists formed the sample size which is about 20% of the estimated population. It is important to note that the 400 was within the sample recommendation of 300 and above for quantitative studies (Hair, Babin, & Krey, 2017).

5.7 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Primary and secondary data (literature) were employed to understand the behaviour of international tourists visiting the Volta region. Data collection techniques range from personal interviews, observation, and questionnaires. According to Goddard and Melville (2001:46), “to measure people’s attitude and plan, questionnaires and interviews are the valid instrument.” Structured questionnaires, made up of closed-ended questions, were used to collect data. The questionnaires used for this study were adapted from published academic journals or articles.

5.7.1 Data collection procedure

To achieve the objectives set for this study, all managers of the chosen tourism destinations were contacted through a personal visit, and permission was sought to solicit tourist views. The survey questionnaires were then sent to the key destinations (Ho West district, Ho Municipal, Afadjato South district, Hohoe Municipal, Adaklu district, Agotime-Ziope district and Keta Municipal) and their tourist attraction sites. Also, electronic questionnaires were sent to tourists who have visited these places and left their details (emails) to site officials. This was necessary due to Covid-19, which prevented tourists from visiting the destinations while conducting this research. At the tourist sites, tour guides were given questionnaires to administer as tourists visited with supervision from their managers. The data was collected between January 2021 to July 2021. All in all,

403 responses were gathered from the key destinations, sites and tourists contacted electronically.

5.8 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

In collecting primary data, a structured questionnaire was used. This is because, according to Fowler (2014), measuring attitude and knowledge for a study requires the use of a structured instrument.

5.8.1 The questionnaire

A survey questionnaire has frequently been used to collect tourism and destination marketing research data. The researcher used pre-developed questions to obtain responses (Polit & Beck, 2012). According to Yin (2009), questionnaires are a reliable instrument for empirical research and can also be sent to a large number of people at a relatively cheaper cost. According to Zahari (2007), the researcher can use it to obtain larger data using the same variable. As stated earlier, the questionnaire was structured, and closed-ended questions were used (see Appendix 1). The respondents were given a Five-point Interval Scale anchored at one end by strongly agree and the other by strongly disagree. The Likert Scale does not restrict respondents and gives room for neutral answers and the decision to agree or disagree (Goddard & Melville 2001:49). The scale is appropriate for this study because it involves a perception of international tourists who have visited different destinations and sites.

5.8.2 The questionnaire structure

The questionnaire has 7 pages of questions and sections A to G. It comprises closed questions with a five-point Likert scale.

Section A – contains the demographics and family information of respondents. It comprises 9 questions, and respondents were asked to tick which of them applies to them.

Section B – Identifies the key tourist destinations and sites in the Volta region. Tourists are given the option to tick which sites and destinations they have visited. The destinations are Ho West district, Ho Municipal, Afadjato South district, Hohoe Municipal, Adaklu district, Agotime-Zioe district and Keta Municipal.

Section C – requires the respondents to provide their perception of the destination image of key destinations and tourist attraction sites as provided in section B. A five-point scale of strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree was used for the measurement. It comprises 34 questions/items in cognitive, affective, and conative areas and the overall image of the destinations.

Section D – identifies the push and pull motives that attract and make the respondents visit the destinations. In all, 21 questions/items were provided and measured on a five-point scale, as provided in section C.

Section E – This section explores the respondent's satisfaction levels. Four items were provided, and a scale of Not satisfied, Satisfied and Very Satisfied was used for measurement.

Section F – seeks to determine the tourist attitude towards the destinations and sites. Again, three items were provided, and the five-point scale used in section C was applied to measure the items.

Section G determines the respondent's behaviour intentions on the destination image. It measures their intentions based on three dimensions: intention to revisit, willingness to recommend and word-of-mouth recommendation. It uses the five-point scale, as indicated in section C.

5.9 ENSURING INSTRUMENT RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Validity and reliability are important aspects of research as they ensure credibility of a research endeavour. The next section discusses steps taken to ensure validity and reliability in relation to the current research.

5.9.1 Reliability

Reliability is about the reproducibility and consistency of an instrument (Williams, 2003:249). For Goddard and Melville (2001:41), reliability is "those measurements that consistently reproduce similar results". As such, a research instrument must deliver similar results consistently (Leedy, 1997). Therefore, reliability can be viewed as the consistency or repeatability of a measure. So, if a study is reliable, it means that if the same research was conducted in the same way, the same results would be obtained. There are some common threats to reliability in survey research that are pertinent to the current research.

The research methodology literature suggests participant bias and error, poorly constructed questionnaire, interviewer error and measurement error as the main threats to reliability. Firstly, participant error can occur when participants respond differently at different times. For example, a participant may be tired or distracted during one administration of the survey but not during another. Participant bias can also occur when participants respond in a way, they think is socially acceptable or desirable, rather than according to their true feelings or attitudes. Further, poorly constructed questions such as ambiguous, confusing, or misleading questions can lead to inconsistent responses. In addition, measurement error occurs when the instrument used for data collection is inconsistent. For example, a poorly calibrated scale can give different readings at different times. Finally, interviewer error can occur when different interviewers administer a survey in different ways.

Fortunately, there are strategies available to counteract these threats. According to Riley, Wood, Clarke, Wilkie and Szivas (2000), a researcher must first use the

research instrument to conduct a pre-test on a small sample of the study population to identify threats to reliability. In this study, a pilot study was performed on a group of tourists visiting the Ho Municipal as international tourists. This exercise aimed to ensure that all the questionnaires were understandable and relevant to the study. Secondly, a standardized questionnaire was used to ensure that every participant receives the survey in the same way. This helped to control interviewer error. In addition, clear and concise questions, not open to misinterpretation helped ensure that all participants interpret the questions in the same way. Also, participants were assured anonymity and confidentiality which hopefully helped reduce participant bias by making them feel more comfortable answering truthfully. Finally, training were held for interviewers to ensure they administer the survey in the same way.

5.9.2 Validity

According to Malhotra et al. (2007), validity is the extent to which constructs being investigated represent the characteristics used for measurement. According to Leedy (1997), an instrument can be said to be valid when it accurately measures what it was intended to measure. Therefore, in research, validity seems to refer to the extent to which a study accurately reflects the specific concept or concepts being measured. In other words, taking steps to ensure validity ensures that the results of a study are accurate, true, and can be generalized to a larger population.

There are two main types of validity: Internal and external. External validity refers to the degree to which the results of a study can be generalized or applied to other settings, people, times, and measures while external validity is about the generalizability of questionnaire's results to the larger population (Malhotra et al., 2007; Leedy, 1997). Both external and internal validity are relevant to social research like current research and were of primary concern in this study. Therefore, when designing the questionnaire for this study, both internal and external validity were taken care of.

Firstly, to ensure measures are accurate (high internal validity), clear operational definitions were developed for all the variables being measured. In other words, each variable has a concrete and measurable definition. Secondly, consistency was applied in data collection. In other words, data was collected in the same manner for all participants. This step was necessary because changes in the data collection process can introduce variability that is not related to what's being studied. These procedures helped to ensure that the study has high internal validity.

Steps were also taken to ensure the results are generalizable to at least the target population and to other populations of similar characteristics (high external validity). As stated before, the study used a probability (non-proportional stratified) sampling and selected international tourists visiting the Volta region's key destinations and tourist sites. To ensure representativity, the non-proportional stratified sampling was used covering all the subset districts of the target population (Shui et al., 2009; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Malhotra et al., 2007) including Ho municipal, Ho West District, Keta Municipal, Agotime Ziope district, Hohoe district and Afadjato South districts.

5.10 DATA ANALYSIS

This section describes the data analysis process with a specific focus on structural equation modelling (SEM) and how it was applied in this study using SmartPLS 3.3.6. The section also discusses why partial least square (PLS) was chosen as an evaluation criterion.

5.10.1 Structural equation modelling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a multifaceted statistical method used to test if the data gathered aligns with the theorized models and substantive theories being studied (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). In other words, SEM assesses the

extent to which the collected data supports the proposed theoretical model. It is a multivariate technique that permits an interplay between theory and data. Researchers in business fields like marketing, accounting and information management have all resorted to using SEM because it can test theories and concepts. SEM has many advantages over general linear modelling procedures because apart from assessing the structural model, it helps to test a hypothesis, evaluates the measurement model, and undertakes factor analysis within the same model (Hair et al., 2011). Moreover, it can also undertake direct, indirect, and total effect mediation simultaneously (Hair et al., 2011). There are two methods of structural equation modelling. These are the co-variance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) and the component-based structural equation modelling (Partial-Least Square -PLS-SEM).

5.10.1.1 Co-variance-based approach

The covariance structural modeling method minimizes the disparity between the estimated and theoretical covariance matrices, as per Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt (2011). This reveals how well a proposed model aligns with the sample taken from a particular population in a study. However, this analytic technique necessitates a large sample size and data that follows a normal distribution. If the data does not follow a normal distribution, the covariance-based method may not be applicable to the study. Moreover, this approach requires at least three indicators per construct.

5.10.1.2 Component-based approach (partial least squares)

Most researchers use the partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) due to its ability to estimate complex path models between and among variables (Hair, Hult, Ringle Sarstedt & Thiel, 2017; Sarstedt & Ringle, 2017; Wong, 2016). Its preference compared to the covariance SEM is its ability to estimate complex models, having many constructs and indicator variables and its

outstanding prediction capacity. It calls for a flexible data requirement due to its non-parametric, while the covariance calls for multivariate normality. The PLS-SEM can contain a small to moderate sample size to produce robust parameter estimates than the factor base, which requires large sample sizes. Also, the PLS-SEM can achieve both explanatory and predicting modelling of constructs, but the factor base SEM has limitations in predictive modelling of construct relationship-only explanatory modelling (Hair et al., 2017; Shmueli, Ray, Velaquez Estrada & Chatta, 2016; Shmueli, 2010). PLS-SEM defines convergence as an exact point at which no substantial variance occurs in the model estimates from one iteration to the next. Still, the factor base suggests convergence as the increase or decrease in the function value beyond a certain threshold. Though it can be debated on methodology grounds by scholars, it made PLS-SEM popular (Hair et al., 2017). With model estimation, PLS-SEM estimates model parameters so that they explain the variance of the endogenous or inner construct is being maximized, but with factor-based SEM, estimation of model parameters is done for the discrepancy between the estimated and the sample covariance matrices are being minimized (Hair et al., 2017).

The path model is the diagram depicting the hypothesis and variable relationships to the estimated matrices in an SEM analysis. Constructs, also known as latent variables (LV), are concepts in the statistical model which are the theoretical model used by researchers in their conceptual framework. The constructs are the ovals in the models with single-headed arrows that represent predictive relationships. Indicators that measure the constructs are observed variables representing respondents from the field (raw data). The indicators are represented by rectangles and joined with headed arrows to their respective constructs in the path model.

Structural equation modelling consists of two primary parts: the structural model and the measurement model. In the context of partial least squares, these are referred to as the inner and outer models respectively. The inner model illustrates the interactions among the hidden constructs, while the outer model represents the

associations between a hidden construct and its indicators (observable variables), according to Hair, Hult & Ringle (2014).

5.10.2 Measurement theory

The measurement theory, the outer model, measures the latent variable (LV) or the unobserved variable. The two measurement models are reflective and formative (Hair et al., 2017; Sarstedt & Ringle, 2017; Hair et al., 2014). Hypothesis testing is improved in the structural model when there is good measurement theory.

The reflective measurement models, also known as Mode A, are mostly treated as error-prone because other variables could measure the constructs (Hair et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2014). The reflective measurement model constitutes the underlying items that measure the construct. The items can be interchangeable; as a result, omitting one indicator will not change the remaining indicators in explaining or predicting the construct. The reflective indicator is made up of a sample of all items that are associated with the construct and termed as scales. On the other hand, the formative measurement model or Mode B have causal relationships from the indicators to the latent construct (Henseler et al., 2009). Thus, the latent construct is defined by a collective combination of its indicators. Therefore, an indicator's omission changes the construct's meaning or nature. (Hair et al., 2017; Sarstedt et al., 2017). The formative indicators are independent of each other since they are not correlated. Accordingly, collinearity among formative indicators is always problematic because the estimates linking the indicators with the constructs are sometimes unstable and nonsignificant. As a result, formative indicators have no error term and are assumed to be error-free in the conventional sense (Sarstedt et al., 2017). The measurement depends on the construct conceptualization and the research objective (Sarstedt, 2017).

Reflective measurement suits a study that involves testing theories. However, scholars have yet to come to a consensus on whether to measure constructs reflectively or formatively in different disciplines. Gudergan, Ringle, Wende and Will (2008), cited by Sarstedt et al. (2017), put forward a confirmatory trade analysis

(CTA) in determining the use of reflective or formative measurement for constructs in the path model of PLS-SEM. They proposed that reflective indicators should be used to measure the construct when testing a null hypothesis. Still, if a researcher proposes rejecting the null hypothesis, the CTA implies, that formative measurement should be used in construct measurement. For this study, a latent construct is measured using reflective measurement indicators. These measurement indicators were developed based on the empirical literature.

5.10.3 Evaluation of measurement and structural model

The evaluation of partial least square-structural modelling outcomes involves two stages: 1. Evaluating the outer model (measurement model); 2. Scrutinizing the inner model (structural model). Initially, the process involves a check on the validity and reliability of the measurement indicators. The assessment depends on whether the indicators are formative or reflective. This study's discussion utilized reflective measurement indicators to guarantee that the indicators accurately depict the hidden construct. It's only when these measures are deemed sufficient (valid and reliable) that the investigation of the structural model (second stage) can commence.

5.10.3.1 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability, often measured by Cronbach's alpha, is based on the interconnections among observable indicator variables. It assumes that all indicators evenly contribute to the construct. However, Henseler et al. (2009) argue that this assumption can lead to an underestimation of internal consistency. To address this issue, Hair et al. (2014) suggested the use of composite reliability alongside Cronbach's alpha, as it accommodates varying contributions from different indicators. Acceptable values for internal consistency reliability are typically between 0.6 to 0.7 for exploratory research and 0.8 to 0.9 for more mature

studies. However, composite reliability values below 0.6 indicate insufficient internal consistency, as per Hair et al. (2014).

5.10.3.2 Convergent validity

Following the acceptance of internal consistency values, the next step is to evaluate convergent validity. Convergent validity gauges how well an indicator positively associates with other indicators measuring the same construct. The assessment involves examining both the outer loading of indicators and the average variance extracted (AVE). Generally, the outer loading of indicators should be 0.708 or more, indicating that the indicators are interconnected and share substantial similarities. Hair et al. (2011) suggest that indicator loadings below 0.7 should be scrutinized thoroughly before considering their removal, while loadings below 0.4 should be discarded. The AVE should be examined to assess convergent validity at the construct level, with a value of 0.50 or above indicating that over half of the variance of its indicators is explained (Henseler et al., 2009).

5.10.3.3 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity assesses the degree to which a variable is genuinely different from other variables by examining how it correlates with them and how uniquely its indicators represent the variable. There are two widely recommended criteria to measure discriminant validity: Cross-loadings and the Fornell-Larcker Criterion (Ringle, Sarstedt & Straub, 2012; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). Cross-loadings help evaluate discriminant validity by assuming that an indicator's loadings with its construct should exceed its loadings with other constructs in the model (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2019; Hair et al., 2014). The Fornell-Larcker criterion argues that the square root of a construct's average variance extracted should exceed its highest correlation with other constructs.

Despite the use of these two measures, Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) propose a different test of discriminant validity, the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of correlations. This is calculated as the average value of item correlations between constructs relative to the average correlation of items measuring the same construct (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). A threshold value of 0.9 has been suggested (Henseler et al., 2019). This study applies the criteria to evaluate the measurement model, involving assessments of internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

5.10.4 Structural model assessment

Once the reliability and validity of the latent variables (LVs) have been assessed through the measurement model, the subsequent step is to evaluate the structural (inner) model. This evaluation aims to test the relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables. The criteria for this evaluation involve the path coefficient, used to gauge the significance and relevance of the model's relationships; the R^2 value, which estimates the accuracy of the model's predictions; Q^2 , assessing the model's predictive relevance; and f^2 , which measures the significant impact of the exogenous variable on endogenous variables.

5.10.4.1 Structural model path's coefficient

Once acceptable levels of collinearity have been established, the significance of the hypothesized relationship is evaluated. If the path coefficient is close to +1, it's considered to indicate a strong positive relationship; if it's close to -1, it indicates a strong negative relationship. The closer the value is to zero, the weaker the relationship. The P-value can also be employed, depending on the level of significance, to assess the significance of the relationship. Moreover, the bootstrap confidence interval can be used to examine the relationship's significance. As a general rule, if the confidence interval for an estimated coefficient does not encompass zero, it signifies a significant effect. Therefore, when evaluating the

significance of the relationships within the structural model, it's necessary to report the t-values, p-values, and bootstrap confidence intervals.

5.10.4.2 Assessing R^2 estimates

R^2 , also recognized as the coefficient of determination, is a tool used to evaluate a structural model. It measures the model's predictive accuracy by estimating the squared correlation between the actual and predicted values of specific endogenous constructs. The R^2 value shows the combined influence of exogenous variables on the endogenous latent variables and signifies the portion of the variance in the endogenous latent constructs that are explained by all the exogenous constructs linked to it (Hair, Hult, Ringle, 2014). R^2 is also referred to as the predictive power of the sample, with values spanning from 0 to 1. Larger R^2 values indicate superior explanatory power, but the classification of these values depends on the research context. Generally, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 are interpreted as substantial, moderate, and weak respectively. The R^2 value is affected by the number of predictor constructs, meaning that a greater number of predictors constructs usually leads to a higher R^2 (Hair et al., 2019).

5.10.4.3 Assessing Q^2 Values

The Stone-Geisser's Q^2 Value is a conventional metric employed to assess predictive relevance (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). The Q^2 value is derived from a blindfolding process with an omission distance of 7, resulting in cross-validated redundancy Q^2 for all endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2014). Smaller discrepancies between predicted and original values result in a higher Q^2 value, which in turn implies superior predictive accuracy. Generally, Q^2 values for a specific endogenous construct should exceed zero to indicate that the structural model predicts that construct accurately. As a guideline, Q^2 values greater than 0, 0.25, and 0.50 are indicative of the PLS path model's small, medium, and large predictive relevance respectively (Hair et al., 2019).

5.10.5 Mediation and moderation analysis

Mediation refers to the occurrence when a third variable mediates the relationship between two other interconnected constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Mediation analysis is a process designed to ascertain if an independent variable (exogenous construct) influences a dependent variable (endogenous construct) via a mediator (a third variable) (Hair et al., 2014). Direct or indirect effects can be utilized to evaluate the impact of mediation. The direct effect symbolizes the connection between the two constructs (independent and dependent variables), signified by a singular arrow (Hair et al., 2014). The indirect relationship involves an intermediary construct, visually represented by multiple arrows.

Zhao et al. (2010) categorize mediation into three types and non-mediation into two types. The first one is complementary mediation. In this type, both direct and indirect effects move along the same path and are significant. The second is named competitive mediation. Both direct and indirect effects point in different directions, yet the effect is significant. Finally, there is indirect-only mediation. Here, the direct effect is not significant, but the indirect effect is. With both complementary and competitive mediation, omitted variables can be investigated later. The term 'indirect' indicates that the identified mediation is consistent with theory (Alok & Israel 2012).

The two types of non-mediations are as follows. Direct-only non-mediation occurs when the indirect effect is not significant, but the direct effect is. In the no effect non-mediation, neither the direct nor indirect effect is significant. In this study, a competitive mediation is adopted, whereby the direct and indirect effects point in different directions, but their impact is significant.

Moderation occurs when the moderator (independent variable or construct) modifies the direction or intensity of the relationship between two constructs in the model. In this study, demographic and familial factors act as moderators, moderating the destination image and behavioural intentions (revisit intentions and

word-of-mouth recommendation) (Wong & Lai 2021; Hair et al., 2014). The moderation is carried out to determine whether the destination image and behavioural intention depend on demographic and familial factors. The moderation is computed using PLS-SEM software (Smart PLS 3.2.8) as it can identify moderating effects (Ringle et al., 2015). There are two types of moderation proposed by researchers: continuous effect and categorical effect. The continuous effect occurs when the moderating variable is measured metrically, while the categorical effect takes place when the moderating variable is categorical, such as gender. This study adopts the categorical effect of moderation, with gender and education serving as the moderating variables.

5.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Aaker, Kumar, Day and Leone (2011:21), ethics encompass values and moral principles that individuals or groups adhere to in shaping their behaviour. Therefore, to conform to the principles set by the university, clearance was received, and the following ethical issues were ensured.

- **Voluntary participation and consent** – Respondents' consent was sought regarding their willingness to participate in the survey. They were not coerced and allowed to opt out of the study.
- **Anonymity** - Names of respondents were withheld or avoided on the survey questionnaire to ensure they were anonymous to the information gathered.
- **Confidentiality** – Information obtained from respondents was treated as confidential and not released to any other party. They were also given the option should they want confidentiality forms to be signed before embarking on such an exercise.
- **Academic credibility** – People's ideas or knowledge that were used are also duly acknowledged and referenced.
- **Publication of the findings** – Respondents were offered to obtain the study's final report. To make the final work accepted as a professional, it

was published to make it more worthy of corresponding with the time it took to conduct it.

- All in all, the highest ethical standards were maintained in the study.

5.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter explored the framework for gathering data to answer the research questions in chapter 1. It covers the research design and methodology aspects, specifically the research philosophy, the research approach and strategy needed for the study, the research methods, the data collection instruments and the analysis. Also discussed in the chapter include the reliability and validity procedures, the sampling techniques employed and the ethical considerations that were followed. The chapter enumerated the different philosophical perspectives and adopted the positivist paradigm. It employed the deductive and mono methods, specifically quantitative methods, in collecting data. A survey strategy was adopted to design a structured questionnaire for data collection involving international tourists visiting key tourist destinations and sites. The non-proportional stratified sampling methods were used as part of the techniques to collect data. The next chapter discusses the research findings, analysis and presentation.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents both the results of the statistical analysis and the discussions. The first part is as follows.

Section 6.2 provides the descriptive analysis of demographic information and constructs descriptive analysis. Section 6.3 presents an interpretation of the normality test. Section 6.4 reports the measurement model assessment. This covers reliability and convergent validity tests as well as discriminant validity tests. Section 6.5 assesses the structural model, including collinearity checks, model fit, predictive power and predictive relevance, and direct and indirect effects. Section 6.6 reports on the moderation and multi-group analyses. Section 6.7 covers importance-performance map analysis (IPMA).

The second part discusses the empirical findings of the hypothesis testing and its importance in relation to the extant literature reviewed in the studies.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In this part, information on the demographics of the respondents as well as the descriptive concept, is reported. The results are reported in subsections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2.

6.2.1 Demographic information

Four hundred-three participants completed the questionnaires, and this section provides information on their demographics. Table 6.1 shows the demographic findings.

Table 6.1: Demographic information

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	243	60.3
Male	160	39.7
Total	403	100.0
Age		
18-24	48	11.9
25-34	172	42.7
35-44	115	28.5
45-54	51	12.7
55 and over	17	4.2
Total	403	100.0
Marital status		
Divorced	54	13.4
Married	127	31.5
Separated	27	6.7
Single	175	43.4
Widower	20	5.0
Total	403	100.0
Education		
Primary	5	1.2
High School	91	22.6
College/Degree	186	46.2
Postgraduate	121	30.0
Total	403	100.0
Income level		
Under USD 20,000	161	40.0
USD 20,000- 49,000	108	26.8
USD 50,000 – 74,000	69	17.1
USD 75,000- 99,000	37	9.2
USD 100,000- 199,000	20	5.0
USD 200,000 and higher	8	2.0
Total	403	100.0
Respondents travelled companion		
By myself	133	33.0
With a tour group	37	9.2
With family	140	34.7
With friends	93	23.1
Total	403	100.0
State of visit		
First-time visit to Volta Region	213	52.9
Repeated visits to Volta Region	190	47.1
Total	403	100.0
Residential place		
Africa	124	30.8
Asia	41	10.2
Europe	106	26.3
America	127	31.5
Oceania	5	1.2
Total	403	100.0

The results in Table 6.1 indicate that most respondents were females (60.3%) while 39.7% were males. Thus, most of the international tourists were females as compared to males. Furthermore, in terms of age, most participants (42.7%) were in the 25 to 34 age brackets, followed by 35 to 44 (28.5%), 45 to 54 (12.7%), and 18 to 24 (11.9%). This suggests most international tourists were youths. Furthermore, regarding marital status, most of them were single (43.4%) as compared to those married (31.5%), divorced (13.4%), separated (6.7%), and widowers (5%).

Regarding education, 46.2% were college or degree holders, 30% were postgraduates, 22.6% reached high school, and only 1.2% reached the primary level of education. Concerning their income levels, most (40%) were under US\$20,000, 26.8% belonged to the US\$20,000 to US\$49,000 bracket, 17.1% belonged to the US\$50,000 to US\$74,000 bracket, and 9.2% were earning US\$75,000 to US\$99,000. Further, 5% and 2% earned US\$100,000 to US\$199,000 and US\$200,000 or higher, respectively.

Regarding whom the respondents travelled with, most (34.7%) travelled with their families, 33% travelled alone, 23.1% travelled with their friends, and 9.2% travelled with tour groups. In addition, 52.9% of the international tourists were on their first-time visit to the Volta Region, whereas 47.1% were on a repeated visit to the region. Lastly, the respondents came from various continents. Specifically, most of the tourists were from America (31.5%), followed by Africa (30.8%), Europe (26.3%), Asia (10.2%), and the rest were from Oceania (1.2%).

6.2.2 Construct descriptive analysis

This section discusses the descriptive statistics for the measurements. Five-point scales were used to score the items, with one denoting severe disagreement and five signifying strong agreement, except for the satisfaction scale, which was measured on a three-point scale. On a five-point scale, according to Castro and

Martins (2010), a mean of 3.2 is a reasonable threshold for discriminating between probable positive and negative evaluations.

Table 6.2: Destination Image

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Image (COG_IM)					
COG_IM1	403	1	5	3.92	1.018
COG_IM2	403	1	5	3.87	0.937
COG_IM3	403	1	5	3.94	0.930
COG_IM4	403	1	5	3.95	0.985
COG_IM5	403	1	5	3.90	0.928
COG_IM6	403	1	5	3.84	0.966
COG_IM7	403	1	5	3.74	1.083
COG_IM8	403	1	5	3.76	1.075
COG_IM9	403	1	5	3.90	0.969
COG_IM10	403	1	5	3.85	0.979
COG_IM11	403	1	5	3.89	0.962
COG_IM12	403	1	5	3.76	1.013
COG_IM13	403	1	5	3.90	0.953
COG_IM14	403	1	5	3.87	0.991
COG_IM15	403	1	5	3.62	1.066
COG_IM16	403	1	5	3.90	0.986
COG_IM17	403	1	5	3.69	1.141
COG_IM18	403	1	5	3.87	0.964
COG_IM19	403	1	5	3.97	0.968
COG_IM20	403	1	5	3.95	0.960
COG_IM21	403	1	5	3.84	0.924
COG_IM22	403	1	5	3.92	1.013
COG_IM23	403	1	5	3.88	0.992
COG_IM24	403	1	5	3.89	1.016
COG_IM25	403	1	5	3.98	0.936
COG_IM26	403	1	5	3.86	0.941
COG_IM27	403	1	5	3.82	1.032
COG_IM28	403	1	5	3.87	1.025
Overall Cognitive Image				3.86	0.991
Affective Image (AFF_IM)					
AFF_IM1	403	1	5	3.77	0.996
AFF_IM2	403	1	5	3.79	0.965
AFF_IM3	403	1	5	3.90	1.029
AFF_IM4	403	1	5	3.90	0.995
AFF_IM5	403	1	5	3.93	0.971
Overall Affective Image				3.86	0.991
Conative Image (CON_IM)					
CON_IM1	403	1	5	3.79	1.033
CON_IM2	403	1	5	3.90	0.929
CON_IM3	403	1	5	3.86	1.092
CON_IM4	403	1	5	3.68	1.124
CON_IM5	403	1	5	3.66	1.015
CON_IM6	403	1	5	3.65	0.959
CON_IM7	403	1	5	3.71	1.083
CON_IM8	403	1	5	3.83	1.014
Overall Conative Image				3.76	1.031
Holistic Image (HOL_IM)					
HOL_IM	403	1	5	3.88	0.930

The statistics in Table 6.2 indicates that all the items have means greater than the average of 3.2. This suggests that most respondents positively perceived all the items measuring destination image. Further, the composite mean values range from 3.76 to 3.88, suggesting a positive perception of the constructs. Specifically, among the three facets of destination image, cognitive and affective images were rated higher ($M = 3.86$; $SD = 0.991$), followed by conative image ($M = 3.76$; $SD = 1.031$). Finally, the holistic image yielded a mean of 3.88 ($SD = 0.930$), implying that most respondents had positive perceptions about the destination image.

Table 6.3: Motivation

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Push Motives					
Fulfilling Prestige (Push_FUL)					
Push_FUL1	403	1	5	3.63	1.113
Push_FUL2	403	1	5	3.80	0.937
Push_FUL3	403	1	5	3.71	1.110
Overall Fulfilling Prestige				3.71	1.053
Enhancing Relation (Push_ER)					
Push_ER1	403	1	5	3.72	0.999
Push_ER2	403	1	5	3.82	0.905
Push_ER3	403	1	5	3.74	0.913
Push_ER4	403	2	5	3.75	0.892
Push_ER5	403	1	5	3.79	0.942
Overall ER				3.76	0.930
Seeking Relaxation (Push_SR)					
Push_SR1	403	1	5	3.87	0.895
Push_SR2	403	2	5	3.88	0.938
Push_SR3	403	1	5	3.84	0.897
Overall SR				3.86	0.910
Enhancing Social Circle (Push_ESC)					
Push_ESC1	403	1	5	3.91	0.963
Push_ESC2	403	1	5	3.83	0.959
Push_ESC3	403	1	5	3.71	1.042
Overall ESC				3.82	0.988
Sightseeing Variety (Push_SV)					
Push_SV1	403	1	5	3.89	0.955
Push_SV2	403	2	5	3.92	0.885
Push_SV3	403	1	5	3.83	0.943

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall SV				3.88	0.928
Escaping From Daily Routine (Push_EDR)					
Push_EDR1	403	1	5	3.80	0.924
Push_EDR2	403	1	5	3.83	1.005
Overall EDR				3.82	0.964
Gaining Knowledge (Push_GK)					
Push_GK1	403	1	5	3.79	0.991
Push_GK2	403	1	5	3.84	0.892
Push_GK3	403	1	5	3.82	0.966
Overall GK				3.82	0.950
Pull Motives					
Events and Activities (Pull_EA)					
Pull_EA1	403	1	5	3.87	0.952
Pull_EA2	403	1	5	3.79	0.906
Pull_EA3	403	1	5	3.87	0.964
Pull_EA4	403	1	5	3.61	1.091
Pull_EA5	403	1	5	3.47	1.044
Pull_EA6	403	1	5	3.63	1.020
Overall EA				3.71	0.996
Easy Access and Affordable (Pull_EAA)					
Pull_EAA1	403	1	5	3.79	0.985
Pull_EAA2	403	1	5	3.82	0.965
Pull_EAA3	403	1	5	3.76	0.995
Pull_EAA4	403	1	5	3.80	0.851
Overall EAA				3.79	0.949
History and Culture (Pull_HC)					
Pull_HC1	403	1	5	3.72	1.083
Pull_HC2	403	1	5	3.83	0.988
Pull_HC3	403	1	5	3.84	0.928
Overall HC				3.80	1.000
Variety Seeking (Pull_VS)					
Pull_VS1	403	1	5	3.94	0.893
Pull_VS2	403	1	5	3.85	1.001
Pull_VS3	403	1	5	3.79	1.055
Overall VS				3.86	0.983
Adventure (Pull_Adv)					
Pull_Adv1	403	1	5	3.89	0.943
Pull_Adv2	403	1	5	3.92	0.961
Pull_Adv3	403	1	5	3.80	1.083

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall Adventure				3.87	0.996
Natural Resources (Pull_NR)					
Pull_NR1	403	1	5	3.95	0.931
Pull_NR2	403	1	5	3.88	1.022
Overall NR				3.91	0.977
Heritage Sites (Pull_HS)					
Pull_HS	403	1	5	3.86	0.943

The results in Table 6.3 specifies that all the items have means greater than the average of 3.2. This suggests that most respondents had positive perceptions of all the items measuring motivation, characterised by push and pull motives. Furthermore, the composite mean values range from 3.71 to 3.91, suggesting a positive perception of the constructs. Specifically, among the dimensions of push motives, sightseeing variety was rated the highest ($M = 3.88$; $SD = 0.928$), followed by seeking relaxation ($M = 3.86$; $SD = 0.910$), whereas fulfilling prestige ($M = 3.71$; $SD = 1.053$) emerged as the least push motive. Similarly, among the dimensions of pull motives, natural resources were rated the highest ($M = 3.91$; $SD = 0.977$), followed by adventure ($M = 3.87$; $SD = 0.996$), whereas events and activities ($M = 3.71$; $SD = 0.996$) emerged as the least pull motive. These suggest a majority of the tourists are mostly motivated to travel to the Volta Region by the natural resources, sightseeing variety, adventure, and seeking relaxation.

Table 6.4: Satisfaction

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SAT1	403	1	3	2.56	0.545
SAT2	403	1	3	2.48	0.552
SAT3	403	1	3	2.57	0.540
SAT4	403	1	3	2.66	0.509
Overall Satisfaction				2.57	0.536

Table 6.4 shows the respondents' satisfaction level, scored on a three-point scale where 1 = not satisfied, 2 = satisfied, and 3 = very satisfied. As revealed in Table 6.4, the mean values range from 2.48 ($SD = 0.552$) to 2.66 ($SD = 0.509$), signifying a positive perception of satisfaction indicators. Thus, the results demonstrate that

the majority of the respondents were very satisfied ($M = 2.57$; $SD = 0.536$) with their visits to Volta Region (destinations).

Table 6.5: Attitude

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ATT1	403	1	5	4.02	0.929
ATT2	403	2	5	4.01	0.845
ATT3	403	2	5	4.01	0.836
ATT4	403	2	5	3.95	0.793
ATT5	403	1	5	4.03	0.915
Overall Attitude				4.00	0.864

Table 6.5 shows the attitude of the respondents. As discovered in Table 6.5, the mean values range from 3.95 ($SD = 0.793$) to 4.03 ($SD = 0.915$), signifying a positive perception of the attitude items. Overall, the mean of means is 4.0 ($SD = 0.864$). This demonstrates that the majority of the respondents had a positive attitude towards the destinations.

Table 6.6: Behavioural Intentions

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intention to Revisit (INT_REV)					
INT_REV1	403	1	5	3.95	0.891
INT_REV2	403	1	5	4.01	0.934
INT_REV3	403	1	5	4.01	0.958
Overall Intention to Revisit				3.99	0.928
Intention to Recommend (INT_REC)					
INT_REC1	403	1	5	4.04	0.901
INT_REC2	403	1	5	4.06	0.909
INT_REC3	403	1	5	4.09	0.923
Overall Intention to Recommend				4.06	0.91

The results in Table 6.6 specifies that all the items have means greater than the average of 3.2. This suggests that most respondents had positive perceptions of all the items measuring future behavioural intentions characterised by intentions to revisit and recommend. The composite mean values are 3.99 and 4.06 for intention

to revisit and recommend, respectively. Comparatively, most tourists are more likely to recommend the destinations than to repeat their visits.

6.3 DATA NORMALITY TEST

The data were analysed to see whether it fell within a normal distribution. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were employed to determine whether or not the distribution of scores was non-discriminatory. For data to match a normal distribution, it must provide non-significant results (p -values less than 0.05) (Field, 2013; Osborne & Walters, 2002). The normality result is presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Tests of Normality

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
COG_IM1	0.244	403	0.000	0.842	403	0.000
COG_IM2	0.207	403	0.000	0.866	403	0.000
COG_IM3	0.256	403	0.000	0.846	403	0.000
COG_IM4	0.231	403	0.000	0.842	403	0.000
COG_IM5	0.247	403	0.000	0.858	403	0.000
COG_IM6	0.265	403	0.000	0.857	403	0.000
COG_IM7	0.230	403	0.000	0.869	403	0.000
COG_IM8	0.215	403	0.000	0.868	403	0.000
COG_IM9	0.245	403	0.000	0.853	403	0.000
COG_IM10	0.218	403	0.000	0.867	403	0.000
COG_IM11	0.239	403	0.000	0.856	403	0.000
COG_IM12	0.222	403	0.000	0.878	403	0.000
COG_IM13	0.247	403	0.000	0.851	403	0.000
COG_IM14	0.229	403	0.000	0.859	403	0.000
COG_IM15	0.184	403	0.000	0.884	403	0.000
COG_IM16	0.226	403	0.000	0.857	403	0.000
COG_IM17	0.226	403	0.000	0.869	403	0.000
COG_IM18	0.243	403	0.000	0.859	403	0.000
COG_IM19	0.248	403	0.000	0.842	403	0.000
COG_IM20	0.244	403	0.000	0.846	403	0.000
COG_IM21	0.248	403	0.000	0.862	403	0.000
COG_IM22	0.252	403	0.000	0.841	403	0.000
COG_IM23	0.244	403	0.000	0.858	403	0.000

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
COG_IM24	0.267	403	0.000	0.844	403	0.000
COG_IM25	0.260	403	0.000	0.836	403	0.000
COG_IM26	0.231	403	0.000	0.868	403	0.000
COG_IM27	0.236	403	0.000	0.856	403	0.000
COG_IM28	0.254	403	0.000	0.847	403	0.000
AFF_IM1	0.228	403	0.000	0.877	403	0.000
AFF_IM2	0.238	403	0.000	0.864	403	0.000
AFF_IM3	0.223	403	0.000	0.854	403	0.000
AFF_IM4	0.224	403	0.000	0.860	403	0.000
AFF_IM5	0.214	403	0.000	0.856	403	0.000
CON_IM1	0.201	403	0.000	0.868	403	0.000
CON_IM2	0.243	403	0.000	0.852	403	0.000
CON_IM3	0.237	403	0.000	0.848	403	0.000
CON_IM4	0.223	403	0.000	0.874	403	0.000
CON_IM5	0.243	403	0.000	0.881	403	0.000
CON_IM6	0.244	403	0.000	0.880	403	0.000
CON_IM7	0.215	403	0.000	0.880	403	0.000
CON_IM8	0.269	403	0.000	0.849	403	0.000
HOL_IM	0.273	403	0.000	0.854	403	0.000
Push_FUL1	0.206	403	0.000	0.880	403	0.000
Push_FUL2	0.243	403	0.000	0.866	403	0.000
Push_FUL3	0.247	403	0.000	0.855	403	0.000
Push_ER1	0.206	403	0.000	0.877	403	0.000
Push_ER2	0.263	403	0.000	0.865	403	0.000
Push_ER3	0.219	403	0.000	0.879	403	0.000
Push_ER4	0.226	403	0.000	0.872	403	0.000
Push_ER5	0.213	403	0.000	0.875	403	0.000
Push_SR1	0.216	403	0.000	0.865	403	0.000
Push_SR2	0.196	403	0.000	0.857	403	0.000
Push_SR3	0.235	403	0.000	0.868	403	0.000
Push_ESC1	0.214	403	0.000	0.861	403	0.000
Push_ESC2	0.229	403	0.000	0.872	403	0.000
Push_ESC3	0.203	403	0.000	0.882	403	0.000
Push_SV1	0.222	403	0.000	0.864	403	0.000
Push_SV2	0.245	403	0.000	0.855	403	0.000
Push_SV3	0.237	403	0.000	0.870	403	0.000
Push_EDR1	0.265	403	0.000	0.865	403	0.000
Push_EDR2	0.268	403	0.000	0.854	403	0.000

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Push_GK1	0.206	403	0.000	0.872	403	0.000
Push_GK2	0.246	403	0.000	0.868	403	0.000
Push_GK3	0.196	403	0.000	0.865	403	0.000
Pull_EA1	0.252	403	0.000	0.859	403	0.000
Pull_EA2	0.270	403	0.000	0.854	403	0.000
Pull_EA3	0.231	403	0.000	0.865	403	0.000
Pull_EA4	0.232	403	0.000	0.873	403	0.000
Pull_EA5	0.208	403	0.000	0.881	403	0.000
Pull_EA6	0.224	403	0.000	0.890	403	0.000
Pull_EAA1	0.233	403	0.000	0.874	403	0.000
Pull_EAA2	0.215	403	0.000	0.870	403	0.000
Pull_EAA3	0.236	403	0.000	0.877	403	0.000
Pull_EAA4	0.242	403	0.000	0.867	403	0.000
Pull_HC1	0.238	403	0.000	0.872	403	0.000
Pull_HC2	0.210	403	0.000	0.870	403	0.000
Pull_HC3	0.196	403	0.000	0.863	403	0.000
Pull_VS1	0.231	403	0.000	0.857	403	0.000
Pull_VS2	0.202	403	0.000	0.859	403	0.000
Pull_VS3	0.220	403	0.000	0.870	403	0.000
Pull_Adv1	0.221	403	0.000	0.864	403	0.000
Pull_Adv2	0.210	403	0.000	0.858	403	0.000
Pull_Adv3	0.229	403	0.000	0.861	403	0.000
Pull_NR1	0.221	403	0.000	0.855	403	0.000
Pull_NR2	0.205	403	0.000	0.860	403	0.000
Pull_HS	0.238	403	0.000	0.866	403	0.000
SAT1	0.373	403	0.000	0.679	403	0.000
SAT2	0.334	403	0.000	0.701	403	0.000
SAT3	0.378	403	0.000	0.674	403	0.000
SAT4	0.426	403	0.000	0.621	403	0.000
ATT1	0.222	403	0.000	0.836	403	0.000
ATT2	0.228	403	0.000	0.845	403	0.000
ATT3	0.221	403	0.000	0.843	403	0.000
ATT4	0.230	403	0.000	0.844	403	0.000
ATT5	0.237	403	0.000	0.839	403	0.000
INT_REV1	0.239	403	0.000	0.855	403	0.000
INT_REV2	0.229	403	0.000	0.842	403	0.000
INT_REV3	0.236	403	0.000	0.839	403	0.000
INT_REC1	0.222	403	0.000	0.841	403	0.000

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
INT_REC2	0.253	403	0.000	0.826	403	0.000
INT_REC3	0.240	403	0.000	0.826	403	0.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The results show from Table 6.7 shows that the variables had p -values that were less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), and therefore, the conclusion was that the data was not normally distributed. Thus, since this study's normality assumption is not met, further statistics should be computed using non-parametric tests (Field, 2013; Bates et al., 2014; Osborne & Walters, 2002), like PLS-SEM.

6.4 MEASUREMENT MODEL ASSESSMENT

Here, the validity and reliability of latent variables are discussed. This investigation first evaluates measurement models (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019). Hence, the reliability, convergent and discriminant validity findings were generated using SmartPLS 3.3.6 (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). The analyses were conducted for both first order and second levels considering the presence of second-order constructs like destination image and pull and push motives.

6.4.1 Reliability and convergent validity tests

The reliability and convergent validity of the measures at the first and second-order levels were assessed in this subsection. This includes the item loadings with their significance, construct reliability and average variance extracted (AVEs) (Hair et al., 2019). The results are reported in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 and Tables 6.8 and 6.9.

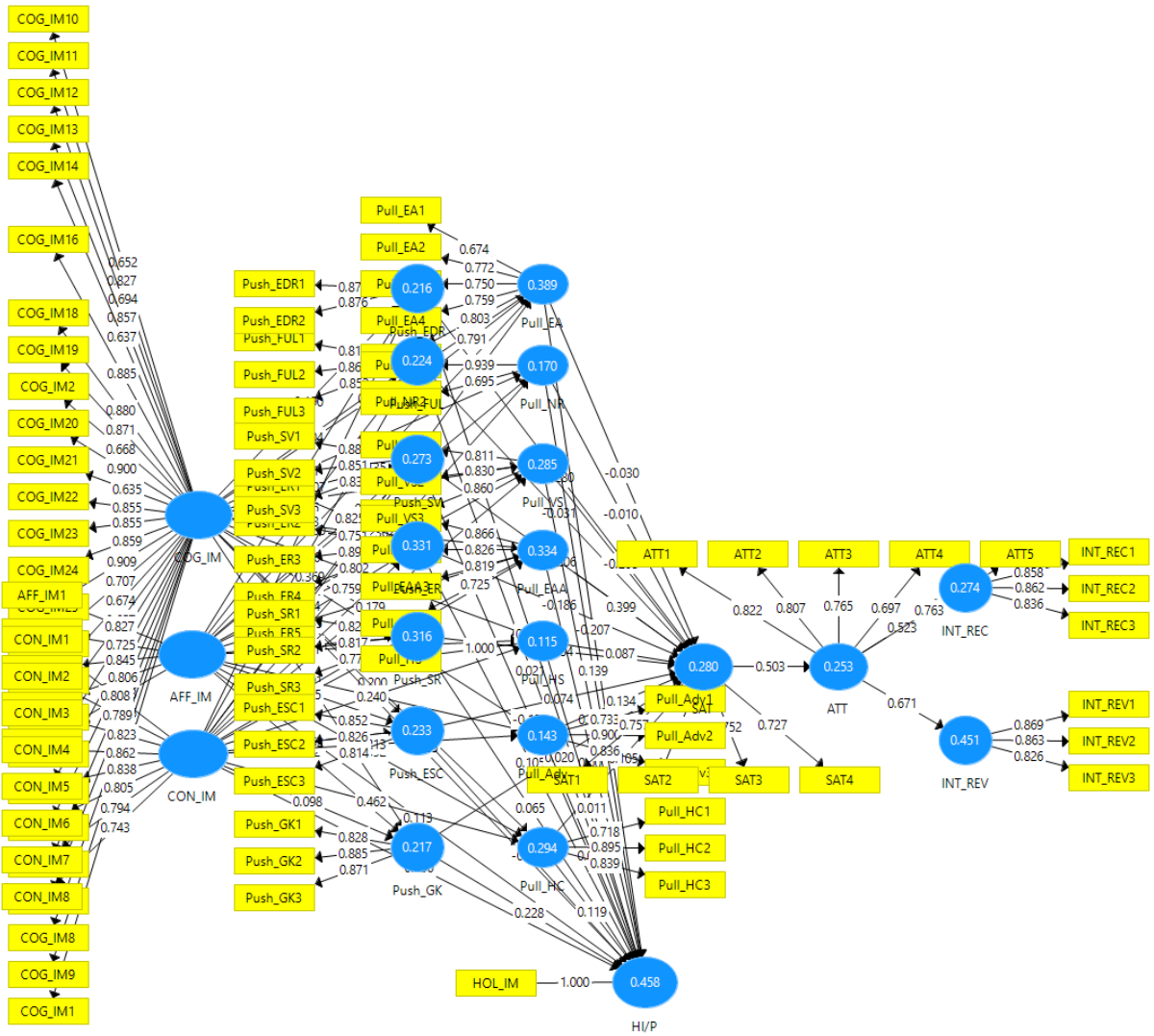


Figure 6.1: Measurement model – first-order level

Table 6.8: Results on reliability and convergent validity – 1st order level

Indicator	Loadings	p-value	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE
AFF_IM1	0.827	<0.001	0.868	0.876	0.905	0.656
AFF_IM2	0.725	<0.001				
AFF_IM3	0.845	<0.001				
AFF_IM4	0.806	<0.001				
AFF_IM5	0.841	<0.001				
ATT1	0.822	<0.001	0.830	0.839	0.880	0.596
ATT2	0.807	<0.001				
ATT3	0.765	<0.001				
ATT4	0.697	<0.001				

Indicator	Loadings	p-value	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE
ATT5	0.763	<0.001				
COG_IM1	0.833	<0.001	0.977	0.978	0.979	0.641
COG_IM2	0.668	<0.001				
COG_IM3	0.906	<0.001				
COG_IM4	0.900	<0.001				
COG_IM5	0.794	<0.001				
COG_IM6	0.898	<0.001				
COG_IM7	0.786	<0.001				
COG_IM8	0.761	<0.001				
COG_IM9	0.758	<0.001				
COG_IM10	0.652	<0.001				
COG_IM11	0.827	<0.001				
COG_IM12	0.694	<0.001				
COG_IM13	0.857	<0.001				
COG_IM14	0.637	<0.001				
COG_IM16	0.885	<0.001				
COG_IM18	0.880	<0.001				
COG_IM19	0.871	<0.001				
COG_IM20	0.900	<0.001				
COG_IM21	0.635	<0.001				
COG_IM22	0.855	<0.001				
COG_IM23	0.855	<0.001				
COG_IM24	0.859	<0.001				
COG_IM25	0.909	<0.001				
COG_IM26	0.707	<0.001				
COG_IM27	0.674	<0.001				
COG_IM28	0.657	<0.001				
CON_IM1	0.808	<0.001	0.924	0.925	0.938	0.653
CON_IM2	0.789	<0.001				
CON_IM3	0.823	<0.001				
CON_IM4	0.862	<0.001				
CON_IM5	0.838	<0.001				
CON_IM6	0.805	<0.001				
CON_IM7	0.794	<0.001				
CON_IM8	0.743	<0.001				
HOL_IM	1.000	-	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
INT_REC1	0.858	<0.001	0.811	0.815	0.888	0.726
INT_REC2	0.862	<0.001				
INT_REC3	0.836	<0.001				

Indicator	Loadings	p-value	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE
INT_REV1	0.869	<0.001	0.813	0.819	0.889	0.727
INT_REV2	0.863	<0.001				
INT_REV3	0.826	<0.001				
Pull_Adv1	0.733	<0.001	0.765	0.796	0.865	0.682
Pull_Adv2	0.900	<0.001				
Pull_Adv3	0.836	<0.001				
Pull_EA1	0.674	<0.001	0.853	0.857	0.891	0.577
Pull_EA2	0.772	<0.001				
Pull_EA3	0.750	<0.001				
Pull_EA4	0.759	<0.001				
Pull_EA5	0.803	<0.001				
Pull_EA6	0.791	<0.001				
Pull_EAA1	0.866	<0.001	0.826	0.841	0.884	0.657
Pull_EAA2	0.826	<0.001				
Pull_EAA3	0.819	<0.001				
Pull_EAA4	0.725	<0.001				
Pull_HC1	0.718	<0.001	0.758	0.794	0.860	0.673
Pull_HC2	0.895	<0.001				
Pull_HC3	0.839	<0.001				
Pull_HS	1.000	-	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Pull_NR1	0.939	<0.001	0.575	0.787	0.807	0.682
Pull_NR2	0.695	<0.001				
Pull_VS1	0.811	<0.001	0.782	0.793	0.873	0.695
Pull_VS2	0.830	<0.001				
Pull_VS3	0.860	<0.001				
Push_EDR1	0.870	<0.001	0.687	0.687	0.865	0.762
Push_EDR2	0.876	<0.001				
Push_ER1	0.825	<0.001	0.866	0.866	0.904	0.654
Push_ER2	0.751	<0.001				
Push_ER3	0.898	<0.001				
Push_ER4	0.802	<0.001				
Push_ER5	0.759	<0.001				
Push_ESC1	0.852	<0.001	0.776	0.781	0.870	0.690
Push_ESC2	0.826	<0.001				
Push_ESC3	0.814	<0.001				
Push_FUL1	0.812	<0.001	0.797	0.803	0.881	0.711
Push_FUL2	0.864	<0.001				
Push_FUL3	0.852	<0.001				
Push_GK1	0.828	<0.001	0.827	0.829	0.896	0.743

Indicator	Loadings	p -value	CA	ρ_A	CR	AVE
Push_GK2	0.885	<0.001	0.726	0.729	0.845	0.645
Push_GK3	0.871	<0.001				
Push_SR1	0.820	<0.001				
Push_SR2	0.817	<0.001				
Push_SR3	0.772	<0.001				
Push_SV1	0.880	<0.001	0.818	0.820	0.892	0.733
Push_SV2	0.851	<0.001				
Push_SV3	0.837	<0.001				
SAT1	0.757	<0.001	0.695	0.705	0.807	0.512
SAT2	0.617	<0.001				
SAT3	0.752	<0.001				
SAT4	0.727	<0.001				

Figure 6.1 and Table 6.8 show that all the constructs' measures have adequate construct reliability and convergent validity. More specifically, all the items have significant loadings ($p < 0.001$); the average variance extracted values (AVEs) are higher than the critical value of 0.50, and all the composite reliabilities are over 0.7 (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019). Therefore, all the latent variables were shown to have high construct reliability and convergent validity levels.

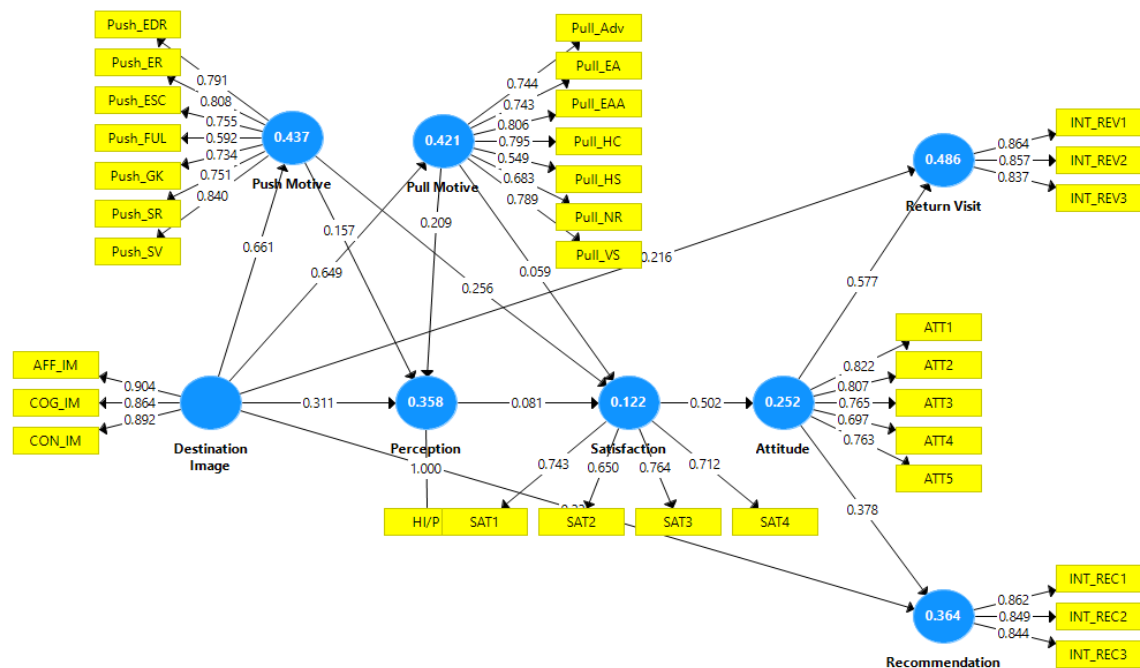


Figure 6.2: Measurement model – second-order level

Table 6.9: Results on reliability and convergent validity – 2nd order level

Indicator	Loadings	t-statistics	p-value	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE
ATT1	0.822	53.592	<0.001	0.830	0.839	0.880	0.596
ATT2	0.807	47.424	<0.001				
ATT3	0.765	27.417	<0.001				
ATT4	0.697	21.245	<0.001				
ATT5	0.763	34.486	<0.001				
AFF_IM	0.904	77.996	<0.001	0.864	0.866	0.917	0.786
COG_IM	0.864	49.900	<0.001				
CON_IM	0.892	55.682	<0.001				
HI/P	1.000	-	-	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
INT_REC1	0.862	55.364	<0.001	0.811	0.813	0.888	0.726
INT_REC2	0.849	46.251	<0.001				
INT_REC3	0.844	54.326	<0.001				
INT_REV1	0.864	58.202	<0.001	0.813	0.814	0.889	0.727
INT_REV2	0.857	65.345	<0.001				
INT_REV3	0.837	31.835	<0.001				
Pull_Adv	0.744	28.273	<0.001				
Pull_EA	0.743	23.669	<0.001	0.856	0.869	0.890	0.540
Pull_EAA	0.806	39.934	<0.001				
Pull_HC	0.795	28.492	<0.001				
Pull_HS	0.549	11.668	<0.001				
Pull_NR	0.683	17.061	<0.001				
Pull_VS	0.789	36.043	<0.001				
Push_EDR	0.791	31.331	<0.001	0.873	0.880	0.903	0.573
Push_ER	0.808	41.075	<0.001				
Push_ESC	0.755	17.870	<0.001				
Push_FUL	0.592	12.655	<0.001				
Push_GK	0.734	21.533	<0.001				
Push_SR	0.751	27.688	<0.001				
Push_SV	0.840	47.292	<0.001				
SAT1	0.743	18.788	<0.001	0.695	0.702	0.810	0.516
SAT2	0.650	10.956	<0.001				
SAT3	0.764	20.037	<0.001				
SAT4	0.712	14.471	<0.001				

Again, the results in Figure 6.2 and Table 6.9 illustrates that all the constructs' measures have acceptable construct reliability and convergent validity. In other words, all the items have significant loadings; the AVEs are higher than 0.50, and

all the composite reliabilities are over 0.7 (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019). Therefore, all the latent variables at the second-order level were shown to have high construct reliability and convergent validity levels.

6.4.2 Discriminant validity tests

The models were tested for discriminant validities after establishing acceptable and satisfactory construct reliabilities and convergent validities for first- and second-order constructs. Then, discriminant validities were established using the three criteria, including the newest approved criterion, Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) technique (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2015). Tables 6.10 to 6.15 illustrate the outcome of these tests.

Table 6.10: Discriminant Validity by Fornell-Larcker Criterion – 1st Order Level

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
AFF_IM	0.810																					
ATT	0.394	0.772																				
COG_IM	0.678	0.399	0.800																			
CON_IM	0.719	0.353	0.641	0.808																		
HI/P	0.510	0.366	0.414	0.535	1.000																	
INT_REC	0.488	0.523	0.408	0.422	0.467	0.852																
INT_REV	0.432	0.671	0.390	0.406	0.348	0.716	0.853															
Pull_Adv	0.348	0.521	0.269	0.353	0.348	0.341	0.417	0.826														
Pull_EA	0.408	0.396	0.453	0.613	0.312	0.425	0.456	0.473	0.759													
Pull_EAA	0.511	0.505	0.510	0.515	0.405	0.573	0.578	0.468	0.597	0.811												
Pull_HC	0.375	0.371	0.433	0.524	0.445	0.444	0.410	0.429	0.540	0.679	0.821											
Pull_HS	0.274	0.392	0.276	0.328	0.277	0.190	0.226	0.404	0.332	0.239	0.327	1.000										
Pull_NR	0.379	0.407	0.366	0.346	0.405	0.338	0.352	0.560	0.344	0.383	0.404	0.482	0.826									
Pull_VS	0.473	0.425	0.480	0.464	0.437	0.349	0.343	0.589	0.465	0.588	0.585	0.293	0.454	0.834								
Push_EDR	0.409	0.439	0.410	0.416	0.409	0.362	0.406	0.295	0.439	0.386	0.339	0.313	0.296	0.322	0.873							
Push_ER	0.534	0.536	0.481	0.511	0.431	0.382	0.445	0.368	0.462	0.445	0.342	0.238	0.257	0.473	0.545	0.809						
Push_ESC	0.383	0.462	0.436	0.437	0.288	0.304	0.369	0.352	0.459	0.426	0.384	0.232	0.280	0.441	0.493	0.547	0.830					
Push_FUL	0.381	0.368	0.370	0.462	0.243	0.240	0.353	0.253	0.606	0.343	0.176	0.312	0.240	0.237	0.392	0.488	0.401	0.843				
Push_GK	0.433	0.444	0.412	0.388	0.485	0.417	0.469	0.389	0.442	0.474	0.518	0.247	0.378	0.412	0.628	0.459	0.408	0.281	0.862			
Push_SR	0.477	0.467	0.537	0.445	0.369	0.335	0.408	0.250	0.310	0.443	0.298	0.153	0.234	0.420	0.434	0.615	0.595	0.310	0.406	0.803		
Push_SV	0.504	0.581	0.420	0.444	0.392	0.400	0.478	0.492	0.476	0.527	0.438	0.329	0.382	0.466	0.666	0.580	0.581	0.407	0.646	0.535	0.856	
SAT	0.202	0.503	0.338	0.236	0.238	0.359	0.428	0.191	0.210	0.362	0.183	0.165	0.168	0.131	0.324	0.184	0.274	0.152	0.239	0.367	0.238	0.716

Table 6.10 shows the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion for determining the discriminant validity of the first-order model. As exposed, the square root of AVE (shown on the diagonal and in italics) for all latent variables was higher than the inter-construct correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This signifies the realisation of the discriminant validity for the first-order latent constructs.

Table 6.11: Discriminant Validity by Cross Loading Criterion – 1st Order Level

Items	AFF_I M	ATT	COG_I M	CON_I M	H/P	INT_RE C	INT_RE V	Pull_Ad v	Pull_E A	Pull_EA A	Pull_H C	Pull_H S	Pull_N R	Pull_V S	Push_ED R	Push_E R	Push_ES C	Push_FU L	Push_G K	Push_S R	Push_S V	SAT
AFF_IM1	0.827	0.370	0.566	0.629	0.420	0.465	0.400	0.293	0.450	0.500	0.374	0.216	0.304	0.411	0.352	0.462	0.335	0.319	0.362	0.361	0.441	0.197
AFF_IM2	0.725	0.289	0.462	0.434	0.426	0.335	0.268	0.187	0.243	0.304	0.248	0.207	0.346	0.262	0.233	0.280	0.185	0.304	0.391	0.313	0.314	0.146
AFF_IM3	0.845	0.299	0.557	0.607	0.398	0.426	0.380	0.295	0.341	0.421	0.239	0.198	0.308	0.421	0.346	0.469	0.326	0.263	0.321	0.420	0.394	0.155
AFF_IM4	0.806	0.310	0.555	0.584	0.427	0.380	0.351	0.294	0.313	0.401	0.286	0.193	0.250	0.376	0.280	0.417	0.307	0.341	0.267	0.411	0.383	0.128
AFF_IM5	0.841	0.322	0.595	0.631	0.406	0.363	0.338	0.321	0.290	0.423	0.355	0.287	0.335	0.423	0.418	0.505	0.372	0.321	0.413	0.418	0.486	0.184
ATT1	0.304	0.822	0.247	0.224	0.259	0.481	0.577	0.444	0.323	0.420	0.286	0.364	0.351	0.286	0.359	0.385	0.367	0.248	0.393	0.315	0.503	0.402
ATT2	0.327	0.807	0.318	0.322	0.305	0.391	0.564	0.440	0.336	0.414	0.318	0.367	0.340	0.365	0.340	0.380	0.422	0.325	0.317	0.385	0.436	0.441
ATT3	0.298	0.765	0.248	0.195	0.268	0.384	0.431	0.355	0.233	0.329	0.267	0.251	0.296	0.314	0.350	0.438	0.337	0.228	0.333	0.325	0.498	0.318
ATT4	0.222	0.697	0.308	0.229	0.180	0.329	0.429	0.381	0.288	0.356	0.218	0.269	0.236	0.329	0.240	0.434	0.278	0.335	0.239	0.370	0.373	0.345
ATT5	0.356	0.763	0.416	0.374	0.384	0.419	0.561	0.382	0.336	0.417	0.330	0.247	0.329	0.353	0.389	0.451	0.365	0.290	0.410	0.412	0.432	0.419
COG_IM1	0.509	0.285	0.833	0.468	0.315	0.294	0.257	0.145	0.263	0.388	0.320	0.172	0.273	0.407	0.294	0.334	0.335	0.190	0.314	0.492	0.312	0.294
COG_IM2	0.537	0.437	0.668	0.456	0.446	0.452	0.367	0.300	0.360	0.449	0.335	0.262	0.398	0.381	0.369	0.395	0.348	0.337	0.349	0.354	0.323	0.319
COG_IM3	0.545	0.327	0.906	0.507	0.328	0.281	0.311	0.235	0.342	0.417	0.377	0.248	0.311	0.452	0.341	0.417	0.372	0.280	0.380	0.478	0.403	0.267
COG_IM4	0.577	0.356	0.900	0.511	0.382	0.352	0.328	0.222	0.319	0.446	0.360	0.239	0.315	0.429	0.374	0.461	0.392	0.294	0.373	0.493	0.429	0.325
COG_IM5	0.534	0.262	0.794	0.490	0.306	0.310	0.281	0.187	0.304	0.327	0.280	0.217	0.259	0.334	0.270	0.295	0.233	0.218	0.340	0.367	0.296	0.226
COG_IM6	0.570	0.284	0.898	0.554	0.285	0.269	0.272	0.217	0.400	0.385	0.364	0.250	0.271	0.426	0.365	0.398	0.366	0.303	0.378	0.442	0.388	0.229
COG_IM7	0.442	0.259	0.786	0.580	0.227	0.212	0.227	0.199	0.477	0.349	0.425	0.255	0.225	0.348	0.303	0.397	0.356	0.356	0.294	0.370	0.356	0.163
COG_IM8	0.417	0.128	0.761	0.489	0.166	0.183	0.134	0.133	0.407	0.299	0.353	0.176	0.205	0.361	0.313	0.317	0.300	0.274	0.337	0.310	0.292	0.072
COG_IM9	0.511	0.232	0.758	0.416	0.275	0.294	0.243	0.184	0.265	0.325	0.257	0.188	0.288	0.344	0.286	0.256	0.216	0.119	0.357	0.297	0.280	0.192
COG_IM10	0.485	0.362	0.652	0.450	0.390	0.383	0.311	0.254	0.333	0.421	0.304	0.219	0.345	0.356	0.293	0.337	0.251	0.280	0.325	0.303	0.220	0.267
COG_IM11	0.537	0.376	0.827	0.481	0.316	0.364	0.354	0.185	0.290	0.449	0.348	0.287	0.363	0.371	0.339	0.362	0.297	0.244	0.330	0.439	0.334	0.297
COG_IM12	0.496	0.360	0.694	0.514	0.391	0.421	0.313	0.191	0.472	0.420	0.364	0.285	0.316	0.302	0.354	0.387	0.316	0.404	0.338	0.329	0.302	0.297
COG_IM13	0.526	0.260	0.857	0.495	0.289	0.255	0.287	0.108	0.286	0.367	0.333	0.114	0.198	0.351	0.276	0.342	0.364	0.232	0.255	0.520	0.288	0.293

Items	AFF_I M	ATT	COG_I M	CON_I M	HI/P	INT_RE C	INT_RE V	Pull_Ad v	Pull_E A	Pull_EA A	Pull_H C	Pull_H S	Pull_N R	Pull_V S	Push_ED R	Push_E R	Push_ES C	Push_FU L	Push_G K	Push_S R	Push_S V	SAT
COG_IM14	0.487	0.35 5	0.637	0.504	0.40 8	0.396	0.304	0.260	0.368	0.436	0.400	0.144	0.280	0.387	0.223	0.317	0.366	0.155	0.236	0.340	0.233	0.315
COG_IM16	0.561	0.33 5	0.885	0.455	0.36 3	0.315	0.324	0.234	0.327	0.388	0.343	0.284	0.349	0.406	0.391	0.437	0.411	0.339	0.383	0.459	0.422	0.307
COG_IM18	0.576	0.29 7	0.880	0.524	0.31 2	0.313	0.298	0.177	0.342	0.418	0.328	0.278	0.339	0.363	0.294	0.330	0.339	0.288	0.301	0.459	0.330	0.302
COG_IM19	0.571	0.33 1	0.871	0.526	0.28 3	0.204	0.292	0.236	0.381	0.425	0.370	0.259	0.295	0.443	0.344	0.436	0.372	0.359	0.374	0.452	0.399	0.219
COG_IM20	0.595	0.36 8	0.900	0.521	0.35 6	0.363	0.372	0.238	0.286	0.472	0.370	0.163	0.308	0.451	0.324	0.407	0.353	0.239	0.353	0.543	0.346	0.318
COG_IM21	0.500	0.32 9	0.635	0.495	0.29 2	0.348	0.320	0.268	0.411	0.412	0.333	0.207	0.238	0.316	0.275	0.397	0.299	0.343	0.289	0.397	0.289	0.217
COG_IM22	0.574	0.26 6	0.855	0.544	0.32 0	0.374	0.314	0.162	0.320	0.408	0.328	0.111	0.219	0.412	0.292	0.343	0.278	0.188	0.324	0.498	0.290	0.260
COG_IM23	0.547	0.22 1	0.855	0.535	0.26 5	0.297	0.286	0.151	0.399	0.354	0.301	0.173	0.190	0.351	0.337	0.361	0.355	0.278	0.328	0.444	0.333	0.198
COG_IM24	0.571	0.22 2	0.859	0.559	0.26 7	0.281	0.274	0.162	0.449	0.344	0.328	0.185	0.221	0.361	0.381	0.391	0.355	0.305	0.375	0.418	0.392	0.183
COG_IM25	0.647	0.33 7	0.909	0.559	0.36 3	0.338	0.344	0.167	0.319	0.424	0.354	0.217	0.302	0.411	0.335	0.403	0.417	0.295	0.325	0.525	0.373	0.308
COG_IM26	0.487	0.44 0	0.707	0.516	0.38 7	0.404	0.415	0.293	0.437	0.461	0.364	0.280	0.366	0.383	0.406	0.454	0.442	0.423	0.301	0.470	0.329	0.385
COG_IM27	0.634	0.39 1	0.674	0.545	0.38 6	0.427	0.454	0.319	0.409	0.455	0.318	0.251	0.348	0.342	0.373	0.489	0.404	0.472	0.314	0.454	0.379	0.330
COG_IM28	0.551	0.32 8	0.657	0.550	0.38 3	0.267	0.296	0.259	0.373	0.436	0.376	0.179	0.269	0.410	0.248	0.380	0.391	0.293	0.222	0.386	0.266	0.324
CON_IM1	0.560	0.22 8	0.496	0.808	0.36 1	0.306	0.291	0.188	0.554	0.358	0.413	0.242	0.239	0.268	0.382	0.496	0.342	0.425	0.322	0.345	0.402	0.096
CON_IM2	0.621	0.29 2	0.540	0.789	0.41 1	0.374	0.332	0.285	0.455	0.438	0.419	0.267	0.295	0.374	0.324	0.401	0.346	0.399	0.275	0.325	0.389	0.189
CON_IM3	0.564	0.24 7	0.545	0.823	0.33 1	0.281	0.305	0.271	0.525	0.441	0.457	0.280	0.233	0.459	0.320	0.328	0.367	0.365	0.313	0.317	0.344	0.189
CON_IM4	0.567	0.31 4	0.524	0.862	0.43 7	0.397	0.380	0.288	0.540	0.464	0.465	0.268	0.273	0.381	0.329	0.467	0.406	0.391	0.281	0.413	0.356	0.187
CON_IM5	0.590	0.34 3	0.522	0.838	0.40 1	0.404	0.408	0.284	0.544	0.467	0.417	0.253	0.311	0.364	0.350	0.441	0.399	0.358	0.264	0.452	0.376	0.246
CON_IM6	0.560	0.30 4	0.500	0.805	0.51 0	0.343	0.337	0.314	0.497	0.410	0.427	0.333	0.332	0.366	0.274	0.340	0.313	0.457	0.317	0.324	0.348	0.194
CON_IM7	0.565	0.30 0	0.497	0.794	0.50 2	0.329	0.322	0.277	0.388	0.381	0.378	0.239	0.249	0.381	0.343	0.425	0.300	0.293	0.350	0.348	0.299	0.218
CON_IM8	0.618	0.24 7	0.522	0.743	0.50 8	0.286	0.241	0.369	0.451	0.365	0.406	0.237	0.300	0.407	0.371	0.401	0.342	0.293	0.392	0.348	0.350	0.202
HOL_IM	0.510	0.36 6	0.414	0.535	1.00 0	0.467	0.348	0.348	0.312	0.405	0.445	0.277	0.405	0.437	0.409	0.431	0.288	0.243	0.485	0.369	0.392	0.238
INT_REC1	0.440	0.40 3	0.337	0.321	0.38 8	0.858	0.591	0.289	0.341	0.456	0.340	0.091	0.251	0.291	0.265	0.303	0.237	0.155	0.395	0.305	0.343	0.286
INT_REC2	0.365	0.47 5	0.330	0.324	0.41 2	0.862	0.631	0.299	0.361	0.479	0.422	0.182	0.325	0.264	0.334	0.319	0.262	0.207	0.358	0.316	0.341	0.344

Items	AFF_I M	ATT	COG_I M	CON_I M	HI/P	INT_RE C	INT_RE V	Pull_Ad v	Pull_E A	Pull_EA A	Pull_H C	Pull_H S	Pull_N R	Pull_V S	Push_ED R	Push_E R	Push_ES C	Push_FU L	Push_G K	Push_S R	Push_S V	SAT
INT_REC3	0.446	0.453	0.376	0.430	0.389	0.836	0.602	0.281	0.383	0.527	0.366	0.203	0.282	0.338	0.321	0.353	0.275	0.246	0.317	0.236	0.337	0.282
INT_REV1	0.328	0.574	0.303	0.311	0.299	0.592	0.869	0.414	0.432	0.519	0.386	0.202	0.361	0.349	0.339	0.373	0.346	0.273	0.450	0.357	0.459	0.343
INT_REV2	0.412	0.620	0.299	0.333	0.282	0.615	0.863	0.365	0.353	0.525	0.356	0.248	0.287	0.295	0.384	0.426	0.334	0.305	0.415	0.341	0.437	0.350
INT_REV3	0.361	0.516	0.407	0.402	0.314	0.626	0.826	0.281	0.385	0.428	0.303	0.117	0.248	0.228	0.311	0.332	0.259	0.327	0.328	0.346	0.318	0.409
Pull_Adv1	0.267	0.383	0.167	0.248	0.299	0.231	0.245	0.733	0.365	0.337	0.417	0.273	0.352	0.556	0.230	0.268	0.274	0.125	0.348	0.184	0.392	0.151
Pull_Adv2	0.337	0.499	0.272	0.313	0.356	0.388	0.447	0.900	0.356	0.478	0.354	0.350	0.538	0.515	0.268	0.344	0.311	0.193	0.324	0.267	0.436	0.222
Pull_Adv3	0.243	0.391	0.214	0.312	0.181	0.190	0.314	0.836	0.476	0.319	0.291	0.384	0.483	0.379	0.228	0.290	0.285	0.327	0.294	0.148	0.387	0.076
Pull_EA1	0.287	0.430	0.320	0.396	0.308	0.299	0.396	0.404	0.674	0.388	0.326	0.320	0.348	0.326	0.398	0.378	0.305	0.428	0.509	0.247	0.451	0.181
Pull_EA2	0.280	0.336	0.352	0.529	0.229	0.305	0.386	0.369	0.772	0.448	0.411	0.317	0.257	0.314	0.380	0.425	0.339	0.518	0.358	0.234	0.410	0.141
Pull_EA3	0.415	0.361	0.458	0.490	0.287	0.465	0.440	0.369	0.750	0.605	0.568	0.119	0.286	0.404	0.350	0.373	0.441	0.413	0.382	0.362	0.472	0.231
Pull_EA4	0.274	0.146	0.266	0.465	0.197	0.296	0.213	0.278	0.759	0.344	0.276	0.223	0.154	0.356	0.286	0.224	0.312	0.375	0.188	0.173	0.192	0.119
Pull_EA5	0.307	0.217	0.309	0.433	0.175	0.272	0.309	0.296	0.803	0.411	0.346	0.238	0.213	0.306	0.301	0.380	0.325	0.531	0.289	0.185	0.284	0.133
Pull_EA6	0.265	0.277	0.317	0.460	0.205	0.255	0.290	0.427	0.791	0.470	0.474	0.321	0.291	0.395	0.267	0.299	0.338	0.496	0.256	0.169	0.305	0.128
Pull_EAA1	0.476	0.440	0.459	0.511	0.349	0.488	0.527	0.394	0.564	0.866	0.548	0.142	0.275	0.476	0.334	0.413	0.426	0.379	0.369	0.368	0.449	0.328
Pull_EAA2	0.443	0.467	0.439	0.388	0.411	0.499	0.468	0.329	0.398	0.826	0.574	0.240	0.323	0.537	0.435	0.403	0.367	0.184	0.462	0.420	0.524	0.370
Pull_EAA3	0.358	0.329	0.343	0.451	0.242	0.447	0.468	0.413	0.579	0.819	0.490	0.199	0.285	0.454	0.238	0.286	0.297	0.299	0.309	0.296	0.325	0.258
Pull_EAA4	0.363	0.387	0.402	0.304	0.292	0.418	0.401	0.399	0.397	0.725	0.602	0.205	0.379	0.437	0.212	0.324	0.266	0.245	0.393	0.344	0.391	0.190
Pull_HC1	0.203	0.233	0.255	0.418	0.197	0.229	0.268	0.282	0.504	0.460	0.718	0.301	0.224	0.333	0.239	0.280	0.313	0.182	0.284	0.099	0.304	0.090
Pull_HC2	0.363	0.385	0.444	0.468	0.416	0.378	0.356	0.418	0.477	0.620	0.895	0.307	0.409	0.562	0.317	0.361	0.379	0.211	0.485	0.341	0.428	0.161
Pull_HC3	0.332	0.277	0.342	0.410	0.441	0.458	0.376	0.340	0.378	0.577	0.839	0.212	0.333	0.512	0.273	0.201	0.258	0.049	0.473	0.250	0.336	0.187
Pull_HS	0.274	0.392	0.276	0.328	0.277	0.190	0.226	0.404	0.332	0.239	0.327	1.000	0.482	0.293	0.313	0.238	0.232	0.312	0.247	0.153	0.329	0.165
Pull_NR1	0.389	0.394	0.389	0.334	0.414	0.335	0.360	0.501	0.295	0.382	0.411	0.404	0.939	0.444	0.297	0.242	0.312	0.181	0.386	0.276	0.378	0.216
Pull_NR2	0.194	0.256	0.158	0.222	0.210	0.198	0.184	0.439	0.296	0.220	0.214	0.434	0.695	0.280	0.167	0.177	0.093	0.258	0.199	0.046	0.225	-0.004
Pull_VS1	0.424	0.301	0.423	0.375	0.344	0.249	0.229	0.476	0.364	0.460	0.525	0.306	0.399	0.811	0.251	0.358	0.370	0.239	0.375	0.319	0.446	-0.017

Items	AFF_I M	ATT	COG_I M	CON_I M	HI/P	INT_RE C	INT_RE V	Pull_Ad v	Pull_E A	Pull_EA A	Pull_H C	Pull_H S	Pull_N R	Pull_V S	Push_ED R	Push_E R	Push_ES C	Push_FU L	Push_G K	Push_S R	Push_S V	SAT
Pull_VS2	0.336	0.410	0.319	0.326	0.338	0.349	0.372	0.512	0.372	0.544	0.420	0.193	0.408	0.830	0.231	0.411	0.395	0.160	0.265	0.329	0.360	0.118
Pull_VS3	0.414	0.361	0.444	0.445	0.404	0.285	0.273	0.490	0.422	0.478	0.510	0.229	0.340	0.860	0.314	0.415	0.345	0.191	0.376	0.394	0.361	0.213
Push_EDR1	0.355	0.385	0.346	0.350	0.358	0.298	0.356	0.298	0.344	0.298	0.240	0.329	0.287	0.262	0.870	0.469	0.420	0.364	0.458	0.356	0.588	0.293
Push_EDR2	0.358	0.381	0.369	0.376	0.356	0.334	0.353	0.218	0.422	0.374	0.351	0.219	0.230	0.299	0.876	0.481	0.440	0.320	0.637	0.401	0.576	0.274
Push_ER1	0.413	0.386	0.372	0.490	0.329	0.215	0.291	0.294	0.476	0.312	0.264	0.300	0.233	0.368	0.432	0.825	0.423	0.521	0.387	0.413	0.484	0.059
Push_ER2	0.462	0.422	0.439	0.415	0.299	0.319	0.409	0.298	0.433	0.407	0.284	0.180	0.270	0.415	0.375	0.751	0.432	0.471	0.324	0.431	0.426	0.213
Push_ER3	0.396	0.389	0.384	0.388	0.352	0.275	0.320	0.247	0.331	0.343	0.240	0.171	0.173	0.379	0.481	0.898	0.439	0.387	0.415	0.541	0.494	0.097
Push_ER4	0.454	0.569	0.412	0.391	0.370	0.379	0.441	0.307	0.344	0.378	0.287	0.126	0.144	0.331	0.501	0.802	0.502	0.369	0.393	0.566	0.522	0.229
Push_ER5	0.425	0.385	0.327	0.372	0.391	0.349	0.324	0.334	0.270	0.351	0.300	0.185	0.215	0.416	0.406	0.759	0.402	0.209	0.334	0.531	0.408	0.133
Push_ESC1	0.365	0.412	0.368	0.379	0.340	0.357	0.362	0.292	0.332	0.361	0.335	0.207	0.242	0.434	0.437	0.504	0.852	0.272	0.362	0.616	0.526	0.212
Push_ESC2	0.271	0.331	0.385	0.338	0.188	0.118	0.210	0.210	0.390	0.347	0.307	0.143	0.172	0.331	0.391	0.436	0.826	0.329	0.355	0.504	0.443	0.219
Push_ESC3	0.313	0.403	0.336	0.369	0.176	0.266	0.339	0.375	0.430	0.351	0.314	0.226	0.282	0.323	0.398	0.415	0.814	0.408	0.297	0.349	0.474	0.252
Push_FUL1	0.280	0.246	0.266	0.388	0.227	0.177	0.259	0.143	0.569	0.270	0.134	0.165	0.232	0.203	0.328	0.361	0.316	0.812	0.235	0.202	0.314	0.046
Push_FUL2	0.341	0.343	0.370	0.397	0.197	0.203	0.317	0.256	0.477	0.345	0.144	0.330	0.215	0.245	0.373	0.439	0.392	0.864	0.255	0.319	0.378	0.192
Push_FUL3	0.339	0.334	0.291	0.385	0.194	0.227	0.313	0.233	0.497	0.246	0.167	0.280	0.161	0.148	0.287	0.431	0.301	0.852	0.220	0.255	0.333	0.135
Push_GK1	0.364	0.437	0.320	0.312	0.382	0.409	0.451	0.338	0.310	0.402	0.437	0.282	0.277	0.336	0.504	0.384	0.333	0.178	0.828	0.343	0.599	0.250
Push_GK2	0.363	0.424	0.341	0.315	0.423	0.364	0.450	0.378	0.420	0.436	0.446	0.215	0.384	0.398	0.555	0.426	0.393	0.291	0.885	0.373	0.566	0.258
Push_GK3	0.391	0.294	0.400	0.373	0.446	0.310	0.319	0.292	0.407	0.388	0.456	0.149	0.316	0.331	0.563	0.379	0.330	0.254	0.871	0.335	0.510	0.118
Push_SR1	0.427	0.409	0.441	0.358	0.330	0.279	0.356	0.164	0.164	0.366	0.229	0.140	0.160	0.333	0.303	0.487	0.449	0.229	0.232	0.820	0.361	0.389
Push_SR2	0.330	0.340	0.405	0.316	0.317	0.262	0.286	0.154	0.170	0.306	0.202	0.065	0.151	0.300	0.368	0.476	0.470	0.201	0.349	0.817	0.393	0.293
Push_SR3	0.385	0.372	0.447	0.399	0.238	0.267	0.337	0.289	0.425	0.394	0.288	0.160	0.256	0.379	0.382	0.521	0.520	0.320	0.413	0.772	0.543	0.189
Push_SV1	0.458	0.535	0.381	0.410	0.326	0.388	0.493	0.503	0.467	0.503	0.416	0.266	0.383	0.442	0.564	0.566	0.605	0.420	0.556	0.503	0.880	0.182
Push_SV2	0.435	0.427	0.368	0.380	0.344	0.284	0.296	0.370	0.309	0.372	0.313	0.274	0.261	0.376	0.576	0.468	0.460	0.283	0.492	0.425	0.851	0.179
Push_SV3	0.400	0.532	0.329	0.347	0.339	0.353	0.439	0.387	0.447	0.479	0.398	0.308	0.336	0.377	0.574	0.451	0.422	0.339	0.616	0.445	0.837	0.253

Items	AFF_I M	ATT	COG_I M	CON_I M	HI/P	INT_RE C	INT_RE V	Pull_Ad v	Pull_E A	Pull_EA A	Pull_H C	Pull_H S	Pull_N R	Pull_V S	Push_ED R	Push_E R	Push_ES C	Push_FU L	Push_G K	Push_S R	Push_S V	SAT
SAT1	0.093	0.30 4	0.198	0.183	0.18 0	0.199	0.291	0.166	0.170	0.300	0.173	0.103	0.150	0.165	0.233	0.144	0.244	0.018	0.175	0.304	0.174	0.757
SAT2	0.098	0.28 7	0.116	0.090	0.17 4	0.170	0.146	0.045	0.018	0.120	0.014	0.071	-0.081	0.028	0.114	0.064	0.126	0.036	0.101	0.218	0.086	0.617
SAT3	0.200	0.33 9	0.245	0.187	0.22 9	0.328	0.338	0.041	0.178	0.244	0.128	0.112	0.033	-0.008	0.282	0.117	0.170	0.195	0.179	0.254	0.195	0.752
SAT4	0.172	0.47 0	0.343	0.184	0.12 2	0.300	0.380	0.231	0.178	0.308	0.156	0.163	0.257	0.145	0.256	0.168	0.215	0.156	0.202	0.265	0.194	0.727

To prove discriminant validity, the cross-loading criterion requires indicators to be more closely connected to their respective constructs than other constructs. For example, table 6.11 reveals the indicators' outer loading on the associated construct (e.g. AFF_IM1 to AFF_IM5 onto AFF_IM; COG_IM1 to COG_IM28 onto COG_IM) are greater than their cross-loadings on the other constructs (Bin-Nashwan et al., 2019). Consequently, discriminant validity is attained using the cross-loading criterion, too.

Table 6.12: Discriminant Validity by HTMT Criterion – 1st Order Level

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
AFF_IM																						
ATT	0.459																					
COG_IM	0.732	0.437																				
CON_IM	0.796	0.397	0.675																			
HI/P	0.551	0.397	0.416	0.557																		
INT_REC	0.582	0.630	0.456	0.485	0.517																	
INT_REV	0.510	0.804	0.438	0.470	0.388	0.881																
Pull_Adv	0.416	0.644	0.302	0.420	0.387	0.415	0.512															
Pull_EA	0.462	0.457	0.485	0.685	0.333	0.498	0.538	0.596														
Pull_EAA	0.592	0.601	0.561	0.583	0.439	0.696	0.698	0.584	0.699													
Pull_HC	0.444	0.454	0.490	0.629	0.492	0.548	0.516	0.559	0.672	0.856												
Pull_HS	0.292	0.426	0.276	0.341	0.277	0.207	0.245	0.465	0.366	0.267	0.383											
Pull_NR	0.497	0.560	0.433	0.454	0.491	0.462	0.473	0.843	0.501	0.533	0.556	0.660										
Pull_VS	0.562	0.533	0.540	0.539	0.491	0.443	0.434	0.759	0.562	0.735	0.736	0.329	0.651									
Push_EDR	0.521	0.576	0.496	0.523	0.494	0.482	0.541	0.406	0.568	0.499	0.466	0.378	0.441	0.433								
Push_ER	0.606	0.634	0.515	0.570	0.463	0.453	0.524	0.447	0.528	0.518	0.421	0.256	0.354	0.575	0.705							
Push_ESC	0.456	0.569	0.497	0.514	0.321	0.373	0.458	0.457	0.560	0.523	0.503	0.263	0.361	0.565	0.673	0.662						
Push_FUL	0.458	0.451	0.409	0.538	0.273	0.295	0.438	0.330	0.740	0.418	0.232	0.343	0.388	0.297	0.528	0.581	0.512					
Push_GK	0.512	0.533	0.456	0.444	0.532	0.514	0.572	0.492	0.516	0.573	0.637	0.275	0.505	0.505	0.832	0.543	0.509	0.344				
Push_SR	0.595	0.601	0.634	0.542	0.431	0.437	0.529	0.327	0.388	0.568	0.379	0.178	0.331	0.553	0.618	0.777	0.788	0.405	0.532			
Push_SV	0.591	0.705	0.465	0.509	0.434	0.490	0.581	0.619	0.556	0.634	0.552	0.365	0.524	0.582	0.890	0.685	0.724	0.501	0.790	0.698		
SAT	0.250	0.633	0.374	0.282	0.293	0.457	0.535	0.231	0.243	0.435	0.229	0.186	0.292	0.209	0.443	0.217	0.356	0.223	0.309	0.500	0.299	

Table 6.12 reports the HTMT values, which should be less than 0.90 (Hair (Jr.) et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2015), to determine the discriminant validity of the constructs. This is seen in Table 6.12, where all values were below the suggested maximum of 0.90 (HTMT_{0.90}). Therefore, all the concepts have been proven to be discriminantly valid (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2015; Saari et al., 2021).

Table 6.13: Discriminant Validity by Fornell-Larcker Criterion – 2nd Order Level

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Attitude	0.772							
Destination Image	0.430	0.887						
Perception	0.367	0.551	1.000					
Pull Motive	0.583	0.649	0.515	0.735				
Push Motive	0.626	0.661	0.501	0.663	0.757			
Recommendation	0.522	0.498	0.466	0.534	0.465	0.852		
Return Visit	0.670	0.464	0.349	0.551	0.554	0.716	0.853	
Satisfaction	0.502	0.286	0.240	0.271	0.336	0.356	0.424	0.719

Table 6.13 shows the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion for determining the discriminant validity of the second-order model. Again, as shown, the square root of AVE for all latent variables was higher than the inter-construct correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This implies the realisation of the discriminant validity for the second-order model.

Table 6.14: Discriminant Validity by Cross Loading Criterion – 2nd Order Level

Indicators	Attitude	Destination Image	Perception	Rec.	Return Visit	Pull Motive	Push Motive	SAT
ATT1	0.822	0.291	0.259	0.479	0.573	0.474	0.488	0.400
ATT2	0.807	0.363	0.305	0.390	0.564	0.496	0.491	0.440
ATT3	0.765	0.278	0.268	0.382	0.430	0.395	0.479	0.319
ATT4	0.697	0.284	0.180	0.330	0.429	0.402	0.430	0.343
ATT5	0.763	0.429	0.384	0.418	0.560	0.468	0.524	0.419
AFF_IM	0.394	0.904	0.510	0.490	0.432	0.548	0.593	0.202
COG_IM	0.399	0.864	0.414	0.409	0.393	0.555	0.582	0.334
CON_IM	0.353	0.892	0.535	0.424	0.408	0.622	0.584	0.232
HI/P	0.367	0.551	1.000	0.466	0.349	0.515	0.501	0.240

Indicators	Attitude	Destination Image	Perception	Rec.	Return Visit	Pull Motive	Push Motive	SAT
INT_REC1	0.403	0.413	0.388	0.862	0.591	0.416	0.385	0.286
INT_REC2	0.475	0.383	0.412	0.849	0.633	0.465	0.408	0.342
INT_REC3	0.453	0.472	0.389	0.844	0.604	0.477	0.395	0.283
INT_REV1	0.574	0.354	0.299	0.590	0.864	0.528	0.494	0.332
INT_REV2	0.620	0.394	0.282	0.616	0.857	0.480	0.502	0.348
INT_REV3	0.516	0.439	0.314	0.624	0.837	0.399	0.420	0.407
Pull_Adv	0.521	0.366	0.348	0.340	0.414	0.744	0.454	0.184
Pull_EA	0.396	0.556	0.312	0.426	0.456	0.743	0.592	0.204
Pull_EAA	0.505	0.577	0.405	0.574	0.576	0.806	0.577	0.355
Pull_HC	0.371	0.501	0.445	0.442	0.409	0.795	0.476	0.177
Pull_HS	0.392	0.331	0.277	0.189	0.223	0.549	0.340	0.164
Pull_NR	0.407	0.410	0.405	0.336	0.350	0.683	0.391	0.156
Pull_VS	0.425	0.532	0.437	0.351	0.341	0.789	0.529	0.124
Push_EDR	0.439	0.464	0.409	0.361	0.405	0.466	0.791	0.320
Push_ER	0.536	0.574	0.431	0.383	0.444	0.512	0.808	0.181
Push_ESC	0.462	0.472	0.288	0.304	0.368	0.510	0.755	0.270
Push_FUL	0.368	0.457	0.243	0.240	0.354	0.420	0.592	0.152
Push_GK	0.444	0.463	0.485	0.417	0.467	0.565	0.734	0.237
Push_SR	0.467	0.547	0.369	0.334	0.408	0.425	0.751	0.365
Push_SV	0.581	0.515	0.392	0.400	0.475	0.609	0.840	0.235
SAT1	0.304	0.177	0.180	0.199	0.291	0.246	0.250	0.743
SAT2	0.287	0.114	0.174	0.170	0.148	0.044	0.144	0.650
SAT3	0.339	0.236	0.229	0.327	0.341	0.148	0.263	0.764
SAT4	0.470	0.259	0.122	0.296	0.380	0.280	0.276	0.712

Yet again, for the cross-loading criterion of establishing discriminant validity, the indicators are more closely related to their respective construct than other constructs, as presented in Table 6.14. Therefore, discriminant validity is attained for the second-order model using the cross-loading criterion (Bin-Nashwan et al., 2019).

Table 6.15: Discriminant Validity by HTMT Criterion – 2nd Order Level

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Attitude								
Destination Image	0.505							
Perception	0.397	0.590						

Pull Motive	0.694	0.742	0.554					
Push Motive	0.733	0.762	0.531	0.761				
Recommendation	0.630	0.592	0.517	0.620	0.548			
Return Visit	0.804	0.553	0.388	0.647	0.656	0.881		
Satisfaction	0.633	0.354	0.293	0.332	0.411	0.457	0.535	

Table 6.15 reports the HTMT values for the second order or final model. As presented, all the values were below the recommended maximum limit of 0.90 (HTMT_{0.90}). Therefore, discriminant validity has been established for all the --order or final models (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2015; Saari et al., 2021).

6.5 STRUCTURAL MODEL ASSESSMENT

Once the measurement models (both at first and second-order levels) were shown to be adequate, an evaluation of the structural model was conducted to determine the relationships between the various constructs and evaluate the study's hypotheses. It was determined whether or not each structural path was substantial and headed in the predicted direction (Hair et al., 2019; Ringle et al., 2020). Among other things, the results show the VIF (i.e., collinearity check), path coefficients, standard errors, *t*-statistics, and *p*-values, *R*² (i.e., predictive power), and *Q*² (i.e., predictive relevance) and the SRMR (i.e., the model fit). Tables 7.19 and 7.20, as well as Figure 7.7, show the results.

6.5.1 Collinearity checks

Collinearity checks whether one independent is highly correlated with one or more of the other variables. A collinearity check was done using the variance inflation factor (VIF) by Sarstedt et al. (2014). According to Hair et al. (2019), VIF values of more than 5 indicate possible collinearity difficulties among the predictor constructs. Table 6.16 shows the VIF statistics.

Table 6.16: VIF – outer model

Indicators	VIF
ATT1	1.908
ATT2	1.808
ATT3	1.744
ATT4	1.472
ATT5	1.579
AFF_IM	2.480
COG_IM	2.038
CON_IM	2.274
HI/P	1.000
INT_REC1	1.961
INT_REC2	1.815
INT_REC3	1.645
INT_REV1	1.921
INT_REV2	1.759
INT_REV3	1.716
Pull_Adv	1.982
Pull_EA	1.779
Pull_EAA	2.359
Pull_HC	2.196
Pull_HS	1.407
Pull_NR	1.718
Pull_VS	2.061
Push_EDR	2.208
Push_ER	2.193
Push_ESC	1.931
Push_FUL	1.400
Push_GK	1.969
Push_SR	1.962
Push_SV	2.611
SAT1	1.387
SAT2	1.448
SAT3	1.486
SAT4	1.188

As shown in Table 6.16, all the VIF values are below 5, ranging from 1.000 to 2.611. This suggests the absence of multicollinearity issues (Hair et al., 2019). In other

words, multicollinearity is not an issue in this study's data (Rosen & Hochwarter, 2014; O'Brien, 2007).

6.5.2 Model fit, predictive power and predictive relevance

Henseler et al. (2016) recommended that the standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) be less than 0.08 to evaluate the model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998). A satisfactory fit index must exist before the proposed model's hypotheses can be tested (Findıklı et al., 2015).

Further, the R^2 and Q^2 criteria were used to evaluate the structural model's predictive power and relevance (Chin, 1998). As a rule of thumb, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.5, and 0.25 may be considered substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively (Hair et al., 2012). Blindfolding was used to cross-validate the model's predictive relevance for each endogenous variable, the Stone-Geisser Q^2 value (Hair et al., 2019). Table 6.17 displays the model fit, predictive power and predictive relevance of the structural model.

Table 6.17: Model Fit, Predictive Power and Predictive Relevance

Dependent Variables	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Q^2	Model fit (SRMR)
Attitude	0.254	0.250	0.147	0.07
Perception	0.358	0.353	0.330	
Pull Motive	0.421	0.419	0.220	
Push Motive	0.437	0.436	0.242	
Recommendation	0.364	0.361	0.255	
Return Visit	0.487	0.484	0.340	
Satisfaction	0.121	0.115	0.056	

As demonstrated in Table 6.17, the results show that the model has a good fit as the SRMR was 0.07, less than the 0.08 threshold (Hu & Bentler, 1998), hence the path relations can be examined. Furthermore, the statistics indicate that the structural model has an acceptable level of predictive relevance ($Q^2 > 0.0$) and predictive power (Hair et al., 2019; Usakli & Kucukergin, 2018). The R^2 values

show that the destination image explains 43.7%, 42.1%, and 35.8% of the variation in push motive, pull motive, and perception, respectively. A further 12.1% of satisfaction was due to perception and push and pull motives, while 25.4% of attitude variation was attributable to satisfaction. Both return visits and recommendations had R^2 values of 0.487% and 0.364%, respectively. The results show that the study model accounted for 48.7 %and 36.4 %of the repeat visit and recommendation variation. PLS structural model's Q^2 values, which vary from 0.056 to 0.340, demonstrate the model's ability to predict outcomes accurately.

6.5.3 Hypotheses Assessment (Direct and Indirect Effects)

The hypotheses of the proposed model are addressed in this part after establishing the non-collinearity, predictive power, predictive relevance, and model fit. Then, the direct and indirect (mediation) effects are included. Finally, the results are presented in Tables 6.18 (direct effects) and 6.19 (indirect effects) and Figure 6.3.

Table 6.18: Direct Effects

Paths	B	SE	Confidence Interval (Bias Corrected)		t-statistics	p-values
			2.5%	97.5%		
Destination Image => Return Visit	0.215	0.057	0.107	0.333	3.744	0.000
Destination Image => Recommendation	0.336	0.061	0.218	0.458	5.529	0.000
Destination Image => Perception	0.311	0.080	0.153	0.470	3.901	0.000
Destination Image => Push Motive	0.661	0.040	0.576	0.731	16.716	0.000
Destination Image => Pull Motive	0.649	0.040	0.558	0.718	16.169	0.000
Perception => Satisfaction	0.082	0.060	-0.040	0.196	1.376	0.169
Push Motive => Perception	0.157	0.076	0.021	0.315	2.059	0.040
Push Motive => Satisfaction	0.257	0.069	0.119	0.389	3.713	0.000
Pull Motive => Perception	0.209	0.070	0.075	0.348	2.980	0.003
Pull Motive => Satisfaction	0.056	0.067	-0.078	0.182	0.837	0.402
Satisfaction => Attitude	0.503	0.038	0.421	0.571	13.277	0.000
Attitude => Return Visit	0.578	0.050	0.471	0.668	11.459	0.000
Attitude => Recommendation	0.378	0.057	0.263	0.485	6.625	0.000

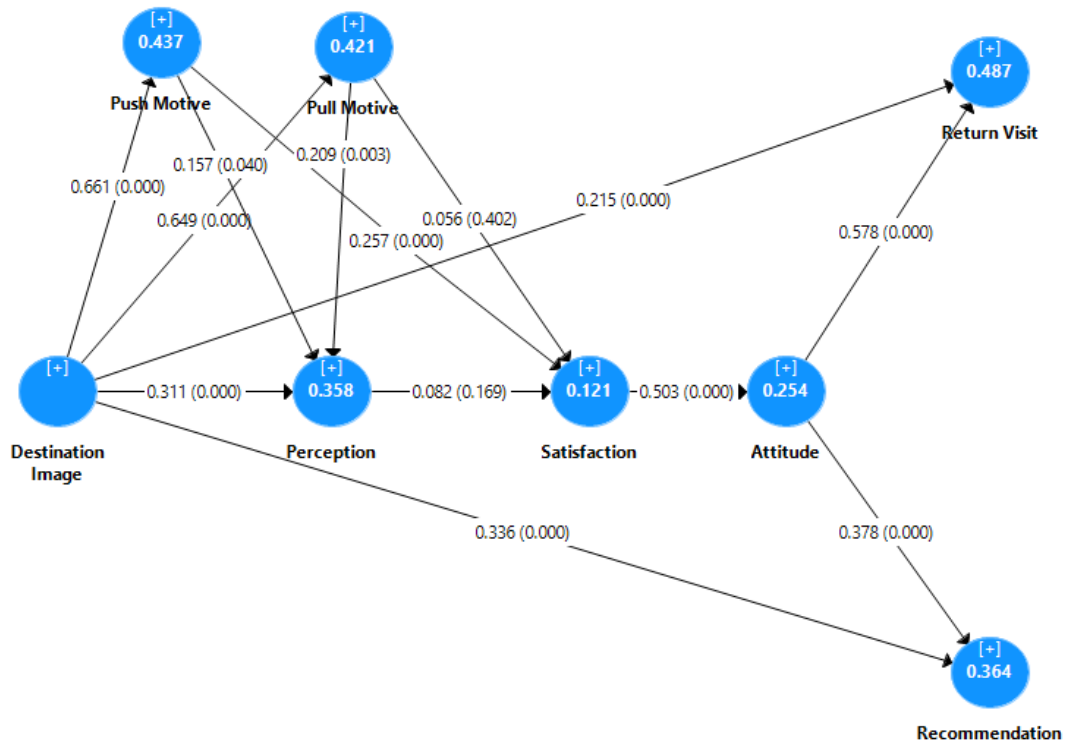


Figure 6.3: Structural model

The results, as depicted in Table 6.18 and Figure 6.3, indicate that destination image significantly positively influenced return visit ($\beta = 0.215$; $SE = 0.057$; $CI = 0.107, 0.333$; $t = 3.744$; $p = 0.000$), recommendation ($\beta = 0.336$; $SE = 0.061$; $CI = 0.218, 0.458$; $t = 5.529$; $p = 0.000$), perception ($\beta = 0.311$; $SE = 0.080$; $CI = 0.153, 0.470$; $t = 3.901$; $p = 0.000$), push motive ($\beta = 0.661$; $SE = 0.040$; $CI = 0.576, 0.731$; $t = 16.716$; $p = 0.000$) and pull motive ($\beta = 0.649$; $SE = 0.040$; $CI = 0.558, 0.718$; $t = 16.169$; $p = 0.000$).

Similarly, push motive had a significant positive bearing on perception ($\beta = 0.157$; $SE = 0.076$; $CI = 0.021, 0.315$; $t = 2.059$; $p = 0.040$) and satisfaction ($\beta = 0.257$; $SE = 0.069$; $CI = 0.119, 0.389$; $t = 3.713$; $p = 0.000$).

Pull motive emerged to have a significant positive effect on perception ($\beta = 0.209$; $SE = 0.070$; $CI = 0.075, 0.348$; $t = 2.980$; $p = 0.003$) but an insignificant positive effect on satisfaction ($\beta = 0.056$; $SE = 0.067$; $CI = -0.078, 0.182$; $t = 0.837$; $p =$

0.402). The effect of perception on satisfaction emerged to be insignificantly positive ($\beta = 0.082$; $SE = 0.060$; $CI = -0.040, 0.196$; $t = 1.376$; $p = 0.169$).

Satisfaction had significant positive effect on attitude ($\beta = 0.503$; $SE = 0.038$; $CI = 0.421, 0.571$; $t = 13.277$; $p = 0.000$). Likewise, as expected, attitude significantly positively influenced return visit ($\beta = 0.578$; $SE = 0.050$; $CI = 0.471, 0.668$; $t = 11.459$; $p = 0.000$) and recommendation ($\beta = 0.378$; $SE = 0.057$; $CI = 0.263, 0.485$; $t = 6.625$; $p = 0.000$).

Table 6.19: Indirect Effects (Mediation)

Paths	β	SE	t-statistics	p-values
DI => Perc => SAT => ATT => Visit	0.007	0.006	1.223	0.221
DI => Push => SAT => ATT	0.086	0.027	3.217	0.001
DI => Push => SAT	0.170	0.047	3.616	0.000
DI => Pull => Perc => SAT => ATT => REC	0.002	0.002	1.208	0.227
DI => Pull => SAT => ATT => REC	0.007	0.009	0.794	0.427
DI => Perc => SAT => ATT	0.013	0.011	1.221	0.222
DI => Pull => Perc => SAT => ATT	0.006	0.004	1.269	0.204
DI => Push => Perc => SAT => ATT => Visit	0.002	0.003	0.855	0.392
DI => Push => Perc => SAT	0.009	0.009	0.911	0.362
DI => Pull => SAT => ATT	0.018	0.022	0.814	0.416
DI => Push => Perc	0.104	0.055	1.887	0.059
DI => Perc => SAT	0.026	0.020	1.251	0.211
DI => Pull => Perc => SAT	0.011	0.009	1.291	0.197
DI => Pull => Perc	0.136	0.045	3.004	0.003
DI => Push => SAT => ATT => Visit	0.049	0.017	2.919	0.004
DI => Push => SAT => ATT => REC	0.032	0.012	2.642	0.008
DI => Pull => SAT	0.036	0.044	0.827	0.408
DI => Push => Perc => SAT => ATT	0.004	0.005	0.893	0.372
DI => Perc => SAT => ATT => REC	0.005	0.004	1.201	0.230
DI => Pull => SAT => ATT => Visit	0.011	0.013	0.799	0.424
DI => Push => Perc => SAT => ATT => REC	0.002	0.002	0.798	0.425
DI => Pull => Perc => SAT => ATT => Visit	0.003	0.003	1.235	0.217

Table 6.19 reports the indirect effects of the destination image. As revealed in Table 6.19, only five are significant out of the twenty-two (22) indirect paths. Specifically, destination image had significant indirect effects on attitude through

the serial mediation of push motives and satisfaction ($\beta = 0.086$; $SE = 0.027$; $t = 3.217$; $p = 0.001$) and satisfaction through push motives ($\beta = 0.170$; $SE = 0.047$; $t = 3.616$; $p = 0.000$). In addition, pull motives significantly mediated the effects of destination image on perception ($\beta = 0.136$; $SE = 0.045$; $t = 3.004$; $p = 0.003$). Lastly, destination image had significant indirect effects on return visits ($\beta = 0.049$; $SE = 0.017$; $t = 2.919$; $p = 0.004$) and recommendation ($\beta = 0.032$; $SE = 0.012$; $t = 2.642$; $p = 0.008$) through the serial mediation of push motives, satisfaction and attitude. These suggest the mediating roles of push motives, satisfaction, and attitude in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions.

6.6 MODERATION AND MULTI-GROUP ANALYSIS

Moderation analysis was conducted to assess if demographic and familial factors moderate the influence of destination image and future behavioural intentions. This was done to determine the roles demographic factors and familial factors play in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions. The results are reported in Figure 6.4 and Tables 6.20, 6.21 and 6.22.

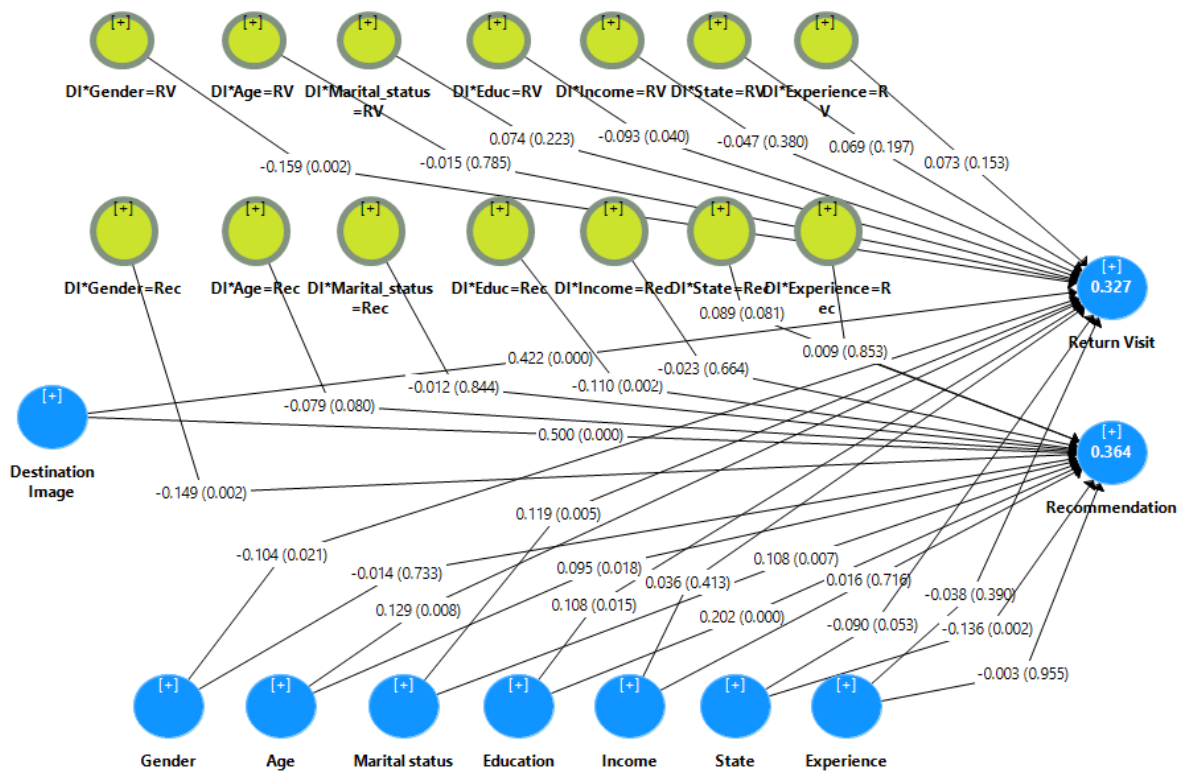


Figure 6.4: Moderating effects of demographic and familial factors

Table 6.20: Moderating effects of demographic and familial factors

Paths	β	SE	<i>t</i> -statistics	<i>p</i> -values
DI&Gender => Return Visit	-0.159	0.051	3.126	0.002
DI&Gender => Recommendation	-0.149	0.048	3.081	0.002
DI&Age => Return Visit	-0.015	0.056	0.272	0.785
DI&Age => Recommendation	-0.079	0.045	1.750	0.080
DI&Marital status => Return Visit	0.074	0.061	1.217	0.223
DI&Marital status => Recommendation	-0.012	0.060	0.197	0.844
DI&Educ => Return Visit	-0.093	0.045	2.054	0.040
DI&Educ => Recommendation	-0.110	0.036	3.063	0.002
DI&Income => Return Visit	-0.047	0.053	0.878	0.380
DI&Income => Recommendation	-0.023	0.053	0.434	0.664
DI&State => Return Visit	0.069	0.053	1.291	0.197
DI&State => Recommendation	0.089	0.051	1.743	0.081
DI&Experience => Return Visit	0.073	0.051	1.430	0.153
DI&Experience => Recommendation	0.009	0.050	0.186	0.853

As revealed in Table 6.20, only four are significant out of the fourteen (14) moderating effects. Specifically, gender significantly moderated the relationship between destination image and returned visit ($\beta = -0.159$; $SE = 0.051$; $t = 3.126$; $p = 0.002$) and recommendation ($\beta = -0.149$; $SE = 0.048$; $t = 3.081$; $p = 0.002$). Similarly, the educational level significantly moderated the relationship between

destination image and returned visit ($\beta = -0.093$; $SE = 0.045$; $t = 2.054$; $p = 0.040$) and recommendation ($\beta = -0.110$; $SE = 0.036$; $t = 3.063$; $p = 0.002$). Surprisingly, the nexus between destination image and future behavioural intentions was not moderated by age, marital status, income level, whom the tourists were travelling with (state) and past travelling experience ($p > 0.05$). Nonetheless, as depicted in Figure 6.4, the moderation model significantly accounted for 32.7% ($R^2 = 0.327$) and 36.4% ($R^2 = 0.364$) variance in return visits and recommendations, respectively.

Considering the significant moderating effects of gender and educational levels, a further analysis known as the multi-group analysis was conducted to determine significant differences in the path coefficients. The results are depicted in Table 6.21 and Table 6.22.

Table 6.21: PLS-MGA results based on gender

Path	B	B	p-Value	p-Value	p-Value (G1 vs G2)
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female vs Male
DI => Return Visit	0.321	0.048	0.000	0.428	0.003
DI => Rec	0.442	0.166	0.000	0.005	0.004

The results in Table 6.21 revealed that the positive effect of destination image on return visits was significant for females ($\beta = 0.321$; $p = 0.000$) but insignificant for males ($\beta = 0.048$; $p = 0.428$). Additionally, the positive effect of destination image on the recommendation was significant for both females ($\beta = 0.442$; $p = 0.000$) and males ($\beta = 0.166$; $p = 0.005$). Thus, the positive effects of destination image on future behavioural intentions characterised by return visits and recommendations significantly vary in that the positive effect is higher for females than males.

Table 6.22: PLS-MGA results based on educational level

Path	β	B	β	p-Value	p-Value	p-Value	p-Value	p-Value	p-Value
	HS	C/D	PG	HS	C/D	PG	HS vs C/D	HS vs PG	C/D vs PG
DI => Return Visit	0.523	0.012	0.191	0.000	0.814	0.010	0.000	0.006	0.981
DI => Rec	0.420	0.316	0.282	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.233	0.146	0.376

The results in Table 6.22 revealed that the positive effect of destination image on return visit was significant for tourists with high school ($\beta = 0.523$; $p = 0.000$) and post-graduate ($\beta = 0.191$; $p = 0.010$) but insignificant for tourists with college or degree qualifications ($\beta = 0.012$; $p = 0.814$). Additionally, the positive effect of destination image on the recommendation was significant for all three educational categories of tourists ($p = 0.000$). Comparatively, the positive effects of destination image on return visits significantly vary among the three educational categories of tourists. The positive effects are higher for tourists with high school followed by post-graduates and then tourists with college or degree qualifications. However, even though the positive effects of destination image on recommendation vary among the three educational categories of tourists in that tourists with high school rated highest, followed by college or degree qualification holders, and then tourists with post-graduate qualifications, the difference is statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$).

6.7 IMPORTANCE OF PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

Further investigation was carried out to analyse the relative priority and performance of the predictors of the main outcomes of the research model (i.e. intention to revisit and intention to recommend). Thus, this analysis considers the performance of attitude, destination image, perception, pull motive, push motive and satisfaction on target constructs, intention to revisit and intention to recommend (Valaei & Jiroudi, 2016). IPMA results can help decision-makers prioritize their actions (Valaei & Jiroudi, 2016). Figures 6.5 and 6.6 and Table 6.23 show the IPMA results.

Table 6.23: IPMA results

Predictors	Recommendation		Return Visit	
	Importance	Performances	Importance	Performances
Attitude	0.437	70.161	0.681	70.161
Satisfaction	0.384	78.995	0.599	78.995
Destination Image	0.335	70.790	0.256	70.790
Push Motive	0.052	67.214	0.082	67.214

Pull Motive	0.015	68.420	0.023	68.420
Perception	0.012	71.905	0.019	71.905

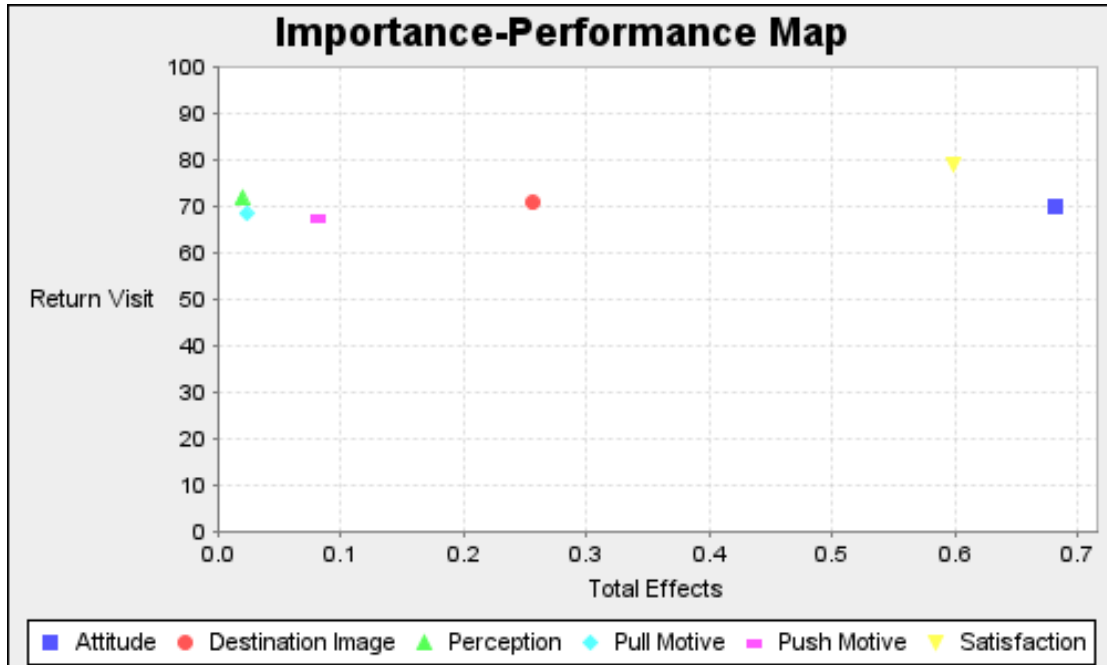


Figure 6.5: IPMA on intention to revisit

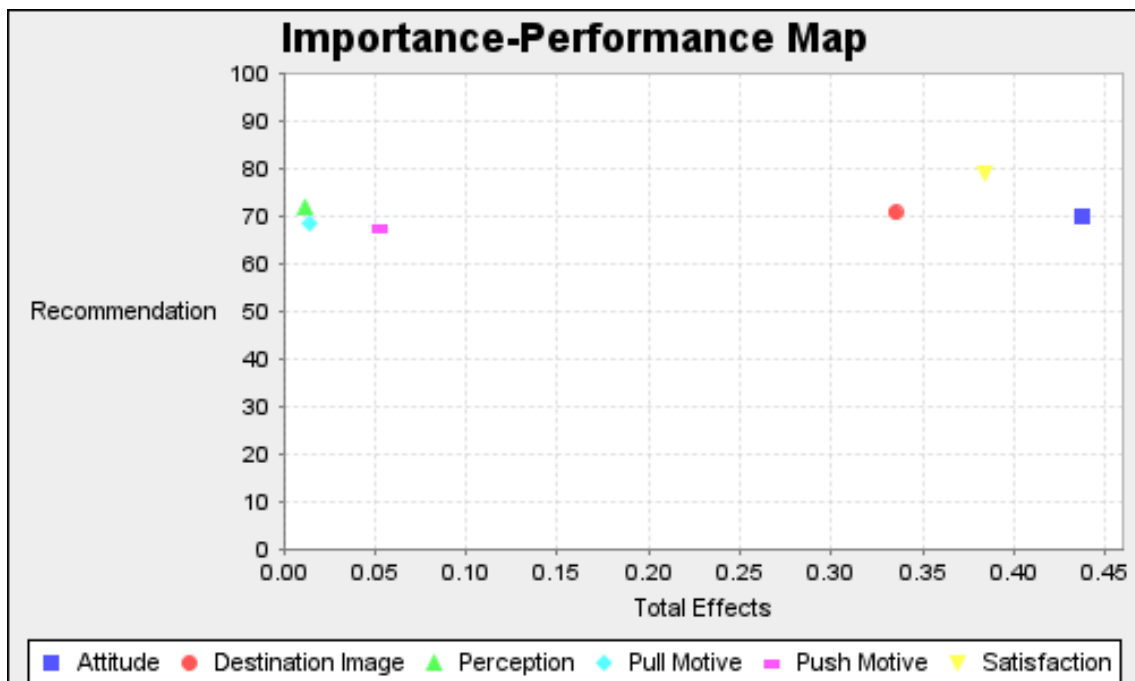


Figure 6.6: IPMA on intention to recommend

As shown in Table 6.23 and Figure 6.5, and Figure 6.6, the trend of importance revealed that attitude (0.437 and 0.681) has the highest importance in determining future behavioural intentions of the international tourists, closely followed by satisfaction (0.384 and 0.599) and destination image (0.335 and 0.256) while perception (0.012 and 0.019), push motives (0.052 and 0.082) and pull motives (0.015 and 0.023) was less important in determining future behavioural intentions. To sum up, from a managerial perspective, the findings from the IPMA results demonstrate that factors such as attitude, satisfaction and destination image are core factors in facilitating future behavioural intentions of international tourists.

6.8 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The measurement and structural model show the hypothesized relationships among the study constructs as shown in the framework for the study. Out of the 13 direct hypotheses tested, 11, namely H₁ - H₅, H₇, H₈, H₉, H₁₁ and H₁₂, were significant, and H₆ and H₁₀ were insignificant. The study discusses the direct relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions (revisit intentions and word-of-mouth recommendation). The study also, discusses the moderating role of demographics factors below.

6.8.1 Destination Image and Behavioural Intention (revisit intentions and recommendations to others)

The study examined and tested the hypotheses that empirically, H₁; destination image positively influences tourists' revisit intention; H₂; Destination image positively influences tourists' recommendation to others. The results for H₁ ($\beta = 0.215$; $SE = 0.057$; $CI = 0.107, 0.333$; $t = 3.744$; $p = 0.000$), H₂ ($\beta = 0.336$; $SE = 0.061$; $CI = 0.218, 0.458$; $t = 5.529$; $p = 0.000$), shows that destination image significantly positively influences revisit intention and recommendation to others. Therefore, these hypotheses H₁ and H₂ are significant. This implies that the tourist considers the attributes and attractions associated with the destination and they

have a positive attitude towards it. The attributes and attractions constitute the tourists' overall impression (Fu et al., 2016). Scholars have come out with different forms of attributes, but Chi and Qu (2008) classify attributes into the following: travel environment, natural attraction, entertainment and events, historical attraction, infrastructure, accessibility relaxation, outdoor activities and price and value. The study also confirms that tourists with a positive attitude towards the destination will likely revisit and recommend it to others. This finding of the study (H_1 and H_2) is consistent with the empirical studies that have shown that destination image positively affects future behaviour directly and indirectly (Kani et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2014). Regarding the direct positive influence, the literature has revealed that destination image directly affects revisit intention (Kani et al., 2017; Byon & Zhang, 2010). For instance, a study conducted by Song et al (2017) among golf tourists in the Hainan area, China, found that a destination image significantly impacts tourists' revisit to a destination. Also, a study by Hallman et al. (2015), with 795 tourists visiting the destination of Obsertdof, Germany and Hininterglemm in Austria, shows that destination image impacts the intention to revisit. A study by Sharman and Nayak (2018) also revealed that a positive overall image by tourists significantly influences the intention to revisit and recommend the visited destination to others.

6.8.2 Destination and perception

The study again examined and tested the hypothesis that; H_3 : destination image significantly influences tourist perception. The results H_3 ($\beta = 0.311$; $SE = 0.080$; $CI = 0.153, 0.470$; $t = 3.901$; $p = 0.000$) show that destination image significantly positively influences tourist perception; therefore, this hypothesis is significant. This implies that the three component attributes, affective, cognitive and conative, used to assess destination image affect how tourists perceive the destination. The cognitive image is linked to the tourist's perception and knowledge of the destination and attributes Styliadis et al. (2017), as expressed by Chi and Qu (2008) in the literature. The affective is the feeling and affection of the tourists (Tessitore et al., 2014; Song et al., 2013), and the conative is the tourists' actions based on

the cognitive and affective image (Kim, 2017). The literature has also revealed that individual subjective association or perception is associated with the destination's characteristics. The results proved that tourists positively perceive all the measuring items comprising the cognitive, affective and conation elements. In all, the cognitive and affective had the greatest impact on tourists. Valeck and Williams's (2018) study supported these assertions, which found that destination image has been extensively studied. Researchers have found that image influences tourists' choice and intent to revisit a destination. The study also found that tourists had a positive attitude based on the safety, environment, accommodation, hospitality, and comfort experienced at the destination. This is in line with a study by Gill and Ibrahim (2005) that also confirmed the impact of the image of any destination on the tourist's perception in terms of environment, safety and comfort (Islam, Roy, Afrin & Mia, 2020; Lin et al., 2019; Mohebali, Maghsoudy, Ardejani & Shafaei, 2019).

6.8.3 Destination image and motivation (Pull and Push Motives)

Hypotheses H₄: destination image positively influences pull motives; H₅: destination image positively influences push motives were also tested. Based on the results received from the PLS-SEM analysis H₄ ($\beta = 0.649$; $SE = 0.040$; $CI = 0.558, 0.718$; $t = 16.169$; $p = 0.000$) shows that destination image significantly positively influences pull motives while H₂: ($\beta = 0.661$; $SE = 0.040$; $CI = 0.576, 0.731$; $t = 16.716$; $p = 0.000$) shows that destination image significantly positively influences push motives. Therefore, hypotheses H₄ and H₅ are significant. This implies that tourists are influenced by the pull and push motives to visit the destination. It is, therefore, important to analyze factors that drive or motivate tourists to visit a destination. The pull factors that drive or motivate tourists to visit a destination are related to the destination attributes. The push factors are internal factors that push the tourists to visit a destination. As Yoon and Usyal (2005) pointed out, the push factors are related to internal desires such as self-actualisation, leisure or social interaction. But the pull factors are associated with cognitive factors such as landscape, climate, hospitality or facilities or the attributes

and attraction of the destination (Madden et al., 2016). This implies that a destination with attractive attributes will influence the tourist pull motives. On the other hand, a destination offering dull attributes will likely deter tourists.

The study shows that a greater number of tourists had a positive perception of the push and pull items used to measure their motivation. These assertions are supported by more empirical studies revealed by the literature. For instance, a study by Wong and Musa (2015) found that British retirees were pushed to go to Malaysia due to weakening political stability and security and the need for tranquillity and simple life, while Japanese retirees were motivated by the need for active change upon retirement and the need for a second life. In the same instance, the British retirees were pulled to Malaysia by the beautiful countryside, food and diversity. But on the other hand, the Japanese tourists were attracted to good amenities, residential areas, the host country's image, and exotic fruit. Also, Cocolas et al. (2018), in their research of the winter alpine tourists to Australia, found the push factors to be rejuvenation, novelty/adventure and self-express while the pull factors were snow-related activities, place attachment, safety and reliability of the destination.

6.8.4 Perception and tourist satisfaction

In testing the hypothesis that H_6 : perception positively influences tourist satisfaction, the results H_6 ($\beta = 0.082$; $SE = 0.060$; $CI = -0.040, 0.196$; $t = 1.376$; $p = 0.169$) show that the perception of tourists on satisfaction is insignificantly positive hence the hypothesis is not significant. This study is inconsistent with the empirical studies of Hasegawa (2010) found that factors of scenic beauty and meals influenced the overall satisfaction of tourists that visited Japan. And also, this is in contrast with a study by Huang and Sarigollu (2008) that revealed that core factors of the destination image like outdoor adventures, sea sport, fun and sun and secondary factors like convenience and cost, infrastructure and service and safety influenced tourist satisfaction.

The result indicates that the tourists may not have visited all the key destinations or the key destinations and sites but were not impressed with the attributes they found. For instance, Artusa et al. (2014) evaluated international visitors' and residents' perceptions towards tourism in Thailand. It was found that international tourists prefer "Nightlife" as an important factor to attract them whilst the residents prefer cultural visits and local foods. This result shows that international tourists visiting again were low. It signals to the Ghana Tourism Authority that the destination attributes within the region should be expanded and improved to meet the required standard expected by international tourists.

6.8.5 Motivation (push and pull motives) and perception

The study tested hypotheses H₇: Push motives positively influence tourist perception and H₈: Pull motives positively influence tourist perception. The empirical results H₇: ($\beta = 0.157$; $SE = 0.076$; $CI = 0.021, 0.315$; $t = 2.059$; $p = 0.040$) show that push motives have a significant positive influence on perception and H₈: ($\beta = 0.209$; $SE = 0.070$; $CI = 0.075, 0.348$; $t = 2.980$; $p = 0.003$) also shows that pull motives also have a significant positive influence on perception hence hypotheses H₇ and H₈ are significant. The push-pull motives of sightseeing, relaxation and fulfilling prestige, natural resources, adventure and event influenced the tourist's perception. This is in line with the findings from the literature review by (Gnoth 1997; Woodside & Lysonki, 1989; Crompton (1979), agrees that interpersonal motives (push motives) and destination attributes (pull motives) determine tourist perception. Therefore, the tourist perception was influenced by the key push-pull motives.

6.8.6 Motivation (Push and Pull motives) and satisfaction

The study examined and tested empirically the hypotheses that H₉: Push motives positively influence international tourist satisfaction; H₁₀: Pull motives positively influence international tourist satisfaction. The results for H₉: ($\beta = 0.257$; $SE = 0.069$; $CI = 0.119, 0.389$; $t = 3.713$; $p = 0.000$) show that the push motive had a

significant positive bearing on satisfaction; therefore, hypothesis H₉ is significant. The tourists were satisfied with push items of sightseeing variety, relaxation seeking and fulfilling prestige. For instance, tourists enjoyed sightseeing touristic spots and exploring the region's cultural resources. This empirical evidence aligns with earlier research conducted by Battour et al. (2014; 2012) to find motivation as a determinant of satisfaction. They concluded that push and pull factors/motives positively influence tourist satisfaction. They identified push factors, “achievement, exciting, adventure, family togetherness, knowledge, education and escape,” and pull factors, “natural scenery, wide space and activities, shopping and modern atmosphere, as important factors affecting Muslim travellers to Malaysia.

The results for H₁₀; ($\beta = 0.056$; $SE = 0.067$; $CI = -0.078, 0.182$; $t = 0.837$; $p = 0.402$) show that pull motives have an insignificant effect on satisfaction; therefore, hypothesis H₁₀ is not significant. This contrasts with earlier research conducted by Battour et al. (2014) and other researchers that found pull motives to affect satisfaction significantly. In addition, the empirical findings align with earlier studies by Davour and Adongo (2015) that found that pull motives do not influence satisfaction. Overall, the pull factors didn't support the traveller's satisfaction. This means tourists were more satisfied with the push attributes than the pull attributes. The pull attributes could not draw the tourists to the destination and make them satisfied. This could be the result of many factors associated with the destination. The Ghana Tourism Authority should develop the key attributes to make it more appealing to international tourists.

6.8.7 Satisfaction and attitude

Empirically, the study examined and tested the hypothesis, H₁₁: Satisfaction has a positive influence on attitude towards a destination. The results for H₁₁: ($\beta = 0.503$; $SE = 0.038$; $CI = 0.421, 0.571$; $t = 13.277$; $p = 0.000$) show that satisfaction significantly influences attitude. Hence, the hypothesis is significant. This outcome agrees with a study by Huang and Hsu (2009) that found that the satisfaction of Chinese visitors positively affects their attitudes and revisit intentions towards Hong

Kong. This means that satisfaction strongly predicts tourist attitudes toward a destination or place. These findings also align with prior studies in various tourism contexts (Hasan et al., 2019; Hasan et al., 2017; Choi & Choo, 2016; Suh & Pederson, 2010). This means that international tourists that are satisfied with the Volta region's attributes will have a positive attitude towards the destination. It also implies that the tourists are also satisfied with the cognitive and affective attributes of the destination, which leads to a positive attitude towards the destination.

6.8.8 Attitude and behaviour intentions

The study tested the final direct hypotheses H₁₂: Attitude towards a destination positively influences tourists to return visit and H₁₃: Attitude towards a destination positively influences recommendation to others. The results for H₁₂: ($\beta = 0.578$; $SE = 0.050$; $CI = 0.471, 0.668$; $t = 11.459$; $p = 0.000$) show that attitude significantly positively influences tourists' return visit H₁₂ is statistically supported and hence significant. This result aligns with previous studies in the tourism literature that found a significant positive relationship between attitude and intention in leisure activities (e.g. Teng et al., 2015; Hsu and Huang, 2012; Ajzen and Driver, 1992). It is also following the studies by (Meng & Choi, 2019; Soliman, 2019; Quintal et al., Hasan et al., 2017; 2015; Huang & Hsu, 2009) that have shown that attitude facilitates behaviour like revisiting a destination. The study's findings show that tourists had a positive attitude towards the destination and saw it as interesting, good, and pleasant. The literature has revealed that a tourist's positive attitude towards a destination could mean a positive intention to revisit and recommend the destination to family and friends. For instance, a study by Choo et al. (2016) found that tourists with a positive attitude towards festivals will have a revisit intention towards such a place or destination.

The results for H₁₃: ($\beta = 0.378$; $SE = 0.057$; $CI = 0.263, 0.485$; $t = 6.625$; $p = 0.000$) show that attitude significantly positively influences recommendations to others; therefore, H₁₃ is statistically supported, hence significant. As indicated in the tourism literature, both revisit intention and recommendation to others are forms of

behavioural intention (Sylidis et al., 2017). And it has been revealed by the literature that attitude significantly influences behaviour intentions (Hasan et al., 2019; Bianchi et al., 2017; Hasan et al., 2017,) whilst also behaviour intention is the individual's willingness to revisit a destination and willingness to recommend to others (Yen et al., 2018). Therefore, based on the results, it implies that attitude significantly influences both revisit intentions and recommendations to others.

6.8.9 Moderation

The objective is to moderate the demographics factors on the destination image and behavioural intentions. To achieve this, the study conducted a moderation using SPLS-SEM (SmartPLS 3.3.6) to test the hypothesis:

H₁₄: Demographics (gender, age, education, income, state of visit and experience) factors moderation affect the relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions.

Only four (4) out of the fourteen (14) moderating effects are significant to determine the effect of demographics on destination image and behaviour. The results of these four are as follows.

- Gender had a significant moderation effect on destination image and return visit.
- Gender had a significant effect on destination image and recommendation to others.
- Education had a significant effect on destination image and return visits.
- Education had a significant effect on destination image and recommendation to others.

Further multi-group analysis of these four reveals the following. The results for gender showed a positive effect of destination image on return visits was significant for females ($\beta = 0.321$; $p = 0.000$) but insignificant for males ($\beta = 0.048$; $p = 0.428$). And also, the positive effect of destination image on the recommendation was

significant for both females ($\beta = 0.442$; $p = 0.000$) and males ($\beta = 0.166$; $p = 0.005$). This indicates that the positive effects of destination image on return visits and recommendations significantly vary in that the positive effect is higher for females than males. This result is in agreement with studies by Beerli and Martin (2004b) on research in Lanzarote, an island in Spain, that found that female tourists rated natural/cultural resources and general tourist leisure infrastructure in the cognitive domain of destination as well as the effective image significantly higher than their male counterparts. Also, in a study to moderate the role of the relationship between affective image and tourist expectation, Wang et al. (2016) found the effect to be significantly stronger for female tourists than for male tourists. This implies that females tend to have a positive image than males in their visit to the destination. From the empirical results, it could be seen that there are more females than males visiting the destination. Females constitute a whopping 60.3% of the total international tourists as against males making up 39.7%.

The results for education on destination image on behavioural intention show a significant positive effect for high school ($\beta = 0.523$; $p = 0.000$) and postgraduate ($\beta = 0.191$; $p = 0.010$) but insignificant for tourists with college or degree qualification ($\beta = 0.012$; $p = 0.814$). Regarding the effect on recommendation, the positive effect was significant for all three education categories (higher school, postgraduate and college or degree). But also, the positive effect of destination image on return visit varies among the three categories; the positive effect is higher for those with high school, followed by postgraduates and those with college or degree qualifications in that order. On the other hand, the positive effect of destination image on recommendation also varies. Those with high school are rated highest, followed by college or degree qualifications and those with a postgraduate qualification. This aligns with a study from the Royal Caribbean International (2013) that found China's cruise passengers to be highly educated, young, and middle-class (Sun et al., 2014).

6.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter was analysed based on the evaluation of the measurement and structural model. The measurement model results proved to have reliability and validity measures. The structural model also showed a satisfactory result because of its explanatory power. The empirical findings were discussed in line with the hypotheses and questions, and the results supported the proposed model. Out of the 13 direct hypotheses tested, 11 (H₁ - H₅, H₇, H₈, H₉, H₁₁ and H₁₂) were significant, and 2 (H₆ and H₁₀) were insignificant. Also, the moderating effect of demographic factors on destination image and behaviour intention showed that demographic variables affect destination image and behaviour intention. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is the concluding chapter and summarises the study, results of the objectives, conclusions and recommendations. In addition, the contribution of the study, its limitations and future directions are also presented. The chapter is organized as follows: The next section presents an overall summary of the study and the major results of the research objectives. Then, the study's major conclusions and recommendations (managerial/professional practice) follow. The next section draws on the contributions from academic and managerial perspectives and the study's limitations. Finally, suggestions for future research are provided.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Since the destination image introduction by Hunt (1971), Gunn (1972), and Mayo (1973), it has been a subject under discussion in academic studies (Pike et al., 2018; Beerli & Martin, 2004) showing its effect on behavioural intentions including the intention to recommend (Praya, Hosainy, Muscat and Del Chiappa, 2017), intention to revisit (Loi, et al., 2017) and intention to visit (Molinillo, Lebana-Cabanillas, Anaya Sanchez & Buhalis, 2018). Though the effect of destination image on behaviour intention is well researched and documented, there is yet to be a consensus on its impact. For instance, some researchers have found a positive impact (direct or indirect) of destination image on tourist intention (Caulagain, Wiitala & Fu, 2019). Others also found no relationship (Mun, Aziz & Bojei, 2018; Kock, Josiassen & Assaf, 2016; Pratt & Sparks, 2014).

The purpose of this study was to identify destination image and examine international tourist's perception, motives, attitudes, satisfaction and the impact

thereof on future behavioural intention (willingness to revisit, word of mouth intention and willingness to recommend) towards the selected destinations and tourist sites in the Volta region of Ghana. The study also moderated the effect of demographic variables on destination image and behaviour intentions. To achieve this goal, nine (9) objectives were set. These are

1. Determine how international tourists perceive the selected tourist sites in the Volta Region as choice destinations.
2. Determine the attitudes of international tourists towards the selected tourist sites in the Volta Region as choice destinations.
3. Determine how satisfied international tourists are with the selected tourist sites in the Volta Region.
4. Determine the extent to which tourist push and pull factors motivate international tourists towards visiting the selected tourist sites in the Volta region
5. Determine the extent to which international tourists are willing to pay a return visit to selected tourist sites in the Volta region
6. Determine the extent to which international tourists are willing to say positive words of about the selected tourist sides in the Volta region.
7. Determine the extent to which the international tourists are willing to recommend the selected tourist sides in the Volta region as tourist destinations to others.
8. Determine the relationship and the nature of that relationship (if any) between destination image, on the one hand, and tourist future visit intentions, word of mouth behaviour and willingness to recommend the selected tourist sites as a choice destination for tourists and.
9. Determine the roles of tourists' attitudes, motivations, demographic factors and familial factors in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions.

A thorough review of the extant literature on destination image, perception, satisfaction, attitude, motivation, behaviour intention and demographic variables was conducted. This led to the development of a conceptual framework presented

in the study. A further literature review showed that the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) had been widely adopted for predicting human behaviour in social psychology studies. Therefore, it was adapted for this study to help find answers to how tourists behave in the destination.

The philosophical assumption of positivism was identified for the study, and a quantitative research approach was used in testing the theory and developing the research hypotheses. The hypotheses developed for the study are as follows; H₁: Destination image positively influences tourists to revisit intentions; H₂: Destination image positively influences tourist recommendations to others; H₃: Destination image significantly influences tourist perception; H₄: Destination image positively influences pull motives; H₅: Destination image positively influences push motives; H₆: Perception positively influences tourist satisfaction; H₇: Push motive positively influence tourist perception; H₈: Pull motives positively influence tourist perception; H₉: Push motives have a positive influence satisfaction; H₁₀: Pull motives has a positive influence on satisfaction; H₁₁: Satisfaction has a positive influence on attitude towards a destination; H₁₂: Attitude towards destination positively influence on return to visit; H₁₃: Attitude towards destination positively influences on recommendation.

A survey was developed from the theory to find answers to the research hypothesis and questions. It was used as a measurement to assess the hypothesis. It was adapted from previous studies in the literature. A non-proportional stratified sampling was used to collect data from tourists, and 403 responded. Data were analysed using Smart PLS-SEM, and the results were discussed in relation to the existing literature.

7.3 MAJOR FINDINGS/RESULTS

A broader discussion was carried out on the research questions and objectives of the study. Details of the 9 research questions and objectives are as follows:

The first objective to “determine how international tourists perceive the selected tourist sites and destinations in the Volta region as a choice destination” was to find an answer to the first research question, “how do international tourists perceive the selected sites and destinations in the Volta region as a choice destination.” International tourists were asked about the destination's cognitive, affective and conative image. After the analysis, it was revealed that destination image had significantly positively influenced tourist perception. The results from the study showed that most tourists have a positive perception of the destination. The two constructs, cognitive and affective, were rated higher by tourists, but the positive response to the holistic image of the destination was higher than all the other constructs, namely affective, cognitive, and conative. Furthermore, the tourists had a positive perception of the environment, safety and hospitality, and friendliness of the people from the region. It can then be concluded that the destination image positively influences tourist perception as a choice of destination.

The second objective to “determine the attitude of international tourists towards the selected tourists’ sites and destination in the Volta region as a choice destination” was to find an answer to the second research question, “what are the attitudes of international tourists towards the selected tourist sites and destinations in the Volta region? The results showed that tourists had a positive attitude toward the attitude items. Most had a positive attitude towards the Volta region as a destination choice. Furthermore, a greater number found the destinations and sites interesting, with the remaining seeing it as a good and valuable place to visit. In conclusion, the tourists positively viewed the sites and destinations.

The third objective to “determine how satisfied international tourists are with the selected sites and destination” was to answer the third question, “how satisfied are international tourists with the selected tourist sites and the destination? The results showed that tourists were satisfied with the key destination attributes, namely the cognitive, affective, and conative elements. It was found that the majority were very satisfied with the destinations and sites that they visited. Overall, they were satisfied but had a bad/negative perception of the destinations resulting from the

pull elements of natural resources, heritage sites, history and culture, events, and activities.

The fourth objective to “determine the extent to which tourist push and pull factors motivate international tourists to visit the Volta region was to address the research question “To what extent do tourist push and pull factors motivate international tourists to visit the key destination of the Volta region? Researchers have used the push-pull framework to determine what motivates tourists to visit a destination (Giachino et al., 2019). It describes the underlying motive and behaviour of the tourist (Xu & Chan, 2016). While the push deals with internal desires, the pull is associated more with cognitive elements or factors. The study adopted seven items each in assessing the tourist push-pull motives among tourists that visit the destination. The results revealed that tourists positively perceived all the items measuring the push-pull motives. But some were rated higher than others. For instance, the most sought-after push dimension was the sightseeing variety, followed by those seeking relaxation, escaping from daily routine, and gaining knowledge. Thus, tourists were pushed to see tourist spots, explore the cultural beaches, and visit a foreign land. Some also wanted to be away from home and find thrills and excitement. The least of the push dimension was those fulfilling prestige. Thus, they didn’t want to visit a place their colleagues had visited. The pull motive, associated with cognitive elements, identified natural resources as the highest element attracting tourists, followed by adventure, variety seeking, and heritage sites. Events and activities were the least pull elements to the destination. Thus, tourists were pulled by the beautiful beaches, natural resources, weather/climate, and mountain climbing. It could be deduced that the tourists positively perceived the destination and sites but were unsatisfied with the key pull elements identified above.

In conclusion, it could be said that tourists were satisfied with the push elements of sightseeing variety and adventure and were not satisfied with the pull elements identified, like the natural resources and seeking relaxation.

The fifth, sixth, and seventh objectives are all measures of behavioural intention. They determine international tourist intentions to the destination and sites in the Volta region. But also comprises the cognitive, affective and conative elements, as Oliver (1999) revealed in the literature. Researchers have defined a tourist's future behavioural intentions as the individual's willingness to visit or re-visit a destination for vacation purposes and to recommend the destination to others (Yen et al., 2018). And many studies have revealed the measures needed to evaluate loyalty at destinations as an intention to revisit and recommend to friends and family (Stylidis et al., 2017; Chi & Qu, 2008; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

The fifth, sixth and seventh objectives to “determine the extent to which international tourists are willing to pay a return visit to the destination and sites of the Volta region” was to answer the question, “to what extent are the international tourist willing to pay a return visit to the selected tourist sites and destination and also recommend to others. Relating these measures to the cognitive, affective, and conative phases, it could be realized that the tourists had a positive perception of the destination and sites. At the cognitive stage, tourists had belief or positive perceptions of most items used to measure a cognitive image, as shown in the analysis. The items were again able to pull them to visit the place. It was identified that items like natural resources and adventure were key. Also, in measuring the affective items, it was realized that the tourists had a positive perception through the fun they experienced, the environmental conditions, and the enjoyment they got from the visit. The conative stage, associated with behavioural intentions, revealed that the tourists had positive intentions. They saw the destination to be a suitable choice for them. Tourists also positively perceived the holistic image of the destination and key attraction sites. The study revealed that tourists intended to revisit the destination and were willing to recommend it to others. Furthermore, it was found that they were more likely to recommend the destination than to repeat their visits.

The eighth objective to “determine the relationship and nature between destination image on the one hand and future visit intentions, word of mouth behaviour and willingness to recommend the selected sites and destination” was to answer the question “what is the relationship between destination image and word of mouth future visit intention and willingness to recommend the sites and destinations as a choice.” The literature has revealed that destination, directly and indirectly, affects tourists' future behaviour intentions (Khan et al., 2017). But according to Zhang et al. (2014), the destination has been found to influence tourist behavioural intention directly. The empirical results have found a destination the influence behavioural intention of tourists positively. It was found that destinations positively influence tourists to revisit intentions and simultaneously influence their willingness to recommend the destination to others. This goes with the proposition that the more favourable the cognitive and affective components, the more likely a tourist is to make a positive decision with regard to the destination in question (Lee et al., 2013; Stepchenkova & Eales, 2011; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008; San Martín & Rodriguez del Bosque, 2008; Pike & Ryan, 2004). As already revealed in the literature, the conative element comprises both the cognitive and affective elements. Tourists were more willing to recommend the destination to others than to revisit it. They were also willing to say positive words about the destination to others. This also indicates that though the destination was favourable, they were not overwhelmed or impressed with what they saw.

The ninth objective to “determine the roles of demographic factors in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions” was to answer the question, “What roles do demographic factors play in the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions? This objective is to moderate the role of demographics (gender, age, education, income, state of visit, and experience) on destination image and behavioural intentions. The literature review confirms that demographic factors affect tourist decisions and their behavioural intentions. The empirical results show that out of the 14 hypotheses tested, only 4 were significant. Indicating that the 4 affected the destination image and future behavioural intentions (future return visits and recommendations). Thus,

out of the seven (7) demographic factors, only two (2) had significant effects. These two were mainly gender and education.

Gender has been found to affect destination image and intention, as the literature reveals. For example, it was revealed from the studies that females tend to offer a more positive evaluation of the destination on return visits than males. But regarding recommending the destination, both females and males made positive recommendations. The results for education also show that high school leavers and those with postgraduate certificates had a positive evaluation than those with college or degree qualifications on their return visits. But on the other hand, all levels of education (high school, postgraduate, and college or degree holders) had a positive evaluation on a recommendation to others.

While the positive evaluation on the return visit varied among the tourists, those with high school certificates had a higher positive evaluation than the rest though the difference was insignificant. These analyses reveal that gender and education affected tourist decisions on destination image and behavioural intentions (return visits and recommendations to others).

7.4 CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

The study examined international tourists' perceptions, motives, attitudes, satisfaction and impact on future behavioural intention (willingness to revisit, word of mouth intention and willingness to recommend) towards the selected destinations and tourist sites in the Volta region of Ghana. This provides conclusions on the hypotheses tested and reported in Chapter 6. Table 7.1 is a summary of the conclusions.

Table 7.1 Conclusions on the hypotheses

Hypothesis	Sig @ (0.05)	Result (accept/ reject)	conclusion
H ₁ : Destination image positively influences tourist to revisit intentions.	0.000	Accepted	Destination image significantly positively influenced return visit
H ₂ : Destination image positively influence tourist recommendations to others	0.000	Accepted	Destination image significantly positively influence recommendation
H ₃ : Destination image significantly influences tourist perception.	0.000	Accepted	Destination image significantly positively influences tourist perception.
H ₄ : Destination image positively influences pull motives	0.000	Accepted	Destination image significantly positively influences pull motives
H ₅ : Destination image positively influences push motives	0.000	Accepted	Destination image positively influences push motives
H ₆ : Perception positively influences tourist satisfaction	0.169	Rejected	The effect of perception on satisfaction emerged to be insignificantly positive
H ₇ : Push motive positively influences tourist perception	0.040	Accepted	Push motive had a significant positive bearing on the perception
H ₈ : Pull motives positively influence tourist perception	0.003	Accepted	Pull motive emerged to have a significant positive effect on the perception
H ₉ : Push motives has a positive influence on satisfaction	0.000	Accepted	Push motive had a significant positive bearing on satisfaction
H ₁₀ : Pull motives has a positive influence on satisfaction	0.402	Rejected	Pull motive emerged to have an insignificant positive effect on satisfaction

H ₁₁ : Satisfaction has a positive influence on attitude toward a destination	0.000	Accepted	Satisfaction had a significant positive effect on attitude
H ₁₂ : Attitude towards destination positively influence return to visit	0.000	Accepted	Attitude significantly positively influenced return visit
H ₁₃ : Attitude towards destination positively influence recommendation	0.000	Accepted	Attitude significantly positively influenced the recommendation
H _{14A} : gender, age, education, income have a moderating effect on the relationship between destination image and return visit.	0.000 For gender and education	Accept for only gender and education	Gender & education moderate the relationship between destination image and return visit
H _{14B} : gender, age, education, income have a moderating effect on the relationship between tourist attitude and return visit.	0.000 For gender and education	Accept for only gender and education	Gender & education moderate the relationship between attitude and return visit
H _{14C} : gender, age, education, income have a moderating effect on the relationship between tourist attitude and WOM behaviour and WTR	0.000 For gender and education	Accept for only gender and education	Gender & education moderate the relationship between destination image and WOM behaviour and WTR
H _{14D} : gender, age, education, income have a moderating effect on the relationship between destination image and WOM behaviour and WTR	0.000 For gender and education	Accept for only gender and education	Gender & education moderate the relationship between attitude and WOM behaviour and WTR

First, it was found that tourists had a positive perception of the destination. Then, assessing the key destination constructs of cognitive, affective, and conative, the results showed that the environment, safety, cleanliness, access to tourism information, vegetation, an opportunity for climbing, hospitality, and friendliness of the people were key items that influenced the tourist perception towards the destination and sites.

Second, the study concludes that tourists were positive towards the destination. It was found that the majority of the tourists saw the destination sites to be very interesting based on the destination constructs of cognitive, affective, and conative.

Third, the study concludes that tourist perception of satisfaction was not positive. Most tourists were not impressed with the key attributes of the cognitive and affective conative measures they found. In addition, some measures relating to pull elements are weak and need improvement to increase tourist satisfaction.

Fourth, by adopting the pull-push motives to find how tourists are motivated, it can be concluded that both push-pull motives motivate tourists to visit the destination and sites. Though the tourists found a positive perception of the push-pull motives, they were unsatisfied with the pull motives (natural resources, adventure, history and culture, entertainment and events and activities). But they were rather satisfied with the push motives of sightseeing varieties and seeking relaxation. Fulfilling prestige was the least motive to satisfy tourists. This means the pull elements must be improved and promoted to attract tourists to the destination and tourist sites.

Fifth, in evaluating tourist behaviour intentions towards the destinations, the study adopted two measures (intention to revisit and recommendation of the destination to others). It was concluded that tourists positively perceived the destination through the cognitive, affective and conative elements. The tourists intended to revisit the place but were more willing to recommend it than revisit the destination. This could be because the tourists were not overwhelmed or not impressed with what they saw at the various sites and destinations.

Lastly, it could be concluded that demographic variables affected the destination image and behaviour intention. It was found that gender and education significantly positively affected destination image and behaviour intention. A multi-group analysis showed that females positively evaluated the destination image on return visits and recommendations. At the same time, destination image had an insignificant effect on male recommendations. The positive effect of destination

image on the recommendation was significant for all educational levels. Still, the positive effect of destination image on return visits significantly varied among the three educational levels. High school leavers and postgraduate certificate holders also had more positive evaluations than degree holders. The results also showed a positive effect of destination image on a recommendation for all three educational levels. Still, the effect of destination image on return visits varies among the three educational levels.

Based on the above conclusions on the hypotheses, the following modified conceptual framework emerged.

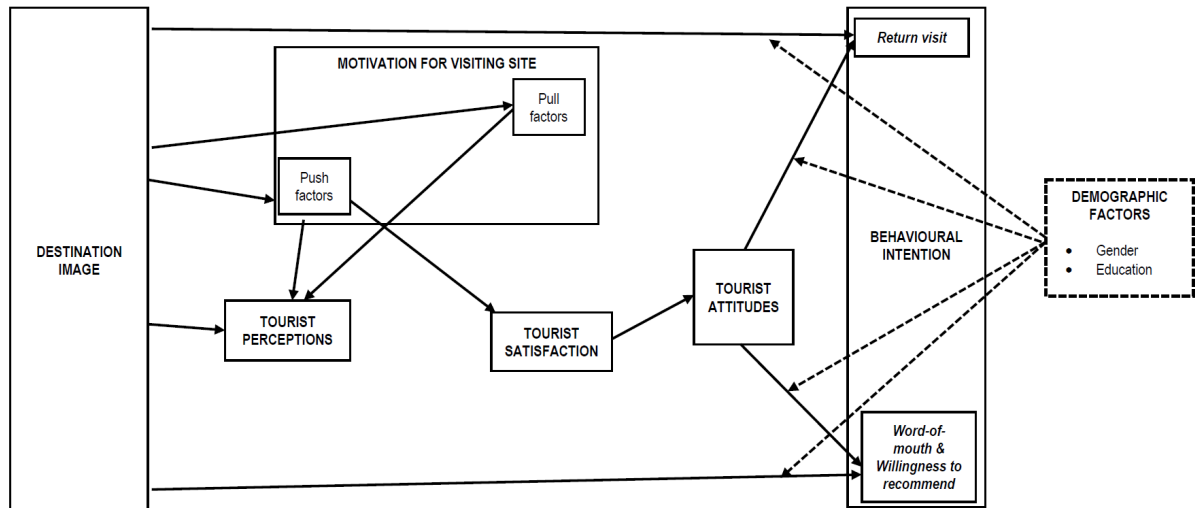


Figure 7.1: the modified conceptual framework

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The empirical findings have revealed many managerial implications that will address the study's shortcomings.

7.5.1 Destination Image Improvement

Regarding the destination image, the study results show that the cognitive and affective elements were the most rated by international tourists. Yet, natural resources like beaches, and natural reserves (pull elements) couldn't satisfy tourists visiting the region. Therefore, destination marketers should be able to influence the tourist's overall image perception. This could be done by ensuring that byelaws are utilised at the beaches, waterfalls, etc., to deter people from littering. In addition, there should be regular beach cleaning programmes by the local authorities and other organisations within the catchment areas to preserve the unique nature while improving on other pull elements that attract tourists to the destination. Also, activities or social programmes can be held at some key tourist sites to attract tourists.

7.5.2 Services Development and Partnership with Stakeholders

Tourists' satisfaction plays a major role in planning and marketing tourism products and services (Hossain et al., 2015). Practitioners and policymakers should therefore develop tourist products to satisfy tourists. This can be done by improving on the areas related to the attributes identified within the destination and having strengths over others. At the same time, those weak attributes, especially the pull elements identified in the study, could have a devastating impact and need improvement. In this case, the destination managers should do well by training staff such as tour guides and other service providers in the hospitality industry to deliver quality service to customers and promote a positive image of the destination through the pull elements to improve tourist satisfaction. These tour guides should also master or be able to interpret languages such as Spanish, French, Hausa etc., as most of the international tourists come from Europe, America and other African countries.

Also, based on the study results, the region has abundant heritage sites that seem dilapidating. To ensure that these are in good condition, protected and promoted

to attract tourists, there should be mutual agreements between the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA), Municipal Authorities and other international organisations to develop the sites. Also, the traditional authorities should agree on the best way to promote rich and cultural activities, especially regional festivals. These activities seem to be neglected but, when handled well, could help attract tourists to the destination. Thus, cultural tourism is one key activity the authorities should focus on looking at the number of festivals that exist in the region.

7.5.3 Development of products/facilities

The study results have also brought to the fore the need to improve the attributes of the destination. It has been made known that tourists are willing to recommend the destination to others than making a revisit. Though they enjoyed their trip, this may be because they still expected to see more of the attributes of which infrastructure is no exception. Therefore, there is a need for basic infrastructure and facilities (trained tour guides, accommodation, lodging facilities, restaurant facilities, water and electricity, and roads) to be improved. For instance, road networks and transportation should be improved to enable tourists to access the attraction sites. There is also the need to add value to the existing attraction sites to increase tourist satisfaction and revenue. In addition, innovative approaches should give tourists a memorable tourism experience (MTE) once they visit the attraction sites and return to their countries or destinations. A memorable experience, according to Kim et al. (2012), cited in Hosseini, Cortes and Almeida (2021:2) is defined as “a tourism experience that is positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred.” Also, the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) should partner with professional bodies in rebranding the destinations to attract tourists. For instance, key destinations and sites like Keta Beach, Amedzofe, and Afadjato South can be packaged and promoted.

The destination managers/GTA should make it their responsibility to promote the beaches and wildlife, as tourists seem unaware of the potential that abounds the

region. Even though tourists seem to enjoy the place, it has been noticed that most tourists were not excited due to certain lapses. For instance, no nightlife, bars, restaurants or casinos seem to exist. The development of such infrastructure and activities should be encouraged within the destinations. All the pull factors identified from the study should be used in the promotional materials to promote the destination. This will create awareness of the potential that abounds in those key areas.

7.5.4 Development of websites and ICT

A central website should promote the key tourist sites and attractions identified as having potential. This has become very important as tourists collect most information from websites. This should apply to all destination managers, including tour operators. Research by Torres (2010), cited by Leung et al. (2013) and Howison, Finger and Hauschka (2015)), shows that 84% of leisure travellers use the internet as a planning resource. Apart from tourist spots where printed media is useful, all advertisements should have electronic or social media linkage to reach a larger audience or tourists who wish to visit the place. All the advertisements should contain or centre on the pull elements identified in the study to have a great impact. Tourists have resorted to technological applications in searching for hotels, directions to tourist sites, and tourism products and services like restaurants, bars, night club, etc. Therefore, social media activities must be intensified. Also, using technological gadgets can solve the problem of tour guides' inability to communicate with tourists speaking different languages. With that, the tour guides can translate diverse international languages to English to make sure tourists understand all about the attractions.

7.5.5 Segmentation and positioning

The study has shown the effect of socio-demographic variables on destination image and behaviour intentions. The results show that the majority of the tourists were females (60.3%) and males (31.7%). Also, 46.2% of those who visited had a

college degree, with 30% having a postgraduate degree, 22.6% reaching high school, with just 1.2% having primary education. All in all, the youth (between 25-34) made up 42.7% of that who visited the destination. These results can help facilitate segmentation and positioning strategies. The socio-demographic variables like age, gender, education and cultural differences as a result of tourists coming from places like Europe, America and other African countries can be used to develop tourism products tailored to the specific needs of groups that visit the destination. The destination marketers and tour operators could develop a promotional campaign which can be used to target different groups and also use to distinguish the destination from others and gain a sustainable competitive advantage.

7.5.6 Development of a tourism marketing plan

Based on the study, the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) should be able to develop a coherent tourism marketing plan for the region. The plan will have to contain key planning elements like marketing strategies, promotional campaigns, product development, and the channel that can be used to reach the audience. In addition, the plan will show how the destinations and sites could be marketed to gain a competitive advantage.

7.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study has made contributions to practice, theory and policy. The theoretical and academic contribution is found with the contextualization of empirical evidence to knowledge discussed below, while the managerial contribution is the recommendation made to practice and policy.

7.6.1 Contribution to theory and knowledge

This research contributes to the existing literature in tourism studies, destination marketing, and behavioural economics in several ways. Firstly, this research contributes to the existing body of knowledge on destination image and its impacts on tourist behaviour in the rural developing country context by providing empirical insights into how international tourists perceive the destination image of the Volta Region which is a largely rural area in Ghana.

By focusing on the Volta Region of Ghana, the research provides unique insights into how specific regional attributes contribute to the overall perception of a destination. By analyzing the future behavioural intentions of international tourists, the research contributes to continued theory development regarding tourist behaviour and destination decision-making processes. The research also offers a case study material for future research in tourism and international travel with specific reference to Ghana, a developing country context. The study provides new empirical insights into the factors influencing destination image, in the context of the Volta Region in Ghana which has led to the development of a new fit for purpose or context specific model of the destination image.

Lastly, the research has created an expanded understanding of the relationship between destination image and future behavioural intentions of international tourists that could be used to challenge or confirm existing theories.

7.6.2 Contribution to practice

The research has various practical contributions including the following. The findings of this research are of direct benefit to tourism industry stakeholders in the Volta region of Ghana and other regions, including local governments, tourism boards, travel agencies, and businesses. Firstly, this study has led to the identification of key elements of the destination image of tourism sites in the Volta region that drive tourist attractions, which can be used to tailor marketing strategies. In other words, for marketers in the Volta Region of Ghana, the research results highlight what aspects of the Volta Region are most appealing to tourists

and should therefore be emphasized in promotional materials. Specifically, the research can be used by tourism marketers and businesses to design marketing strategies that are effective at attracting international tourists to destinations like the ones found in the Volta Region of Ghana. The same research results can be used in enhancing tourist experience because the understanding of the future behavioural intentions of international tourists provides guidance on how to enhance the visitor experience, ensuring repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth recommendations. Lastly, the findings can be beneficial for destination management organizations (DMOs) in the Volta Region to strategically manage and develop their tourism products and services. Insights into future behavioural intentions of international tourists, could help in forecasting tourist inflow and making necessary preparations. Furthermore, the cleaning of the beaches and waterfalls recommended in the study will curtail the littering of the destinations resulting in achieving clean water and sanitation, which is goal six (6) of the SDG development goals contributing to the Decent Work and Economic Growth (8) components of the SDG. Practically, the study can support and contribute to the development and implementation of the destination marketing strategy for the region.

7.6.3 Contribution to policy

This research could inform policy making related to tourism in the Volta region of Ghana, nationally and globally. The policy contributions include the following. National, regional and local government and government entities in Ghana can utilize the findings of this research to develop policies that encourage tourism growth. In other words, the study provides insights that can guide how current national, regional and local tourism promotion policies in Ghana could be fine-tuned or adapted to increase the appeal of the Volta Region to international tourists. The study also highlights the economic value of tourism in the region, prompting the need for policy changes to further support and enhance this sector. The are recommendations made in this study for the government to improve the

tourism infrastructure and other elements impacting the destination image in the Vola region.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Even though the study makes a significant contribution to academic research and professional practice, the findings are subjected to some limitations. However, according to Mariani and Baggio (2020), limitations support the study and make it strong once the shortcomings that interest future scholars and academics are addressed. The following limitations were discovered.

First, the study adopted a quantitative method by using a structured questionnaire with response options fixed and preventing international tourists from expressing themselves and stating other observations that are not captured in the survey but which will be very important in shaping destination planning. Such an approach restricts them and doesn't make them follow the questions being asked, especially if it doesn't go the way they prefer. Also, without the respondent's view could mean varied interpretations of the questionnaire items, which could lead to manipulated results.

Second, the study also seeks to moderate demographic variables and aspects of family factors on destination image and behaviour intentions. The dimensions of demographic variables were identified, but major items constituting the family factors are limited in the study. In this case, findings relating to family factors were not adequate to address the intended purpose.

Third, the study focused on only international tourist perceptions that visited the destination. The views expressed by these tourists could be different from domestic tourists. In this case, most suggestions cannot reflect the whole tourism activities within the region. This can affect the development of future plans as domestic issues will not be factored in the planning of tourism activities.

Fourth, the study was limited to one region, so some of the problems identified may not be applicable at the national level. In this case, the generalisation of findings is limited.

Fifth, data was collected during the country's peak of the Covid-19 pandemic season. As a result, all borders were closed, restricting tourists from visiting, and it prolonged the time to get questionnaires completed on-site of the destinations and attractions sites selected. This may have affected the delay of the results in one way or the other. It also corresponds to the assertion by Gkritzali et al. (2018) that results vary depending on the season in which the data was collected.

7.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study's findings and limitations identified suggest the need for future research. Therefore, the following are proposed for future research and directions.

First, the study was directed at tourists' perception of the destination and key attraction sites, focusing on their post-travel and on-site activities relating to the destination. The results showed that tourists positively perceive the destination image and are willing to recommend it to others. Future research can examine how memorable tourism experiences (MTEs) influence tourist perception of destination image and behavioural intentions and how they shape destination marketing in the region.

Second, a qualitative approach can be applied in seeking tourist perception of the destination image and behaviour intentions. This approach will help explore and understand tourists broadly. In this approach, tourist beliefs and opinions could be assessed directly.

Third, a longitudinal approach to collect data to understand the complexities in tourist attitudes and behaviour can be made in the future.

Fourth, future studies can also apply the concept at the domestic level to know what motivates local tourists to visit the key attraction sites, their perceptions and behaviour intentions (favourable and unfavourable).

Finally, considering the comprehensive nature of the conceptual framework and theories adopted for this study, further research can be applied to other regions to understand how tourists perceive the various destinations. And also, at the national level, with a larger sample size compared to the case of the “Destination Ghana” project, which the president of Ghana has launched to attract one million tourists from the UK, North America, the Caribbean and Europe by 2024. This could help determine Ghana’s image and, at the same time, help to improve the marketing activities and results. Without knowing the tourist behaviour, marketing strategies will fall short of expectations.

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APPENDIX 1

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

DESTINATION IMAGE OF SELECTED TOURIST SITES/DESTINATIONS IN THE VOLTA REGION OF GHANA AND THE FUTURE BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

Sample Participant Letter

Department of Business Studies
Central University of Technology

Dear Respondent,

My name is Matthew Opoku Agyeman-Duah and a PhD student at Central University of Technology in South Africa. As part of completing my programme at the University, I have to submit a thesis/dissertation.

The study aims to find out international tourist's perception of key tourist sites/destinations and how their views will influence their intentions to return to the Volta region of Ghana. The study tries to understand international tourist's behaviour to assist tourism officials in making well-informed planning and development decisions and also service providers to increase visitor satisfaction.

As a current tourist or someone who has visited the key destinations/sites, I would be most grateful if you complete the questionnaire for me. It is made up of 7 parts and it will take you between 15-20 minutes to finish.

Confidentiality is assured with regards to data that are collected. Also, identification of respondents is not needed hence no name is required. Your completed



questionnaire will be taken that your permission is granted for your information to be used in the study.

Thank you for the cooperation and willingness to take part. Do not hesitate to contact me should you have any reservations or wish to obtain a copy of the results.

Many thanks for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Matthew Opoku Agyeman-Duah'.

Matthew Opoku Agyeman-Duah
(Researcher)

My Contact Details

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QUESTIONNAIRES FOR INTERNATIONAL TOURIST VISITORS

This questionnaire is an academic exercise intended to **assess the impact of international tourist's perception of destination image on their future behaviour intentions towards selected tourists' sites and destinations in the Volta region of Ghana.**

You have been selected to respond to it and the information you provide is solely meant for the research. Your response to the questions will be kept confidential.

Thank You.

Please complete this section by ticking the applicable box

SECTION A: (DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION)

1. What gender are you?
 - a) Male []
 - b) Female []

2. Kindly indicate your age?
 - a) 18-24 []
 - b) 25-34 []
 - c) 35-44 []
 - d) 45-54 []
 - e) 54 and over []

3. Kindly indicate your marital status?
 - a) Married []
 - b) Divorced []
 - c) Separated []
 - e) Single []
 - Widower []

4. What is your current level of education?
 - a) Primary []
 - b) High School
 - c) College/Degree
 - d) Post graduate []

5. What is your current occupation?
 - a) Student []
 - b) Civil servant []
 - c) Self -employed []
 - d) Businessman other (specify).....

6. What is your income level?
 - a) Under USD 20,000 []
 - b) USD 20,000- 49,000 []
 - c) USD 50,000 – 74,000 []
 - e) USD 75,000- 99,000 []
 - f) USD 100,000- 199,000 []
 - g) USD 200,000 and higher []

7. Who are you traveling with?
 - a) By myself []
 - b) With family []
 - c) With friends []
 - d) With a tour group []

8. What is your past travelling experience to Volta Region?

- a) First-time visit to Volta region [] b) Repeated visit to Volta Region []

9. What is your residential place?

- a) Europe [] b) North America [] c) South America [] d) Northeast Asia
 e) Asia [] f) Taiwan [] g) Mainland China [] h) Africa [] i) Oceania []
 j) Others (Specify).....

SECTION B: TOURIST ATTRACTION SITES AND DESTINATIONS

This section identifies the key tourist sites and destinations in the Volta region.

PLEASE SELECT WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING TOURIST ATTRACTION SITES /DESTINATION YOU HAVE VISITED IN THE VOLTA REGION.

VOLTA REGION			
S/N	DESTINATIONS	TOURIST ATTRACTION SITES	TICK
1	Ho West District	Mountain Gemi	
		Ote Falls	
		Ayafie waterfalls and Craves	
2	Ho Municipal	Adidime Waterfalls	
		Volta Museum	
3	Afadjato South District	Monkey Sanctuary	
		Aflambo Falls	
		Snake Farm	
		Mountain Afadjato/Tagbo Falls	
		Tafi Abuife Kente Weaving	
		Caves and Iron mines and crafts	
		Tiizo-Soba waterfalls	
4	Hohoe Municipal	Wli Agumatsa Falls	
		Afadjato Conservation Area	
5	Adaklu District	Adaklu Mountains Hikes	
		Adaklu Mountains	
		Kalapka Resource and Game Reserve	
6	Agotime-Ziope District	Kente Weaving Village	

7	Keta Municipal	Fort Prinzestein	
		Slave Market	
		Lighthouse	

SECTION C: DESTINATION IMAGE

This section explores your **PERCEPTION** of the selected tourist sites/destination in the Volta region, where Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree= 2, Neutral=3, Agree= 4, Strongly Agree= 5

S/N		SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
COGNITIVE IMAGE						
1.	The tourist destination offers personal safety					
2.	The tourist destination offers good quality life					
3.	The tourist destination is clean					
4.	The tourist destination has a good name and reputation					
5.	The tourist destination has high quality accommodation.					
6.	The tourist destination has high quality infrastructure					
7.	The tourist destination has a exciting night life and entertainment (eg nice bars, restaurants, shows, casinos etc)					
8.	The tourist destination has good shopping places					
9.	The tourist destination has varied cuisines (foods)					
10.	The tourist destination is exotic and interesting					
11.	The tourist destination has interesting cultural attractions					
12.	The tourist destination has great variety of wildlife					
13.	The tourist destination has great vegetation					
14.	The tourist destination has spectacular landscape					
15.	The tourist destination has unusual ways of life and customs					
16.	The tourist destination has good weather					
17.	Great Beaches					
18.	Available of hotels/lodgings/campings					
19.	Convenient to get tourism information					
20.	Relaxing/avoidance of daily routine					
21.	Interesting historical monuments and relevant events					
22.	Nice opportunities for biking/fishing/hunting/climbing					
23.	Easily accessible from permanent residence					

24.	Family oriented destination					
25.	Friendly and hospitable local people					
26.	Good value for money					
27.	Unpolluted/unspoiled natural environment					
28.	Satisfactory customer care on behalf of various professional (eg waiters, hotel managers, tour guides)					
AFFECTIVE IMAGE						
29.	The tourist destination is gloomy and exciting					
30.	The tourist destination is distressing and relaxing					
31.	The tourist destination is fun					
32.	The environmental condition is favorable					
33.	The destination is enjoyable					
CONATIVE IMAGE						
34.	The tourist destination was always a dream-destination to visit sometime during in my lifetime					
35.	Expresses myself as a suitable vacation choice					
36.	Helps me put in use knowledge that I have.					
37.	Was always/ constitutes a personal goal for vacations					
38.	As choice, it stems from a personal need of mine that had to be fulfilled					
39.	Has evoked a persistent wish to visit it					
40.	Encapsulates positive attributes that help in the growth of my personality					
41.	The tourist experience makes me believe that my vacations there may be the best reward/gift I can offer myself					
<p>This section explores your PERCEPTION of the whole Volta region, where Very Negative=1, Negative= 2, Neutral=3, Positive= 4, Very Positive= 5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">HOLISTIC IMAGE</p> <p style="text-align: center;">VN VP</p>						
42.	Rate the overall image of Volta region as a tourism destination					

SECTION D:

MOTIVATION

This section highlights on your **PULL AND PUSH MOTIVES** towards the selected destination in Volta Region. Kindly select your response where Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree= 2, Neutral=3, Agree= 4, Strongly Agree= 5

PUSH MOTIVE ITEMS

S/N		SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
FULFILLING PRESTIGE						
1.	To increase my social status					
2.	To visit a place that my friends have been to					
3.	To visit a destination that would impress my friends and family					
4.	To seek solitude in a foreign land					
ENHANCING RELATION						
5.	To enhance communication with local community					
6.	To exchange custom and traditions					
7.	To participate in new activities					
8.	To appreciate natural resources					
SEEKING RELAXATION						
9.	To be away from home					
10.	To relax physically					
11.	To find thrills and excitement					
ENHANCING SOCIAL CIRCLE						
12.	To have enjoyable time with my travel					
13.	To meet new people					
14.	To visit friends and relatives					
SIGHTSEEING VARIETY						
15.	To fulfill my dream of visiting a foreign land/country					
16.	To sightsee touristic spots					
17.	To explore cultural resources					
ESCAPING FROM DAILY ROUTINE						
18.	To satisfy the desire to be somewhere else					
19.	To visit a place that I have not visited before					
GAINING KNOWLEDGE						
20.	To increase knowledge about foreign destination					
21.	To experience new different lifestyle or traditions					
22.	To see how people of different cultures live					

PULL MOTIVE ITEMS

		SD	D	N	A	SA
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S/N		1	2	3	4	5
EVENTS AND ACTIVITIES						
1.	Activities for Entire Family					
2.	Festivals and Events					
3.	Entertainment					
4.	Shopping					
5.	Nightlife					
6.	Amusement/Theme Parks					
EASY ACCESS AND AFFORDABLE						
7.	Affordable Tourist Destination					
8.	Safe Destination					
9.	Convenience of Visa					
10.	Value of Money					
HISTORY AND CULTURE						
11.	Historical Castles					
12.	Culture, Arts and Traditions					
13.	Outstanding Scenery					
VARIETY SEEKING						
14.	Traditional Food					
15.	Outdoor Activities					
16.	Exotic Atmosphere					
ADVENTURE						
17.	Weather/Climate					
18.	Mount Climbing					
19.	Desert Camping					
NATURAL RESOURCES						
20.	Natural Reserves					
21.	Beautiful Beaches					
HERITAGE SITES						
22.	Heritage sites					

SECTION E: SATISFACTION

This section explores your **SATISFACTION** with your visit to Volta Region (destinations). Kindly select your response where **NOT SATISFFIED=1, SATISFIED=2, VERY SATISFIED=3**

S/N		NS	S	VS
		1	2	3
1.	The experience is exactly what I need			
2.	How would you rate your satisfaction, considering what you expected?			
3.	How would you rate your satisfaction compared with your time and efforts spent in visiting the selected destination			
4.	Overall, how satisfied were you with your visit to the Volta region			

SECTION F: ATTITUDE TOWARD DESTINATION

This section explores your **ATTITUDE** towards the selected destinations in the volta region as tourist destination.

Kindly select your response where Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree= 2, Neutral=3, Agree= 4, Strongly Agree= 5

As a tourism destination, I think that selected image;						
S/N		SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Very Good					
2.	Very Valuable					
3.	Very Pleasant					
4.	Beneficial					
5.	Interesting					

SECTION G: BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

I. INTENTION TO REVISIT

This section explores **INTENTION TO REVISIT** Volta region in future. Kindly select your response where Strongly Disagree =1, Disagree = 2, Neutral=3, Agree= 4, Strongly Agree= 5

S/N		SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	If I revisit Ghana my first choice will be Volta Region					
2.	I consider revisiting Volta Region in the future					
3.	The probability that I will visit Volta region in the future is high					

II. INTENTION TO RECOMMEND

This section explores your **INTENTION TO RECOMMEND** Volta Region as destination Kindly select your response where Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree= 2, Neutral=3, Agree= 4, Strongly Agree= 5.

S/N		SD	D	N	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	I will encourage those around me to come visit Volta Region					
2.	I will recommend Volta Region as a destination to other people					
3.	I will say positive things about Volta Region to other people					

APPENDIX 2

TOURIST ATTRACTION SITES IN VOLTA REGION, GHANA



Mount Gemi



Fort Prinzenstein



Wli Water Falls



Amedzofe Canopy Walk



Mount Afadja



Tafi Atome Monkey Sanctuary



Atorkor Slave Market



Keta Lagoon Resort



Snake Farm



Adaklu Mountain



Aerial View of Afadjato



Volta Lake



Volta Serene Hotel, Ho



Keta Sandy Beach



Tagbo Water Falls