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DOCTORAL THESIS

A STUDY OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES' IMPACT ON VIETNAMESE DOMESTIC TOURISM CONSUMPTION PATTERN

by

The Son Ngo MBA

Supervised by: Dr. Mizanur Rahman, Dr. Edna Ijeoma Stan-Maduka

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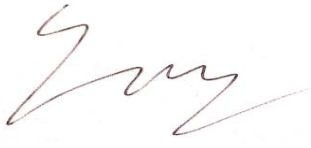
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ABSTRACT

In this paper, the researcher attempted to determine the list of dependent and independent variables associated with the objective of exploring the influence of demographics on consumer behaviour, in the context of Vietnamese domestic tourists. After evaluating the different methodologies, the researcher concluded that conducting an empirical study would be the most suitable approach to address the research question. Through applying factor analysis, the researcher has identified three statistically significant factors: 'Preference of destination', 'Involvement of family' and 'Source of information'. According to the indications from the regression analysis, all of the initial demographic variables were found to have affected directly or indirectly (through post hoc variables) the identified consumption factors, but none was found to be presented in all three dependent factors.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
ABSTRACT	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the study.....	1
1.2. Significance of the research	2
1.3. Objectives of the research	3
1.4. Significance of the study	3
1.5. Research hypotheses.....	4
1.6. Structure of the study	4
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	6
2.1. Introduction	6
2.2. Consumer behaviour	7
2.2.1. Consumption-based theory: rational, impulsive and psychological.....	7
2.2.2. Related finding in consumer demographic	9
2.2.3. Demographic variables	14
2.2.4. Psychological influence	40
2.2.5. Other related concerns	54
2.2.6. Overview of the decision making process	57
2.2.7. Depiction of Vietnamese consumer characteristics	60
2.3. Tourism service industry	72
2.3.1. An overview of the industry	72
2.3.2. The economic and social influence of tourism industry	74
2.3.3. Review of related tourist studies.....	77

2.4. Conceptual framework of the research	82
2.5. Hypothesis of the research	84
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	86
3.1. Introduction	86
3.2. Research methodology	86
3.2.1. Research paradigm.....	87
3.2.2. Research assumptions basis: Ontology and epistemology	88
3.2.3. Philosophical stance.....	89
3.2.4. Research approach	90
3.2.5. Research design	91
3.3. Accessibility issue	113
3.4. Ethical considerations	114
3.5. Reliability and validity	115
3.6. Research budget	116
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS.....	117
4.1. Overview of the data collected.....	117
4.1.1. Summary of problems in questionnaire responses	117
4.1.2. Descriptive analysis	119
4.2. Inferential statistics	128
4.2.1. Cronbach alpha test result.....	128
4.2.2. Summary of EFA findings.....	129
4.2.3. Regression result.....	134
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	140
5.1. Regarding the result theoretical aspect	140
5.1.1. The influence of gender	140
5.1.2. The influence of age	141
5.1.3. The influence of education level.....	142
5.1.4. The influence of family status	142

5.1.5. The influence of income earner and social class	143
5.1.6. Conclusion	144
5.2. Regarding technical and methodology aspects	145
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION	148
6.1. Limitations of the research	148
6.2. Recommendations for future study	148
6.2.1. In terms of research result.....	149
6.2.2. In terms of research methodology	150
REFERENCES	151
APPENDICES	184
Appendix 1. Coding of questionnaire survey used in analysis	184
Appendix 2. Formula used to calculate sample size	188
Appendix 3. Vietnam demographic profile recorded in 2017	189
Appendix 4. A simplified research methodology framework.....	189
Appendix 5. Illustration of the three components: research paradigm, research methodology and research design	190
Appendix 6. EM Estimated Statistics.....	192
Appendix 7. Distribution of Employment status categorized by Profession	193
Appendix 8. Multicollinearity test result with Gender.....	193
Appendix 9. Multicollinearity test result with Age.....	194
Appendix 10. Multicollinearity test result with Geographic.....	194
Appendix 11. Multicollinearity test result with Employment Status.....	195
Appendix 12. Multicollinearity test result with Education Level	195
Appendix 13. Multicollinearity test result with Social Class.....	195
Appendix 14. Multicollinearity test result with Profession	196
Appendix 15. Multicollinearity test result with Travel Frequency	196
Appendix 16. Multicollinearity test result with Role as Decision Maker.....	197
Appendix 17. Multicollinearity test result with Role as Income Earner.....	197
Appendix 18. Multicollinearity test result with Family Status	197
Appendix 19. Item-Total Statistics of dependent variables	198

Appendix 20. Communalities table of the first model (35 variables).....	199
Appendix 21. Communalities table of the second model (30 variables)	200
Appendix 22. Result of Velicer’s Map for the original model with 35 variables	200
Appendix 23. Result of Velicer’s Map for the 2 nd model with 30 variables.....	202
Appendix 24. Parallel analysis for 35 variables, sample size 450	203
Appendix 25. Parallel analysis for 30 variables, sample size 450	204
Appendix 26. Retake on the factors extracted and reliability for the first model using direct oblimin method with variable ‘Destination choice 2’ taken out	205
Appendix 27. Result of the factor loading for the chosen model of 30 variables	206

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1. Sample structure distribution by age and gender	119
Table 4.2. Employment status by education level crosstabulation table	120
Table 4.3. Distribution of employment status by age	121
Table 4.4. Crosstabulation table between number of children and marriage status	123
Table 4.5. Distribution of travel frequency by the position as a household income earner	125
Table 4.6. Distribution of travel frequency by family income	126
Table 4.7. Distribution of Decision maker role by position as household income earner	126
Table 4.8. KMO and Bartlett's Test result of the models	129
Table 4.9. Structure of factor extracted and reliability for the first model.....	130
Table 4.10. Structure of factor extracted and reliability for the second model	132
Table 4.11. Model Summary with Preference of destination as a dependent variable	135
Table 4.12. ANOVA for a model of Preference of destination as a dependent variable	135
Table 4.13. Coefficients with Preference of destination as a dependent variable .	135
Table 4.14. Model Summary with Destination distance and attachment as independent variable	136
Table 4.15. ANOVA for model with Destination distance and attachment as independent variable	136
Table 4.16. Coefficients with Involvement of family as a dependent variable	136
Table 4.17. Model Summary with Involvement of family element as independent variable	137
Table 4.18. ANOVA for model with Involvement of family element as an independent variable	137
Table 4.19. Model Summary with Source of information as a dependent variable	138

Table 4.20. ANOVA with Source of information as a dependent variable.....	138
Table 4.21. Coefficients with Source of information as a dependent variable	138

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Collective influence of social class to lower- and higher-class consumers' psychological and behavioural	33
Figure 2.2. Model of demographic variable	40
Figure 2.3. Model of Motivational Process	44
Figure 2.4. Maslow's Hierarchy of needs.....	46
Figure 2.5. Consumer decision-making.....	57
Figure 2.6. The simplified consumer decision-making model	58
Figure 2.7. The extended consumer decision making process model	59
Figure 2.8. Vietnam's Consumer Expenditure	61
Figure 2.9. Inflation rate of Vietnam for period 1996 - 2019.....	64
Figure 2.10. Average monthly income of Vietnamese consumers recorded for period 2008 - 2017	65
Figure 2.11. Vietnamese connected spender within different income	68
Figure 2.12. Depiction of tourism leakage	75
Figure 2.13. Conceptual framework of the research	83

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

According to MacInnis and Folkes (2010), there has been an exponential growth of academic research concerning the demographic impact on economic phenomena, for almost 60 years. Nonetheless, it is reasonable to believe that this research field will not shrink anytime soon. The critical reason for this is the dynamic of the global population's structure and scale, not to mention the countless adjustments and changes in consumers' behaviour and attitudes, to cope with the changes in socio- and economic environment. Therefore, findings that are associated with the past context of consumption activities and business environment would no doubt gradually lose value over time, even without changing the targeted population as a subject of the study. In addition, disruptions of any scales that affect the population's demographic profile would derail the existing social and economic conditions, thus leading to new topics to be explored.

Beside the overwhelming number of the quantitative research tied with consumer behaviour and the adoption of statistical techniques (Peighambari et al, 2016), there has been an increase in both, the quantity and the systematic application of the qualitative approach, since 1980s (Coast et al., 2009). The adoption of the mixed method was very limited, with fragmented outcomes (ibid). This limitation was demonstrated by how underwhelming the mixed method of demographics focused studies have been executed (Bryman et al., 2004; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003) and there haven't been yet any coherent findings (Mondain et al., 2004; Mondain et al, 2007). The conflict between the quantitative results has been recognized in Snyder's paper (1991): no significant impact was found (Exter, 1986) or positive correlations were proven through pairing specific factors of demographics to certain aspects of the consumption, e.g. age toward loyalty (Hsu, 2000; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997).

The theoretical value of researching tourism has only been realized no sooner than the latter half of the last century. Therefore, knowledge in this field has not reached the advanced level as in the other economic divisions. Most of the findings related to the external environment and the elements of tourism were relatively obsolete (Engle, Kollat

and Blackwell, 1968; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Middleton, 1988), while there is a lack of contemporary valid discoveries. Since the knowledge of consumer behaviour was built for a universal template, mismatches are expected, when applying different cultural and social settings. Moreover, there were not many studies with a narrow focus on the Vietnamese domestic tourism, and if there was any, the relevant data was very outdated (the latest empirical research of a similar topic and background was carried out 8 years ago). A re-assessment is necessary to keep track of the progression in the Asian market, and specifically the Vietnamese segment.

The Vietnamese tourism industry has enjoyed a steady growth in volume and sales for years. According to recent reports from the Vietnamese government, there was a significant flow of visitors in the domestic tourism market. The amount rose from 25 million travellers in 2009 (Bui and Jolliffe, 2011) to 62 million in 2016, which accounts for 65% of the total population (Nguyen, 2017). In addition, domestic spending has risen since 2016, and gradually reduced the gap created by the inbound segment (WTTC, 2016, 2017, 2018). The latest available records from Vietnam National Administration of Tourism (2019) revealed the number of domestic tourists to be 80 million in 2018, whereas the international counterparts were nearly 15.5 million.

1.2. Significance of the research

The researcher expected to address the gaps persisting in the research activity of the Vietnamese literature in the tourism field, through addressing the gaps in the following aspects:

- There were no sufficient published papers in the tourism sector compared to other sectors in the Vietnamese academic archive, and those that addressed the domestic tourism as a targeted subject are even much less. Meanwhile, the available data that came from confidential data of market research companies or public international papers were all outdated.

- The majority of students' theses were designed to associate with a particular enterprise as independent case studies, while the other larger-scale research (e.g. scholars' articles, internal documents...) are established in a macro perspective for the

whole industry. In addition, both types of studies share the linear approaching style (i.e. giving subjective opinions and ignoring the correlation between factors), as well as the ambiguity in methodology and framework. Furthermore, the majority, if not all, of prior research projects from both undergraduate and postgraduate students often stand on the traditional viewpoint, when it comes to rounding the literature system: solely quoting opinions and statements, with less to no critical analysis and logical flow of reasoning. The “solutions” proposed by these studies followed similar linear templates, without much of practical value contribution. More than often, the authors’ perspectives were presented from the view of an economic politician that gave out guidelines at a macro scale, rather than tying in with the specific issues placed upon the topic.

1.3. Objectives of the research

This research aims to achieving the following objectives:

- Establishing the final selection of independent variables through well-defined and evaluated demographic traits, and attempting to determine an “identification profile” of the major groups of travellers;
- Identifying and re-establishing knowledge of the meaningful aspects of consumption activities among Vietnamese domestic tourism consumers;
- Evaluating the tendency and degree of influence between the demographic variables and the aspects of consumers’ behaviour through statistical models; and
- Proposing compatible solutions that take advantage of the knowledge gained from the findings made through the research.

1.4. Significance of the study

In this research, the researcher would contribute to a new perspective into the common subject of “influence of demographic variables on consumer behaviour”, in the context of Vietnamese domestic segment. The distinction between this research approach from the previous records was the effort to cover most of the demographic variables, according to the conventional theoretical framework towards the consumer buying model. The approach was also adopted in the holistic term, rather than focusing on a single particular destination. The researcher expected that, through the findings of

this research, it would be possible to set up a continuous expansion systematic database that serves for future topics that target the same specific segment. Other than the re-evaluation of the theoretical gap, the researcher also expected to address a clear framework in the methodology and to outline a comprehensive empirical model for similar future studies.

1.5. Research hypotheses

Based on the topic of this research, the main research question to be addressed is: How does each variable of the demographic profile affect the Vietnamese consumer when they make decisions on domestic travel activity?

Apart from the sub-questions needed to clarify the involvement concepts (demographic, consumer behaviour, tourism activity...), the main research question can be translated to the equivalent statistic term as testing for the hypothesis of whether demographic variables influence consumer behaviour:

H_0 (Null hypothesis): There is no relationship between demographic variables and consumer behaviour in the Vietnamese domestic tourism segment

H_1 (Alternative hypothesis): There is a correlation (either positive or negative impact) that can be observed between demographic traits as an independent variable and the consumers' behaviour as a dependent variable.

1.6. Structure of the study

This thesis is organized as a continuous structure of five chapters, each with a specific objective that ultimately contributes to addressing the research questions under investigation. So far, Chapter 1 has addressed the overall concern for the existence of the research and the necessity to conduct it. From this basis, the researcher organized the related literature and performed an evaluation and discussion of the significant contributions of these perspectives, as well as their limitations in the prospect of creating the gap that will be addressed through this research. This approach is maintained for both, the literature review section (chapter 2), and the research methodology (chapter 3). Besides the discussion of the literature on consumer behaviour, a portrait of the Vietnamese market, tourism service and the domestic segment of the specified market

were also included in chapter 2, which is then concluded with the conceptual framework for the study. Statistical analysis of both descriptive and advanced methods was presented in chapter 4. By the end of this chapter, the decision to whether to retain or reject the investigated hypothesis could finally be made. Chapter 5 officially summarized the results of this thesis, combined with a final discussion of the research findings. The discussion led to the formulation of recommendations for tourism service providers, to better understand the Vietnamese domestic consumers and to further suggest opportunities for future research, in terms of theoretical and methodological aspects.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

According to the definition of the Oxford dictionary, the behaviour is described either as the reaction of living organisms towards “particular situation or stimulus”, or simply as the way things operate. Regardless of whichever meaning is used, they are both suitable for labelling the consumer’s sequence of action and attitude, happening in the decision-making process. It is also important to note that the focal points of these denotations are the implicit systematic and the prolonging characteristic (Solomon *et al.*, 1995; Gabbot and Hogg, 1998). Moreover, the complexity incurred when interacting with the environment and the evolving of consumer’s characteristics are the reasons that make this phenomenon dynamic and difficult to be fully comprehended.

While the principal concepts and assumptions of the Economic Man and Rational Choice Theory are still relevant in conventional discussions and among the teaching of microeconomic literature, this linear portrait has been criticised for the overestimation in consumers’ awareness and subjective confidence, while disregarding the significance of impulsiveness and the unexpected. The manifestation of mood, emotional status and situational context into the individual’s awareness are the sources of unconscious decisions most of the time. For that, multi-factors examination and psychological perspectives have been addressed as additional approaches in leading consumer’s behaviour research (beside the usual approach of dividing customers into targeted groups or isolating the effect of the decision-making process). The demographic indicators list varies according to the purpose and the field of the study, but the general design often includes age, gender, income, occupation and educational level.

In this study, the researcher attempts to establish a prediction model for the behaviour of Vietnamese people toward the domestic tourism service using their demographic variables. In order to achieve this goal, the research will be developed in two stages: the first one is identifying potential component variables and their interrelationship in light of the new economic and social contexts; the second phase includes evaluating their degree of contribution to each exhibition of the consumption behaviour. These two aspects would be examined from earlier studies while linking it to the topic under study.

In addition, an introduction to the general setting of Vietnamese consumers as well as the tourism industry can also be expected afterwards. The final theoretical findings of this chapter would be used as a benchmark to compare with empirical results from the findings of the collected data (chapter 4), as demonstrated in chapter 5.

2.2. Consumer behaviour

2.2.1. Consumption-based theory: rational, impulsive and psychological

Before widely assimilating it to a field of social science, the concept of “consumer behaviour” was used for the collective process from the recognition of desires until their satisfaction through the consumer products, services, ideas or experiences (Solomon, 1992). Numerous models and approaches tried to explain consumer behaviour, and there is no doubt that more will be under development, given the continuous changes in economic and social environments. According to the scientific view that appreciated the logical-driven actions, the rational perspective provided a solid basis, and through different variations, it has asserted a certain degree of influence.

The earliest and most basic perspective has projected the origin of consumption activities as the individual’s aim toward creating or receiving a specific outcome, known as the “Economic man” (Persky, 1995). The idea is later criticised with alternative belief rather than aiming for optimum choices, which is the satisfaction of the act that encourages consumption activities (Simon, 1997), e.g. the experience of shopping. Cognitive and Behaviourists are the other two variants loosely constructed on rational behavioural view. Models developed under the Cognitive doctrine attempted to address and evaluate the magnitude of external elements reflected in behaviour, describing consumers as “information processors” (Ribeaux and Poppleton, 1978) that actively seek input from environment and society (Stewart, 1994). On the contrary, Behaviourism logic proposed a causal relationship with the external leads to behaviour and proposed that individuals do not entirely perceive the full effect of outside components (Loudon *et al.*, 2010).

Beside the above-mentioned philosophies, other approaches related consumer behaviours with spontaneity and another psychological status. Despite receiving

attention for a long time (Muruganantham and Bhakat, 2013), the application of Impulsive Theory is very limited even within the borderline of the retail sector (Clover, 1950; Abratt *et al.*, 1990; Block *et al.*, 1999; Park and Lennon, 2006; Chang *et al.*, 2011). According to Stern (1962), an impulsive purchase is a complementary interpretation, beside the rational perspective that shares no connection with the concept of decision-making. As its name suggests, it illustrates consumers' actions to be heavily influenced by external stimuli and completely spontaneous. Psychological theory, on the other hand, is more difficult to give out a clear categorization. Even though the psychological factors identified with Sigmund Freud's three facets (Id, Ego and Superego) or with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs could be progressed from the rational origin, their exposition in behaviour is rather abstract and sometimes even hidden from the subjects.

Yankelovich and Meer in their 2006-article recalled the early criticism made from 1964 over the usage of demographic traits as a basis for marketing research, thus, proposed value, taste and preference to cover more influences in comparison. Compared to the previous settings, the authors insisted that the persistent use of demographic variables in segmentation has resulted in an even more fragmented market. However, they also established later that similar flaw could be expected in the construct of "attitudes, values and expressed preferences", meaning that application of "psychographic" is also judged to produce diminished value for any businesses' decision levels (either directly or indirectly related to consumers and products). Furthermore, no matter which approach is being used, there will always be a fair degree of traits left unrecorded, which is the minority out-of-the-norm manifestations.

In the end, regardless of how many attempts have been made to capture the nature of the consumption activities, they are all based on past data. Even primary information tailored to the need of new research also suffers from time lagging from the moment it is acquired, to when results built on it are announced by official documents. Therefore, each type of categorization, due to their own standards, can only be said to generate results to a certain creditability level, and need to be examined by their appropriateness to the context, instead of establishing a clear separation of either being right or wrong.

In summary, it would be adequate to state that consumer behaviour is made from a group of conditional actions, both rational and impulsive based, which are only triggered when an individual becomes aware of self-desire and starts to seek for a solution to appease the unbalancing status triggered by the stimulation.

2.2.2. Related finding in consumer demographic

2.2.2.1. *Variation in chronological-based division system*

Past academic and applied research has introduced a common classification system, using the demographic cohort that is loosely based on consumer's age criteria – the Generation X, Y and Z (preceded by the Boomers). In such sense, each cohort is comparable to an age range, with the distinction of being anchored to a fixed timeframe and baring the influence of the era's socio and economic impact. However, this categorization has been recently reviewed and criticized for making “catchy headlines” (Marconi, 2001), rather than adding any further explanation to the distinctive behaviours. The early cohort cluster was established based on the characteristics template of Western society, which is a restriction for wider applications; meanwhile, the successors of Gen X were introduced with a more comprehensive setting, while still lacking the necessary focus to make a meaningful distinction. Due to its rigid establishment, the development of this approach will always require replacements for the outdated “generations” after a certain period, but the hurdle for new clusters is that modern consumers' characteristics are far more complex to fit in any narrow descriptions as to their previous peers.

According to Lewis and Bridger (2001), disruptive periods existed in history, where momentous social and cultural changes occurred. According to the authors' findings, when each “checkpoint” emerges, the transition of balance in the spending power takes place between the two groups of consumers, and the “New Consumers” gain more bargain supremacy, higher demand for transparency and arising awareness for the authenticity of items. In another statement, the authors declared that many of the Old Consumers based their choices on the convenience and conformity; meanwhile, New Consumers are readily looking for alternative options, once the attribute(s) of their previous purchases (location, type of products/services, method) lose authenticity and

reduce to be a commodity. To sum up, younger consumers are expected to be less loyal to brands than their senior counterparts.

As addressed earlier, theory establishment can only account for the majority of records, thus any phenomenon that occurred out of the literature justification is not convincing evidence to reject their validity. In addition, characteristics that used to describe certain groups of targeted consumers do not mean that they are exclusive for said groups and not for the others. Firstly, uniqueness might gain popularity as young consumers' concentrate on self-esteem desires, but this is not entitled to this consumer group alone. The search for authenticity is only applicable in the context where the prior experience of the purchase was proven more important than the purchased item. On the other hand, convenience is still the leading attribute in many purchasing decisions, especially for the frequently used commodities. Transparency and availability of information flow have enabled New Consumers to get more involved in the creation of products since it helps saving time and gaining personal advantages or simply for enjoyment reasons (Lewis and Bridger, 2001). Finally, there is also concern over the complexity of determining the moment when the said checkpoint that the authors proposed might occur. Other than that, the diverse nature of consumers' characteristics over time and the improvement in adaptabilities further detach consumers from the simple notion of just New and Old as the authors have suggested.

In the past, consumers' knowledge was restricted solely to what manufacturers and advertisers tell them via mass media. This situation had taken a turn, when the emergence of new media channels has enabled the connectivity between people and the rise of various sources of information. Nevertheless, it is also essential to note that easier accessibility to information does not always help saving effort and time. Instead, it resulted in consumers raising the threshold for higher expectation of quality and value and being more sceptical towards any delivered messages.

In the early 2000s, academic studies refused to acknowledge "green consumers" (Hutchins and Young, 2005), due to how confusing and abstract the terms "green" and "sustainability" implied. Not long afterwards, serious deterioration in environmental conditions which have become visible to the mass consumers has triggered their

awareness, and geared toward conservation and sustainable activities, prompting the rise of ecological consumption trend (Parsons and Maclaran, 2010). Sustainable purchasing, however, is a broad spectrum that identifies ethical investments, the purchasing of fair-trade products as well as the popular priority for “green” products consumption (Harrison *et al.*, 2007).

2.2.2.2. Consumer involvement and Impulsive buying

Many authors have applied subjective classification by grouping certain facets of behaviour into specific combinations of demographics, or by making connections to certain phases in the decision-making process. One example of such approach was presented in Dimanche’s paper (1995), where the author explored four aspects of the tourism sector: ego involvement, loyalty and commitment, family decision-making, and novelty seeking. Among these traits, one is related to external factors (family-decision making), and the other three are internal characteristics of individuals. However, “loyalty and commitment” would belong to a situational effect, if it were not the case of first-time travel. “Novelty seeking” attribute in tourism is considered a prevalent concept, as it often establishes the fundamental of tourists’ inspiration. As a matter of fact, the unique experience for a trip stimulates consumption arousal (Dimanche *et al.*, 1995); therefore, the initial and popular motivation of travelling is to satisfy the desire for something different from the usual setting (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). In the most basic form, Bello and Etzel (1985) confirmed the existence of fundamental differences even among vacationers, who visit the regular place with those who seek different destinations. However, it is highly unlikely that every trip a person takes would be in a different location, and the purpose of the trip would not always be justified as for recreation purpose (e.g. business or medical trips...).

Some of the major researchers use the term ‘involvement’ to understand how and why consumers form attachments with ranges of product and service (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985a; Slama and Tashchian, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Richins and Bloch, 1986). Douglas (2006) stated that involvement could be seen via the affectionate level an individual show for some products, and by the importance given to the purchase

decision. Previously, individual's involvement was noticed as a process with its own level of intensity, direction and duration of personal engagement (Andrews, Durvasula and Akhter, 1990). Intensity degree refers to the time required for evaluation between alternative options and different products' attributes, in addition to the sheer increase in demand and buying behaviour (ibid). The second aspect – direction of engagement – demonstrates the processing of information, which in turn translated as coding and improving knowledge and understanding. Finally, the duration of engagement as the authors' explained is the pursuing based on convincing arguments, which is rather ambiguous and seemingly unrelated to even the literal meaning of "duration". The alternative justification for this element should be that of the longitude of time, where the previous two stages take place. To a certain extent, the two concepts "individual engagement" and "decision-making process" can be used interchangeably for the consumption activities. It is also appropriate to assume that the individuals' engagement in purchasing also receives influence from personal characteristics, lifestyle, and external factors (reference group), as suggested by Laurent and Kapferer (1985).

In parallel, impulsive buying has also been recognized as an essential trait in consumption activities. Nevertheless, the decision to distinguish and assemble buying activities into impulse and non-impulse categories tend to obscure the likelihood that almost anything can be bought impulsively (Stern, 1962; Kollat and Winlett, 1969; Shapiro, 1973). It was also a common belief to associate impulsive buying with products/services types that do not require too much involvement and are priced at a low tier (Assael, 1985). Another issue, according to Rook (1987), derives from the lack of an adequate framework to support empirical research in this subject direction. Due to that, it has been unresolved whether to consider impulsive buying similar to "unplanned" purchase or not (with support of the idea in Nesbitt, 1959; Bellenger *et al.*, 1978; Engel, Blackwell and Kollat, 1978; Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; while opposed arguments found in Stern, 1962; Kollat and Willett, 1969). Past documents also pointed out to the downside of large-scale models: the problem is either in determining the conditions that the arousal directly involves (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Howard, 1977) or in being depicted in a vague relationship with too broad concepts (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968).

Research on impulsive behaviour was commonly approached from the perspective of business, hence theories were developed to understand the “mechanic” of the behaviour, as well as how to trigger and utilize it for commercial context. Although only vaguely stated, Rook’s opinion (1987) hinted at the resemblance between impulse buying and lifestyle traits, and that it can be observed in both males and females. However, it would be hasty to equate impulsive buying – a spontaneous attribute of buying behaviour – to lifestyle, stable conduct of behaviour that has been shaped for a long time to become a norm. Therefore, unless consumers consistently do most of their purchase in a whim, which is an unrealistic assumption under any context, it is exaggerating to justify these two features as one. Considering the author’s suggestion, the notion may be derived from the subjective perception of the impulsive buying frequency. Furthermore, the study also indicated that impulsive buying tends to be a bad habit, since its forceful and urgent sense, once triggered, would push the decision to be made without a thorough evaluation, resulting in negative emotions (e.g. regret) that consumers are only aware afterwards.

Another aspect of impulsive buying that previous authors also try to verify is whether it is possible to produce a prediction model based on the consumer given profile, of which evidence was found strong in much of recent research. This topic interest can also be found in Rook’s work (1987) but at the time, he couldn’t find any evidence for the connection between impulsivity and any other demographic variables. Later on, Bellenger *et al.* have established a correlated relationship between age and impulsivity, notably during the age group between 19 and 39, in their paper published in 1978. The negative correlation between age and impulsive purchase is also supported in some other records (Jalees, 2009; Shahjehan *et al.*, 2012; Nadeem *et al.*, 2016); while the impact of gender is found to be inconsistent between both genders (Bashir *et al.*, 2013; Virvilaite *et al.*, 2009; Mai *et al.*, 2003). Income is also deemed as a prominent indicator, where impulsive behaviour is expected more for financial proficiency consumer (Bashar *et al.*, 2012; Parmar and Ahmed, 2013).

2.2.3. Demographic variables

Demographic features include categories of variables that define the individualistic identity, and to a certain extent determine the difference between personal value and rational basis. The evidence that supports this idea can be found in the work of Lancaster *et al.* (2002) who confirmed the governing role that demographic variables exert over the type of products/services that consumers want, the method of distribution and their assessment over the purchases. However, demographic variables have yet to receive due attention when compared to the overwhelming presence and the practical application value that other elements deliver (e.g. resident environment for establishing identity; external stimulus, psychological process when studying impetus decisions). Besides, there are less academic contributions for research of purely demographic within the contemporary literature system. Moreover, the adaptation of demographics in empirical research has reached the point of “saturation”, whereby these variables have become the default norm as the base condition of hypothesis testing than the subject of interests.

The choice to include components to make consumers’ demographic profile varies between authors depends on the industry and subject of the study. While some may consider age, gender and marital status as the sole variables (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2008), others have expanded the boundaries to include further characteristics: geographical location, sexual orientation, religion, racial and ethnic background... In this study, the researcher attempted to include as many categories as possible, concerning both the direct components and the remote factors correlated to the tourism sector context. Also, the latest findings from recent papers were also brought into discussion in light of the present circumstance. These outcomes include the expansion of age to include biological age and cognitive age, the importance and necessity of whether to consider of “gender identity”; the in-depth discussion of income, the social status and the link between them; and the interaction between demographic variables and psychological effects and related factors.

2.2.3.1. Age/ stage in life cycle

Brief review of age classification structures

Studying the influence of biological age could be approached from two directions: the first one is the difference based on a fixed numeric value between different groups (normally structured into multiple continuous age range clusters), and the second view is based on the stages of the life cycle, i.e. infant, teenager, middle age and senior. The visibility of separate divisions from quantitative age structure brings about the sense of a scientific instrument. However, the logical background to establish those ranges is more than often not declared. The clear-cut boundary that previous authors have assigned to each age range occasionally leads to the fragmentation of a possible phenomenon that may transcend the borderline of two consecutive age clusters. On the other hand, ranges that are designed too far apart between each threshold might also overlook the meaningful interval with significant incidents. Albeit not explicitly stated, any findings utilising the definitive age range also implies possible compatibility to the corresponding stage in people's life, e.g. 36 – 45 age group can be assimilated as a middle-age group.

Overall, there is a common basis in studying age based on the radical differentiation between population, namely the stereotype phases of young and old consumers. This arrangement contains many theoretical gaps incurred from the over-simplification of a consumer lifespan into just two opposite margins. Even the inclusion of further in-between groups as a variation of the middle age period could only alleviate to a certain extent this drawback. Moreover, this qualitative structure is also built on the researchers' subjective bias as the previous numeric system and adds further another ambiguous layer. The only advantage of applying this method is possibly a visualization of the links between age groups to the phenomenon under study.

In summary, regardless of which segmenting system is to be adopted, it is beneficial for the clarity and validity of the method, with a further explanation given for defining each category and reasoning its relation with the other demographic variables and the psychology process (Gregoire, 2003). As people mature, their cognitive ability also advances with newly acquired knowledge and experience. Combining it with chronological age, individual behaviour will be adjusted accordingly over time.

However, the role and significance of cognition is rarely mentioned in studies. One example of this phenomenon is noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2009), in which the authors suggested that people tend to hold onto most of their interests when they grow up, and refine them through interacting with the overall cultural and subcultural influence coming from the same cohort and relevant reference crowds.

In addition, from the perception that defines cognitive as the result of a learning process, cognitive level represents the people's maturity as well as their educational level and accumulated experience acquired through interacting with the environment. In terms of consumption domain, shoppers' cognitive are presented in the regulation of habits and activities in compatibility with the different items of interest. Besides, individual value concepts are also modified with the manifestation of new demands, while reducing or eliminating the old ones continuously. When the digital era was blooming, attention was paid more towards the generation concept rather than being tied with the numeric indication of age. The relative meaning in this label "generation" implies a broader border of people with similar demographic and social characteristics, rather than just those identified with the same cohort as has the previous system indicated.

Baby Boomers, Generation X, Y, Z

Baby boomers' cohort enlists those born after the Second World War and were recognized as the most experienced consumer groups who have gone through different transition periods in cultural, social and technological innovation. More importantly, they were also considered as the first target to be identified as consumers in modern marketing. A debate argued that the cognitive age of this group is often lower than their actual biological age, an example of "youthful self-concept" (Szmigin and Carrigan, 2000, 2001; Moschis, 2003). Their immediate successors, Generation X, born between 1966 and 1976 were identified as the big spender with a strong desire to express personal identity. Individualistic and sceptical are the two core personalities for the people of this group (Martin Evans *et al.*, 2009). Meanwhile, Generation Y (or the Millennials) were born during the time where "information revolution" and "net connection" emerged and were thus associated with the attributes of "materialistic", "brand-oriented", "risk-takers" with a tendency of indulging in extreme "hedonism". Another popular belief is

that members of this group are also perceived to be less cynical than their predecessors (Evans, Jamal and Foxall, 2010).

Many articles and papers described the millennials as the “digital natives” (Newman, 2015) or “tech savvy” (Olenski, 2017), overlooking the fact that they were born in the period where Internet and Information Technology just started to emerge. Meanwhile, their successors - the next generation of customers - haven’t been paid enough attention. Recently, the next generation of consumers, named as Z, has attracted the interest of researchers, due to their influence on spending, estimated to be ten times more than what they actually spend (Childwise, 2006). Born into the era of “digital and technology bursting” with a higher status, Z consumers inherited many traits of the Millennials (Gen Y consumer), while developing a keen sense on receiving and applying innovative concepts. This audience group also expresses high priority on the mobility and convenience properties and tends to emphasize the socially-oriented quality (RRD Marketing, 2018). As previous documents have implied, each succeeding generation will gradually replace and fill in the previous one’s role in the market. During the 2000s and up until the early 2010s, Generation Y is still identified as the main target of every marketing business. Nevertheless, the balance of attention has been gradually shifting towards Generation Z as “soon-to-be” the next major consumption force.

As previously mentioned, this segmentation method has slowly lost the function value due to the change in balance and structure of generation cohorts, but further reason would be how biased this technique projects on the targeted subject. The distinctive logic to divide between each generation, though being clearly defined and identified, contains inner flaws: members at the end period of the previous generation tends to share more similarities with their successors than their peers of the early or middle stage, e.g. late Gen X to Y, and late Gen Y to Z (Twenge, 2006). More importantly, the overall findings concerning the generations X, Y and Baby Boomers are extracted mainly from customers in the developed countries in America and Europe. When applied to other regions, namely other regions developed and developing countries, the gaps that surfaced vary in scale owing to the historical conditions and/or the underdeveloped in economic, social and cultural conditions. Not to mention that this classification system is a type of

“cherry-pick” selection of the most visible characteristics for each cohort groups, which also disregards the impact of external factors and overlooks the individual self-adjustment over time.

Biological age and cognitive age influence

The increased in chronological age exposes people to the deterioration in the functioning of both, their physical (weakening state of sensory and mobility as well as low immunity to diseases) and mental capabilities (perception ability, working memory and process information capability). As a result, the concern of the well-being status would theoretically emerge as related to the increase in age (and is expected to be in a positive tendency), which then leads to the pressing needs of searching for medical treatment products/services. For a considerable portion of the mass, the newly surfaced demand may thoroughly restructure the individual priority of consumption order compare to their earlier stage of life.

Mental capabilities can be placed in a close relation with the physical condition but at the same time, it can be also viewed as independent factors of the functioning psychological attribute. In this regard, evidence indicated a connection between the working memory’s ability in the corresponding efficiency and learning and problem-solving capabilities (Roedder-John and Cole, 1986; Cole and Houston, 1987). Despite this seemingly observable cause-effect relationship, there are more concerns involving the influence of memory deficiencies than what was suggested. Findings from previous experiments showed weaker capabilities of recalling and recognizing advertisement messages and a lesser degree of searching for information for old people (Furse, Punj and Stewart 1984; Roedder-John and Cole 1986; Cole and Houston 1987).

Emotional values have been widely confirmed to have deep affection for the consumption habit of all consumers in general, and noticeably during the decision-making progress. Regardless of people’s recognition, it is undeniable that consumers more or less end up adapting from interaction with the environment, while retaining some of “self-concept and social constraint” values (Moschis 1994). Emotional status of old people might be as well gravely different from when they were young and tend to have a sceptical and negative attitude toward marketing promotions. This outcome is

consistent with the characteristic's portrait of the majority of Generation X and beyond. Furthermore, as people turn old, they incline toward dwelling into their past life (reminiscent feeling) and display less adaptability to the new social and cultural trending. Thus, it is possible to expect the same transformation at the latter generations who might develop the same traits when they grow to pass mature state.

On the other hand, the notions of old and young are relative concepts and only meaningful when being examined at a specific point in time. This distinction is especially useful in conceptualizing that older consumers also used to be young consumers thus, they are accustomed to the technology and innovation of their era. Also, there is always people who are situated in the period of transition between these two groups. Therefore, it is not rare to find within the members of the newly joint "older consumers" consumption behaviours resembling to the contemporary generation than their senior counterparts and predecessors. Nevertheless, this is not to undermine the existence of individual with capabilities in learning and adaptability that can catch up with the latest trend. In light of that, the new category population identified as "cyber senior" was introduced among other examples to reflect this incident.

In another development, many scholars have provided evidence of the adaptability of older consumers to products of information technology innovation as their younger counterparts, with specific focus placed upon the differences in the extent of involvement (Wai San and Yazdanifard, 2014). This perspective has led to two suggestions. The first one is the direct challenge to the stereotype notion that certain characteristics are reserved for the young generations, while senior people are labelled as "conservative and sluggish". The second suggestion is the difference in using technology between the old and young generation consumers should also be inspected for the purpose (for its basic utility or additional entertainment value), the frequency and the degree of usage (when it is necessary or occupying all-time in a day).

In general, modern consumers' demands have become more sophisticated than before. Aside from the high standard to the utility function of the items, equal attention if not bigger is paid toward their additional values. In addition, the intangible values (status exhibition and satisfaction experience) were strongly promoted and gradually

turned out to be the major factor in the purchasing decision. Further consideration was also placed in terms of corporate responsibility regarding the environment and social conditions. These turns of events have rendered the concept of brand loyalty less stable among the new generation of consumers.

The second meaningful change in chronological age involves social and economic phenomena. Despite not being considered as a default relationship, disposable financial capabilities were alleged to have a positive connection with age. While some may become wealthier as the result of investments accumulated through early life career, others might have achieved it by means of saving. The point is at certain periods, many of the late middle age and pensioner consumers have possessed considerable spending ability compared to the other age groups in the economy. Therefore, the shopping basket tends to shift toward a self-indulgent purpose, in response to the free time and disposable income for a portion of senior customers (Bloch, Ridgway and Dawson 1994). This is also considered a means of self-reward to compensate for the time they have not been able to enjoy when younger.

Earlier, there have been debates over the level of influence from different “sources of information” between television and print media; however, the situation has been disrupted by the appearance and exponential development of social networks with support from globalized advancements of smart devices. These new foundations have proven to be distinctive like no other platforms before, and gradually shaped up a new lifestyle of young and old people alike. In contrast to the young counterpart, senior clients gradually withdraw their involvement in social roles and thus, have more available time (Gregoire, 2003). However, they tend to have more difficulty in searching for their merchandise’s information, due to the deterioration of cognitive and learning abilities (ibid). At the same time, the detachment from career also reduces significantly the number of social relationships, leading to a greater advisory dependence from closed reference group as family members and friends (Phillips and Sternthal 1977; Stephens 1981; Moschis 1994). In lesser cases, it has also been documented that some retirees might as well develop new relationships with companions in the local community.

The case of Vietnamese consumers

Nearly a century of colonization has brought fundamental changes in Vietnam's economic and social structure from the previous imperial setting. As for the positive side, Vietnamese people were exposed to the Western culture and the comparatively advanced lifestyle during this period. The local wealthy class and some of the middle class were quick to welcome and imitate the Western lifestyle, including changes in perspective and consumption habits. Soon after, the groups that were supposed to be "Baby Boomer" and "Generation X" ended up being recruited by the national liberty army or sent to work and learn in the Soviet Union and other Socialist countries. Those who returned from overseas normally brought back sizeable assets, and often acquired substantial benefits. Many members of this group later made up part of the Vietnamese middle or higher social class. If choosing the milestone as the after-wars period, then the correspondent of "Baby boomers" for Vietnamese consumers lagged behind their counterparts from Europe and America about 30 years, which is 1975 compared to 1945 (FE CREDIT, 2016). The direct Vietnamese generation afterwards was the Millennials, which took up some of the general characteristics addressed for this group. In summary, consumers in Vietnam and other neighbouring ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nation) countries are examples of not following the same generation cohort structure portrayed in Western studies, as mentioned earlier.

For this study, the researcher decided to break down the population of Vietnamese consumers into specific age ranges. Based on the subject of the topic, the sample of the survey will be arranged into age clusters that correspond to a specific stage of standard people life: 18 – 25, 26 – 35, 36 – 45, 46 – 55, 56 – 65 and over 65. The first group consists of young consumers, most of which are still at the final stage of learning and started applying for jobs, while others might have already accumulated few years of working experience. The second group identifies people who have been working for several years and may as well achieved certain positions in career path; also, many also began to settle their own families (this can also be said to apply for few members from the first age group as well). Afterwards comes the stage of stable careers as well as the point of entering middle age phase. The last two stages mark the point where people

reach the senile phase, initiating the transition to retirement. Despite this outline, exceptional cases still exist such as freelancer, temporarily unemployed and fully unemployed that can be also found among the labour age (18-60).

2.2.3.2. Gender and gender identity

Gender accounts for influences in consumer behaviour with the function of “shaping social and cultural agendas” yet has not received sufficient appreciation so far (Catterall *et al.*, 2005; Casey and Martens, 2007a; Martens, 2009). Similar to age, it is also possible to make a connection between gender and other demographic elements, to better explain the behaviour of certain sub-categories. In 2004, Giles gave an example of the combination between class and gender – the “housewife” – and claimed it to be the first attempt to assemble women of different contexts “under the same banner”. Afterwards, a demonstration of combining class and gender to explain female selections and their progress personality had been demonstrated in Silva’s paper in 2007.

Differences between male and female consumers can be also extended further from their distinctive information process style. Males are described to process information in a selective manner, or “heuristics cues” method: only a certain part of conveying information that strikes enough impression would be noticed, while the rest is dismissed. On the contrary, women are deemed as “comprehensive processors”, meaning that they are capable of absorbing all the information delivered and break down into details (Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991; Darley and Smith, 1995). However, these remain just stereotyped beliefs that are based on the frequency of the phenomenon perceived and cannot be positioned as the representative characteristic for every member of each gender.

The fact that women account for most of household buying decisions (Gardner, 2008) has been rendered obsolete since the emergence of the concept of gender equality, which has brought about changes in the conception of women in social and economic careers. In parallel, the modern perspective also became more open concerning equality in sharing responsibilities. Nevertheless, in many developing countries, this change was only initiated in recent years amidst the remnants of the tradition bias ideology

(Jayachandran, 2015). Women in general have developed individualistic attitude presented in their career, than being simply restricted within the role of a housewife.

In literature, the female consumers have been classified into four main segments: “housewives”, “temporary housewives” (looking for work), “just-a-job” women and “career-focused” women (Barry, Gilly and Doran, 1985). The difference between the last two segments is that “just-a-job” women include those who have to work due to the family requirement of additional income, while the other is driven by personal achievement and goal orientation and normally occupy a managerial and professional position in an organization. Due to the increase in the educational level and the number of university graduates in general, the sum of working women had taken a surge. Compared to the non-career segment, the working women have less time to spend on casual shopping, and thus they grow more loyal to particular brands or stores that best satisfy their needs. Despite this distinction, it is not always necessary and particularly meaningful to adopt this system, especially with the last two consumer groups discussed.

The emergence of fight for gender equality movements has challenged not only the biased opinions between the two known gender types, but also the existing prejudice aimed toward the genderqueer targets, thus opening up opportunities for new market segments to be exploited (Dodd *et al.*, 2005; Oakenfull and Greenlee, 2005; Martin Evans *et al.*, 2009).

From an extensive viewpoint, many authors have started to search for more accurate expressions and concepts in the gender domain, thus developed “gender identity” as the expression where an individual’s own masculinity and femininity is examined through their behaviours rather than simply relying on biological features. Studies on gender may benefit from utilizing the “gender identity” approach, which provides a meaningful insight to understand its role fully (Palan, 2001). This also simplified the issue of distinguishing between the rise of different genders, down to just two dimensions, without any compromise of skipping any traits. However, a new complex problem surfaced that questions the consistency of these two identities within individuals. Unlike the male-female distinction which is defined since birth, the personal psychological manifestation may transit in both attitude and behaviour, owing to an occasion where

interchanges occur between gender identity, across chronological and situational ordeals. Furthermore, the problem with using this concept is that there is no clear line to segregate its influence from that of the normal gender.

In summary, if the biological gender is the façade, then gender identity is the content that makes up personal individuality, which may or may not be in alignment with consumers' true perceivable self-reflection. To capture the mechanic of this affair, the instrument known as Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) or Personal Attributes Questionnaires was initiated to determine the mental image of sexual expression that identify people. However, the reliability and credibility of Bem's instruments (in both the original form and the short form) have been questioned in numerous occasions due to the inconsistent results and outcomes that it produces (Hoffman and Borders, 2001).

In a broader sense, even academic papers dedicated only to the gender topic had not yielded adequate support evidence and still invoke criticism over the reliability of approaching "gender identity" instead of the traditional perspective (Robert, 1984, as cited in Palan, 2001 cited). The ambiguity of establishing the conceptual basis and distinguishing between the two aspects of gender identity (Fillat, 1993; Gould, 1996) are the two main reasons that adopting gender identity in research has not yet generated enough productive result. One example of this can be found in Hayashi *et al.* (2016), where the authors demonstrated the inappropriateness of using findings from developed countries to apply in the developing context, concerning the limitation of the relation between gender diversity and innovation. Further, the point of considering the context of research, if the norm perspectives within the studied society do not strongly emphasize on the diversity value in advancing the gender concept, it would not become a topic of interest in academic research, which is the observation case in Vietnam at the moment.

Therefore, albeit being well received from the perspective of academic contribution, gender identity is still a vague topic that requires further tuning in measurement before applying it in quantitative studies. Together with the low awareness of social norm perspectives in the developing nations regarding this theme, the application of the simple gender difference is still the most suitable approach in this research.

2.2.3.3. Education

The importance of reviewing the consumers' educational level has been recognized and progressed since the early 1970s. Back then, studies showed that consumers' education is positioned as the rational basis whereby consumption activities were assumed to be modified through marketing programs (Seitz, 1972; Bloom, 1976). These announcements, however, only reflected a part of the meaning that "consumers' educational level" actually covers. The hypotheses that Bloom proposed from more than 40 years, which declared the origin of changes in customer behaviour from consumer education programs, also brought about the mixed results in later studies. So far, it falls under the common knowledge that such "education programs" have very limited impact to convert the hesitation of consumers.

In empirical studies, scholars have frequently used the highest diploma that an individual has achieved as a measurement for the educational level. However, there are two issues when using this scale. The first one is that academic degree(s) is the certification of the past learning process, and it presents the recognition given to people by the educational institution who have passed an exam or finished a course, as widely defined in dictionary (Oxford and Cambridge dictionary). Therefore, it holds the value of an overall indication than being a scale to measure the extent of people's perception and cognitive with logical reasoning. Even when accepting that diplomas or other academic certifications can reflect an individual's education, it could at best a reflection of the past learning process accumulated. What it fails to account for is the accumulated knowledge and understanding that people acquire afterwards, even if they have to yet reach the next checkpoint in the educational ladder. The second problem is that academic exams have been considered as inappropriate instruments for intelligence other than the analytical type, namely creative thinking, practicality... (Sternberg, 1985: 2003; Simonton, 2000). Not to mention that moment pressure when taking part in the tests also undermine individual talents, as well as those who perform poorly than usual due to sudden unfavourable conditions.

Since there are many exhibitions of knowledge and understanding under the term of educational level, it is appropriate to approach education as a collective concept through

its component factors, e.g. one of which, according to Kulviwat *et al.* (2004), is the intellectual and cognitive capabilities in identifying, locating and assimilating information. On the other hand, attempts have been made to connect the educational level with the professional, social aspiration and consumption level (Chisnall, 1994). Even though these relationships may be found through practical observations (Prieto and Caemmerer, 2013) and may sound rational by common sense, the theoretical aspect has yet established strong basis due to the unsuccessful isolation of the overlap in assumptions between educational level and each factor. An example of this is the idea of improving the educational level in a wide scale in society could reshape the product preference toward high-end and exclusive items/ experience (Stanton, Etzel and Walker 1994). This idea, despite being seemingly rational, depended on other arguments: [1] a positive correlation between educational level and personal income and [2] a causal relationship between income and the increase in consumption needs for said product/service. In the end, until these two ideas are confirmed, they are just statistical assumptions with probability ratios, not to mention the involvement of interference factors beyond the scope of the examination.

In conclusion, an academic degree is just one criterion of people's cognitive and learning abilities. However, as the data retrieved for this instrument is simple enough to be acquired (for researchers) and provided (for respondents), it is frequently used in research that does not focus too much on the depth of the concept attribute. Meanwhile, to be able to produce a meaningful measurement system to account for every aspect of personal intelligence that has been discussed so far would require a thorough approach, which will surpass the scope of this study. Therefore, the final approach to be adopted in this research would only account for the participant's academic level attainment.

2.2.3.4. Income

Income, or more precisely disposable income, is the preliminary requirement that decides what products/services people can afford to satisfy their needs. Past economic statements dictated that rational people (as in Economic man theory) can't afford what surpasses their financial capabilities, and they would spend up to the constraint budget

for a combination of preferred items that will return the maximum utility level. However, newly emerged financial solutions have allowed consumers to afford the options that were previously considered out of their financial capability. This has redefined the concept of “constraint budget” and initiated a new consumption habit for consumers thereafter.

Income is a relatively broad term that indicates any possible sources of monetary value to the beneficiary, which commonly comes from wage, salary and interest payment. Although it hasn’t been explicitly discussed or gone through formal testing, there is a hint of connection between the income level and the magnitude of need and desire, altogether under the influence of self-control. Theoretically speaking, there is a spectrum of satisfaction for a particular need corresponding to each level of income, which means that a higher income level implies capabilities to gain access to higher satisfaction. However, it doesn’t mean that, just because of the capability to afford it, consumers always aim for the highest level of satisfaction for a given need. This is the point that varies between individual characteristics in cognitive factors (financial literacy, numeric skills) and non-cognitive factors (self-control, deliberative thinking), influencing the evaluation between alternative options for the overall financial wellbeing (Strömbäck *et al.*, 2017).

The term “income” has been commonly referred to as individual income. However, when the unit of consumption is family, it would be more appropriate to consider the total available income from other members. The reason for addressing this distinction is that a specific amount of earnings that could be identified with the middle, or even the low-upper income level for individuals may only be equivalent to average or worst off for family with many members. Also, the buying behaviour and the motivation of needs differ between bachelors and married people, not to mention the differences between the phases of the family cycle.

In common belief, income is often tied closely with occupation in a positive relationship: high skill job will result in high wage and vice versa, but it does not mean there are no exceptions. Furthermore, any given profession can be structured into different position status, depending on the required quality as well as the skills and the

experience level. Therefore, people of the same job might not always receive the same financial benefits and incentive policies. This divergence may also vary between nations, especially developing and developed countries, due to the difference in economic development status, and partly to the social and cultural perspective of the professions. However, dividing the social class by using the merit of income would not always be reliable, given how people with similar allowance may also be distinct by different social class if taking into account other demographic criteria (e.g. occupation, age, geographic...). Also, there is no concrete evidence that supports the consistency in the consumption pattern of consumers who have similar or different income levels.

The influence of income is the imminent factor toward consumers' choice of desirable products/services. To satisfy the same demand, people with restricted income venue are unable to use the luxury or high-end goods in the same manner as the rich one (assuming that all consumers are reasonable in their decision-making and no out-of-logical decisions are made). Along with the idea of the manner in spending, people with limited income also tend to be financially cautious when weighing between offers and aligning their consumption toward the necessities-oriented needs rather than extravagant ones.

According to an estimation made by the World Resource Institute (WRI), people of low tier income account for a significant market portion compared to those of other ranks (Hammond *et al.*, 2007). Meanwhile, it is also said that the middle-income consumers present a diversity of needs and possibly a wide range of trade-off between affordability and the preference of brands and quality (Ahmed *et al.*, 2016). What makes this relevant was the significant growth rate of this group's members compared to the low and upper scales, especially in the context of developing countries. Although the middle class from developed countries is perceived to have a slow development pace than their counterpart in developing nations (Kharas, 2017), it doesn't change the fact that the middle class has displayed a significant growth rate in recent years, only behind the 1960s – 1970s eras (ibid). The picture thereafter presents a shrinking in the low-income group (which has been accounting for a considerable size of the population) beside a fast-growing middle class in, while the upper class remain a very small portion in any given country.

Describing what constitutes the middle class, and thus separating it from other groups, are fairly subjective according to each nation's standard, thus it is no strange to see that the benchmark to be identified with the middle class of one country might be lower or higher than that of others and in comparison with the global establishment. However, in many developing countries, it is generally depicted that the middle-income class still has not surpassed the threshold of the global standard ranking for low-income level (Banerjee and Duflo, 2007; Ravallion *et al.*, 2008). In light of the overall development in mind-set and social situation, the middle-income consumers in the developing countries is composed of people within the 20s and early 30s age. This feature also comes as a natural coincidence, since the majority of this age group member is known to be “self-determined, exposed, knowledgeable”, and has a keen sense of desire to experience the world and the newly emerged innovations.

2.2.3.5. Occupation

The adaptation of occupation as a detached demographic indicator is rather restricted in findings for consumer behaviour. Compared to other qualitative demographic features, occupation does not offer a ranking system to determine which of its components is in superiority or inferiority to others (in contrast to the educational level and the qualitative age). Since there is no limit on the type of profession available in any industry and sector, there was also no clear line established to serve as a distinct borderline, like gender display. Due to these features, studies that only employed occupation as a demographic factor was formatted to either include few occupations that are mostly relevant to the topic extracted (e.g. the study of Ali Khan *et al.*, 2015) or approach it from the symbolic character of groups of career (e.g. the study of Hill *et al.*, 2019). Another approach is to establish a coordination system with other factors like income, and social status; or a directed focus into a specific market segment, e.g. the connection with luxury items (Srinivasan *et al.*, 2014; Rehman and Jamil, 2016).

In another development, self-employment has surged among the new option within the labour forces from the Gen Z and the Millennial. The matching of a freelancer to youngsters' personality has led to differences in lifestyle, including perspective

regarding consumption activities that distinguish those who are identified with the nine-to-five class. Despite the shortage of qualified tests, there has been circulating opinion that attributed a relative higher level of success to self-employed professions, compared to their peers who work under others (Dickson, 2001). There are also contradicted debates that suggest the fluctuation of income and higher tension of maintaining business operations among self-employed than the wage earners; however, most of which being without official records are just subjective deductions via surveillance.

2.2.3.6. Family role

Family life cycle is a traditional concept that has been praised by scholars and researchers as an important factor in consumption habit. Family as a demographic variable, unlike others, exercises two roles: a platform whereby its members interact and consult each other's purchasing decision, representing the reference function; and the second refers to the mirror model that individuals reflect upon when reaching a particular state that matches certain demographic factors (age, gender and position) and thus, adjusts their own decisions. While the second role is abstract and hard to identify using regular inquiries tools, the first role is more significant in the traditional family model. In that scenario, the common purchasing decisions are often made after reaching an agreement after collecting each member's opinion and evaluating it rationally. Meanwhile, the magnitude of discussion has been reduced, and the main focus was shifted to be more considerate of personal emotions in the nuclear family model.

In previous academic studies, family is alleged to be the first environment to educate and produce the next generation of consumers (Lehota, 2001). This means children, through observing and learning from their parents as role models, gets accustomed to the act of buying and selling. In addition, families with more people involved in economic activities are also the reason children gain early access to consumption: since the adults spend more time pursuing career development than spending time with their children, they often pursue some other forms of compensation. Giving an allowance and permission to contribute to some purchasing decisions are examples of such practices (Törőcsik, 2007). Besides, there are also cases where parents let their child involve in

daily commodities and even some of the highly expensed or complex products/services as an educational lesson than feeling guilty.

As a unit of consumption, family also resembles an individual consumer in certain demographic traits. The same way age or life cycle is applied to consumers, it can be found with a similar effect of family cycle. The popular phases identified within the family life cycle include the bachelorhood, honeymooners, the different phase of the full nest (parenthood), empty nest and the sole survivor. With the changes happening for each stage structure, the tendency to purchasing activities is also shifting accordingly. While the concept of income might be simple to determine in case of the individual consumer, family size of a greater scale than single-parent model would normally be a pool of income from its working members. In general, education level and social status don't have significant influence by default, when considering family members as a unit of consumption. However, in some rare cases, these factors exercise impact in the favour of whoever has superiority in either or both aspects, i.e. members with high education level and considerable social status are believed to have more significant influence in many roles.

While divorce is often considered a negative life event and to a certain degree is still a taboo topic in many Asian countries, there are also positive aspects of the phenomenon. Individual role alteration, or family status to be specific, was found to be associated with an identifiable set of consumption pattern (McAlexander, 1991; Young, 1991), while the period of transition is also found to trigger new consumption trend (Solomon, 1983; Andreasen, 1984; Schouten 1991a). The event of divorce is also found to align with this outline, beside other incidents disrupting the family structure. This event was also found to be a case that triggers the desire to travel and there is observable niche market catered to this demand in Western countries. However, there hasn't been official academic releases on this topic so far. Regarding the Vietnam context, the topic is more or less of sensitive matter (though not to the degree of a taboo) and the aftermaths tend to create significant disarray for involved parties to think about seeking any leisure activities like travelling. Nevertheless, the inclusion of this element is not only because it was a

common design when examining the marital status in general demographic studies, but it is expected to be a useful supplement for the ‘family role’ factor in later analysis.

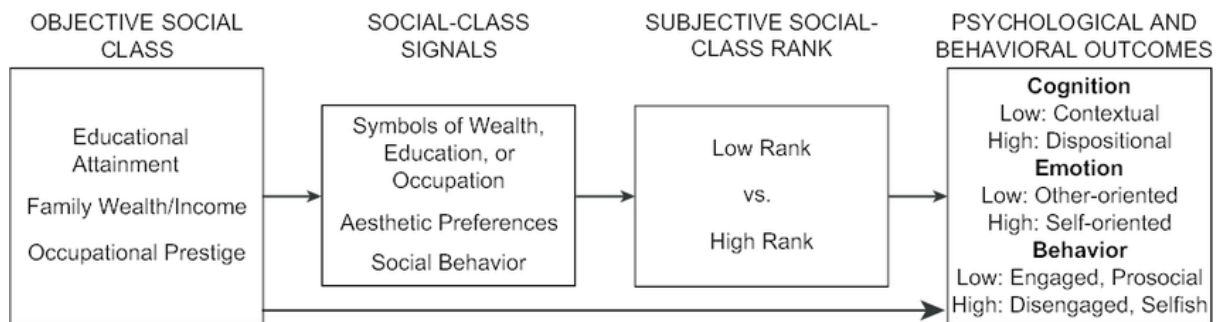
2.2.3.7. Social class

The hierarchy system, in which people are sorted by criteria into ranking order, is widely perceived as “social class” and presented in any societies that have ever existed in history. Marketing researchers have provided different means to visualize what made up one’s “social status” or “social class”. There were frequent discussions of whether to assimilate these two expressions and other synonyms or not. In the general view, there might seem to be no significant differences in the way they display consumption behaviour; however, the constituents and value in the meaning of each concept imply that it is not a matter of trivia difference in terminology. “Status” was known to include three specific indicators: possession of wealth, the power to influence others and prestige (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009) with the practical measurement employed to be a continuum scale (in contrast to the categorical system applied for social class). Earlier, Dominquez and Page (1981a, 1981) decided that “class” implies a focus on individual position while “status” suggests a collective representation as a group consumer (as in family, business...). In previous development, followers of the Marxist theory and sociologists held social class as a reflection of the societal struggle for ownership and control over production means and labour-power.

In the 1970s, the focus of debates was to distinguish between social class and financial measurement, to see which one is the superior indicator as a criterion to divide market segments (Fisher, 1985). The lack of “intervening variables” and the wrong choice for a dependent variable to measure the influence of social class is the criticism for this “naïve” and linear approach (Fisher, 1987). Due to that, the bivariate analysis conclusion has been rendered obsolete, giving way for more sophisticated depiction (Figure 2.1). The general consensus is that both factors play an important role in consumption behaviour, and social class is depicted as the larger dimension that includes income and other demographic elements (e.g. age, gender, education...). Later revisions have provided new sophisticated perspectives and methodological fashion regarding

social class and group of demographic variables (Schaninger 1981). In light of the new approaches, the latest articles have suggested a connection with the psychological and mental transformation occurring when one from a social class moves into another, be it higher or lower than their own current rank.

Figure 2.1. Collective influence of social class to lower- and higher-class consumers' psychological and behavioural



Source: Keltner *et al.*, 2011

It is essential to understand that the state of imbalance between people in any given society can be identified through different criteria, not just limited by their own resources and authority power (Keltner *et al.*, 2011). According to the authors, the constitution and appearance of social class can be seen further, when placed in connection with lifestyle, hence partly reveal their individual's cultural identity. The supporting argument is that people share many characteristics with peer groups (who have the same living condition, occupied role in society...) with whom they are identified and fundamentally different from the others. An example given by Keltner *et al.* (2011) is how the poor class members are painted out to be more empathetic and rely more on each other than that of the higher groups. This point can be further extended to match each rank in social class with the level of need in Maslow's hierarchy, i.e. low class tend to focus on the utility function of the items that satisfy the most basic requirement layers, while high-class groups are attentive to whichever offers can promote self-esteem and social recognition value.

Former researchers attempted to create a system that determines social class by grouping few or all of the demographic elements like income, age, skill type and occupation. In developed countries, the attribute used to be established with a clear distinction between non-manual and manual occupation (recognized as white-collar and

blue-collar workers) due to their significant difference in buying pattern. The most significant criteria to determine the social grade are the level of income and the occupation type. The imminent issue is that the industrialized environment and the coverage of social network have blurred the distinction in classic grades between individuals of the same group (Henry, 2005). Previous efforts have addressed the significant distinction in social grade using household type as an indicator, but many events in societies have signalled for a reassessment of more comprehensive approaches.

The concept of social stratification, though remotely similar in meaning with the “class” and “status”, has been put under much criticism over its radical skewed presentation. Through attributing more attention toward the occupation indicator and the associated prestige, social stratification is detached from an objective instrument to be a systematic social order. When it was first initiated, viewing of a social group is tilted toward the superiority of a reward-based system (David and Moore, 1945; Tumin, 1953). Social stratification is even projected as an obstacle that prevented people with adequate qualifications from joining a higher rank or filling in the role of other class (Tumin, 1953). All of these concepts were heavily based on the distinction between occupation and their functionality. Though limited with a restricted concept, these arguments have put forward the necessary role of social stratification in promoting efficiency and productivity.

Similar to the endless boundary set up by occupation, to organize a fair range of social class into a classification system is an impossible task. Therefore, combining other demographic characteristics still proves to be a practical choice. However, the issue is that, only in few profession-based societies with a predetermined impression of professions to the image of an assigned social class, this demographic variable can be used as an evaluation scale for individual relative status. Even by then, there is still a drawback in using occupation: this variable is previously indicated to be immeasurable (section 2.2.4.5), whereas a hierarchy of social class should be clearly defined. Therefore, it is more than often being used in coordination with other supplement elements. On the other hand, income level is commonly known as a quantitative gauge

to indicate the level of wealth, though used more frequently as a qualitative tool (low, middle or high class) to describe the comparative status in society.

When people are registered to a particular social role, they are also entitled to the dignity associated with it (Mirzaei and Ruzdar, 2018), and their behaviour is expected to be the reflection of individuals who hold the position, according to the social norms (later discussed in Theory of Planned Behaviour). This implies that the lifestyle and the consumption pattern is required to represent the personal respective role. Subsequently, people of similar status tend to show similarities in their lifestyle and behaviour. This feature is further proven since residents of similar background are often located close and exercise influence to each other's lifestyle via imitation effect or consulting (as the reference group).

2.2.3.8. Culture and subculture

As people grow older, they become more aware and receive influence from cultures through different reference groups (family, closed acquaintances, social group...). Previously, the cultural impact wasn't made to be immediately transparent and recognizable, if people remain within their local residence; in other words, the manifestation of culture would only become evident, when clashing with a different culture. Globalization has carried foreign cultural value to every region, and exposed communities to new waves of integration and modification of the existing local beliefs and customs. Against this exposure, individuals were susceptible to a certain degree, prompting them to either accept or resist new practices, and decide on the extent of adjustment in his or her behaviour.

Culture from the overall view

Cultural value, as a whole, is a complex "cluster of factors" that houses other demographic elements, a feature resembling family and social class. The range of influence that culture exercises are indeed very large even transcends and covers family and social class. Similar to the situation of any other socio cluster concept, cultural value is the sum of its components, but not in the term of clearly defining a mathematic formula; therefore, it would be undermined to reduce the value of culture as merely an

exhibition of its demographic variables. Nevertheless, the knowledge of cultural value is still limited and more than often, the aspect that received the most attention in economic textbooks is the cross-cultural taboo and the integration toward foreign markets as mentioned earlier. This appearance of culture, though not wrong or outdated, does not produce much academic value compared to other lately emerging concerns given how long it has been nominated as a debated concern (diluted in tradition, custom and tradition transfer between generation, conflict of culture values...).

In earlier studies, it was addressed that the ethnic minorities in Vietnam have far lower living standard than the dominant Kinh race (Baulch *et al.*, 2007). This has been credited to their lack of endowment to gather capital and the limitation in receiving education, both of which highly due to the disadvantaged residential habitats in rural areas. Though many ethnic minorities have shown adaptability and the prospect of progressing, a portion still lags behind the development plans. Regarding the tourism service, the ethnic minorities members generally take part more in creating services (through introducing their distinct cultural values and living environment) than being consumers themselves.

Beside ethnicity and nationality customs that often represent cultural values, there is also religion, with equal potential in examining consumers' attitude and behaviour (Essoo and Dibb, 2004; Bachleda *et al.*, 2014; Minton *et al.*, 2015). According to Mukhtar and Butt (2012), religion can possess an important role as an influential factor to its practitioners' life. However, compared to other demographic factors that have been discussed this far, the role of religion in marketing research was relatively underestimated (Essoo and Dibb, 2004; Ansari, 2014). In addition to that, there have been shortages of record outside the Christian and Jewish circles (Mokhlis, 2009) and American context (e.g. Hindu, Buddhist...). In terms of influence, each religion has different teachings, customs and values that believers have to comply with; and therefore, the attitude and perspective of believers from one religion tend to differ from that of the others, and the religious followers are also different from the atheists. However, this does not mean that these groups are fundamentally different from each

other in every aspect of daily life, as indicated in the research by Pew Research Center (2016).

Religion practice in Vietnam is a complicated subject, not because of the diversity or existence of multiple different religious schools, but of the nature of practising the religion itself. By default, most of the Vietnamese people who admit to not follow any religion (as per their legal documents) are implicitly influenced by Buddhism and Confucius teachings that have been assimilated to the cultural and ethical norm throughout history. On the other hand, religious temples and activities are available in public so that everyone can access, regardless of whether they are from the same religion, different religions or none of them. It is also observed that local pagodas often have large traffic of visitors, especially in traditional celebrations or holidays. Among those who consistently attend activities in pagoda, their purpose is not entirely based on pure Buddhism teaching, but for other personal matters, therefore, it can't entirely be considered religious travelling.

The impact of religion on tourism is further narrower compared to the sense of being an alternative to other purposes in travelling (leisure, business, medical treatment...). In previous articles (Al-Makaty, 1996 as cited in Chaudhry, 2014), it was clarified that Islamic and Catholic followers tend to be affected by religious beliefs in their consumption activities than the Buddhist practitioners. However, this impression might need to be revised as Buddhism activities in many countries (India, China and some of South East Asia nation) also involve consumers travelling to destinations for spiritual purposes. In addition, despite not being listed and studied in formal research, the reputation of local shrines and pagodas also contributes to the spiritual appealing of the regions. Other than that, it would be hardly possible to observe the influence of religion exerted in consumers' decision making, although conclusion could only be drawn out after concrete evidence was made from the analysis in the later section.

Subculture

Though the impact of culture is imminent, it is rather profound trying to reduce the scale of culture to compare it with other social constructs of smaller degree. Therefore, the understanding and awareness of culture are often depicted through examples of

clashing between different cultures and globalization (in both literature system and practical norm). Another approach that often used to remedy this issue is through the comparative unit from culture (subculture) against other social constructs. Members who are identified with a certain subculture hold values and beliefs that govern their behaviour along the line and set them apart from members of other subcultures, which is similar to social class as discussed in the previous section. In structural aspect, subculture is also defined via order of one or a few other demographic principles grouped together, to set up a profile of the members: geographical, age, gender... To a certain degree, social class could be positioned as an independent element by its own, while on the other hand, it can be also interpreted as a reference group, or displayed as a subcultural module.

In literature, the buying pattern of consumers is commonly suggested as similar for those of the same group that share one or few characteristics (social class, subculture group...), but this is more likely to be a matter of unwritten rule. As further analysis of individual behaviours shows, it is evident that the aforementioned similarities in the pattern only provide a general guideline framework for an individual basis to take. People are often identified with different positions in multiple social groups, based on their demographic feature and relationships; therefore, individual behaviour can't be nominated to represent the group that they belong to and is not as straightforward to determine a certain behaviour is the result of integration from which groups. In the same fashion, the common pattern of groups' behaviour could only be generalized to a certain degree, meaning it can't account for each and every member.

Globalization

The globalization concept was not an outcome spawned from the industrialized revolution or due to the recent surging in information technology as many scholars believed (Sen, 2002). Globalization holds the meaning of the interdependency in the world's economies, cultures and population that transcend the border of nations. Therefore, at first, it was only known through the economic and population effect in the simple form of trading between merchant centres and immigration between nations. In the aftermath of the two world wars and other freedom wars in colonies, globalization donned a new form as the expansion of multinational enterprises and trading cultural

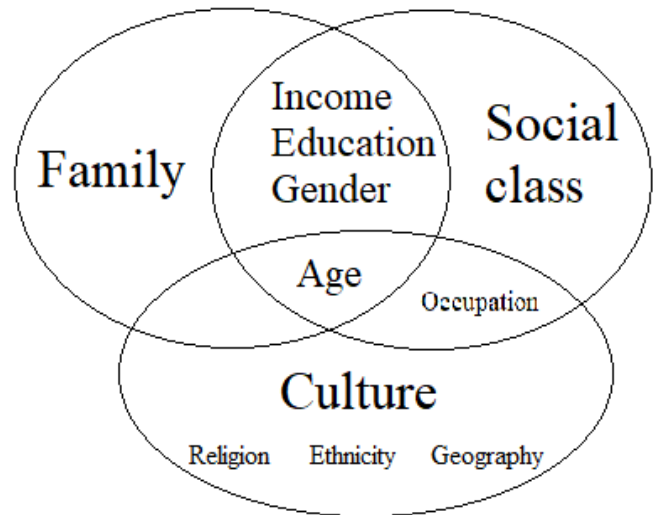
values. Up until the early 2000s, globalization was still generally assimilated as the popularization of Western values, due to their superior economy and cultural status. Various viewpoints regarding this phenomenon can be divided into two opposed groups: the supporters who recognize the contribution to the local regions of Westernized process and encourage it, and the protesters who dubbed this event as a practice of supremacy over the local identity. Though not being recognized as a direct consequence, it was clear that the development in communication technology and the spreading of modern marketing have turned the globalization to be a mutual process.

From the exponential progression of globalization over the past decades, there was a belief that convergence in cultural values will lead to the establishment of a worldwide “homogenous” state in preferences and habits. However, there was no concrete evidence to back up this surmise, due to the mixed results of convergence and divergence in both macro- and micro-economic events (De Mooij, 2003). Among the dominance of the homogenizing forces (e.g. widespread of English/Chinese as popular languages in global communication and documents, and the dispersion of multinational enterprises’ through licensing chain stores), there is a recognizable flourish of the heterogeneous forces (as the locally unique and exotic features are being promoted and introduced beyond the national border). Overall, it is more likely that instead of forcing the path toward a unified culture, globalization has instead steered toward diversity and multicultural perspectives. Approaching this subject from a target-oriented perspective, one might find it a rational argument that the effect of globalization has been leaning toward qualitative development (in contrast to the previous quantitative development), an idea expressed via the development of globalization from 1.0 to 3.0 (Friedman, 2005).

Conclusion

Upon analysing each of the demographic variables to be included in the study of this topic, the researcher came up with a simple summary of the overall relationships discussed between demographic variables (Figure 2.2). Firstly, each and every demographic variable is a significant concept that is continuously renewed and extended through the development in global social and economic

Figure 2.2. Model of demographic variable



Source: Author

movement. Secondly, the implications of relations as depicted in this figure are based on the basic perception of literature on these variables. Therefore, due to specific circumstances and to the population characteristics, the interrelationships might not necessarily be presented similarly in the research sample or that they have a significant effect on consumption activities.

2.2.4. Psychological influence

2.2.4.1. Introduction

Although psychological elements belong to a different field of study, it is still useful to take into account their contribution to many of consumer's decision processes. The question is not which decision will involve these factors; instead, it is to what extent and under which situation that their influence can be identified. In a broader sense, the cultural basis of a nation or region dictates different variation of consumer's psychological profile, of which the most notable example is how consumers' characteristics of Eastern and Western origin are fundamentally different. On a minor scale, there is also the subculture that governs the degree of impact to the smaller units in society, e.g. family, colleague, consumer group... One minor detail seems to be neglected in earlier research is that the subculture's effect does not just target individual

consumers (direct), but also their related reference groups and other affiliated parties (indirect). The level of impact is subject to the importance of the referees, the person's perception and judgment capability as well as their current level of understanding regarding products/services of interest.

Throughout the decision-making process, psychological elements become the dominance factors with presence in every phase. Although this thesis doesn't need to attempt for thorough research from the viewpoint of professional expertise, an intermediate understanding would be beneficial to provide supplementary backup. For this purpose, the fundamentals of consumer psychological analysis including Maslow's hierarchy and the variations of the rational consumer theory will be included in explaining the decision-making process and providing support for the joint demographic impact on consumer behaviour.

2.2.4.2. The traditional ideology – Rational consumer behaviour

Rational decision-making was the earliest ideology in explaining the consumer's behaviour reasoning, which highly focuses on their logical processing of information and the systematic manner in solving problems. Not to mention the archaic value of this simple theory in realistic situations, even in the proper context, there will be unavoidable flaws. The fact that consumers act upon personal judgment toward the goal of maximizing utility is logical, but not applicable in many situations, especially when there is not enough information available to make decisions. Furthermore, wrong information can also lead to wrong decisions, yet still perceived as "the right option" according to the individual's subjective assessment, when weighing between alternatives.

As a result, a recent development in research has questioned the premise assumptions, inquiring the validity of whether it is enough to rely only on a single influential factor (either logical capabilities or mental status based). In case of tourism, consumers' choice of the destination and the service characteristics feature another concern that may happen before or/and during the period of consumption (Hyde and Lawson, 2003; Decrop and Snelders, 2004). Further influence that could be listed includes interaction within groups members (Litvin *et al.*, 2004; Kang and Hsu, 2005;

Bronner and de Hoog, 2008;) and situational factors (Decrop and Snelders, 2004; March and Woodside, 2005). Thus, this implicates the approaching style to be a process-oriented as reflected by the nature of decision-making.

In summary, this linear thought process lacks the necessary depth to depict consumption activities, due to their isolation approaches which fail to capture the big picture. The economic view has been criticised for its unrealistic assumption of assigning consumers to be purely rational and logical decision-makers; while the passive view may have subtly mentioned the presence of impulsiveness and self-satisfying oriented persons, but the consumers' role has been underestimated compared to the dominating impact of the marketing campaign.

2.2.4.3. Theory of planned behaviour

Through renovating the single-minded opinion that based the consumption goal on just a rational basis, an improved version for the “reasoned action” has been introduced to address the connection between attitude and behaviour (Lam and Hsu, 2006). The idea behind planned behaviour is measuring the degree of change to behaviour by the degree of variation in intention.

Intention, in turn, is governed by ‘attitude’, ‘subjective norm’ and ‘perceived behavioural control’. In the context of theory, ‘attitude’ is defined as the personal affiliation of favourable or unfavourable for the intended behaviour. Along with this interpretation, it is clear that the agents (consumers) are fully aware of the consequences of their actions and can attribute relevant feelings toward determined results. The role of ‘subjective norm’ can be described to that of a reference guideline, and instead of providing advice, it embodies the belief and motivation that are set as recognized standards by the society under similar settings. By the explanation of Ajzen and Fishbein (1975), ‘subjective norm’ is the set of behaviour that the individual in question perceives of other stakeholders’ expectation him/her to follow. In this sense, despite being a psychological construct from one’s mind, the sense of control is heavily dominated by external sources. On the contrary, ‘perceived behaviour control’ is an individual’s awareness of difficulty for performing certain behaviour (ibid) and does not suffer from

any other sources of influence. However, it is yet to be the actual control over the behaviour since it is still in “perceived” state. Also, behaviour control means that there exist constraints that can deter the intention lead to behaviour and prevent it from being materialized (Altawallbeh *et al.*, 2015).

Due to being an extended branch of the Theory of Rational Action, there are traces of rational basis left in many aspects of the planned behaviour logical basis. It was also admitted by the original authors in a later study (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010) that the latter theory was not established on the premise of totally rational and logical consumers. The authors were aware that consumers can engage irrationally and unreasonably from time to time and they even deliberately behave in such manner in few circumstances (ibid). Based on this gap, there were alternative developments that shifted toward the unplanned behaviour, which hypothesizes intention to not always be the first element to signal the initiative for a certain type of decisions, as argued by Gibbons *et al.* (1998).

Taking into account the theoretical assumption regarding the causal relationship between intention and behaviour, there are few possible scenarios to be considered: [1] people with clear intention and determination to follow an appropriate set of behaviour (which is included in the theory anticipation); [2] individuals with established intention but failed to follow up with the right action (a limit of the theory); [3] multiple intentions overlapping leading to multiple courses of behaviour (the theory wasn’t able to determine the intention with a dominant effect when deciding behaviour and action); and [4] intentions that have been determined but later on tampered by disruptions from the environment, and leading to a change in behaviour (the theory also didn’t clarify how to measure this process). Among the criticism facing the application of the theory, it is also pointed out that the most suitable target is the young audience and self-reported type behaviour last in short term (McEachan *et al.*, 2011; Sniehotta *et al.*, 2013; Sniehotta *et al.*, 2014), which has diminished value for any other case.

From a general perception, many authors claimed that the theory has lost its utility since there has been a reduction in the contributory value of new findings. This is because the correlation between elements as mentioned by the theory is confirmed to a certain degree, making it a redundant attempt trying to provide any further empirical evidence

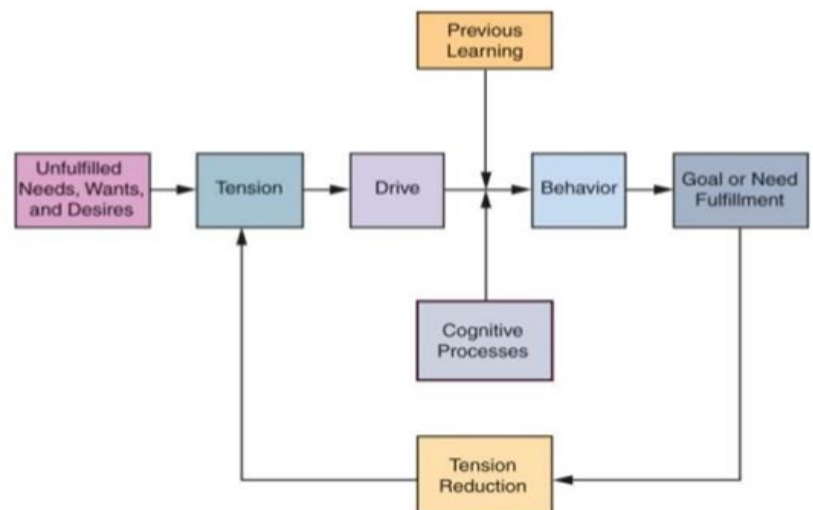
to prove a non-falsifiable relationship (Smedslund, 1978; Ogden, 2003). Demand for new model design, thus, becomes inevitable for any research aims to discover closed aspect to this topic (Sniehotta, 2014).

2.2.4.4. *The pre-purchase psychological factors*

Motivation is the driving force that maintains the initial urge to take intended action (either through conscious actions or unconscious behaviour). To a certain extent, motivation can be used in substitution for intention; however, in this study, the researcher found it necessary to distinguish these two concepts. In overall, both terms describe the psychological state when progressing towards performing an action without any indication that a physical activity has been made while the distinction between the two terms is slightly different in terms of application fields (economic, psychology and laws). The key difference is that intention tends to lean toward a specific goal or objective that the agent of action has clearly determined to achieve, while the “maintaining initial urge” to take action as indicated earlier clearly specifies the lasting attribute of this element. With the role of a mental encouragement, the duration and intensity of motivation are subjected to the effect of both agents’ characteristics and the external stimulations before and during the process, and the indented action/behaviour take place.

The question regarding the motivation’s nature has been addressed (Kim, 2013), due to its vague description, thus common agreement has yet to be reached regarding whether to consider it as a psychological state or a process. Overall, if marking unfulfilled need(s)

Figure 2.3. Model of Motivational Process



Source: Schiffman and Kanuk. 2009

is the origin point and the end is where said desires are materialized as depicted in the

motivational model proposed by Schiffman and Kanuk (Figure 2.3), it makes sense for the viewpoint that conceives motivation to be a continuous process. The range of unfulfilled needs may as well include innate needs (physical inquires to satisfy the surviving purpose of the biologic body) and acquired needs (resulting from interactions between the individual and the surrounding cultures and environment). These two categories, in turn, can be used as a parallel reflection on the corresponding order of Maslow's hierarchy, which shall be discussed in detail in the subsequent section. So long, as the need(s) has yet to be completely fulfilled, the tension still exists and drives a new course of action and behaviour. Not to reject the importance of the internal influences depicted by the model, it is more than often the case for interferences or unexpected external variants to have a significant impact toward the state of "being motivated" and the continuity of action.

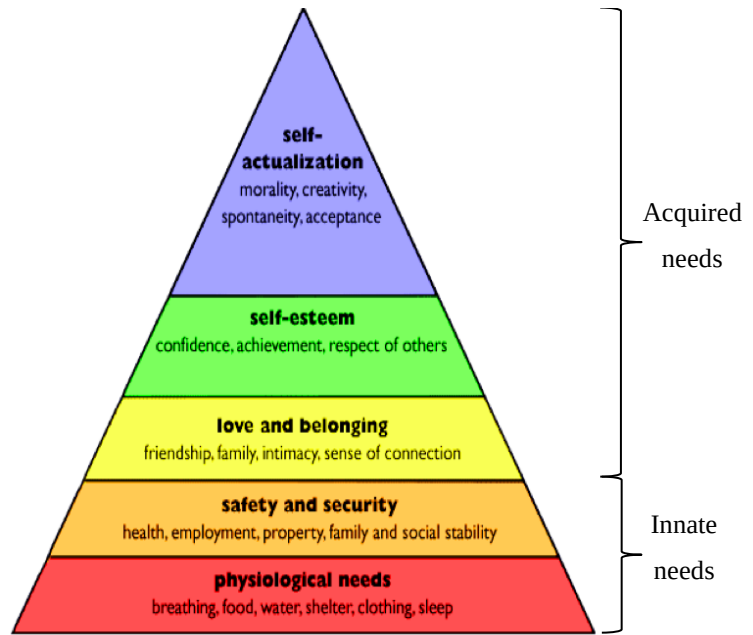
2.2.4.5. Overview of needs – motivation theories and frameworks

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's framework is a popular literature material encountered in many studies of consumer behaviour. The classification introduced well-known types of human's needs and established them in accordingly order. The recognizable advantage of this model is that every specific need can be assigned and explained to one of the five stages, thus creating a visual image of which level of needs each individual are currently identified with. In a later visit to the model, Maslow determined for all level of needs to be "instinctoid" (1970), which means they exist by default as a nature of survival. In a further note, Maslow also conceived the upper scales beyond safety level to be distinctive with the potential for continuous growth. This perspective is also consistent with McClelland idea and Herzberg's Two factors model (1969). However, McClelland only focuses on the range of acquired needs, which could arguably identify the upper three stages of Maslow ranking and Herzberg's design could be similar to the simple depiction of innate needs (physiological requirements) and acquired needs (psychogenic requirement) as shown in Figure 2.4.

In a separate matter, there have been opinions that proposed a fitter name for the model as the “Hierarchy of motivation”, due to how the existing interpretation of “need” in a social context has been derailed from the original setting, e.g. as in emotional needs (Steven, 2019). Considering the intention of Maslow when depicting each level of needs

Figure 2.4. Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs



Source: Edited based on Maslow’s 1970 model

and its component as goals to be achieved rather than the process to reach it, the mentioned adjustment in the model name would mislead the original function of the model. On another development, it has widely believed that human desires are insatiable: once a need has been satisfied, another one will emerge, being either of similar tier with a higher requirement and satisfaction level, or a completely different one. In this sense, this elevation can also be interpreted as the governing of motivation, thus explaining the new perspective mentioned.

In the debate against Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, the key criticism of the model’s legitimacy was how unfeasible it is to design and manage a meaningful empirical test (Parke and Tausky, 1975; Wahba and Bridwell, 1976). Firstly, all needs are allocated to the five separate stages and were expected to be promoted in sequential order. However, there is no certainty to confirm whether these needs would stay independent from each other, or exclusive to their designated category. For such situation, the question arising is whether there are any patterns to such overlap or not and if it does, then where is the satisfaction threshold, in terms of either a quantitative or a qualitative method that signals the transition from an inferior need to the next level. Nevertheless, this is also a common issue encountered in many other theories of the same academic interest.

The second issue involves an extension scenario that the theory did not account for: Need rarely exists as a singular isolation unit. In specific, it is not a rare occasion to find out that anyone, in particular, would have multiple needs at any given time, and each of them is assigned with a perceived level of importance and urgency, according to personal evaluation system (which might be similar or different from each other). The framework offered by Maslow, however, is a linear order with the priority of fulfilling a particular need at a time, before proceeding to the comparable higher level in the system. This also made up part of the reason for the third consideration.

Finally, Maslow's model and other similar designs were also criticized due to their single-minded set-up that assumes all people share the same ranking system for personal needs. In order to elucidate the weight of this shortcoming, the researcher will project it to a hypothesis scenario as follows: if people were to share an identical order of need and their behaviours are all rationally guided as a single direction driven by goals, the inevitable outcome would be that everyone follows the exact behaviour sequence. Due to how unrealistic this conclusion sound, it is reasonable to reject the proposed argument of the initial assumptions. Furthermore, any given consumption activity is an answer to both physiological needs and psychological needs, both of which vary by the type of targeted items. Since psychological needs are made up of intangible objectives, consumers are often either unaware of their purpose and objective for their shopping activities or unable to measure the exact amount to meet up with the need's requirement. Sometimes, this may lead to regret after the transaction is made, a common situation encountered in many cases of a shopping spree or spontaneous purchase out of shopping list. In the end, consumer needs are never fully satisfied; either due to the essential needs to maintain a normal state of existence or by the desire in effect with a higher standard.

[A comparison with other models](#)

Beside Maslow's model, other models attempted different approaches to need and motivation. First of all, there were similar versions in both structure and design with some slight modifications. One close conception related to Maslow's ideology is displayed through the Freudian psychoanalytic system. The traditional Freud theory set ground on biological drives, instinctive nature and the attempt to satisfy the desires

unconsciously. However, Freud emphasized heavily on biological needs, placing sexual urges as the driver motivation and failed to see the influences that come from social and cultural conditions. Consequently, Freud developed a system incorporating the presence of unconsciousness into the governing system through the three facets: id, ego and superego. The improvement that Neo-Freudian practitioners made from the basic principles of the theory were not in the basic structure of the theory, but more so in the matter of perspectives: shifting the attention toward interpersonal and social construct in forming personality; reducing the biased focus on biological urges, and generally introducing a more positive overview of human nature.

Instead of focusing on the idea of establishing a compulsory order of needs as required for every person, Alderfer (1969) proposed the ERG model (Existence-Relatedness-Growth), which suggested a different categorization based on the three constructs as indicated by its name. Compared to Maslow's framework, this model expands on the idea of parallel existence for the different levels of needs. In the context of different needs presented at the same time, Maslow approached it from an orderly ranking, accordingly to the hierarchical basis, while Alderfer (1969) elaborated on the priority determined based on the pressing degree of certain needs, or the "frustration" to achieve the higher one. Another approach that can be enlisted to this same approaching manner is Herzberg's Two factors model (1969). Retrospectively, these two-factor groups are just another classificational view on Maslow's framework, since the Hygiene factors represent tangible and basic needs, while the Motivators factors account for emotional needs, corresponding to a higher level in Maslow's hierarchy. In addition, Herzberg's theory was specifically targeted to monitor employees' motivation in the working environment.

Motivation related

Multiple papers had been allocating the role of need(s) as a justification for action, which then prompted the question regarding the role of motivation within this relationship. It is necessary to understand that need arises as a result of comparing the gap between current condition (physical and mental included) and the state of desire, followed by the pressure to diminish this gap. Without this pressure, any comparisons

made are only recorded as additional knowledge and reference for other processes. In another development, scholars identified the need as the essential requirement for survival. Though this might be applicable for physiological needs, it isn't necessarily applicable to the case of higher tier needs (i.e. self-esteem and self-actualization according to Maslow's classification). In fact, it isn't hard to find that for a significant portion of the world population, even meet up with the bare requirement of physiological needs to survive are already the ultimate achievement

In general, motivation is described as a trigger of involvement and persists until actions take place. Motivation can be also interpreted as the cause of the "urgency" state, taking the form of self-labelled reasons to justify behaviour (as the theory of reasoned action or planned behaviour indicated), or to comfort the emergence of tension. Due to these meanings, motivation suggests a broader concept than the concept of needs. The complexity with interpreting motivation lies within its second term, which encloses the willpower and determination to materialize its agent's desires, which can be detached as a separate concept and at the same time, belong to the same categories as the initial meaning set. In specific, this complication will be clarified when studying the relationship between motivation and need. The existence of needs can't be separated from the superior motive to reinforce (the first meaning of motivation), but doesn't necessarily mean that everyone possesses the capabilities to achieve what each need requires, either due to the constraint of the external environment or due to personal lack of willingness (the second term of motivation). However, the opposite is more straightforward, as motivated people usually possess a clear aim and objective (translated as the need to reach certain checkpoint) to be achieved and are aware of the mean to achieve it. There can never be a generic motivation, with neither a particular goal nor a willingness to act upon.

Any objective-driven action can also be approached via the perspective of Push and Pull theory, a close branch to the reasoned action assumption to a certain extent. In detail, people don't just pursuit the course of action that will lead to their goals, but also try to avoid parallel behaviour that might lead to unwanted results, and also do anything to avoid having to do something else. In addition, "Push and Pull" also briefly mentioned

the aftermath, when the motivation effect expires, as the goal(s) has been reached, the agent of behaviour is more likely to revert to the behaviour pattern, before the emergence of motivation. The theory also expanded the pre-set notion that assigned push factor to solely come from the consumer, while pull factors are attributed to the marketing strategy practices attracting the targeted segment.

Applying to the tourism industry, push factors include “special forces” that have an impact on the consumers’ decision to travel, while pull factors account for the other type of influence on the decision to choose the desired destination to travel (Kim, Lee and Klenosky, 2003). Push factors were suggested to originate from “intangible or intrinsic desires” (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996), e.g. escape, prestige, enhancement of relationships, and relaxation (Jang and Cai, 2002; Yuan and McDonald, 1990). What “escape” implies is the tourists’ desire to travel to destinations that are different from their daily resident and habitat. In narrower terms, it includes the form of tourism service that detaches from crowded population and gives a priority for natural settings. In many studies, fulfilling the prestige was demonstrated as one of the key constituents of the push factors, indicating the symbol of an “elite lifestyle” (Crompton, 1979) or a motivation to pursue a higher social position, as stated by Mohammad and Som (2010). However, the contradiction of the latter half part is that travelling in most of the case is the result of having already achieved certain social status, and in a lesser scale, a representation to affirm a certain class (i.e. the luxury type travel), but has never been established as a mean to achieve the upper-tier social class.

One thing that needs to be addressed is that most of the needs-motivation based theories discussed so far were developed from the working environment context and especially geared toward improving employee’s performance. Therefore, certain conditions and assumptions might not apply to the mass population, not to mention the changing in the social and economic state between the current state and when the authors first introduced these theories.

2.2.4.6. *Emotion and mood*

According to neuroscience specialists, emotions display many attributes similar to that of the physiological construct (Schachter and Singer, 1962), in addition to the common depiction as a mental state. There have been interpretations that assigned different states of emotions to the result of the chemical reaction or biological phenomenon of the internal body. This perspective directed the attention to not the entire brain system, but only few structures in the centre that is linked to emotions (Broca, 1878; Papez, 1937; MacLean, 1952). More recent findings have revoked the statement, shifting the role to other non-limbic structures (Dantzer, 1989; Dan *et al.*, 2007). The latter studies were conducted in line with health topic, thus ended up with similar conclusions that considered the negative emotions as having a detrimental effect to internal organs and gradually wear down the body immune system.

Although being placed under the same category as other psychological attributes, the consumer's mood is often illustrated to have a distinct position among emotional exhibitions (the term "emotional state" hereby shall be used to imply the identity of collective psychological affair instead of being exclusively reserved for just emotion). To clarify this point, the mood will be placed in contrast with emotions, both of which are being used in an interchanging fashion in conventional dialogue. Emotion is seen as a quick on-the-spot response that has a specific target. Due to its intensity, emotion can't last for a long time. Mood, however, is a more "durable" construct that can persist for a longer duration and isn't normally spawned from any particular sources (Ekman, 1999). The precise narration would be that mood is the result of encountering certain situational conditions (environment factors, catalysts and even triggering emotion). This trait is found to be consistent with the early configuration for consumer's mood of Babin *et al* (1992) and Knowles *et al* (1993). Further attempts to justify the difference between the two concepts can also be found in other facets: the field of impact (Davidson, 1994), the physiologic relationship Panksepp (1994), linguistics iteration Wierzbicka (1992) ...; though most of which are not sufficiently backed up with empirical evidence (Beedie *et al.*, 2005)

In this sense, the connection between emotion and mood can be positioned as two spectrums on a continuum scale, both of which portray a grandiose psychological phenomenon with the trade-off being made under the term of persistence and intensity.

2.2.4.7. Attitude

According to Schiffman and Kanuk's (2009) definition, attitude is perceived as a learned self-evaluation, identified as either favourable or unfavourable toward specific subjects or objects. This declaration referred to attitude as the result of emotion, belief or behaviour; and in turn, these three elements are also subject to the influence of external impact and the information received and can be acquired through learning. In summary, an individual attitude has never been a self-born emotional phenomenon, but an acquired experience built up through personal experience or through interacting with different information sources. Accumulated experience doesn't have to be new knowledge or understanding but can be also acquired through evaluating from the past.

The discussion relating to the consistency attribute of attitude has not yet reached a consensus. The attitude that associates with a specific subject is subjected to change over time by individual experience interaction; therefore, consistency, in this case, has a tied causal relationship with personal bias adjustment. The second exhibition of attitude consistency, as dictated by common sense and many authors, is evaluated by the credibility of predicting accordingly behaviour given by the initial attitude. Solid empirical results were supporting for the positive correlation between positive emotions, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Bigné *et al.*, 2005; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2007; Grappi and Montanari, 2011; Han and Jeong, 2013). On a larger scale, there were perceived key issues regarding the consistency between attitude and behaviour: first, mixed results of this relationship have been given credit to situational condition and background of the research topic, as well as its nature of being a versatile factor subjected to personal characteristics. In addition, the involvement of the situational dynamic could even influence any well-established intentional behaviours, up to the point of reverting them to the opposite direction.

2.2.4.8. *Psychological consumption from the specific situational contexts*

It is perceived that shopping activity is the solution that consumers usually seek to lessen the pressure incurred by need. By utilizing Maslow's mapping and pre-discussed needs-motivation framework as a reference, it is possible to identify the corresponding level of consumption with the incurred need. Nevertheless, every classification of need so far has yet to provide sufficient accounting for every consumers' existed desire. Granted that all the needs have been fully aware of, there is also no guarantee that they shall remain consistently forever, seeing how versatile human needs are. Also, types of consumption patterns also exist that don't directly link to any particular need, with some even contradicting the orthodox "logical action".

Nostalgia associated consumption is an exceptional phenomenon of consumer behaviour. This concept ties with a broader range of memory than just the experience from past purchasing, and more than often, only evoked when individuals encounter memento with reminder value. It is perceived that the recollection of data has been distorted by the "memory agenda" and coloured with emotion, aka "memories of memories" (Freud, 1899; Hirsch, 1992). Nostalgia doesn't necessarily stem from childhood memories (though a significant proportion of the phenomenon does come from this source) but from a distant period that is far dated enough to obscure the recalling process of the host's memory. Some opinions doubt the correlation between nostalgia and age, explaining it as how some seniors act against innovativeness (Lambert-Pandraud and Laurent, 2010) or due to the significant event in life (Juhl *et al.*, 2010; Hepper *et al.*, 2012). The recollection of memories, in this case, is not the exact reflection of the period but was constructed at later periods of the arousal. On the other hand, in the nostalgia phenomenon, a trace of individual social identity can be found. The author also questioned the historical accuracy of these memories, due to the gap between when the real event took place and when it emerged later, and due to the influence of positive emotions that obscure the true reflection. In this sense, any consumption decision that is tied with nostalgia feeling is highly likely to be more influenced by emotions than purchasing for the other needs. This is not always a case of misleading cause driven by falsehood and misinterpretation as Freud projected.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2009), consumers are overwhelmed by thousands of new products emerging every year, and there is no guarantee for any of them to be chosen. In addition, the restriction to the individual's cognitive and memory ability also allows for a limited amount of information to get through the mind and catch attention. People with first-hand experience or have access to full information is less likely to be swayed by reference groups' than those with little to no knowledge in the same interest. However, superfluous amount of information could also backfire turning into hindrance that consumers need further efforts to process. Therefore, people who grow enough familiarity to a given brand are found to be more likely paying attention to the new branches or new lines of items under that brand or trademark family than that of the competitors.

2.2.5. Other related concerns

2.2.5.1. Divergence of consumer type and consumption style

The new episode in technology renovation has been giving elevation to a new classification system of consumers: the innovators and the non-innovators. Innovating consumers are depicted with an open-minded and readily accepting attitude toward new products (which is alleged to be stem from personal craving for uniqueness), yet they still also base their final decisions on self-accumulated experience, knowledge and standard value. The frequent depiction of innovative-oriented consumers tends to fit with young generation profile, due to their high capabilities in learning and adaptive abilities. In Schiffman and Kanuk's illustration (2008), consumer innovators possess higher education level with a high degree in both income and occupational status, which partly explained their easy-going characteristic. Nevertheless, this is by no mean a concrete universal rule to force onto consumers of this category. On the opposite polar, the "dogmatic" non-innovators are portrayed with opposite personalities seeing how they show less patience and difficulty to accept changing or new ideas. Normal encounter types of shopping practice are the cautious and spontaneous individuals.

Another purpose that people intentionally indulge for in shopping spree is to lessen the negative feelings incurred from other unfortunate social events. Despite the

satisfaction this activity delivers, engaging shoppers more than often end up with excessive spending on redundancy items, thus leaving them with the regret feeling and further financial issues to solve later. The phenomenon is previously perceived as one of many features in consumerism society (often assimilated with the Western developed countries) but have recently expanded in range to many developing countries. This derivative of shopping is taken into account for discussion, due to its unique nature separating it from any purpose-led traditional tangible and intangible desires; however, this appears more frequently with physical items that are readily available to purchase, since they match with the impulsive and immediate requirement of the spree. Service or intangible items are thus less applicable, due to their contrasting characteristics and for that, the researcher decided to exclude this scenario from this research for the type of tourism service under study.

2.2.5.2. Reference group

Reference group is widely recognized as a social construct that represents a certain set of values that individuals tend to use as a standard to compare whether they belong to the group or not. According to Goodwin *et al.* (2008), the term “reference group” should be divided into three minor components to fully represent its meaningful capacity: reference group as the established basis for comparison purpose, membership group to which they belong and the aspirational group that they want to join. This demonstration gave attention to the individual’s social position but hasn’t been sufficient to be qualified as a combination of demographic variables. The classification that Goodwin *et al.* (2008) suggested there was a sub-branch of the original concept to account for a certain exhibition of the consumption style, thus far from what the original “reference group” didn’t clarify.

The earlier identity of the reference group (family and friends) was perceived to consist of clusters which people belong to, but do not fully represent their social identity. Celebrities or endorsement are the popular choices as representative agencies, to advertise brand image and message to users; meanwhile, close-quarter assembly like colleagues or shopping groups share a more engaging experience. A typical nine-to-five

officer spends more time with colleagues than with family member regularly (not to mention the case of working overtime or partly in a weekend). Due to this, whether willingly or not, their interaction with colleagues' groups account for most of the social connection and thus, gives rise to the growing role of colleagues, especially informal friendship with co-workers. Although an equivalent role of colleague groups for freelancers or self-employers can't be found, the nature of being self-governing and a larger networking relationship may as well impact individual consumption pattern in further than limiting it to profession's related decisions.

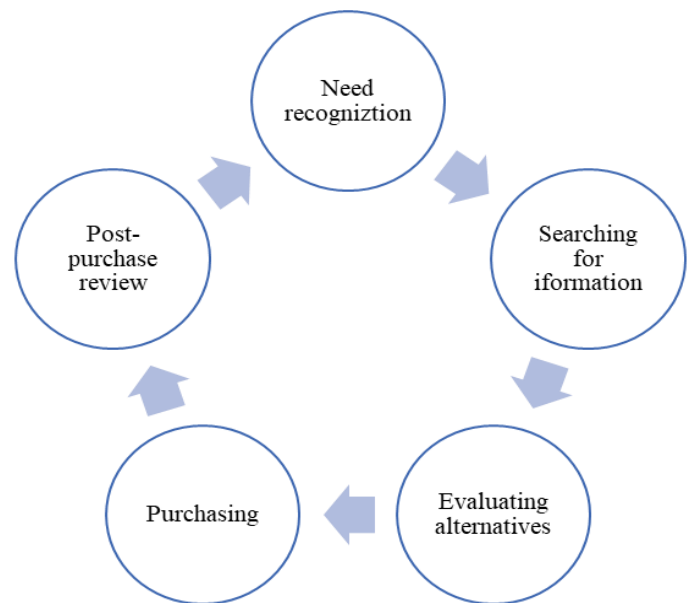
The latest development of reference groups has been the expansion of the virtual based world via social platforms. It should be noted that this type of groups didn't emerge for the first time but has been already rooted since the 2000s, via specific forums and professional blogs in shopping or technical topics. What boosted this exponential growth in recent years, was the overall upgrading in connection support tools and platforms that enable multiple methods of sharing information (stories, image, video...), throughout virtual communities. The distinction between this group from its social counterpart is that personal profile between membership varies from anonymous to the limited public (never fully disclosed), so that communication disregards the barrier of demographic profile.

In the mass population's opinion, an endorsement is assimilated with celebrities or professional symbols, and receives promotions through mass media channels. However, these two are just facets of a bigger branch within the reference group - the opinion leader. The distinction is that the opinion leader does not need to be identified with either of the previous concepts but could be anyone knowledgeable of what they promote and most importantly, have certain degree of influence to the targeted audience. In addition, opinion leaders are eligible to share their evaluation on a wide range of items, which enable for a larger market segment than an exclusive sponsor contract of the old advertising format. Due to the exponential growth of people joining virtual communities in recent years, opinion leaders have been enjoying more attention and gain even more impact than before.

2.2.6. Overview of the decision making process

Standard accepted decision-making process is a model of three subsequent stages: the pre-purchase, the purchase and the post-purchase phases (Rayport and Jaworski, 2003; Oke *et al.*, 2016). However, this proposal was rather too simple; thus, the substitutions to be used for more insights are the variations of the five stages model first introduced by John Dewey in 1910 (Figure 2.5). As each step has been

Figure 2.5. Consumer decision-making



Source: Extracted from Engel *et al.*' model 1968

clearly demonstrated and the model is visibly portrayed, it is unnecessary to go into details of describing each phase's content. What is more important is to examine the related conditions further than what was suggested by the model (i.e. interference variables, situational context) and the variations of the theoretical/realistic gap that might be incurred.

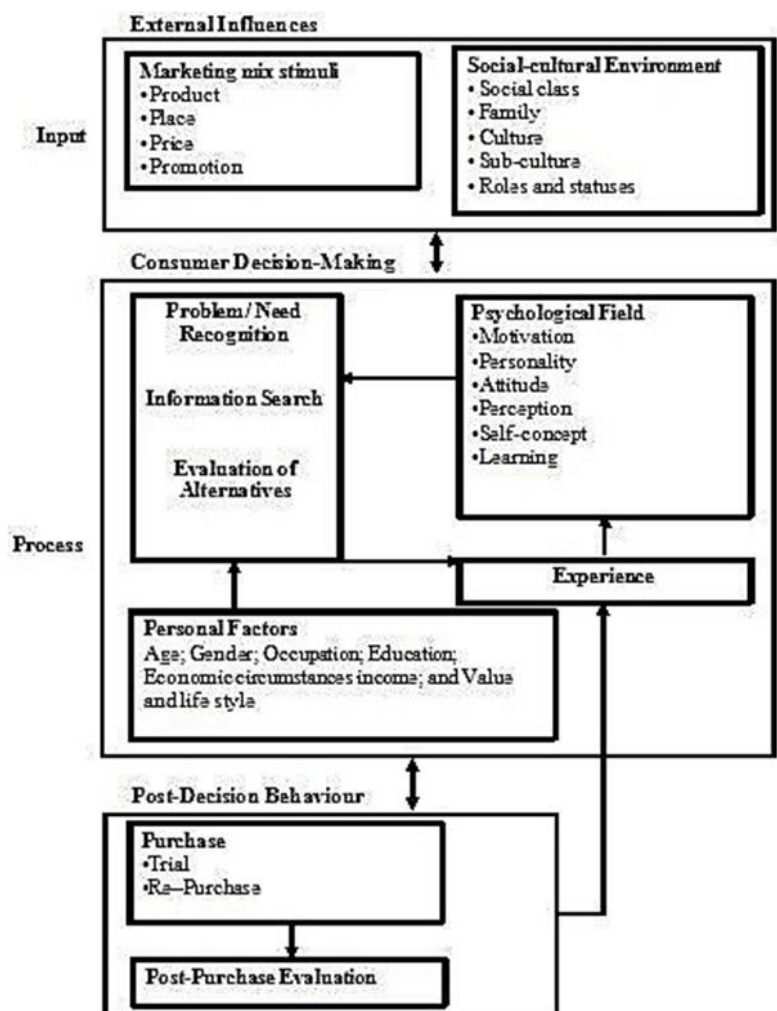
Although the normal graphical portrait of the process is a linear line that begins with the recognition of the need stage, the researcher finds it more appropriate for the process to be adapted in a circulation format. The reason is that at the end of the consumption phase, rational consumers would assess their experience and utilize it for future purchases. In fact, the most suitable presentation for this notion would be that of a continuous spiral, where the future processes are not simply identical repetitions but advanced purchases from the experience accumulated.

Consumer decision-making is a mixture process made up of different combinations and is customized by the objectives, intended purchase items and the expected result. It has been confirmed that not every choice is followed by the same degree of attention and effort, regardless of whether it is the same item(s) or not. As mentioned in the previous section, if consumers have to pour in an excessive effort for the whole process to make

a decision for every purchase, the shopping experience will turn out to be a daunting task and an unnecessary waste of time (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009). On the other hand, if the decision-making just follows a predefined routine, then it will be no different from a “to-do-checklist” without pleasure and excitement. Along with that reasoning, the authors assigned each shopping episode to one of three categories: “extensive problem-solving”, “limited problem solving” or “routinized responsive behaviour” depends on the extent of involvement and of the possessed by consumers in advance. This organization system was also widely accepted and used in later adaptations (Hawkin *et al.*, 2007; Hyde, 2008).

The emotional perspective assumed the role of influencing the decision to impulsion, mood and other emotional states. This principle has led opinions to underwhelm the significant counterpart of reasoning and logical factors, a contradiction to the reasoned man theory projected earlier. On one side, any decision being made is designed to achieve anticipated goals, but the act of pursuing and the expected state after the purchase is made also lean toward seeking the satisfaction feeling.

Figure 2.6. The simplified consumer decision-making model



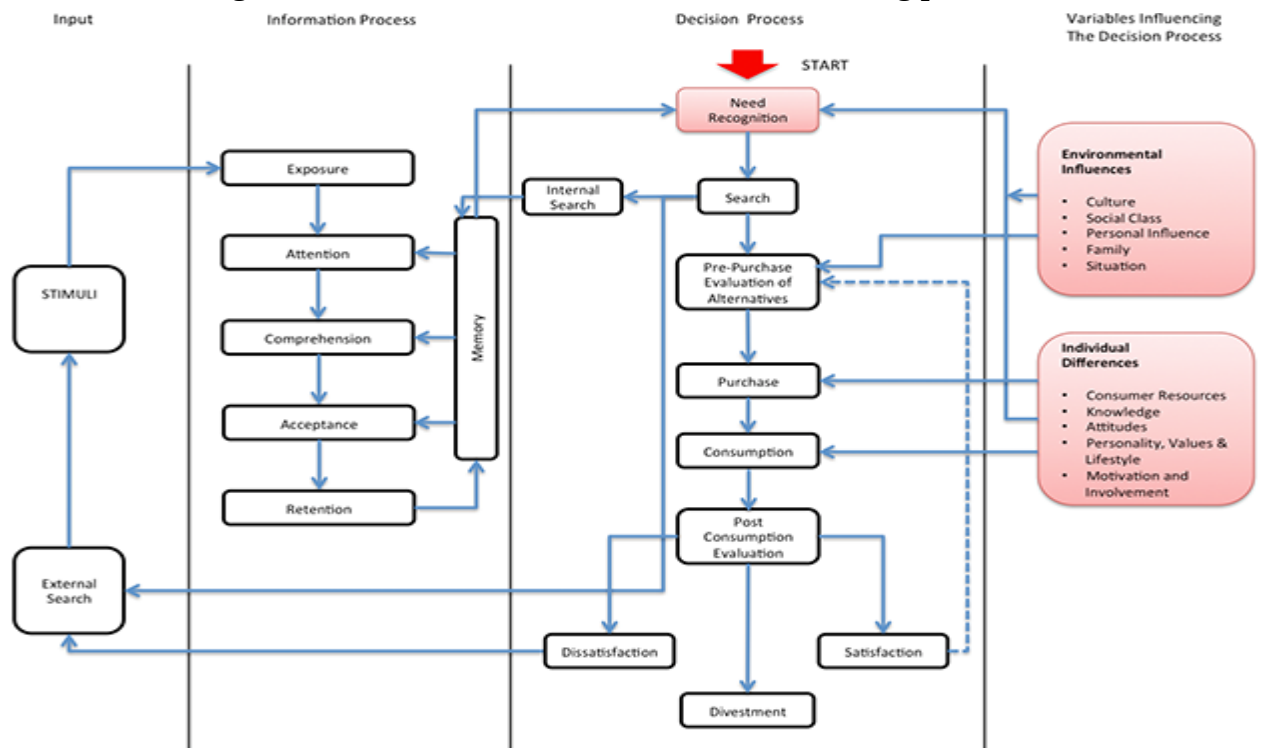
Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009

Furthermore, the emotional state also exhibits an attribute of a learning process accumulated through experience. Therefore, it is appropriate to confirm the dualistic

nature of decision-making, where its manifestations vary between the two polars of rationality and emotions.

The simple depiction of consumer decision-making model (abbreviated as a simplified model) was mentioned in many publications of Schiffman and Kanuk (Figure 2.6) and adopted in other research with minor adjustments. In addition to the decision-making process addressed at the centre position, there is the inclusion of both the external and the internal environments, psychological factors and experience. The model also hinted at a subtle connection between the demographic variables within the decision-making, although this connection has yet to include the further impact of a demographic factor beyond the scale of the decision-making. The authors also separated the whole process into various functioning divisions, then regrouped them into two main stages: the process and the post-purchase behaviour.

Figure 2.7. The extended consumer decision making process model



Source: Shaw, 2015

Later developments have either focused in detail on certain aspects of the Schiffman and Kanuk's model or added new elements as seen in the extended model (Figure 2.7), which takes further the information processing in parallel with the known process portrayed in the simple

model. The vague relationship of the demographic factors is also outlined clearer than in the simplified model image.

External sources (mass media, reference group, family member...) have been the common establishment in many projects as the basis of searching for information. On the contrary, the acquired experience has been underestimated despite being one of the significant and reliable internal sources. In previous studies, the experience being discussed is often implied as the immediate experience resulting from contemporary consumption, with few exceptions that did briefly mentioned the connection between satisfaction and repeated purchase. However, this is just one exhibition of applying experience for a specific brand product/item.

In reality, most repetitive commodities purchase gain benefit greatly from experience rather than searching for new data. As stated by Schiffman and Kanuk (ibid), the greater the similarities between experience and current situation, the fewer the efforts of consumers to gather additional information to make up their mind. Accrued experience, by nature, is the reflection of learning capabilities and confirms the model of decision making as a continuous process that links from last purchases to the next ones. On the other hand, past experiences that involve a perception of risk associated with a specific item(s) were not displayed clearly either, despite proving their existence, i.e. in a high-risk situation, consumers usually engage in extensive and carefully information research; or even with a considerate amount of past experience, one with low confidence also tends to search for more.

2.2.7. Depiction of Vietnamese consumer characteristics

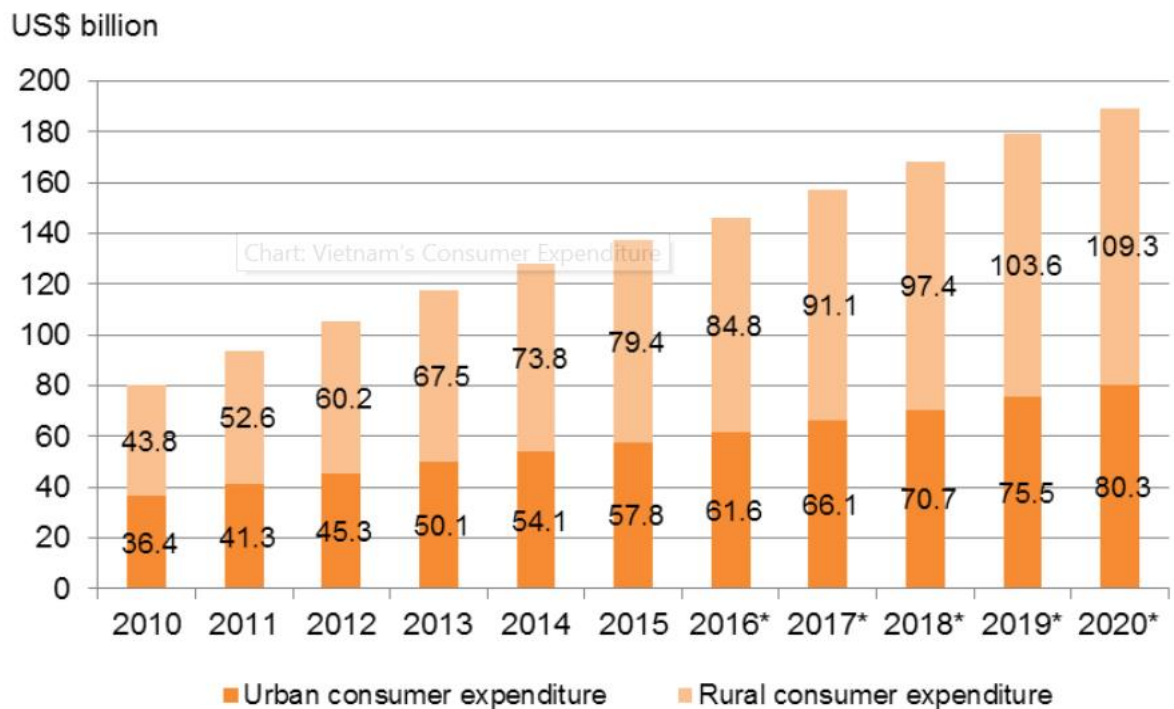
2.2.7.1. Economic and social background

According to the latest United Nation's record and estimation (danso.org, 2020), the Vietnamese population has reached 97 million people and currently ranks the 15th on the global scale. The current Vietnamese population has increased over 1.5 times, compared to the records of 1986 and twice the number of 1975. The country also boasts a young population structure with the average age of 30.9, and approximately 70% of the population falls in the labour age from 15 to 64 in 2017 (ibid). Vietnamese population is

identified with a young structural society but has a slower rate of growth in the recent 10 years compared to the preceding equivalent period (Huy, 2019). This trend is expected to last in the short term but will soon be replaced with the rapidly ageing trend, as the reduction in the birth rate has gradually shown effect following the increase in life span (Nguyen, 2017).

Urbanization keeps on growing with the increase of new city/town units over the years, and the five major cities Ho Chi Minh, Hanoi, Hai Phong, Nghe An and Vinh are still the centres with high resident density rate among others (International Enterprise Singapore, 2014). The urban population has so far accounted to more than one-third of the country's total population, and the rate is expected to reach 60% by 2050 (danso.org, 2020). During the 2010-2016 periods, rural consumer expenditures rose by more than 90% (HKTDC Research, 2017), significantly greater than the rate of 69% from the urban counterpart (Figure 2.8). However, the gap in consumption power for both groups started to narrow down to reach an equal status.

Figure 2.8. Vietnam's Consumer Expenditure



* Estimate/forecast

Source: Euromonitor cited by HKTDC research, 2017

Since the national economic reform campaign was introduced in 1986, there has been rapid improvement in Vietnam's economic conditions. Consecutive policies in the following year have maintained the growing pace, and gradually improved the social and

economic conditions in both, the major cities and the rural areas. In particular, many provinces have been promoted into industrial specialized zones, thanks to foreign and government investments. Up until 2017, 326 industrial zones were spreading out through 61 of the total 63 provinces and cities in Vietnam (Bnews, 2018). Despite this widespread and substantial growth in quantity, unresolved issues during the development and operating of these areas still exist: lack of supporting industries segments, lack of connecting between industrial zones, failure to maintain environment quality... Consequently, these industrial and economic zones have yet to reach the standard of efficiency and sustainable development (ibid). In the scale of the national economy, there are urgent concerns over the high dependency on the exploitation of natural resources, while bureaucracy, lack of transparency and abuse of power are still proven as long-term hindrances to the development prospect (Pham, 2017).

In major cities and their satellite regions, available jobs are catered toward skilled labour and high education market in both private and foreign-invested business. In suburban and rural regions, the growth of manufacturing agricultural products gains benefit from the general improvement in working conditions and stable export demand. In addition, migration as a common event in Vietnamese villages also requires measures to regulate the possible negative influence. Therefore, by renting out unused farmlands between families and receiving financial support from migrants, the economic and social structures are regulated and maintained in balance (Nguyen, 2017). Furthermore, many villages also get advantages from the need to support nearby industrial and economic zones.

Overall, Vietnam has experienced a robust reduction in the unemployment rate and achieved stability in economic growth and welfare benefits (World Bank, 2018). Surprisingly, the unemployment rate from the rural area was lower than the rate recorded in the urban counterparts (1.9% compared to 3.2% respectively), of which the key reason comes from the overabundance of migration effect to cities from rural regions. The majority of migrant campaigns before 1990 were directed by government's programmes, whereas afterwards, the movement becomes a personal choice coming from the desire to search for a better job and earning (Nguyen, 2017).

Vietnam has delivered an image of a stably growing economy for years, signified by a steady growth rate in GDP at the average of 6.2% since 2007 (calculated using data of General Statistics Office in 2019). All sectors have experienced a comparative high development rate, led by the industrial divisions (General Statistics Offices of Vietnam, 2018). However, this is just a skim at the surface of the economic picture. According to Nguyen *et al.* (2019), there exists a bias in the economic structure and performance where a large proportion of the contribution toward GDP was generated by the foreign-invested enterprises, in addition to the significant cash flow to their respective “mother” countries. The “lenient” regulations and other favouritism support to attract investment were addressed as the tipping points that create significant advantage for the FDI (foreign direct investment). Before concluding the study, the authors presented the gradual fall in the structure of import/export trade toward these foreign-invested enterprises in parallel to the shrinkage in the domestic sector’s share. Despite the validity of these arguments and their relevance in the current condition in the Vietnamese economic, there are rooms for theoretical re-evaluation and elevation. Firstly, the point of this study is to build on the general examination of the simple generalization between the three major ownership entities in economic: state, non-state and foreign investment, which, in reality, is much more complicated not only due to numerous branches of each sector but also due to their overlapping interactions and relationships. Other point is the overly pessimism of the authors’ belief over the non-adjustment of the government’s regulation in tax and incentives over enterprise operations in the long term. Finally, there are also noticeable sign of the recuperation and development in scale and performance from Vietnamese domestic enterprise in recent years.

The risk of inflation has emerged in regular basis along with the history of the economic growth in Vietnam. There were times when history reached a significant level and left a detrimental consequence on the economy. The financial crisis from 2007 to 2008 created a significant level of inflation (Figure 2.9), the highest since the 1990 rate (67.1%) exceeding the GDP growth. Following periods also witnessed a sequence of high inflation before it was regulated to a stable level in 2017. An additional feature of the country’s economic status is its sensitivity toward news related to the incremental of

fuel price and raw materials. Because of this, commodities price were always the first to respond and turn into catalysts to further extend the time of inflation.

2.2.7.2. Vietnamese consumer characteristics

An overview of income background

Figure 2.9. Inflation rate of Vietnam for period 1996 - 2019



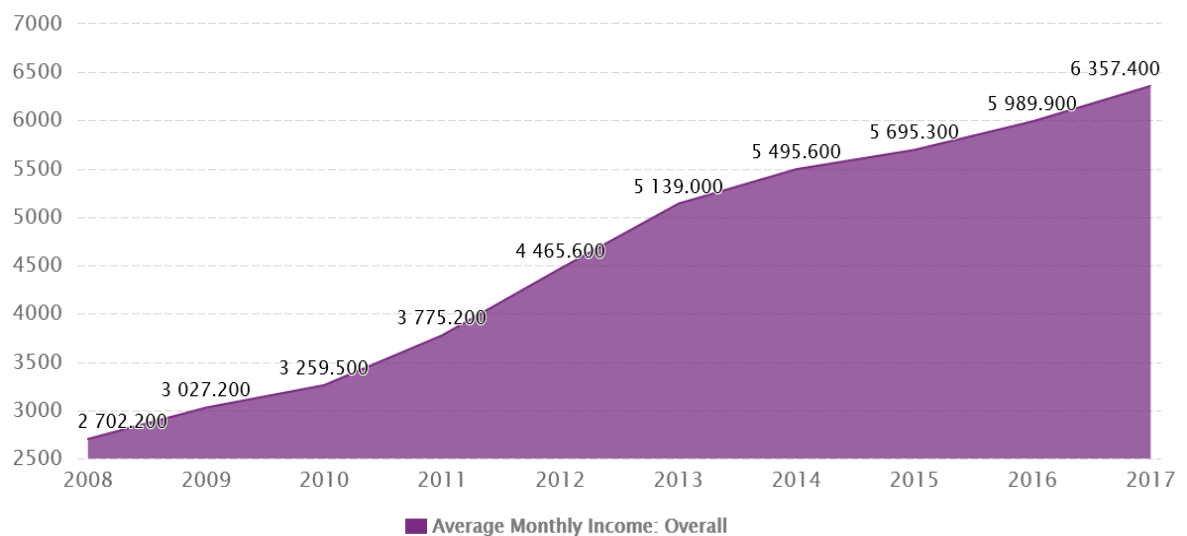
Source: Extracted from General Statistic Office of Vietnam, 2020

Spending on daily commodities accounts for the majority of the Vietnamese consumer budget (60%), leaving consumers to be more reserved when weighing between the need for additional items and the need for savings. Despite the improvement of the economy in general and in individual's average income, the spending capacities of Vietnamese consumers are still lower than that of other developing countries within the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) region. The average monthly income of Vietnamese people by the General Statistics Office was 6.357.400 VND (approximately USD 275, Figure 2.10). Even though this measurement has been gradually increasing every year, Vietnam is still identified as the country of the majority of low-tier income level on a global scale. However, the reliability of this measurement has already been questioned in general (Saunders, 2010; Buch, 2012). The “under-recorded” data condition from Vietnamese surveys (Bui *et al.*, 2001) is also due to the

commonality of secondary jobs and various sources of income. Furthermore, the self-employment types in rural region are difficult to be quantified (Nguyen, 2006; Liu, 2008), while many officers in state sectors can earn a significant amount of financial and non-financial benefits through unlawful means (Gainsborough *et al.*, 2012). The overall structure of distributing income showed that the Construction and Transportation and Storage industries had the highest level, while the Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery scored as the lowest income segment (General Statistics Office, 2018).

Although the GDP index has been demonstrating a tendency for steady development

Figure 2.10. Average monthly income of Vietnamese consumers recorded for period 2008 - 2017



Source: General Statistics Office, 2018

throughout the years, the base level of income on average is at a low level and there is a considerable gap between occupations. This may also be one of many reasons that consumers are more reserved in their consumption habits, presented by a rate of 78% of the available income to be converted to savings for future needs (Nielsen, 2016). As mainstream studies regularly projected, consumers are easily swayed by price-related incentives, i.e. discounts and/or gifts (International Enterprise Singapore, 2014). In contrary, counter-arguments that reject this proclamation imply that pricing tools are only effective to a certain degree as long as consumers' basic requirement of certain desires has yet to be satisfied (regardless of the type of items and not to be confused with the basic level of need from Maslow). Once this level of requirements was met, the demand becomes less elastic and any changing in price will have a diminishing influence

on their established opinion. Possessing a high level of purchasing power leads to greater aspirations (Kantar Worldpanel, 2017) but how is being expressed varies between individuals. Some may indulge in an overspending manner to fuel the in-the-moment satisfaction, without any regards to the actual needs and desires or potential consequences; meanwhile, others may opt for saving options that can increase their future purchasing power.

The relativities of the social class system based on income

According to the Vietnamese's income basis, it could be stated that the middle class takes up the majority of the population. To be precise, it is shown that a majority of lower-middle Vietnamese class could only be identified with an "enough-to-spend" level of income, and roughly 13% of them can adequately fit into the actual global identification of the "middle class" using income as the sole measurement (World Bank, 2020). This means the so-called middle class in Vietnam has an unbalanced structure with most people falling around the category's low spectrum. Nevertheless, there are always opportunities to upgrade the class and social status and thus, many positive predictions believed in the prospect of the class exponential growth in the future (Boston Consulting Group, 2013). For people with below than average income, the demand for luxury items is less insistent, in comparison with other necessities. Nonetheless, the majority of consumers still share the belief that imported items surpass domestic origin goods of the same type or even the identical ones, in terms of quality. The middle and upper class (office staff and younger professional) with a high salary level (400 - 800 USD/monthly) look for branded products and are willing to pay for a higher price.

Up until the early 1990s, most of the economic sectors are still being dominated by the state-owned enterprise, making it an ideal choice of a job. This has been subsequently reflected into the social structure with two main classes distinguished by the job: the state worker (could be divided further into elite and small elite components) and the mass (often deemed in general as a private sector). Since the international integration took place afterwards and the adaptation of open economic policies followed, the economic structure has been reformed as state-owned enterprises displayed a weak performance compared to other factions, and with the emergence of foreign-invested enterprises. As

a requirement for renovation to put forth, the state sector has been structuring and stratifying, but has lost the reputation of the most desirable choice of employment (Ly, 2018). In contrast, the temptation of rewarding jobs from the foreign-invested sector has reached the interest of many (ibid). Naturally, the distinction in the social class also becomes less impactful, when the economy has been experiencing an overall rise and growth of multi-sector industries, regulated under the government's mediation.

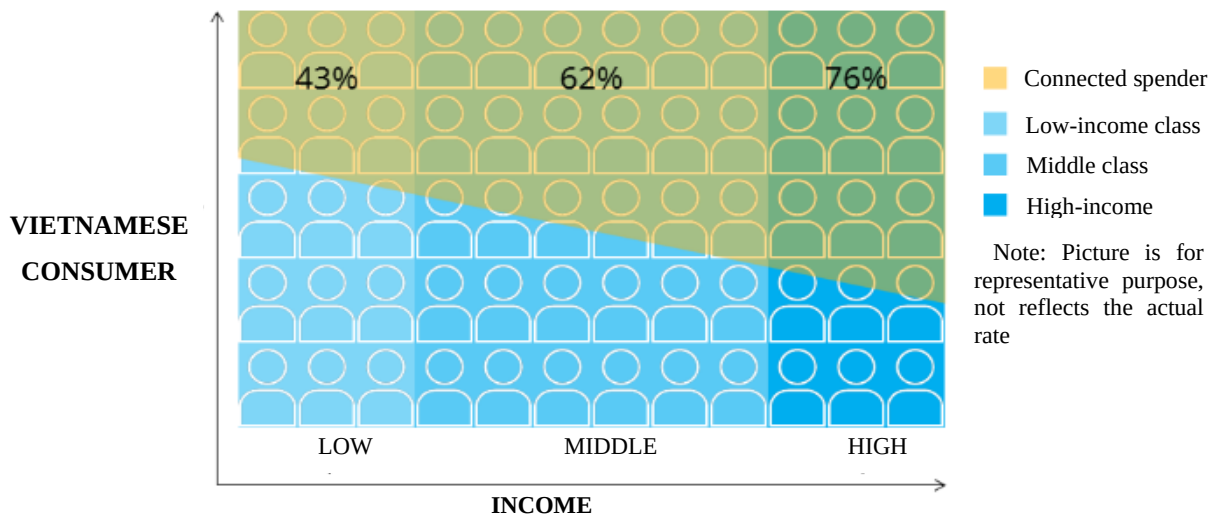
According to the governing policy and the leading doctrine of the Communist Party, the Vietnamese government recognizes its society to be an alliance between workers, peasants and intellectuals. Social class wasn't admitted to being the system of inequalities, and according to the constitution, all classes and strata are to be placed in equal status and have equal opportunities in living conditions, thus eliminating the true meaning of a social class. In the current situation, the concept of "social class" that has been mentioned through legal documents has only a limited symbolic meaning. However, neither the existence of a class is to be completely denied, not when the market economy that Vietnam has paved in for the multi factors economic entities, nor the political perspective regarding the social class is useful for research.

Emergence of a new consumer group – the connected spenders

The latest development in consumers' market has led to the changes in shoppers' mind-set and movement variations that were not seen before. One example could be found in a recent report by Nielsen and Demand Institute (2017), in which a new term has been coined to the future potential Vietnamese consumers – the connected spenders. The concept of a "potential consumer" mentioned in this new term occupies two criteria: have a good understanding of digital technology and possess above-average financial capabilities. According to this record's speculation, the number of Vietnamese consumers who fall in this segment will grow at an exponential rate in the near future and is expected to reach 40 million by 2025. Their annual spending amount is anticipated to be 99 billion USD, occupying half of the total population's volume. According to Figure 2.11 and to the definition of the term, income is not the decisive sign to identify the connected spenders, as there are even consumers from low-income class who also belong to this tag line. This proves that besides just the two mentioned criteria to identify

the connected spenders, it is essential to realize that the attitude and confidence in the spending power also separate them from other consumer segments.

Figure 2.11. Vietnamese connected spender within different income



Source: Nielsen, Q1 2007

An overview of other demographic characteristics

General assessment using gender as the measurement has been progressing since the movement for equality occurred on a global scale. The movement has enhanced women's

social standing, resulting in more women joining many economic sectors that were previously considered as male-exclusive. In addition, women also gained social support to hold senior positions (International Enterprise Singapore, 2014), and increase influential in both societies and within the family. This was especially meaningful in Asian countries with gender impartiality like Vietnam. However, the comparison ratio of women in senior positions, whether in political or business fields, are still very modest. On the other hand, people of the third gender or transgender also received less prejudice and took part in normal economic and social activities as others, although this group only accounts for a small number of the total Vietnamese population.

In previous Vietnamese societal conditions, people were more reserved in their social relationships. The circle of trust and interaction was then only limited among family members and certain acquaintances of similar social status; thus, the reference groups for any purchasing decision also contained those groups. However, as the globalization took place, and later were the birth of internet and innovation in mobile devices,

consumers have been exposed to the global network of information and the new groups of reference: peer user forum and review websites. In these channels, the element of anonymity has reduced the importance of class and status of the referees to insignificant, in contrast to the same scenario if it were to be carried out through any other direct interactional means. Instead, the only issues that matter are the past users' experiences and their opinions on the items in consideration.

In contrast to the theoretical image depicted for the New generations, this consumers' segment in Vietnam has displayed a high level of a sceptical attitude toward marketing campaigns. The popular rational cause is theorized to stem from the flooding of information with questionable credibility and validity. According to a survey in 2017 by Isaac and Grayson, it was discovered that the previous marketing tactics that either employ celebrities to endorse products or hire actors to play the role of peer consumers to give positive opinions is no longer effective in generating credibility. In addition, advertising messages in the old media channels are ineffective in getting attention from both, the old and the new generations of consumers. In contrast, it was found that the Millennials and the later cohort have displayed more faith in reviews from peer users, especially those from the virtual network. This is consistent with the general consumer's characteristics of consulting reference groups, with a slight change in the platform and the new definition of those targeted as "similar status".

Comparison of urban and rural consumers

Due to the urbanization gradually taking place and the migration toward the major city, the population of Vietnamese rural people has fallen, despite still accounting for a large component of the nation (68% in 2014 recorded by Nielsen and 66% in 2016 recorded by World Bank). Compared to their urban counterpart, rural consumers display exceptional bonding to family members and neighbourhood, resulting in a higher level of dependency on reference groups' opinions. This group is also reported to be less sceptical than urban consumers.

In Vietnam, the estimated number for the "pioneer" customer is around a third in both the urban and the rural population (Kantar Worldpanel, 2017). On the other hand, older generations are also divided into different segments under the influence of

innovation and new settings: on one side, some people welcome the latest consumption trends and attempt to be adaptive, while the “conservative” counterparts still maintain their familiar lifestyles and habits.

According to JLL City Momentum (2018), Vietnam has been placed among the countries that have cities with the fastest technology adaptabilities. The evidence that this report used was based on the access rates to the Internet per household of the major cities and the countryside, which are 94% and 69% respectively. People are also well equipped with technical gadgets, seeing as about 62% of Vietnamese people now already have mobile phones, and half of them are smartphones. In the countryside, 44% of people possess a smartphone, even though identified as the average category when compared to the urban citizens. Given the availability of mobile devices and the improvement of network mapping coverage, consumers were also found to spend a lot of time using the Internet, which is 24.7 hours per week.

From studying the consumption pattern of Vietnamese consumers in major cities, Nielsen (2014) identified the presence of spontaneous trait in decision-making. The study revealed an equivalent ratio between buying items from a pre-made shopping list and purchasing unintentional items while strolling and browsing other items. The interesting point is that decisions involving out-of-need properties occur very quickly compared to the amount of time spent planning for the main purpose of shopping.

International brand favouritisms in consumption orientation

It has been common knowledge that Vietnamese people are foreign-oriented consumers. In specific, they demonstrate favouritism to international brands in every possible consumption-related aspect. On the other hand, it has yet to reach a clear conclusion concerning the attitude toward the merchandise categories of the same brands made in locally. The decisive reason is that international products have been capable of creating an appealing design and a higher quality, whereas domestic items are considered by default to be inferior in either or both aspects. However, the recent attitude of Vietnamese consumers when considering the purchase of international origin items have taken a few noteworthy changes:

- Firstly, foreign goods are recently re-formulated into three major categories based on their manufacture origin: (1) The Western goods; (2) the Japanese, Thailand, Indonesia... items and (3) the Chinese products. Items falling under category (1) are considered by default to attain a standard of good quality and thus, hold high status in most consumers' subconscious ranking. Category (3) products have been flooding in the Vietnamese market for a long time and were once preferred over domestic items, due to their visually attractive and significantly cheaper offerings. However, following the detection of hazardous substances of properties come from this origin (made aware of by the announcement of national government agencies and neighbouring countries' discovery results), Vietnamese consumers have exercised caution and even turned against any items with "Made in China" label. The last group, category (2), gradually gains support in recent years, thanks to their aggressive penetration strategies to the market via their own distribution channels and the diminishing of the market share occupied by type (3) product.

- Secondly, Vietnamese-owned brands and locally manufactured items, though slowly developing, have gradually caught people's attention and gained consumers' support. The profile listed a few brands in fashion clothes, foods and beverages, commodities... This progress has been realized due to the decline of the Chinese imported merchandises, and on the other hand, is the result of the restructuring strategies and general improvement in quality from domestic businesses. Nevertheless, the unsettled matter existed where the rate of consumer prefers and purchases domestic goods, though increased significantly previously, has reduced by 18% and 22% respectively for the period 2017 – 2018 (High-quality Vietnamese goods produced business Association, 2018)

- Finally, the purpose of seeking foreign-made goods has been changing according to the economic and social conditions. Vietnamese consumers often admire international goods for their quality assurance, whenever comparing them with the domestic equivalents. Therefore, improving the living standards has been set as their initial purpose, and continue to be so. Purchasing foreign-origin merchandises and the possession of an international brand also act as indicators (either faintly or transparently)

of a superior rank in terms of financial conditions and status. On a larger scale than individual consumption, the favouritism of consuming imported goods also serves as an announcement to the public about the image standard of a lifestyle (for the middle class), and a confirmation of an individual's identity (for the upper class).

2.3. Tourism service industry

2.3.1. An overview of the industry

Tourism activity has become familiar with academic studies as more and more literature emerged on a yearly basis. The common discussions are renewed versions of the concept and its socioeconomic impact, but not many have provided a comprehensive appraisal of its position. Jenkins (1997) stated that tourism sector in developed nations has the role of “social activity with economic consequences” and a reversed meaning for the developing ones – an “economic activity with social consequences”. This consumer-oriented proclamation emphasized the sector's primary function as that of social activity with derivative consequences in economic performance, with an additional implication that tourism can be categorized as other commodities consumption. In contrast, for the majority of developing countries' consumers, the need to travel occupies a higher position than just any regular consumed goods, thus its disposition of economic activity is still more significant than the social aspect.

According to the customer approach, the tourism sector is widely assimilated to a market of three branches: the domestic, inbound and outbound. The inbound segment, consisting of foreign consumers' visits, has been the focus of many countries (especially in developing nations) as the leading division of not just the industry, but also the overall economy. The targeted consumers and the destination of the outbound segment are the opposite: native travellers who decide to take outward journeys. This business format is likely made of a joint operation between a native agency and a foreign service provider thus, the financial results usually benefit the latter than the formers. The last segment, which aims at customers who travel within their own countries, is the domestic market. It can be identified that domestic tourism performs the redistributing function of resources between regions within the national boundaries, while international touristic

activities directly increase the wealth of the host nation(s). Due to its business model, outbound travel rarely aligns with governments' development planning and the inbound market is often considered a vital source of revenue among the three segments.

In the context of being limited in industrial assembly, the tourism sector can fill in as an alternative option to push economic growth (Bee Chin, 2008). Statistic records in performance also suggested a superior growth rate for tourism in developing countries, compared to their developed counterparts (John and Simon, 2006). However, the absolute number of tourist traffic and the value of turnover are still found to be consistently higher for the latter groups. However, these figures don't provide an insight for critical evaluation, e.g. information regarding the number of returning tourists, new visitors or the number of days that each group of tourists stay in the host nations...

From the conventional consumer perspective, tourism is often assimilated to the image of a recreation service; however, the purposes to be enlisted under the tourism's borderline are much more diverse, including but not limited to business travel, professional travel, meetings, medical purposes... (WTO, 1978). Regardless of the trip's purpose, tourism still has to face with both common and exclusive struggles as any other operating business. Firstly, travelling for other than business purposes does not always pose an urgent need compared to daily or essential priorities. Even capable consumers rarely consider tourism to be a common item for a regular basis, due to its abundant requirement other than just funding issues. Furthermore, consumers are also entitled to their lifestyles, preference and judgment to decide on the degree and frequency of using the service. On the other hand, competition within the services happens simultaneously at various levels: competition between different service providers of the same type or alternative options, among the different form of tourism formats and at a larger scale between different regions or nations.

From the aggregate viewpoint, tourism also exhibits its diversities in an operational structure to tailor customers' purposes (combined with closely related hospitality services or other economic sectors to form one united eco-business environment). Highly customized as it may sound, the current service providers are restricted by their established models to adapt with the emergence of new trends, while the new-born

enterprises may only cater to a specific targeted audience with a certain degree of offerings. Naturally, a package of joint services is often beneficial to consumers with a slight discount, but not everyone would be content with the trade-off between a few savings and their desired experience. Furthermore, they might find it enjoyable for certain service(s), but at the same time dissatisfy others within the same package. Considering how readily information is available and easily accessed, confident consumers have been found to independently create their own versions of tourism deals, by combining different services.

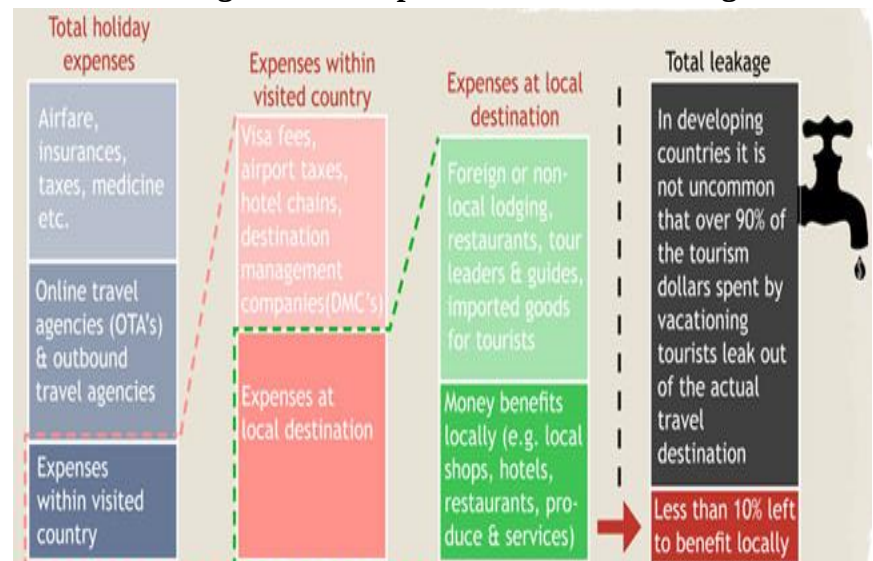
Being aware of the devastating impact resulting from the tourism industry, it was advised for touristic businesses to meet up with a requirement of certain quality standards (Appendix 1). Such certifications were brought into practice in America and Europe, but not many cases have produced any satisfactory outcomes so far (Graci and Dodds, 2015). In addition to the highly occupied economic growth, developing countries also encounter persistent struggles (stronger domination of short-term economy, political management deficiency and low proficiency of communication) that prevent them from paying attention toward the balance and sustainable development. Even though the subject was made aware in recent terms, the limitation of the resources has prevented them from performing effectively, like the developed counterparts. Overall, the topic of sustainable development hasn't shown any significant progress on a global scale for decades.

2.3.2. The economic and social influence of tourism industry

Similar to other economic sections, touristic services also exercise their influence through the three aspects, economic, socio-cultural and environmental, with either a positive or a negative effect. Rather than being depicted in a general perspective, these influences will be customized for the situation of the Vietnamese domestic segment. In addition, the following discussion will overlook most common issues and focus instead on subjects (both positive and negative) that have not yet received adequate attention.

Instead of discussing the revenue and earnings, the first influence in the economy is the monetary circulation (Archer, 1982) within the local economy. Tourists paid for their temporary visits, which is then used by the local residents for their own living expenses and

Figure 2.12. Depiction of tourism leakage



Source: Beach Meter. accessed 2019

involved further cycles within the touristic sites. In reality, this effect is far more limited due to the “tourism leakage” (Figure 2.12). According to this depiction of expenses structure, not all of the tourists’ spending reaches its community. While some may be officially listed as administrative fees or infrastructure reinvestments, the majority portion of the remaining expenses is normally found “leaked” to the external component of the package (e.g. foreign-owned service providers, imported goods and materials...). Furthermore, there is also an issue identified with the disputed trade-offs predicament between investment in tangible assets and regional environment status or communities’ living conditions. This matter also further expands to the undermining of the share of benefits and opportunities that the local residents rightfully deserve. Due to these concessions, touristic contributions to local regions are more or less justifiably questionable.

It has been known that tourism and travel sector is a labour-intensive sector, suitable for the developing countries background. There is a proclaiming that the local residents’ familiarity with touristic site(s) can be an advantage to gain access to the local tourism career. However, this isn’t entirely appropriate considering that the population’s migration always takes place and entrepreneurship opportunities are not equally accessible to every resident (Richards and Hall, 2003). More importantly, the service itself has been gradually raising the required standard knowledge in both, the technical

application and the professional skills. This adjustment has also been confirmed in the Vietnamese government's official documents concerning the development of tourism (Vietnam Ministry of Political Affairs, 2017).

The second impact of tourism initiates from the different cultural and behavioural patterns of visitors, in comparison to the daily norm of residents. The irony is this feature has always been promoted as one of the main appeals to attract visitors, but at the same time can incur possible conflicts in cultural values and beliefs between local people and tourists, which ranges from minor distinction to potential cultural clash. Many studies have mentioned the exploitation of tourism toward "vulnerable" local population (Rosenow and Pulsipher, 1979; Dogan, 1989; Burns and Holden, 1995; Monroe and Bishop, 2016) but few have questioned the reversed situation. Tempted by the economic benefits, many residents may alter their behaviour and attitudes to exploit short-term gains rather than promoting the traditions and cultural values of the sites for long-term tourism attraction (John and Simon, 2006). This "exploitation", often encountered in the form of overcharging or intervening as unnecessary intermediaries and other harassing methods, can be found as common practices in the inbound market of developing countries. On the other hand, many formats of "authentic experience" tourism have modified and reduced the significance of exotic cultural rituals and their manifestations to "mass-production" worth. In some occasions, tourists also demonstrate and exercise their cultural values and beliefs which may or may not conflict with the locals' (William, 1998). The degree of acculturation is more severe when there is a large gap in status between tourists of the developed countries and the developing countries' residents.

Regardless of whether tourism can become a successful movement for the local region or not, the development of the tourism sector always brings about certain compromises in sustaining environmental conditions. Overloading tourist traffic leads to a faster depletion of physical resources, especially without available sustainability plans. For many developing countries, this incident is even more substantial due to local authorities and local entrepreneurs' priority for short-term benefits, while underestimating the importance of preserving natural conditions and traditional cultural values. Besides, the expansion of tourism facilities also lessens the resources that may

be needed by other economic activities. Other than the concern of increasing the capacity to cope up with the number of tourists increasing, there might as well issues of increasing society vices in local communities.

2.3.3. Review of related tourist studies

2.3.3.1. From the viewpoints of previous models

The idea “to consume tourism is to consumer experience” diverts the sense of tourist being a consumer who pays for the usage of a product(s) into an immersive experiencer. However, it is hard to conclude that every form of services can convey similar messages and feelings to consumers. On one hand, people can find themselves absorbed into hedonism-oriented services (Media, entertainment, retail...), while other services may be suggestive of possessive and material consumption senses (finance, insurance, healthcare...), and then there are those without a clear borderline (consulting, education...). The conclusion is to approach tourists beyond the consumer’s concept, widening the perceptions of their behaviour set. In practice, researching tourism has adopted many marketing principles, yet the collective results have rarely surpassed the description phase and at best, segmented tourism instead of providing an explanation and in-depth reasoning for the behaviour of consumers (Dimanche *et al.*, 1995). The consumer’s decision-making model was also been applied to tourism in the early work of Mathieson and Wall (1982).

Previous models designed to study consumers’ behaviour were criticized, due to their deficiency of demonstrating the activity’s complex characteristics. A coordinated sorting of these studies could be enlisted in three areas: reviewing concepts in isolation (e.g. loyalty by Riley *et al.*, 2001), detecting agents of influence (e.g. social impact by Moutinho, 1993) or setting up a “case study” scenario type (e.g. first time visit and repeat type by Hong *et al.*, 2009). According to Cohen *et al.* (2013), these approaches lack the necessary connection to the industrial condition from the overall perspective. Part of these drawbacks was also discussed in the work of Mill and Morrison (2002), which attributed the causes to the immense magnitude of the topic area, while the others stem from the continuous process of service with intertwined stages.

Even if customers may react differently toward different types of items they want to purchase, the “mechanic” of making the decision still shares certain common similarities in each separate occasion (a reflection of their personalities and thinking) and in comparison to that of other consumers’ (Urry, 1990; Dimanche and Samdahl, 1991). To shed the light into this matter, further empirical testing of tourists’ behaviour could be found within the theory of Cognitive Dissonance (Juvan and Dolničar, 2014), the Attribution Theory (Kang *et al* 2012), and the Self-Identity Theory (Desforges, 2000; Harnag, 2009). These theories were established on the premise that internal aspects (cognition, self-identity, beliefs...) have different influence on individual behaviours through different situations, of which tourism-related context might be as well included. However, the dispersion of intensive case studies have brought about fragmented results, as their reliability was associated with the specifically chosen samples and designated methods. Furthermore, the entanglement between models and their adaptation from the rational or the psychodynamic based theories also led to these theories’ limitations.

So far, consumer behaviours have been diversifying and on occasions, straying from the known patterns. In a regular short-term basis, consumers’ minds undergo various degrees of fluctuations between minor and major; whereas the changes in the longer period are fundamentally distinctive to their early states. Consumers are no longer acting in a homogenous and linear fashion as dictated in previous models. For the tourism industry, the “old-type” tourists were those who preferred their journeys to be paid by their own savings (Moutinho, 1993), pre-arranged and often with companions; meanwhile, new tourists are often portrayed with spontaneous and unpredictable traits.

2.3.3.2. Vietnam tourism status

In a recent intensive comparative report (World Economic Forum, 2019), Vietnam held the position of the average to low end on the competitiveness effect on a worldwide scaling. However, this only accounts for the enabling environment (business-related), infrastructure and policy/enabling conditions, with the corresponding rank of 73, 94, 112 out of total 141 countries and regions; whereas natural and cultural resources are regarded as highly significant (33 out of 141).

In statistical terms, the number of domestic tourists in Vietnam has increased almost threefold in 15 years, peaking in 2009 at 25 million tourists, nearly reaching the projection by the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism (VNAT) of 30 million domestic trips by 2010 (VNAT, 2007). Vietnamese domestic tourists were discovered to prefer organising their own trips than purchasing package tours (59.6% and 40.4% respectively). The major source of travel information was from friends (40.4%), followed by the internet (28.3%), past experience (25.2%), and guidebooks (21.3%). Travel agents, tour operators and brochures played a minor role (less than 15%) in travel decisions.

Tourism in Vietnam is repeatedly reported to attract an increasing number of new visitors throughout the years, from both domestic and international markets, yet the destination image of the country as a touristic site is rather limited in research. As Nguyen (2019) cited the review study made by Nghiem (2014) for the period 2008 – 2012, stating that none of the literature research on Asian market had mentioned the Vietnamese' destination image. The lack of Vietnamese tourism consideration in experts' studies is important for two reasons: it reflects the realistic condition of the country's status quo and its relative position versus the neighbouring regions and serves as a reference document for stakeholders (professional scholars with relevant subject interests and government authorities). There might be retaliation to the first point but most of that came from native researchers and to a certain degree, these arguments were more or less subjective. Also, most of these studies were catered to the development of specific sites rather than evaluating the national standpoint. It could be also argued that professionals' reviews of documents can act as a channel to introduce and boost destination perception to new consumers (though this effect can't be considered efficient compared to other mediums). Regarding the second point, bringing applications and suggestions of conventional research into reality always encounter certain obstacles from the side of practitioners, which is even more difficult for the state-governed agents. Thus, findings (not just limited to the tourism or any other service sector) were hardly brought into practice, and the Vietnamese context is not an exception of such high resistance.

2.3.3.3. Demographic profile in previous studies

As mentioned by Dimanche (1995), studying consumer behaviours in the tourism field did not receive adequate attention among academic researchers. In addition, many studies have been only focusing on segmenting and portraying different kinds of tourists, rather than decrypting the meaning behind customer behaviours (ibid). However, this statement should be revised since there are records of studies on this topic.

Existing literature has mentioned the impact of demographic variables on consumers' demand (Jefferson and Lickorish, 1988). Holt (1997) combines social status (working class or middle class), geographical (urban, rural and cosmopolitan) and another criterion (education or lifestyle) to identify four lifestyles in a culture. The researcher argued that the lifestyle analysis assembles consumers into groups, while in fact, it was the systems' structure that determines individualistic activities. However, this design invokes the complexity when the effect of combining more than two elements may overlook certain potential groups. Moreover, the extent of boundaries is governed by others' influence, e.g. "cultural capital" and "social capital" on a larger scale. However, this suggestion is still inadequate with the factors of "social mobility and of consciously acquired taste", shaped by individual preferences of brands (Parsons and Maclaran, 2010).

Financial conditions or income status in the perspective of the consumer (as opposed to revenues in the perspective of the service providers) have already been discussed. At the basic sense, income is the initial determinant factor that enables the travelling activities to be materialized (Ryan, 2003). Social and psychological factors are the next layers of influence that outline the detail of the choice and are subject to have an interconnected relationship with income (ibid). Meanwhile, the passive view also confirmed that the possibilities of demand for travelling are created by financial capabilities (Morley, 1992; Crouch, 1995; Lim, 1997). Based on this guideline, it is understandable that for the majority of consumers, tourism also functions in a similar model as any other item, whereby the elasticity of demand is susceptible to both income and the cost of the service (Papatheodorou, 1999; De Mello *et al.*, 2002; Han *et al.* 2006; Li *et al.*, 2006; Reece, 2010). Further development along this idea is that, if the tourism

sector is considered similar to other commodities and goods, the act of consuming this service will have a different meaning between consumers with different income categories (e.g. luxury for low-income people while a regular basis item for richer groups).

While age, education and income have been popular criteria as demographic variables to be considered in the tourist's portfolio of selection (Pritchard and Howard, 1997; Hsu, 2000; Mykletun, Crofts and Mykletun, 2001), geographical origin (which is affected by specific dominating culture) has yet to be seriously considered. Studies on international and domestic markets are not scarce, yet the geographical origin of the tourists was rarely placed equal with the substantial impact from other element of the demographic profile. This element is also positioned as one of the contributions to cultural value and at a larger scale can be held accountable for race and nationality, yet, failed to gather enough acknowledgement for such role.

In the broader sense, the geographic factor can be broken down into smaller units of residential area, which could be then used as a filter of social class: designing regions based on people of similar social class or status. However, incorporating this into marketing practice is more complicated in theoretical terms, while it is also less efficient. A further specific approach is presented via locally based marketing, of which the ideology is to reach the majority coverage of mass residents than catering for any specific target segment. In a lesser case, there is a niche application using different races; however, it wouldn't be effective unless the targeted regions have high levels of mixed races or a significant concentration of some dormant ethnic groups. Immigrants and global citizens are only found to progress for the Western half of the world, while not turning out to be a big concern for the rest, especially Asian nations. In conclusion, though it might sound theoretically prominent, the study and adaptation of customized region settings haven't made a headline so far.

In Holloway's work (2009), demographic attributes like nationality, social class, gender, age and lifestyle were recognized as valuable information for record-keeping purposes, but more importantly, for understanding the pattern and reason of how clients choose a certain service package. According to this author, academic scholars are in

favour of personality and lifestyle than social class and occupation as a basis to explain the choice of holidays. Furthermore, a positive link can be found between the people who acquire wealth through inheritance to the demand in the British market, thus developing a niche segment of leisure consumption. Besides, the author also introduced a segmentation system for the socio-economic class in Britain, the structure of which is widely adopted by market research agencies:

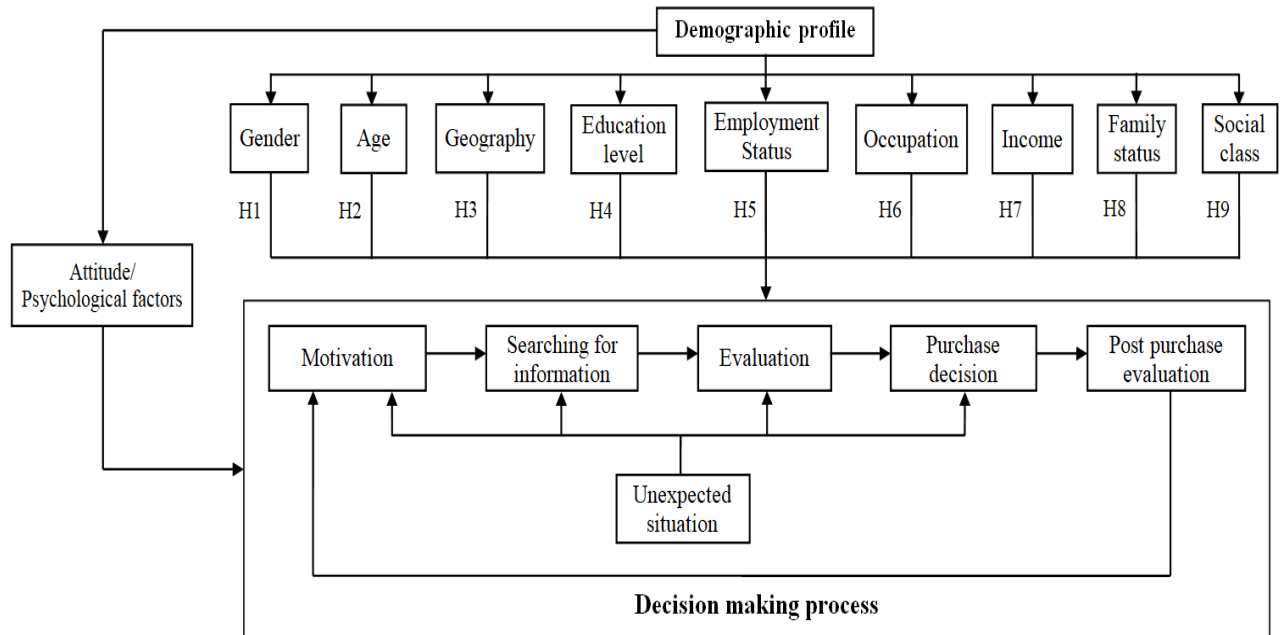
- Administrant or professionals consisting of high managerial (denoted as class A) and middle managerial (named class B) roles;
- Junior managers or officials symbolized as C1;
- Skilful manual workers - C2;
- Partially and unskilled manual workers classified as D;
- And the rest of the population whose working levels is at the lowest, as E

By this categorization, groups A, B and C1 were identified as prominent markets in the high-end travel market.

2.4. Conceptual framework of the research

As a conclusion to this chapter, the conceptual framework is established as a summary of the main construct for the system of the literature reviewed. The researcher identified two main components for this framework, which are also two constructs of the research questions: demographic variables and the consumer behaviour for the Vietnamese domestic tourism segment. The demographic variables include 9 component variables, as depicted in Figure 2.13, each lead to the corresponding hypothesis of the relationship with the second construct of the study. Concerning the consumer behaviour, the researcher consulted Engel *et al.* (1968) and Blackwell *et al.* (2006) and decided on the four stages of the decision-making process: searching for information, evaluation, making the decision and post-purchase evaluation. Although the decision-making process is not entirely reflective of the consumer behaviour, it still covers the most of this theoretical domain, and is thus often used in many pieces of research with this representativeness intention (Dimanche and Havitz, 1995).

Figure 2.13. Conceptual framework of the research



Source: Author

The exclusion of external factors from this framework is not due to the underestimation of their role to the overall consumer behaviour, but due to the specific focus of this topic between the two components constructs. However, it does not mean that they are completely disregarded from the deduction and analysis. Instead, they are included as supplements iteration for each stage of the decision-making process portrayed above. Additional concern over the conceptual framework depicted in Figure 2.13 is that the factor “Attitude/Psychological” will not be separated for an independent hypothesis as a demographic variable. However, since attitude and psychology are intertwined in each action and behaviour, the researcher believed incorporating the analysis of this element in each of the decision-making process.

Although “motivation” was not included as an equal component to the four stages of making the decisions in previous models (its position was aligned to that of a catalyst factor or similar to another psychological status), the exhibition of this factor here has an equal meaning to that of purpose that leads consumers to decide on their travel activities. As such, the researcher deemed it fit to precede the “searching for information” step.

2.5. Hypothesis of the research

In chapter 1 of this study, the researcher has proposed a set of hypotheses based on the general background as well as the objectives set up for this topic. At that point, it wasn't determined clearly which factor of the demographic profile to examine, and which consumer behaviour activities to include. Through the basis of the literature established in this research, the researcher was able to establish nine hypotheses corresponding to the nine variables identified for the demographic variables, as depicted in the conceptual framework (Figure 2.13):

H0: Demographic variables have no impact on Vietnamese consumers when deciding on the domestic tourism service.

H1: There is an influence of Gender on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service.

H2: There is an influence of Age on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service.

H3: There is an influence of Geography on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

H4: There is an influence of Education level on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

H5: There is an influence of Occupation on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

H6: There is an influence of Employment status on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

H7: There is an influence of Income on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

H8: There is an influence of Family status on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

H9: There is an influence of Social class on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing domestic tourism service

Since the effect of these demographic variables were not consistent throughout the review of the literature so far (while some have no significant influence, others recorded

revealed contradicting results), the researcher then used the assumption of no correlation between the demographic traits of consumer and the consumption activities as the default setting for the null hypothesis (H_0). Also, due to the conflicting debate of the influence tendency found from demographic variables toward the consumption behaviour, the researcher deemed that assuming the existence of influence for the hypotheses and aiming to prove it would be more suitable than clearly indicated the direction of impact in the beginning. Furthermore, these trends can also be expected as the expansion result of the analytical instruments employed.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In a study done by Peighambari *et al.* (2016) from 1998 – 2010, the literature witnessed an overall rise in the number of consumer behaviour articles among the five chosen journals. Although the data recorded was up to 2010 and none was considered adequately representative for the period, it proved that the vigour of consumer behaviour as a research topic won't reach the saturation point anytime soon. Upon further observation, the authors spotted a decline in the section of articles related to “external” factors, in contrast to the situation with “internal” or “purchase process” focused studies.

The solid basis to believe in the perpetuity of consumption activities lies in the constant state of their desires and needs, at both the individual and the mass population scale. Furthermore, the improvement in living conditions would spawn new demands and consumption trends, which in return would improve the existing state of living physically and mentally, and thus keep the cycle elevating. Since most of the changes can be deduced to the origin of the individual's demographic characteristics, the researcher decided to continue this line of study as the approach of the research topic. Narrowing targeted subjects to the context of Vietnamese domestic travellers was determined due to the lack of academic writings for this market segment. On the other hand, the decision-making process is widely recognized as most prominent in interpreting consumer behaviour (Solomon *et al.*, 2006; Kardes *et al.*, 2011), but its transition into frameworks often displays a strong bias toward tangible aspects. The link that connects between these reasons thus established the research topic as presented within this study.

3.2. Research methodology

The researcher identified two clear depictions of the research methodology: the research onion by Saunders *et al.* first introduced in 2007, and a summary table developed by Makombe in 2017, based on multiple precedent work. So far, these illustrations have shown the least ambiguity in terminology usage, a problem emphasized to be the serious cause of confusion over the earlier contributions (Makombe, 2017). The research onion model

provided a coherent and systemized approach to Muranganwa (2016), yet, haven't identified the much-debated terminologies: "paradigm", "design" or "methodology". Makombe's matrix (2017) provided a more supplemented view from a holistic perspective with much details, within the research methodology coverage (Appendix). The researcher expected a comprehensive adaptation between these two frameworks would help delivering a clear approach to achieve the research objectives.

3.2.1. Research paradigm

The concept "paradigm", according to Kuhn (1962) and Cohen *et al.* (2007), is the academic set of "belief/theory/metaphysic system" used to understand and address the interesting problem(s) under study. Similar to a blueprint, its role is to demonstrate the conception of a "world view" (Creswell, 2009; Gringeri *et al.*, 2013) that studies are based on. The common assimilation of the quantitative or qualitative method (or "research approach" as Saunders *et al.* defined it) as a research paradigm is, therefore, a fundamental error (Makombe, 2017). This common mistake can be found frequently in the work of higher levels authors, due to the loose and mutual employment of the three terms "paradigm", "design" and "method" in the previous literature (ibid).

According to Rehman and Alharthi (2016), a complete research paradigm is expected to cover four aspects: ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. This is also a commonly encountered categorization of research components. However, according to the depiction of Makombe's matrix table (2017) used in this study, even those components of ontology and epistemology are also part of the overall research methodology; and the paradigm is the philosophical aspect interpretation of the research mind, set to determine the general methodology structure.

The selection of a suitable paradigm is not always determined immediately. Common approaches could be to scan for the appropriate one, either from top-down (paradigm - methodology - method), bottom-up (method - methodology - paradigm), or a combination of both. Regardless of how the researchers come up and process their selected research paradigm, the important thing to be maintained is deducing these decisions from a valid basis that helps solving addressed research questions.

The major question of this research – identifying and measuring the degree of influence that demographic variables reflect on consumption behaviours – resembles that of a common scientific inquiry, where samples traits are identified and evaluated, before reaching the prospect of generalization; hence, the positivism paradigm is selected.

3.2.2. Research assumptions basis: Ontology and epistemology

The systemized assumptions and philosophical stances are underestimated among both the works of professional scholars and even more in the studies of lower levels. Such lack in justifying philosophical terms was attributed to the widely “taken-for-granted” view of how the world works and rendered it mundane to be assessed (Saunders et al, 2012), or as Guba and Lincoln (1998) pointed out is sometimes the scholars’ lack of time or inclination to do so.

Researchers following the positivism paradigm (whether implicitly or explicitly stated) often dive straight towards quantitative methods, and hence use empirical models without much attention to the order behind such progression. Apart from a number of scientific studies abiding by pre-set models’ strict regulations, topics related to the social science field would require necessary clarification for the methodology adopted, even if the final selection might still end up indifferent.

As stated by Rehman and Alharthi (2016), there is no sense of context attachment to reality; in other words, the nature of reality is consistent, but what varies is the interpretations of different perspectives. Regardless of how varying these versions are from each other, there should be a conjunction that depicts the original characteristics. Given that a social phenomenon is less straightforward than that of scientific incidents, it is important to consider that, despite being a fragment of reality, social events are the result of human activities. This has given rise to the popular belief that associates subjectivity to social sciences, placing further focus on individual experiences and external interactions (Cohen *et al.*, 2007).

The complicated part of studying consumers’ behaviours is not because of the nature of social constructs, but due to the influence of the agents’ unconscious motivation as they make the decision. From the holistic perspective, few separate cases of an individual’s

unconscious activities would unlikely disrupt the collective behaviour of a large community in the short term and do not contribute towards recognizing the population's characteristics in the long term (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, instruments of physical science can be applied for social studies, but caution should be exercised to avoid the longitudinal influence on the cross-sectional study.

Practically speaking, illustrating the epistemology has emerged as soon as researchers engaged in the tasks of gathering knowledge and reviewing the literature. The importance of epistemology exerts via its influence over the degree of confidence in researchers' findings, which means different deduction is accompanied by a different level of reliability and validity (e.g. intuitive-based epistemology doesn't possess the same convincing degree as the logic-based or as the adaptation of objective facts and experience).

3.2.3. Philosophical stance

Researchers argue that the research philosophy is subjected to the progression of assumption, knowledge and nature of the concerned research (Saunders *et al.*, 2007) and thus, can hold some of the personal intellectual progression. The implication behind this also supports the arguments of the influence of researchers' perspectives over their assumptions of knowledge, worldview and understanding of reality (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Recalling the concept of paradigm above, it is evident that the philosophical position represents the mind-set of the researchers, while the paradigm is the manifestation of the stated stances in planning the research, which is inherently compatible.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), quality positivism research is a stance that achieves all four elements of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity. In realistic terms, the social study can be hardly contained within a closed system that reduces the distortion effect of variables from outside the research model (internal validity). In addition, exploratory research tends to be customized by sample and time frame (reliability), usually coming with limitations when applying the same design to different sizes of the sample, thus curbing the generalization (external validity). Therefore, objectivity tends to be the most easily achieved research quality, since it depends on researchers' engagement with the data management.

The positivism-oriented research has been criticised from other “anti-positivism” approaches, for the overemphasis on the absolute measurement and complex nature with law-like principles (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2007). However, an unbiased review should consider both sides of the debate before concluding; and since the advantages and limitations of both philosophies have been recognized, it is appropriate to defend against the criticism. For beginners who lack worldview, applying positivism is not an exclusive drawback encountered. In addition, scholars also tend to be affected by their personal values and beliefs (ibid). Philosophical stance is the reflection of the researcher’s mind-set, and hence, it can’t be that supposedly evolution realised by people’s awareness of the worldview would lead to a different philosophical formation. Finally, despite the shortcomings and criticisms, positivism has yet to be eliminated, proving its necessity and suitably to the emerging topic in parallel with consecutively developed philosophies.

3.2.4. Research approach

Similar to the discussion surrounding the context of a research paradigm or methodology, there is also inconsistency in the literature of what enlisted as a research approach. According to the research onion (Saunders *et al.*, 2007), the research approach includes either the “deductive” or the “inductive” concept, while Makombe’s table (2017) suggested similar terminologies for the research paradigm, and the common quantitative – qualitative concepts are the most common approaches encountered in methodologies literature. The issue is that neither of these definitions being too far from the term meaning accounts partially of the “approach”.

Since the researcher has selected the positivistic philosophical stand, the research approach should correspond with the paradigm. In a holistic view, the objective of this research leans toward the scientific method of using an existing body of knowledge to develop new hypotheses and prove/refuse them, through extracting and analysis data representing the population. In addition, the procedures to conduct the hypothesis testing would match with the deductive style, suggested by Robson (2002). The deductive approach requires using a highly constructed method, to obtain measurable quantitative data. Evidently, these descriptions fit with the quantitative approach rather than the

qualitative, consistent with the philosophical stance and the paradigm components presented earlier.

However, according to Creswell (2014), choosing between the quantitative and the qualitative approach is not necessarily a mutually exclusive option as widely believed. Instead, both approaches represent a continuum spectrum where each displays a different characteristic through each research rather than committing strictly to only one approach. This is often the case where employed instruments can be flexibly designed to collect information using both methods. Reasoning wise, the deductive and the inductive styles are rarely due to their opposite designated order of planning research. Projects that aim toward developing new theories or modifying the existing ones – the abduction type compose rare examples that combine both the deduction and the induction framework. Since the researcher's worldview and perspective are personal exclusive production, the researcher cannot possess more than one philosophical stand.

3.2.5. Research design

Instead of dividing the research design into fragmented sections as demonstrated by the Research Onion (Saunders *et al.*, 2007), researchers integrated subsequent layers of the model under the heading of the research design, since there is much less debate in the literature over these concepts. For the purpose of this study, the researcher considered the definition of the research “design” as the formulation of the predetermined paradigm and approach into a comprehensive structure with detailed tasks. Since the elements and components of the research topic are not newly discovered ideas or concepts, it is appropriate for the purpose of this study to re-establish the existence of any possible correlation and/or cause-effect relationship between the listed factors.

Similar to the state of general planning, the lack in methodological approach and paradigm caused for most of the Vietnamese quantitatively oriented papers a shortage in the validity basis for the selected research tools. In most cases, the validity of the selection was covered by tracing the adoption of the selected instrument to match up with the research objectives. This flaw addressed solely for criticism purpose, the researcher would like to emphasize the corresponding importance attached to each part of the research methodology,

avoiding an overemphasis on the use of instruments or neglecting the importance of consistency in matters of methodology and logical reasoning.

The methodology of the research will be carried out as follows: conducting a survey on a large-scale sample, to gather the primary data necessary for hypothesis testing; processing data at first with descriptive statistics of the sample's information, followed by more thorough hypothesis testing in this order: testing the validity of the measurement scale by Cronbach alpha value, Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Correlation testing.

3.2.5.1. Questionnaire design

The questionnaire is developed in a structured format of closed-ended questions and divided into two sections. The first section listed ten items corresponding to the nine demographic traits (income is measured by two items) and two additional items regarding their experience with the tourism activity so far (frequency of travel and their involvement with the past journeys). The second part corresponded to the four stages of the consumer decision-making process. Each stage is designed of smaller points and presents different perspective expressions. Likert Scale is applied due to its recognized fitness in measuring attitude, belief and opinion related items, and can be easily converted to quantitative input for mathematical analysis.

Despite its wide adoption among empirical studies in social science, researchers express issues of concern when using this scale. Firstly, using Likert scale to represent a unit of preference (from “disagree” to “agree”) means applying a quantitative scale to measure a qualitative degree. This is a common practice in quantitative research given the ease of treating data; conclusions based on a scale depiction is better understood in ranking term than mathematical meaning. However, the common employment of model structuring tools often highlights this meaning in favour of the literal quantitative interpretation. On the other hand, there is inconclusive agreement on whether the inclusion of the mid-point perspective has a clear effect on the polling results (Nowlis *et al.*, 2010). On one hand, the abnormally high rate for selecting the neutral option raises the issue of whether this phenomenon originated from a real reflection of individual assessment or it was due to unwillingness to provide information (Bishop, 1987; Krosnick *et al.*, 2002; Johns, 2005). Yet, removing this

neutral point would lead to systematic bias via coercing the respondent's opinion to either the positive or the negative side.

Besides the caution of the scaling system, there are a few more important points to organising the content of this survey questionnaire:

- The two major cities – Ha Noi and Ho Chi Minh – were addressed as separate geographical units to the other five regions, due to their significant dense population and the diversity in structural distribution. Theoretically speaking, people in different geographical units tend to be imprinted with different regional preferences, cultural values and living conditions. However, capturing this effect would require sampling just considerate size of each region but also a large diversity in demographics in each region as well, not to mention the need to separate when possible, the effect of different social classes within each region as well as weighing the immigration impact. These requirements would load further the selection of sampling process, yet, might not be sufficient to validate an observational influence while compromising the focus on other demographic variants.

- Regarding the occupation of the respondents, the researcher decided to employ few job titles of closely related sectors, while grouping those of similar field into one category (banking and financial services). In other instances, some positions would still classify under one industry, given the relatedness of these functions to a particular industry, even when the profession itself belongs to another industry. For example, the food industry covers a vast network that, if fully listed, would include manufacturing stage of raw material, processing, logistic services, marketing and financing, and even the governmental quality and food safety department. Each segment would need a corresponding professional, with completely different function from the others, yet serving as a professional of the food industry. However, this discrepancy might not be necessarily meaningful, since there is hardly noticeable meaning. In addition, workers of a similar function tend to resemble more each other than those who work in a cross-segments supply chain.

- The establishment of job titles does not only cover the common industries and sectors within the economic structure but also carry an implicit division to professions that are highly related to touristic activities (i.e. high-income professions and/or those who have

high frequency of traveling). However, these are assumptions based on observation and default impression of the job title description from the social norm perspective.

- The researcher has divided the income criteria into two smaller questions: the personal income level and the participant's household income level. This segregation aimed to examine whether the respondent is the main source of income for the family and to allow for a rough estimation of their family financial status as well as the stage at which they are currently identified (combined with inquiry of age, marital status and number of children). The processing of this data would then be beneficial for possible future connections with the consumption activities of an individual (if they are single) and/or family group.

- The domestic market holds a magnitude of equivalence to half of the overall industry (in opposition to international market), therefore certain aspects of consumption activities specific to the common inquiry and to a specific form of services and their providers were not included in the design of the questionnaire (e.g. evaluation of the alternative).

3.2.5.2. Pre-test and adjustment of the survey questionnaire

Newly constructed questionnaires are susceptible to flaws of a minor degree, such as wording or presentation, to the grave mistakes in content structure, unintentional bias and leading opinion questions. Pilot study, besides addressing these weaknesses, also broadens the consideration to matters of protocols and implementation procedures, before mass launching. For a similar reason, the researcher conducted a small-scale preliminary test to collect feedback for necessary adjustments before distributing the questionnaire to targeted respondents. The draft version of the survey was distributed to a group of ten chosen subjects, with a variation of demographic traits, spread among most of those included in the actual questionnaire. After the one-week period, the researcher collected the results and made according to modifications, before consulting the supervisor for final evaluation, before the official mass distribution.

The benefit of doing such pre-test would be to collect data in face-to-face format; thereby, the interviewer could identify any changes in the attitude along the process, as well as applying follow-up inquiry for further probation. However, with regard to the limit of resources and means to approach selected audiences, the researcher resorted to the usage of

web-based method, which could also produce close results, with the advantage of diversifying the geographical dimension of the sample. At the end of the draft questionnaire, the researcher enclosed a short semi-structured inquiry in the following issues:

- Was the questionnaire too long or too short? Is there any inquiry that needs to be included or any component items that should be eliminated? If so, does it need to be fully extended to another independent inquiry or does the section thread needs to be completely cut out?

- Is the questionnaire capable of covering every aspect of the topic?

- Were the current design and wording cohesive and unambiguous?

Upon summarising the review, few common concerns rose from the order of questions and the usage of formal language and content that are not familiar to Vietnamese consumers:

- The inquiry about income was converted to monthly term instead of international annual income.

- The inquiry about the immigration effect in the geographic factor was omitted.

- The inclusion of individual role alteration was re-evaluated. Hypothetically speaking, this is a potential feature with high compatibility with other demographic attributes, when displaying changes to the consumption activity, as the consumer shifts from one family role to another. However, the measurement of this influence is significantly difficult, since it does not only require multiple data records at different periods but also requires highly customized questionnaire to gather the proper information. The researcher expected that a concentrated group interview with family members would be the most suitable strategy to identify this transition effect. However, this does not align with the overall design for this research.

- The surveyed age started from the labour age (18) and was then divided to equal age ranges until the age of 65. Due to the variation between professions and the regulation of government legal documents, workers are entitled to retire from early 60s, yet, they can remain in their positions. This complexity, however, has shown an immediate effect on the

consumption activities, thus the age range of 56 – 65 can still be considered within the labour age.

- to the decision to use the Likert scale measurement of 5 degrees was reaffirmed. By common sense, multiple items with deep categorized system of measurement would require respondents to spend more time to read and understand the queries, before being able to reflect their experiences within the answer choices. Not to mention that it is already a hurdle to convince respondents to truly spend the effort to fully participate in the questionnaire with responsibility and transparency, questionnaire that are further complex or over the average design would further discourage the respondents to complete the survey. Furthermore, the translation of further terminologies would create more confusion to Vietnamese respondents.

- Few minor adjustments were made in wording and some formal or academic terminologies were amended with more concise presentation that suits the general understanding of the mass consumer.

Among the initial group of pre-testers (pilot study), the researcher had the consent of six individuals to follow up with the next phase of the research. In order to prevent the “pretesting effect” (Richland, Kornell and Kao, 2009), the initial respondents who took part in the test were asked to only recruit and give instruction to new participants (if feasible), instead of filling it for a second time.

3.2.5.3. The choice of hypothesis test analysis

Research findings would be criticized regardless of their contribution value if the validity and reliability of the methods employed to produce them are compromised (Nguyen, 2015). Unlike physical science that can easily replicate the testing process to reach measurement consistency, social research reliability is harder to achieve, due to the magnitude of quantitative design or as in qualitative approach, due to the participants’ learning experience that incurs deviations through multiple testing administrations (Taber, 2018).

In terms of research nature, Nguyen (2013) mentioned the detachment of new contexts established by any topic that is different from the original one. To be more specific,

measurement systems in social research were customized to fit within a particular context (or a set of contexts), materialized as a research subject; however, the value of customized studies is rarely able to catch up with the movement of concurrent socio environment. With regards to the technicality of the quantitative study, scholars often encountered the multicollinearity phenomenon for hypotheses that involve multiple independent variables. This incident becomes more frequent when the survey is designed with components having a close meaning that can be confused with participants' judgement. This matter has been resolved through the calculation of Cronbach Alpha value, which is a default set up for empirical research in general.

The technical function of the reliability test is to examine the degree of the internal consistency level between the employed scales/tools, which aligns to the function of alpha value. However, records in both multidimensional and uni-dimensional tests have shown a range of acceptable alpha value without too much significant difference (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Since neither the assumption of reliability is an assurance over the homogeneity and nor the internal consistency is proven to be more sufficient (Green *et al.*, 1977; Cortina, 1993), more strict assessment views often deem alpha value to be lacking for this assessment. For this reason, alpha value is just one of the fundamental values for empirical research and needs to be incorporated with other descriptive analysis (EFA, chi-square test...) to establish a more robust evaluation.

Consumer behaviour is a large concept that embodies multiple constructs (an example is the classification system in this research), and each construct is measured by smaller items. However, it is also a hurdle for subsequent processing of data, since the difference in qualitative gaps can't be conveyed through numerical value, thus the translation of qualitative to quantitative measurement is unequal. Afterwards, the statistic indices of extracted factors are taken for tests administration, which adds yet another layer of misconception when calculating the coded values from previous establishment. Given that there is no optimal solution to demonstrate the effect of qualitative constructs and scales with more efficiency, this method is still proven to be the current optimal choice of empirical research

As previously mentioned, the type of data for each variable is an important indicator of the corresponding empirical test to be used. Demographic measurements employed in this study contain nominal variables (gender, living geographic, education, employment status, profession and marital status) and interval variables (age, individual income, family income and the number of children), while all the consumer behaviours items using Likert measurement are ordinal variables.

Previous empirical studies that targeted either demographic variables or tourism consumption activity have adopted multiple inferential analysis methods: Chi-square analysis (Padmavathi and Priyanka, 2016; Kumar and Kumaar, 2019; Kasapi and Koc, 2012; Laoviwat *et al.*, 2014), ANOVA test (Richa, 2012; Furaiji *et al.*, 2012), EFA and regression modelling (Hoang, 2020). Although they all address the answer for “examining the influence” of one group of variables towards another group(s), each method has a different requirement for the data input. T-test and ANOVA analysis compare the mean between dimensions of nominal category against continuous variables or measurements with continuous attributes. Likert scale, in contrary, is a discreet gauge with pre-designated range (scale of 5 in this questionnaire design), thus the normal distribution condition is not materialized, and parametric tests are not suitable to be applied, neither T-test nor ANOVA. Chi-square is limited by its scale and is divergent of measurement as a bivariate analysis, thus it is not appropriate for a multiple correlated examinations.

The purpose of correlation is to depict how strong the pair/or group of variables are linearly related or have a tendency to change together. This depiction lacks the means to deduce how or why such relationships exist in the first place and cannot confirm with certainty that the relations between factors are exclusive within the research boundary. In an early view by Pearson (1892), causation is perceived to be a special case of correlation, where the correlation coefficient reaches 1. The implication is that not every correlation would imply a causality relationship. In fact, provided that data input can satisfy validity and reliability standard for the correlation test administration, it is always possible to find a correlation between variables, the difference is only in the volatility of the coefficient value.

Although both correlation and regression tests are categorized as multivariate distribution analysis that can simultaneously address these research hypotheses, the researcher found it to be more appropriate with the application of the latter design. The reason is that correlation is only a descriptive analysis by nature, while the regression analysis has the characteristic of a model structuring. The pre-determined variables distinguished between dependent and independent is another reason to apply the regression analysis. As a model structure, regression analysis also provides more information on the relationship between variables than just a suggestion of linear tendency.

Testing of measurement validity using Cronbach alpha value

Despite being a common instrument used in research, there has not been yet a universal consensus for alpha value, and the basis of acceptance threshold is more likely an experience-based task (Plummer and Tanis Ozcelik, 2015). It is desirable to have a high level of alpha but a level too high (> 0.95) would also indicate the risk of multicollinearity (Gardner, 1995; Sijtsma, 2009) and the low alpha value is not rejected in every case either, as long as the researchers can provide a satisfying interpretation (Cronbach, 1951; Schmitt, 1966). The low alpha value can be found in science education studies where there is a limited number of items for testing or that the conceptual knowledge being addressed is too broad (Berger and Hänze, 2015). Nevertheless, it is sufficient to say that this is not a rare occurrence among social studies in general (found in the work of Brestz and McClary, 2014; Nehring *et al.*, 2015).

Factor analysis

The use of factor analysis tests is to identify the inter-dependencies among enlisted items, in order to reduce the number of variables for large data set. By using the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), a lesser number of factors is expected to emerge from the initial pool of variables, through a preliminary observation of correlation. This should be performed under the assumption of not having any *a priori* knowledge of the pattern among the original items (Finch and West, 1997). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), on the

other hand, is connected to validating the variables extracted from precedent analysis and precedes the implementation of structural equation modelling (SEM).

Literature on the selection between EFA and CFA is very divisive, with one wave of opinions considering them to be supplementary applications and finding it essential to use both methods, with the expectation of having more accurate results. Disclaimers, on the other hand, disapproved this practice and deemed it unnecessary, with the potential of generating severe results; also, that the strict confinement by CFA would not benefit instruments in less developed theoretical areas (Kline, 2016).

Although the hypotheses addressed for this research were based on former studies, the demographics factor was never a focus component, nor was it addressed in-group and analysed for its collective impact on consumption activities. For similar research topics, many matters still need to be addressed: qualitative designs are built on a system of processing and interpreting data that is different from that of quantitatively oriented studies. Replicating the same settings that are being performed under different languages or cultures would also be considered anew, unless the newly translated/adopted scale can return the same factor structure as the original designs (Heppner *et al.*, 1992), which is almost impossible to achieve. Despite being based on established theory and contributions from previous studies, items in the questionnaire of this research were all self-built. Because of these reasons, the researcher found it more fitting into the justification of EFA than CFA conditions.

It is essential to recognize that reported criticism over EFA and its components were not stemmed neither from the philosophical approach, nor the overall design of the method in practice, but from a few specific “default” techniques frequently used by practitioners. According to Howard (2016), EFA is a consecutive process of the following decisions: the data inspection techniques, factor extraction, factor retention, factor rotation and the decision of loading cut-off. An additional stage of “data cleaning” is proposed in an earlier study by Osborne (2005), which emphasizes the preparation of data after collection, to avoid possible influences from extreme outliers and data shortage.

Data inspection method

Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1950) and the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1970) are the two common techniques used to determine the degree of significant relationships existing within data sets and judged to generally return closely related outcomes (Howard, 2016). In rare cases, non-significant result emerged for Bartlett test (Dziuban and Harris, 1973; Dziuban and Shirkey, 1974). Both tests can be found within the descriptive function of EFA segment in statistical programmes.

Factor extraction method

The acclaimed popularity of the principal component analysis (PCA) is not due to its statistical performance, but to the default set up in conventional software packages (Costello and Osborne, 2005) even when the applications of PCA have been criticized (Fabrigar *et al.*, 1999; Preacher and MacCallum, 2003). The critical point of PCA as a method is to reduce the dimensions that reject measurement errors, saying it is not a factor analysis method. In terms of the mathematical model, PCA attempts to explain as many variances as possible instead of accounting for the structure of correlations (Fabrigar *et al.*, 1999; Preacher and MacCallum, 2003; Fabrigar and Wegener, 2012). This is particularly serious when the analysis is used on the item scores since relying on the technique frequently leads to overestimating the factor loadings and the variance explained by the factors (Ferrando and Anguiano-Carrasco, 2010). Another difference in the design of EFA accounts for both, common variance and unique variance, where factors are extracted only from common variance, while PCA does not make such distinction and components represent both types of variance.

Other highly recommended alternatives include maximum likelihood (ML) for normal distribution sample and principal axis factoring (PAF) for non-normal distribution sample (Fabrigar *et al.*, 1999; Costello and Osborne, 2005). Maximum Likelihood (ML) can provide more information than other methods with a trade-off in stricter assumptions, among which is the multivariate normal distribution with linear interrelationships. Even so, ML is still found to be less accurate than PAF on rare occasion (*ibid*). Other than that, some

specific cases would require a special extraction technique, even though the distinction is not too noticeable (Osborne, 2014).

Alpha extraction can also be found as an extracting method that seeks to maximize the alpha estimation of a factor. The target of this method is measures sets (other extraction techniques target individual data cases), but its suitability is restricted to an application beyond the initial rotation scale; in addition to that, is the confusion of translating the results (Osborne, 2005). Therefore, despite being included as a choice for extracted factors, this method cannot be employed in conventional practice.

In conclusion, taking into consideration the properties of each method and the characteristics of the data sample, the researcher decided to select PAF as the extracted factor loading method.

Factor retention method

According to Hayton *et al.* (2004), the decision concerning the number of factors to retain is essential, even more than the selection of the extraction and rotation methods. This is due to the expectation of the method that differentiates the major factors from the trivial ones (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan, 1999), as the purpose dictates. Another reason is the substantial errors found in an under-extraction or an over-extraction condition, which can significantly shift between sequence solutions and interpretations of EFA results (Velicer, Eaton, and Fava, 2000).

Kaiser's eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule (K1) is the standard procedure in many statistical programmes used in large scale, yet, being the least recommended among the eight common retention procedures. Empirical evidence has shown that there were no fewer situations where over factoring or under factoring happened (Ruiz and San Martín, 1992; Fabrigar *et al.*, 1999).

Cattell's Scree test (1966) is based on the breakpoint in the eigenvalue graph, to decide on the turning point in the explanation power of the retained factor number, presented by the point with a shallow line after a sharp decrease. Since it relies on visual judgement, the method is subjective by nature (Kaiser, 1970; Courtney, 2013) and is often being questioned for reliability bias. Despite having a moderate rating for performance compared to K1 (Zwick and Velicer, 1986), the Scree test is also not recommended.

Later alternatives were developed to improvise the drawbacks of these two methods: Velicer's Minimum Average Partial (MAP) (1976) that resembles in terms of mechanics to PCA (Zwick and Velicer, 1986; Garrido *et al.*, 2011; Ruscio and Roche, 2012), and Optimal Coordinate and Acceleration Factor that were suggested by Raiche *et al.* (2006) to fix the bias of Carttell's Scree test. In 1979, Revelle and Rocklin proposed the Very Simple Structure criterion (VSS), which is only effective with less complex items (Revelle, 2012), and also lacks the sufficient empirical backups against other modern procedures.

Another alternative is Horn's Parallel Analysis (PA) (1965), which considers the result of a sampling error in the variance proportion. Though it might sound good in theory, PA has practical problem, as the retention decision can be acquired for almost all identical factors eigenvalues. Nevertheless, this technique is still strongly recommended (Fabrigar *et al.*, 1999; Velicer, *et al.*, 2000; Hayton *et al.*, 2004; Ruscio and Roche, 2012; Garrido, *et al.*, 2012). Ruscio and Roche's Comparison Data (2012) inherits a similar feature as PA with incorporated factorial structure and multivariate distribution. Even though considered to possess the highest level of accuracy for predicting the number of factors, the precision of Comparison Data method has been limited up to five factors with the researchers' suggestion of further testing for scenarios of larger scale.

Given the frequent recommendations by scholars of the field to apply various strategies for selecting the appropriate tool, the researcher maintained the application of the K1 rule and Scree plot as consulting materials, together with the application of Parallel Analysis and Velicer's MAP.

Factor rotation method

The objective of applying a factor rotation method is to establish an easy method for interpreting the loading pattern, where each item is loaded strongly to only one factor and weakly to another. Rotation methods can be classified using two dimensions: either orthogonal (including quartimax and varimax) or oblique rotation (including promax and direct oblimin) with contrasting assumption. It is suggested that the adaptation of orthogonal rotation is suitable when there is *a priori* basis to believe in the independence of the resulting factors. Even for such cases, it is still unrealistic, since many scales in socio-

science research are multidimensional and have a tendency to be related (Fabrigar *et al.*, 1999; Hinkin, 1995; Costello and Osborne, 2005).

The concept of direct oblimin is that each determined value for delta represents an individual test, and the direct quartermin with a delta that is equal to 0 was the most preferable choice (MacCallum, and Tail, 1986; Browne, 2001). Promax rotation is suitable for large data sets, since it can be calculated faster than direct oblimin.

Loading cut-off decision

Even after performing rotation, researchers are often encountered with a messy matrix of variables that are either loaded into multiple factors or do not have significant value to load into any given factors. As for items with single loading, it is also uncertain of their fitness to the latent factors. This drives practitioners to put more efforts on how to verify each of these items' validity, and what decisions would handle the multiple loading variables. The general agreement is that items with factor loading value of less than 0.3 are taken out from the final models (Fields, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014), while there shouldn't be high cross-loading among items above the standard (0.3). In practice, the acceptance value is advised to be based on the size of the sample, on the basis that higher sample size would need smoother acceptance range but not less than 0.3.

According to Howard's summary (2016) from the multiple debates around this issue, the cut-off value for items loaded onto a primary factor or alternative factors and for the difference between primary and alternative factor loadings was determined to be respectively 0.4 , 0.3 and 0.2.

The expected size for this research sample is close to 500, which also aligns with the predetermined regulation. Therefore, the researcher considered applying Howard's suggestion for finalizing the variables and factors for the correlation testing model. In addition, the researcher would also rely on scholars' theories to identify the pattern and suitability of each factor-loaded variable to that of the perceived norm.

Regression model

In the previous section, the type of data and data distribution are stated to have a strong impact on choosing the overall research method to be adopted, concluding with the suitability of factor analysis; the same situation can be also encountered to the adoption of the regression model. These conditions are demonstrated in the following assumptions: linearity attribute (existence of linear relationships between dependent and independent variables), homoscedasticity or heteroscedasticity (the equilibrium in variability between independent and dependent variables data sets), multicollinearity (correlation between independent variables), and normal distribution for data in both dependent and independent variables.

Linear regression was perceived to be the oldest of the regression model, given the simple assumption of linear correlation, and its simple method used for calculation (ordinary least square). Due to the limitations of the original method, the model is subtle to the multicollinearity and has a tendency to inflate the number of variables. Later improvements in the method introduced the ridge regression (allows for multicollinearity and lessens the overfitting) and the partial least square regression (used when the number of observations is less than the number of independent variables or there are multicollinearities).

Nonlinear regression assumed that relationships tend to be more flexible than just be linear. The shifting of attention would be to find the right type of model fit and interpret it as there are no comparative statistics to that of the linear regression (r-squared and p-value).

The above-mentioned assumptions of the regression model are not often explicitly stated in previous studies. The norm is that researchers tend to apply linear regression, due to its simplicity in calculation and interpretation; another reason is that relationships between social constructs are qualitatively defined. The translation into the quantitative measurement system cannot retain the original meaning, and there is no means to know whether it falls into the linear or nonlinear type in every setting. Therefore, selecting the linear model is preferred, despite the possibility of not fitting into the data set. Therefore, in this study, the researcher would check on the assumptions of the data sets, before selecting the fitness regression analysis.

3.2.5.4. Determining the time horizon of the research

Data in this research are extracted and processed in the scale of a cross-sectional type study. This decision is made based on the overall focus of the topic towards capturing the phenomenon's demonstration among participants, at the time of the survey. Furthermore, the attitudes and perceptions of consumers form a long-term construct that won't be easily influenced by the survey questionnaire, which means that it is highly unlikely for consumers to face disruption changes in their demographics or opinions about the purchasing tourism service in a short term period. Lastly, applying a longitudinal study would require more resources to gather and process data, and accordingly further plans to sustain the research over a period that would possibly exceed the assigned time frame for this research.

3.2.5.5. Risk and limitation of the research method

Satisfying the time punctuation of the research is normally concerned with how the project can be accomplished by the determined deadline. However, the criticality of the research punctuality is how the outcomes match the urgency rationale of the topic. Despite the time plan for each stage, it is unavoidable for unexpected incidents to occur, which might delay some stages of the research, thus agitating the progress of the consecutive steps and the whole research in general. The short frame of cross-sectional studies has a slight edge on controlling the on-time value of findings (provided that the research activity is completed on time). But it also implicates potential delays would disruptions incur during any research steps. Since there is not much time to processing data, the issue of choosing an appropriate sample size turns out to be even more of a concern.

As previously mentioned, there is a high probability of successfully established correlated relationships, if the data is statistically significant. Although this might be an advantage for applying the method, there is also a high chance that the intended relation is obscured, or at worst misled by the wrong conclusion. In the end, correlation is just an implication of certain relations among the factors under study. Therefore, findings made from a certain sample might be rejected when selecting a different cluster.

Moving away from the principles of philosophy and methodology, research activities can be associated with a process that handles data through three stages: generating – processing – and interpreting results. Given the systematic and consistency of the procedure, any anomalies or deviations in any single stage would lead to errors to the next one in sequence, stacking to influence the final outcomes. Adopting random sampling methods is not always a feasible choice for socio-economic studies, raising the concern of the trade-off made between the level of control over the subjects and the representativeness of the sample chosen, unlike the random sampling studies. Bias responses, caused either by respondents or by a misleading demonstration of the questionnaire design, pose great risks to collecting questionnaire responses, and at a larger scale could lead to significant errors in subsequent statistical tests.

Another obstacle often encountered is that primary data extracted for socio-science topics tend to fall outside the norms of fitness established for statistic models indexes. Many of the unexpected discrepancies incurred from the distribution and collection of primary data or from mistakes when entering input data and translating the results could lead to the elimination of qualified elements, yet barely fitting within the acceptance range. Moreover, not many abstract concepts in social science are officially recognized as consistent constructs, thus each interpretation of a concept comes with a variant from the reference subjects and fewer agreements are reached for universal statistical use.

The researcher recognized that the decision to collect data by convenient sampling methods is a limitation of the research. Although only a portion of the sample is selected conveniently, there are still detrimental effects to the value of a few statistic tests and indexes, another limitation presented for surveys to be completed in the short term. From a psychological perspective, attitude is formed from experience or through accumulated learning, both of which have a clear tendency of changing in the long term, which could be a recommendation for future studies.

3.2.5.6. Data collection and analysis

3.2.5.6.1. Population, sample and sampling

Population

The recorded population of Vietnam has exceeded by 2019 96 million, but not all of them could afford or are willing to travel. Nevertheless, the actual capable domestic tourists would still make up a significant segment. In detail, the recorded number of this category reached 85 million by 2019, according to the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism. This figure was referred to as the determined population for this research. Identifying a research population implies firstly, understanding necessarily who the target audiences are, thus determining a proper approach for the research; and secondly, knowing the targeted population which would help in making better decision for calculating the sample size.

Sample and sampling

Sample size is an important issue when carrying out quantitative research. A large sampling size is necessary by default when engaging in quantitative studies. However, it is not very simple as quantitatively oriented researches are validated by exact figures and testing. In technical terms, when the size of the selected sample increases, the statistically significant value also increases correspondingly, and the sample characteristics have the tendency to be more linearly related to that of the population's traits. Nevertheless, it is always impossible to achieve the ideal sample scale, because of constraints in funding and time, for a rather small population that could be examined. The concern over sample size would be then rephrased to "What is the optimal sample size to be of statistical significance for the research?"

Three ways are often used to determine sample size. The first one is calculated based on the extracted known statistical information of the targeted sample (e.g. standard deviation), which is normally acquired from previous studies of similar topic. For exploratory research or topics with less reference material, these values are not readily available. The next alternative is based on two measures: the margin of error and the confidence level (or equivalent constant value based on these measures). The advantage for this application is that both indexes are not too dependent on the past records but still deliver

high accuracy results. Some further influential elements that should be considered include the power of the study, the expected effect size, the estimated response rate, and the underlying event rate in the population (Kirby *et al.*, 2002). The last method suggests that the minimum sample size is needed, according to the proposed data analysis technique and based on several indicators included in the studies (e.g. Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2005).

For any population that surpasses 100.000 individuals, the result of all sample size calculations came up with almost the same conclusion that sample size is not too different from each other (assuming a similar confidence level, margin of error or equivalent constant deriving from these two factors) and recommended it to be 384 (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). Therefore, a further increase in sample size would not be necessary, yet there wasn't any opposition for researchers to do so as long as they are capable. In this study, the researcher, using determined values for margin of error and confidence level of 0.05 and 95% respectively, returned a sample size of 385, according to the formula (Appendix 1).

Further to deciding on the sample size, it's important to note that it is impossible to reach a perfect 100% response rate, regardless of the instruments or methods used for data collection, therefore the actual recruitment of survey participants would have to take into account planning for a larger audience. Given the characteristics of the research topic and the combination of the employed instruments, the response rate for the study is expected to be 70%. The actual number of questionnaires to be distributed would be then 550 ($385/0.7$). Taking into account the resources and time constraints for this research, the researcher deemed this size to be satisfying compared to the norms of social science-oriented research, or by any standard used to validate the statistical analysis.

Even though there is no strict requirement to choose the sample, the random selection of participants without fixed criteria would lead to heavily skewed sample, thus, the solution in practice was to rely on the electing age and gender as criteria to select participants. However, it would partially decrease the level of representativeness, since relying on these two traits as participants selection criteria could also potentially create bias towards the distribution of other demographic variables.

In order to improve the response rate of individual participants and to minimize the drawbacks of non-random sampling methods, the selection was arranged with half of the

distribution made via direct contacts, and the other half was done through snowballing (via LINE, WhatsApp, LinkedIn and email distribution), employing online survey distribution service (SurveyMonkey) and publishing via social network platforms (Facebook). Through the SurveyMonkey, of the researcher is expecting with certainty the responses of 125 participants within a fixed period. Since there is no limit on the number of participants or the time scale, the researcher monitored, through the summary records for each channel on a daily basis, the need to extend the floating time for the questionnaire. Two weeks after the first distribution of the questionnaire, 87 responses were recorded, thus, another week was extended, and another 43 filled questionnaires were returned.

For the sample cluster surveyed by the researcher, the respondents selected were Vietnamese tourists who visited popular touristic sites in Ha Noi (accounting for the majority of the responses), Huong Pagoda complex in the outskirt Ha Noi, Fansipan peak, and Sa Pa province in the late 2018. Since the questionnaire required a long time for respondents to read, comprehend and respond, they were distributed first to visitors willing to participate at their convenient time. The process took up to 10 days to be completed, incorporating the same time as the online distribution.

3.2.5.6.2 Collecting data and data analysis method

The data in this research consisted of secondary sources from previous literature records, and customized designed data collection questionnaire from a suitable sample (primary data). In specific, articles and journal papers were browsed and chosen, based on the mentioning of keywords “consumer behaviour”, “domestic travellers”, “consumer demographics” or involvement of any “relationships with demographic variables” element contained within titles or abstracts, which was then filtered again to select the most relevant materials. In addition, the researcher also gathered complementary theory constructs from specialized papers in research methodology and statistical analysis, as a guidance that helped identifying the possible gaps and new perspectives exploited so far in precedent contributions. Instead of placing attention on common approach route of “introduction and interpretation”, the focus for theoretical analysis aimed toward critical debates for each aspect of the conceptual domains. Information of statistical records concerning the

population characteristics will be gathered from publicly accessible government documents.

The principal method in collecting quantitative data is through the distribution of a survey questionnaire to large-scale sample, as discussed in the previous section. Since the formulation of the research subject, it clearly indicated the targeted subjects as “Vietnamese consumers”, in other words, those who are capable of travelling would be enlisted as suitable test subjects. The reason to choose snowball sampling is the direct result of the earlier pre-test and its fitness to the overall research planning. Furthermore, with no strict requirement applied within the criteria of choosing the sample, this method is also a fast way to collect data. At the same time, the snowball proportion return from the sampling could also portray particular subgroup’s demographic profile within communities, therefore, helping in acquiring additional knowledge into their particular traits in consumption, besides the mass consumers.

The initial snowball sampling was originally a qualitative study method for small-scale sample. However, given its versatility in locating potential homogeneous participants, adding the diversity of geographic attribute, the researcher found it a suitable sampling method. Snowballing is also categorized as a non-random sampling method; however, according to Lunenberg and Irby (2008), applying non-random sampling method over a large diversity of distributed selection from the population could partly reduce the bias attribute of the method.

The survey questionnaire is structured following a common template design, with few adjustments to align with Vietnamese consumer characteristics. There are five major sections in the survey components: The first part involves multiple inquiries that examine the respondents’ demographic profile and the remaining four subsequent sections investigate each of the main aspects of the decision-making process. Each of these queries is consistent in design and as straightforward as possible so that respondents can easily understand them, and to avoid unnecessary mistakes later in coding. Subsection queries under each of the four main sections are opinion ratings of personal experiences to a provided statement, measured using the Likert 5 scale measurement. Frequencies questions

cover quantified perimeters of suitable interval gaps and avoid overlapping in range between successive sequences.

In addition to being a quicker method that returns a varying profile range of respondents, online survey using structured questionnaire also reduces any volatilities incurred by the interviewer's effect (Conrad and Blair, 2009), i.e. the variance in the reported motivation that influences the respondents' experience when filling the survey, with and without the interviewer's presence. Because of this, the answers are free from subjective influence by default, yet limiting any further follow up and probing question which could have been done by interview-based method (Meitinger and Behr 2016).

Data analysis

Primary data gathered were then processed through the professional statistical analysis software (SPSS used for this study). The preliminary testing administration included a descriptive analysis to draw the overview information of the sample surveyed. Further evaluation and assessment then identified the existence of major traits and significant components of consumers. Although simple by nature, descriptive analysis has its own value, for forming the first overall illustration of the sample with respect to its structure and distribution. This information would be later useful in conjunction with the in-depth analysis processes afterwards.

Descriptive analysis for both, the demographic variables and the items of decision-making inquiries included measuring the central tendency and the dispersion. For this research, the referral to mean, median, and standard deviation depended on the type of variables and its respective summary results. An analytical focus point was to examine the distribution between demographic variables for a systematic categorization of the sample structure. The researcher also scanned briefly through similar ratios for consumption items, to detect any anomalies that might need more attention when evaluating the validity of the measurement instruments.

Before engaging in any further test administration, it is necessary to check on the internal consistency of the examination instrument, which explains the implementation of

the Cronbach Alpha calculation right after the descriptive analysis. Afterwards, the order of analysis is consecutive as mentioned in the section of statistical test selection:

- Executing descriptive analysis
- Testing validity of the measurement with Cronbach alpha test
- Performing the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)
- Conducting the correlation testing

3.3. Accessibility issue

The tourism industry, especially the domestic tourism, has been considered similar to other commodities afforded by the majority of Vietnamese consumers (except for the luxury packages with high-end services and bonuses). Demographic elements without exploring too deep into personal details are also a common benchmark of many governmental, business and academic investigations on a regular basis. Thus, this research does not belong to the category of those that contain sensitive, potentially risky (physical and mental) or illegal content. Nevertheless, there are still certain ethical benchmarks that have to be met, even with normal type study, as discussed later. With a suitable approach, there should be no issue when requesting the participant to participate in the survey.

Participants were asked for their consent before being requested to participate in the survey. For the online questionnaire, this notification was introduced in a separate page that directs the participants to the main survey after giving their consent. Regarding the snowball sampling, the researcher initially identified representative members with attributes that fit most of the demographic traits. These people were then asked to join the pre-test as mentioned in the sampling section and were contacted on regular intervals until receiving the final version of the questionnaire and distributing it among their connections. There were no major concerns of accessibility as the questionnaire floated through social network channels. Secondary data will be collected via visiting data archives from either the university library or online papers.

3.4. Ethical considerations

As advanced research, the researcher is aware of the various ethical responsibilities, other than securing high-quality scientific content. “Codes of ethics”, as suggested by Saunders et al (2012), is a systematic checklist of related ethics that details each stage of the research and can be thus associated along the timeline of each. According to the authors, the ethical code should be addressed to the research as an academic entity, and to the external individuals involved in the research process, including those who are chosen as a surveyed audience, collaborators and all other third parties involved.

Upon deciding on the study, the researcher is expected to maintain professional attitudes, throughout the entire duration of the project. Honesty does not simply imply staying truthful when communicating with others about the details of the study, but also by responsibly managing the data. In particular, the primary data must not be manipulated to produce any misleading or fabricated information on purpose, and the secondary data are expected to come from credible and reliable sources.

The right to access collected primary data and the analysis of the data are only available to the researcher and the head supervisor and would be later submitted to the university together with the final thesis. Without the involvement of any third parties, it is highly unlikely for the information to be exposed externally, breaching the confidentiality of data.

Plagiarism is an important matter to be considered in advanced academic projects. In order to avoid any potential unintentional plagiarism, the researcher always remained careful with reviewing and tracing secondary data to their original sources. The materials used in the research literature were giving due credit with sources listed in detail in the references section, abiding by the Harvard style referencing. However, reference materials are used sparingly whenever needed, leaving most of the content generated from the researcher’s personal work.

The researcher follows the guidelines of the ethical principles towards participants, as introduced by Grey’s suggestions (2014):

- Avoid causing any potential harm (physically and mentally) to targeted participants during the whole process of the research. Participants imply not only the respondents but also the researcher (author and collaborators). Any caused harm could be inflicted upon

participants during the data collection stage or when the participants' personal information is breached. Given the content of this research, which does not require the collection of any sensitive element or involve any interactive experimental, it was less likely of a concern. Only the researcher had access to the participants' information, which also did not contain any individual contact information or traces of identification, limiting the risks of information leakage to external parties.

- Upholding objectivity and respecting the decision of the target subjects whether to participate or not. Participants were also informed with a brief overview of the research content and should they agree to join, the researcher outlined in further detail the management of data and the issues of confidentiality and anonymity. Thereafter, participants were given time to decide whether to take on the survey or not. Participants' involvement was over once they finished the survey. In the questionnaire, there were no records of traceable information that can be used to deduce each of the participants' identity. Demographic inquiries were designed not to involve any (as mentioned in 3.2.4).

- Given the format of the questionnaire, participants' responses were all recorded in a written form (paper and online), thus avoiding the risk of false recording or misinterpreting, while maintaining an objective and comfortable environment when interacting with the respondents. However, the trade-off would be half-finished responses.

3.5. Reliability and validity

In scientific research, the basic implication of reliability is the consistency of results collected, when using the same instrument more than once in a stable context. In a broader sense, this feature is also dependent on subjectivity (Wilson, 2010), meaning that the degree of reliability will be compromised, once researchers reveal signs of subjectivity in their methodologies. The hypotheses proposed are based on the body of knowledge of past studies, and the interpretation of results will be derived from the primary data collected. A questionnaire list was constructed from general inquiries to specific matters and presented in simple terms to avoid unnecessarily complicated wording.

In empirical research that uses statistical methods, validity implies making the right decision to determine the target(s) relevant to the aim and objectives of the research, and

the compatible methods to retrieve the right type of information required to address the problem. Academic validity is demonstrated in the researcher's understanding to extract relevant knowledge and organize it into a consistent literature system, together with the abilities to form an academic judgement and critically evaluate the available data and information.

3.6. Research budget

Literature materials researching the major components included in this study (consumption activity, consumer characteristics and psychology, tourism business and operation, the use of statistical tools and analysis) were available in the university's library. The researcher also found a few additional documents of similar content, through online databases. Journal articles are mostly extracted from professional online magazines of scientific bodies, and while many of them are published with public access to them, few needed the settlement of fees to acquire the full access right to the document.

The other expenditures incurred for the preparation of survey distribution, involved the cost of printing hard copies, travelling to the stated tourism destinations to scout for participants and paying the online survey provider (SurveyMonkey). Responses from other online distribution methods were gathered through Google Drive, which allows monitoring the responses' status at no cost.

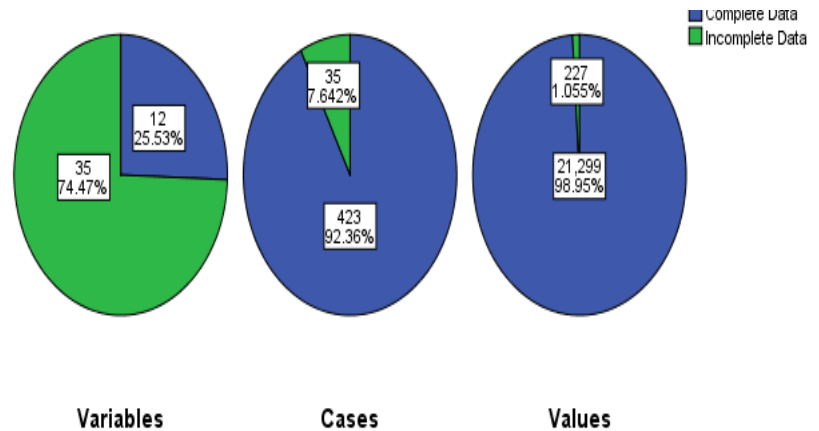
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1. Overview of the data collected

4.1.1. Summary of problems in questionnaire responses

By the end of the period specific to launching questionnaires, 495 responses were returned, less than the initial proposed plan (acquiring 550 responses). The basis to identify invalid cases initially was to check the inquiry of frequency in travel (question 1.11): respondents who answered “never” should not be able to proceed to subsequent questions. Within the acquired data set, 37 cases violated this rule; therefore, they were all taken out from the list. Afterwards, the researcher identified 35 cases with missing values that spread across 35 out of 47 variables used for the research. A detail presentation can be found in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1. Overall summary of missing values



Source: Author

12 cases with serious lack of data. Upon further investigation, the researcher identified 3 cases where participants only chose the highly positive option (4 – “sometimes true” and 5 – “always true”) for one item, within each inquiry construct. This phenomenon is found in constructs involving both, alternatives selection and mutual exclusive type.

Direct contact survey and the common response fashion is when blank items are not applicable for their cases, thus “never” was chosen mostly. Based on this assumption, the researcher believed in the validity to apply the same treatment for the mentioned 3 cases. Meanwhile, the other 9 records only demonstrated a low score (1 – “not true” or 2 – “not true”), thus there was no basis to make further deductions.

According to the detailed summary report of the missing values (Appendix 1), the lack of data only occurred among the earlier 35 variables: the missing data were all items belonging to the consumption construct (question 2.1 to 2.7), while the 12 demographic information inquiries were all filled in. In the constructs of both alternative and mutual exclusive items, the variances in responses for the available items were not strong enough to help identify possible values for the blank ones. The rate of missing values was relatively low for collecting socio science data, through survey questionnaire with only 1% of the total values (Figure 4.1), with no component items surpassing 2% (Appendix 2). Compared to the sequence proposal by Jakobsen et al. (2017) to check on the condition of using the multiple imputation method, the data set of this research matches with the initial three conditions, to allow for the usage of observed data after taking out the missing cases. However, the result of Little's test (1988) returned a significant p-value level (Appendix 3) to reject the null hypothesis of data being missing at completely random and thus leading to the validity use of multiple imputations.

However, the randomness of values generated from imputation methods relying on the existing pattern of the observed data cannot guarantee to maintain the perceived logical senses between items span in different constructs (e.g. subjectively perceived connection in the subject of acting as the main decision-maker among the inquiries 1.12, 2.1.7 and 2.2.3, 2.4). Meanwhile, it is advised against the used of mean substitution or regression substitution as these two methods have been shown to produce biased within variances and covariances (Allison, 2001; Graham et al., 2003; Pallant, 2007). In the end, the researcher decided to take out the major missing values cases and retain the minor missing cases for analysis, using the pairwise deletion method. Despite not being the optimal solution, the manner can still retain the maximum available data for each variable, with the only exception for operations that involve cases with missing values, among which the sample case. The finalized sample size to be used for further analysis would be 450 cases, which still surpass the significant required level planned in the initial sampling expectation (385 people).

4.1.2. Descriptive analysis

Gender –age structure (Question 1.1 and 1.2)

The summary table 4.1 shows a nearly equal rate of responses between male and female participants in the determined sample. There was only a single case chose “other option” for the gender inquiry, meaning the distinction in binary gender using is the most appropriate for this research.

Comparison between the various age group peers has shown a similar density of responses among young people, and a low ratio for the age ranges over 56. The distribution of male group tended to be closely even, up until the age of 46. In parallel, the rate of female respondents has recorded a substantial skew concentration for those who are 25 years old or under.

Table 4.1. Sample structure distribution by age and gender

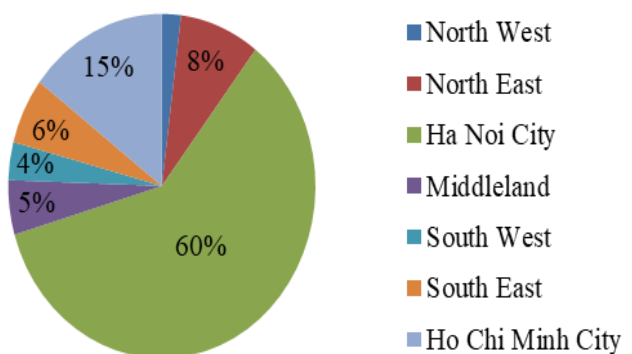
AGE	GENDER			Total
	Male	Female	Other	
18-25	43	136	1	180
26-35	63	61	0	124
36-45	69	41	0	110
46-55	24	1	0	25
56-65	6	0	0	6
Over 65	4	1	0	5
Total	209	240	1	450

Source: Author

Geographic distribution (Question 1.3)

There was a low level of discrepancies among the respondent by geographic criteria. Despite of the feedbacks were collected spread all 5 regions, the highest amount of response ration still originated from the 2 major cities. The highest number of observations was 60% for Ha Noi residents, leaving a huge gap followed by

Figure 4.2. Distribution of sample by geographic criteria



Source: Author

Ho Chi Minh City as the area with second-highest ratio of responses (Figure 4.2). Other regions only registered low feedbacks, which are all under 10% and the lowest number was nine cases from the North West region.

Education – Employment status (Question 1.4 and 1.5)

From the summary report of the sample group, it is possible to conclude that the respondents who participated in the survey had a high educational level. In specific, the norm perception that considered a high educational level (Bachelor or Master) took up 58% of the total sample (Table 4.2), and most of them are currently working as either full time or part-time workers. Since the inquiry had specific participants to select the highest level of their educational attainment, each option is a mutually exclusive choice, and there is no possible overlap to occur in high attainment and found at the same time in lower levels.

Table 4.2. Employment status by education level crosstabulation table

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	EDUCATION					Total
	High School graduated	Bachelor's degree	Specialization career certificate	Master's Degree (MSc, MA, MBA)	Doctorate Degree	
Full time	10	112	12	110	29	273
Part time	39	19	2	2	0	62
Not yet working	90	7	0	4	0	101
Retired	1	4	0	3	0	8
Unemployed	4	0	0	2	0	6
Total	144	142	14	121	29	450

Source: Author

Specialization career training includes numbers of the training programs that emphasize on the knowledge and practical experience, associated with the job description. These programmes are official alternatives that shorten the path to career, for those who do not want to go through high schools and universities; however, they do not also restrict the entry of people with higher educational background. Despite having shorter training time and lower requirements, these programmes are not often the favourite choice of participants, and has far lower attendees: the result of Table 4.2 showed only 14 cases of participants (a little over 3% of the total sample size).

There is a sharply contrast in those identified between the two categories: “Not yet working” and “Unemployed”. The former group enlisted 96 cases within the age range of 18 – 25 (Table 4.3), among which, 87 participants were students. The researcher also identified that, other than the students’ proportion, the rest of “not yet working” participants

spanned through different professions (Appendix 4). The possible explanation for this incident is that the respondents took it from their previous career engagement, before the current condition of being (temporarily) unemployed. This is also normal, since the retired participants also had the same response. The researcher specifically addresses this situation, because the initial intention of “Not yet working” category was to isolate students from the other groups, yet, ended up with a mixed result as recorded. Both, the retired rate and the unemployed rate were recorded at a lower rate than 2% of the total research sample, which is very low.

Table 4.3. Distribution of employment status by age

AGE	EMPLOYMENT					Total
	Full time	Part-time	Not yet working	Retired	Unemployed	
18-25	32	48	96	0	4	180
26-35	109	9	4	0	2	124
36-45	105	4	1	0	0	110
46-55	24	1	0	0	0	25
56-65	3	0	0	3	0	6
Over 65	0	0	0	5	0	5
Total	273	62	101	8	6	450

Source: Author

The depiction of data from Tables 4.2 and 4.3 and the analysis made so far have allowed for the conclusion that Vietnam has a high proportion of people in the early labour ages, most of which are equipped with educational qualifications of high degree.

Profession and Income (Question 1.6, 1.7 and 1.8)

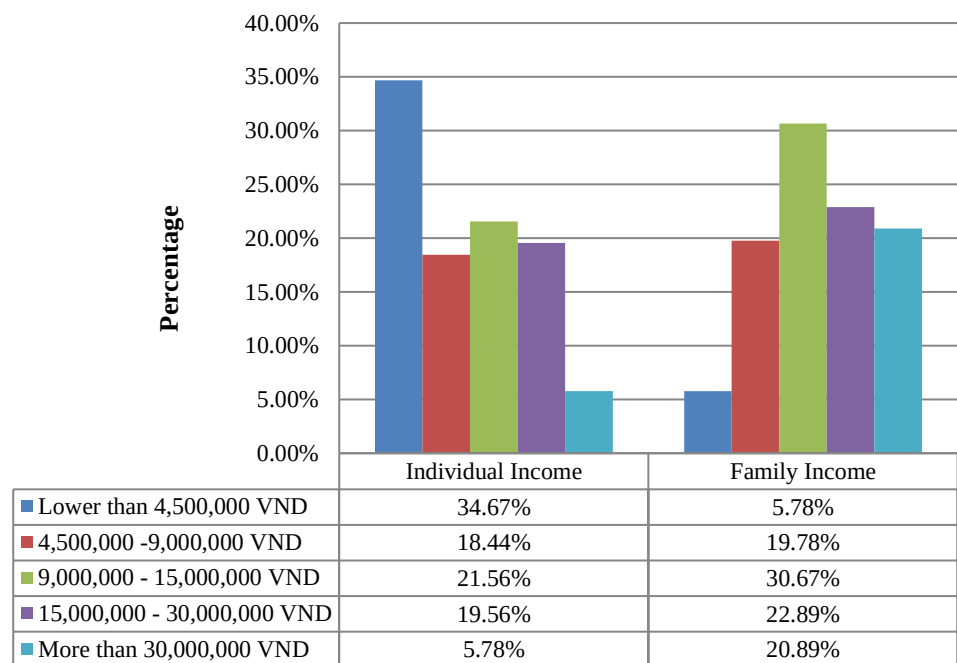
It could be observed that the sample data display divergences of participants; among all the listed professions, the choice with the Student and Education/Academic research makes up two of the highest groups. Other than that, there are not too many discrepancies in the number of employees from other careers. The list of the 16 professions (excluding “student” and “none of the above”) can be organized into two clusters, with the potential of consuming the tourism service in high magnitude/frequency or both. The first group

includes 63 cases of Advertising/Public Relation, Marketing/Marketing Research, Media, Journalism and Political/Government Operational; and the second group includes 58 cases of Hospital/Medical service, Financial services and State security agent.

The second type of classification that can be introduced via the distinction made between those who directly serve in the tourism field includes: Specialized food shop/Restaurant and Tourism/Lodging services, totalling up to 28 participants. The exclusion of the Retail and Transportation from being counted within the tourism service is because members of these two sectors with direct involvement to tourism only takes up a portion of their respective field in general, not to mention there are not many participants from these professions (29 from Retail and 10 from Transportation). In the researcher's perspective, this

distinction could be beneficial as giving an additional perspective to whether there is any difference in the consumption activities between those who are within the industry and the outsiders, in term of frequency and preferences.

Figure 4.3. Summary report of individual income and family income



Source: Author

The depiction of income status for the 450 surveyees has indicated a high ration of low-income earners, with no significant difference among the next three perceived “medium income range” (Figure 4.3). This is not out of expectations, since most of these low-income earners are students who haven’t yet started working.

The overall status of family income shows a tendency of leaning towards the medium-high spectrum, with most of the ratios falling in the third income category. From the records

of the respondents, there were 26 cases where the respondents with the lowest individual income also stated the corresponding level for their family income level. Aside from a single response from a fully functional family with 3 members within this category, the rest were all single with no children, which means that their personal income is assimilated with the family income. Meanwhile, the same 26 responses where the highest of family income overlapped with the personal level had a ratio of single/married equal to 11/15.

Family structure of the participants (Question 1.9 and 1.10)

Taking out the exceptional cases where participants were not willing to give information (9 “prefer not to say” responses), this research has pooled a nearly even ratio between the single and the married participants (Table 4.4). Only 4 respondents who were single

Table 4.4. Crosstabulation table between number of children and marriage status

CHILDREN	MARRIAGE			Total
	Single	Married	Prefer not to say	
None	234	21	7	262
1	3	69	2	74
2	1	92	0	93
3	0	17	0	17
More than 3	0	4	0	4
Total	238	203	9	450

Source: Author

admitted of having children, spreading through the 3 age groups of 18 – 25, 36 – 45 and 46 – 55, while the 2 responses on the “prefer not to say” context were found in between 36 and 55. The depiction of Table 4.4 revealed that the couple with 1 or 2 children is the most common family model identified for participants who are married. The further calculation also indicates that the average number of children for couples in this research was 1.5 (both with and without the “more than 3” option).

The family cycle stages were traced by the following variables: marital status, age, number of children, with the optional addition of individual and family income, when considering the early age (18 – 35). “Young adult” title is applied for the age group of 18 – 35, “mature” is reserved for the age ranging between 36 and 55, and the final two age groups were aligned to that of the “retired age”. Before attempting to sort sample group members into suitable stages of family cycle, there are few assumptions to be addressed. Assumption

#1: young adults with personal income belonging to the first category (lower than 4.5 million VND) were considered to be still depending on their family. Assumption #2: single young adults are deemed to be living by their own, if their income level was found to be equal for both, the individual's and the family's amount. Assumption #3: the participant who is not a student and earns a level of individual income either equal to or different only by one level to family income is considered to be the family chief earner. With all of these assumptions, the researcher identified the following stages in family for the sample collected:

- (1) Single young adults still living with their families: 132 cases
- (2) Single young adults living independently: 96 cases
- (3) Single mature adults without children: 7 cases
- (4) Single mature adults with children: 3 cases
- (5) Newly married couple without children: 16 cases
- (6) Young couple with children: 53 cases
- (7) Mature couple without children: 5 cases
- (8) Mature couple with children: 118 cases
- (9) Retirement couple with children: 11 cases

This classification has demonstrated a clear sorting system for each of the sample members, which is then used as a new variable presentation of “family status”. Each group was assigned to the corresponding numeric value similar to their respective order, with the addition of exceptional cases to be marked as 10 (included a single young adult with one child, and 9 cases that didn't want to disclose their marital status). On the other hand, the researcher also identified 159 observations that fitted the assumption of being “Dependent”, and 291 participants who are the “Main earner”. Since the “Dependents” were more than the members of group (1), it is possible that not many participants were the main earner of their household, regardless of being single or married. These classifications would be then used in conjuncture with the information of the frequency in travel, and their disposition when making decisions (using question 1.11 and 1.12).

Frequency of travel and decision to travel (Question 1.11 and 1.12)

After taking out the invalid cases (who have never travelled), the majority of the participants (70%) can be classified as either “rarely” or “sometimes” engaging in travelling activity. When consumers can afford to make more than 6 trips per year (in the sense of time, energy and resources), it is appropriate to consider such participant as a regular traveller. Within the surveyed sample, 42 participants were found to fit into this category (Table 4.5), and the 41 surveyees who have “quite often” travelled, all came from family with medium financial background or greater. The stand-out case of travelling more than once per month, was found to mostly involve business trips (records at scale of 4 for items 2.1.7 and 2.4.5). Among the 38 “chief earners”, only 21 revealed to act as the decision-makers for most of their travels.

Table 4.5. Distribution of travel frequency by the position as a household income earner

TRAVEL FREQUENCY		INCOME EARNER		Total
		Dependent	Main earner	
Rarely (less than twice per year)	Count	112	107	219
	% of Total	24.9%	23.8%	48.7%
Sometimes (from 3 to 6 times per year)	Count	43	146	189
	% of Total	9.6%	32.4%	42.0%
Quite often (more than 6 times/year to less than once per month)	Count	4	37	41
	% of Total	0.9%	8.2%	9.1%
Usually (more than once per month)	Count	0	1	1
	% of Total	0.0%	0.2%	0.2%
Total	Count	159	291	450
	% of Total	35.3%	64.7%	100.0%

Source: Author

Table 4.6 has shown that people with limitations in their family’s financial potency, taking up only a small portion of the sample, also travelled less frequently on an annual basis, compared to other income groups (Table 3.6). With both the low travel rate and the perceived frequent travel, each taking about half of the sample, when referring to financial indicators (Tables 3.5 and 3.6), it is debatable of whether domestic tourism could be considered as a commodity in the common consumption of Vietnamese household.

Table 4.6. Distribution of travel frequency by family income

TRAVEL FREQUENCY	FAMILY INCOME					Total
	Lower than 4,500,000 VND	4,500,000 – 9,000,000 VND	9,000,000 – 15,000,000 VND	15,000,000 – 30,000,000 VND	More than 30,000,000 VND	
Rarely (less than twice per year)	21	62	70	36	30	219
Sometime (from 3 to 6 times per year)	5	24	61	48	51	189
Quite often (more than 6 times/year to less than once per month)	0	3	7	17	14	41
Usually (more than once per month)	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total	26	89	138	102	95	450

Source: Author

The position of being the decision-maker for each trip was found to be independent of the participants' status, in their household financial structure. In detail, it can be found in all four categories of inquiry 1.12, the presence of both the dependents and the chief earners. The latter type group of consumers have comparatively higher presence for the decisive role (Table 4.7), on top of the regularity in travelling earlier.

Table 4.7. Distribution of Decision maker role by position as household income earner

DECISION MAKER		INCOME EARNER		Total
		Dependent	Main earner	
Never applicable to me	Count	52	17	69
	% of Total	11.6%	3.8%	15.3%
Sometimes (less than 25% of the trip)	Count	89	160	249
	% of Total	19.8%	35.6%	55.3%
Most of the case (more than 50% but less than 100%)	Count	13	87	100
	% of Total	2.9%	19.3%	22.2%
Always	Count	5	27	32
	% of Total	1.1%	6.0%	7.1%
Total	Count	159	291	450
	% of Total	35.3%	64.7%	100.0%

Source: Author

The expansion of “social class” and “family status” variables

Both the “social class” and the “family status” are latent variables with no direct instrument to measure as variables discussed so far and even if there were, it would more likely introduce subjectivity and inconsistency. The solution was a customized structure for each variable, using other information in demographics, as suggested in the literature review chapter (section 2.2.3.6 and 2.2.3.7).

The introduction of the “social class” system was established using the monetary situation and the family stage, as the two main indicators. The basis of the lower class would enlist those who earned less than 4.5 million VND, the next three consecutive income levels would qualify individuals as middle class, and the final level of income corresponded with the upper class. There was no problem applying these standards to the single participants who live by their own. However, those who still live with family and the married targets would require the additional information of family income, thus the lower-class criteria was expanded to the income below 9 million VND, middle class from 9 to 30 million VND, and the upper class is still similar. In the end, the researcher determined 93 cases of the lower class, 254 cases of the middle class and 94 cases of the upper class.

The researcher evaluated that the components of “family status” would require the information of marital status, number of children, age, income and the weight of financial contribution to the household. The alignment of the initial three variables would be similar to the system already established for the family stage, which has also partly adopted the criteria of income status earlier. Therefore, reapplying these set of variables again would provide only a different interpretation, (due to the order of applying) and incur multicollinearity among these variables. As a result, and despite not being the optimal choice, the researcher found it sufficient to use the categorization of “family stages”, in substitution for “family status”.

The “family status” and the “social class” are post-survey variables, established based on a logical sorting in a systematic manner, for the existing demographic variables. As a result, the newly assigned values for these two variables would have high tendency to be correlated with the component variables that they were based on (multicollinearity phenomenon). Results of multicollinearity model (Appendix 5 to 15) have returned

satisfaction values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), among which, the highest VIF value was 4.196 in the model between Age and Employment Status, in Appendix 8. VIF values between Income Earner, Social Class and Family Status were found to be much lower than the expectations. Overall, since every VIF value in the 9 models were all lower than the recommended value of 5 (Rogerson, 2001) and 10 (Kennedy, 1992; Hair et al., 1995), no further adjustment was needed to be implemented on these variables.

4.2. Inferential statistics

For convenience purposes, when addressing and analysing variables, the inquiries of the survey questionnaire were coded in shorter terms, based on their content (Appendix 1). This appendix also contains a list of corresponding answers for each inquiry, which were also converted into presentative numerical values.

4.2.1. Cronbach alpha test result

The test of reliability for 35 dependent variables and 423 cases (listwise deletion method excluded the cases with missing data) has returned an overall alpha value of 0.807, which is considered an acceptable threshold by default. However, it is also indicated that the alpha value could increase further, when taking out the following five items: Information Sources 7 (Item 2.1.7), Planning 3 (Item 2.1.10), Destination Choice 1 (Item 2.3.1), Past Experience (Item 2.6) and Satisfaction 2 (Item 2.7.2). When performing the second run of reliability test after excluding these variables, the new alpha value was 0.817, and only by deleting Travel Type 5 (Item 2.4.5) and Unexpected Incidents (Item 2.5), the alpha value would continue to increase. At the third run of the reliability test, the overall alpha value was recorded at 0.819, and there was no indication that any more elimination of items could increase the alpha value any further (Appendix 16).

All the alpha values from the operations of the reliability test are within the “good range” of acceptance; therefore, it is theoretically possible to accept any of the three models. However, it was also noticed that alpha value is generally high for large-scale sample. Therefore, it is essential to take into consideration a further dimension than just a straight numeric value. It is evident that the second alpha value was statistically higher from the first, while the third alpha value only differed by a minor degree. Therefore, the researcher

decided to operate the EFA for the two models: (1) with 35 variables and (2) with 30 variables. Afterwards, subsequent comparison between segments of EFA tests would be made between the two models, to reach a better judgement on the elimination of the items.

4.2.2. Summary of EFA findings

The result of both Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test Chi-Square for two models was summarized in Table 3.8. In addition to the adequate sample size of 450, the KMO values were found to be within the good range, and the Bartlett's test was significant with all p-values < 0.05.

Table 4.8. KMO and Bartlett's Test result of the models

		Model 1 (35 variables)	Model 2 (30 variables)
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.770	.784
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3936.130	3269.179
	df	595	435
	Sig.	.000	.000

Source: Author

The communalities table shows the proportion that each variable can account, for the factor they are loaded. This information provides an additional basis to evaluate the validity of the lists of variables, after running the loading test. The threshold of extraction values that the researcher determined in this research is 0.4. Variables that didn't reach this standard would naturally not meet up with the standard for retention, in the rotated matrix later (have loading value greater than 0.4 or belong to factor with more than 3 variables); and for these reasons, they were not mentioned later on. The communalities summary tables for both models are included in Appendix 20 and 21.

Both models were treated with the same method and the same standard for the cut-off factor loading, mentioned under the factor analysis segment of section 3.2.4.3, and results were compared against each other, with the initial suggestion of item deletion.

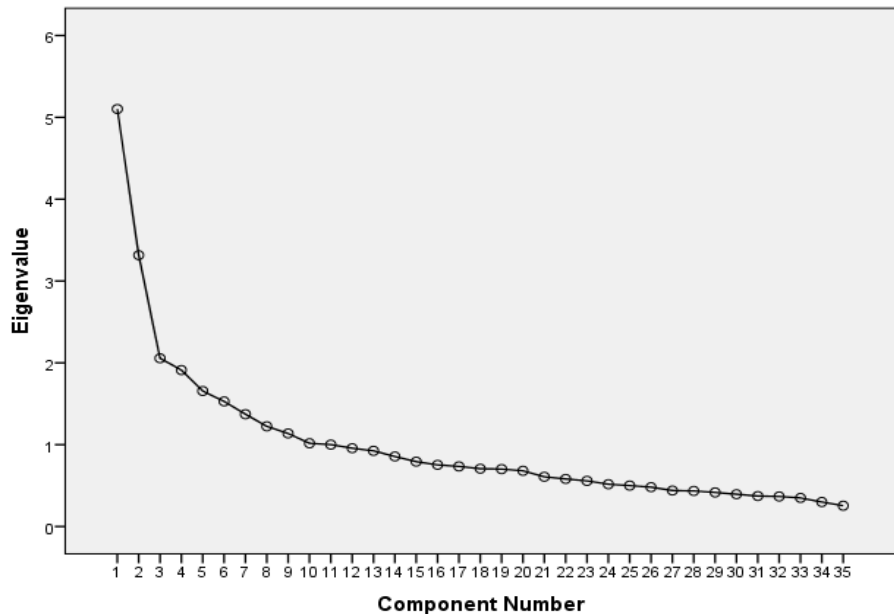
The first model

The K1 rule has indicated that 11 factors are to be extracted from 35 variables, which accounted for 60.917% of the total sample variances. Meanwhile, the Scree plot test in Figure 4.4 suggested that at the mark of 10 factors, the line was levelled off, meaning that

the suitable factor to be extracted is only 10. Meanwhile, the calculation of Velicer's Minimum Average Partial test (MAP), based on syntax developed by O'Connor (2000) for SPSS, suggested four factors to retain.

Based on the rotated loading of the pattern matrix, only three factors met the criteria used for retention (mentioned under section 3.2.4.3). This is lower than the indication results of K1, Scree plot and MAP. Table 4.9 depicted the final

Figure 4.4. Scree plot graph of the first model



Source: Author

factor lists for the first model, via the two rotation methods, direct oblimin and promax. All items were found to have moderate to strong loading with their factors. Two out of the five items, suggested for deletion by earlier alpha result (Information 7 and Destination choice 1), were also presented in the factors list. Other than factor 2 of the direct oblimin rotation, other factors were validated with individually acceptable alpha values.

Table 4.9. Structure of factor extracted and reliability for the first model

	Direct oblimin		Promax (kappa = 4)	
	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
Factor 1	Priority 2	0.752	Priority 4	0.913
	Priority 3	0.611	Destination choice 1	0.684
	Priority 5	0.401	Destination choice 4	0.491
			Emotion 2	0.474
	Alpha = 0.709		Alpha = 0.647	
Factor 2	Priority 4	0.795	Priority 2	0.872
	Destination choice 1	0.617	Priority 3	0.667
	Destination choice 2	- 0.441	Priority 5	0.411
	Destination choice 4	0.408		

	Alpha = 0.189 (delete destination choice 2 would increase alpha value to 0.629)		Alpha = 0.709	
Factor 3	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
	Evaluation 3	0.771	Emotion 1	0.591
	Information 7	0.650	Planning 2	0.497
	Travel Type 4	0.438	Evaluation 1	0.474
			Travel 3	0.420
	Alpha = 0.638		Alpha = 0.597	
Total variance explained	24.058%		20.422%	

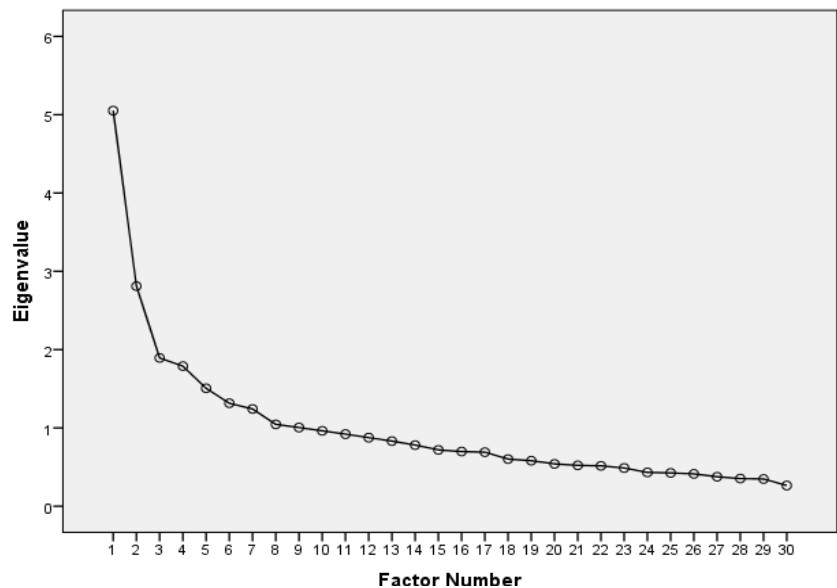
Source: Author

Albeit the direct oblimin rotation produced factors with a higher rate of explained variances, the low value alpha of its second factor would require further re-evaluation and after taking out the item ‘Destination choice 2’, a rerun of factor analysis is compulsory for the overall model. This adjustment leads to new four factors, extracted with better improvement in factor loading structure, and slightly higher from the explained variances (Appendix 26), than the result of Table 4.9. In conclusion, the direct oblimin rotation would be chosen for the model with 34 variables in this case.

The second model

According to K1 rule, nine factors were expected for this model, accounting for 58.861% explanation of the total variances. On the other hand, the result of Scree plot was less straightforward in identifying the number of factors, since there are potentially two points where the line was first levelling off: at the 6 or 8 factors mark (Figure 4.5). In addition, the results of MAP test in this case

Figure 4.5. Scree plot graph of the first model



Source: Author

were also divisive by the format being used: the original MAP (1976) specified five factors to be extracted, while the revised MAP (2000) pointed toward four factors.

Table 4.10. Structure of factor extracted and reliability for the second model

	Direct oblimin		Promax (kappa = 4)	
	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
Factor 1	Evaluation 2	0.780	Priority 2	0.842
	Information source 1	0.734	Priority 3	0.691
	Travel Type 3	0.453	Priority 5	0.638
			Destination choice 2	0.478
	Alpha = 0.736		Alpha = 0.736	
Factor 2	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
	Priority 4	0.631	Evaluation 2	0.813
	Destination choice 4	0.546	Information source 1	0.778
	Emotion 2	0.514	Travel Type 3	0.471
	Alpha = 0.575		Alpha = 0.736	
Factor 3	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
	Information source 4	0.766	Priority 4	0.655
	Information source 6	0.596	Emotion 2	0.614
	Information source 3	0.551	Destination choice 4	0.599
	Information source 5	0.481	Destination choice 3	0.416
	Alpha = 0.695		Alpha = 0.623	
Factor 4	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
	Priority 2	0.769	Information source 4	0.739
	Priority 3	0.634	Information source 6	0.669
	Priority 5	0.527	Information source 5	0.507
			Information source 3	0.494
	Alpha = 0.709		Alpha = 0.695	
Total variance explained	30.37%		31.235%	

Source: Author

Both, the direct oblimin and the promax rotations have revealed the same number of validated factors, among which two factors' structure had identical components, while the other two shared many items in common (Table 4.10). Since the promax rotation delivered higher explanation ratio and has generally a better reliability index for each factor, this method was chosen for the second model.

In the context of this research, the researcher found supportive evidence for the notion that the parallel analysis is deemed to be suitable for the principal component than the principal axis factoring. In the result of the parallel test (Appendix 24 and 25), the percentile eigenvalues calculated were all significantly smaller, compared to the extraction sum of

squared loadings eigenvalues acquired from the factor analysis. Therefore, this method was not included in the previous sections.

Comparing the data acquired between the two models and the four rotation settings, it is evident that the latter provided a better rate of variance explanation, while individual factors also have high internal consistency level, without any issues for its components. Therefore, the researcher decided on the second model of 30 variables, with four factors loading, using promax methods for later hypothesis testing. The four new factors will be named in consecutive order as Preference of destination (Factor 1), Involvement of family element (Factor 2), Destination distance and attachment (Factor 3), and Source of Information (Factor 4).

Since the calculation of factor scores might not always accurately represent the observation value from the sample (Gorsuch, 1983), it is recommended to use the unit weight for items with high level of loading, into their designated factors. However, this method might not be always superior than the normal sum or the average sum, due to its reliance on the extraction and rotation methods (DiStefano et al., 2009). On the other hand, refined methods are perceived for their maximization of validity and high correlation of factor scores, and unbiased estimation. The downsides scores, estimated via Bartlett or Anderson-Rubin methods, are not recommended for oblique rotation, while the regression method based on the regression model is used to estimate the factor score. Furthermore, these methods produce standardized scores that do not share the same scaling system as the variable components, and the scores were the product of estimation. As the researcher evaluated the pros and the cons of each of these methods, the final choice was that of the weight sum score methods, treating the cases with missing data with pairwise methods.

Although changes made as a result of the EFA reduced the initial “intended” independent variables, these newly established factors and their components are still a reflection of consumption behaviour’s aspect, therefore, the researcher found no need to change the overall hypothesis. Minor adjustments would include the selection of independent variables for the regression analysis employed later.

4.2.3. Regression result

Before initiating the regression analysis, a few points have to be clarified:

- Evaluating the decision of whether to standardize independent variables or not. Theoretically speaking, this action is often applied to predictor/independent variables, when they are measured by different measurement bases. The purpose of variables standardization is to ensure internal consistency and to enable data comparability between different constructs. In the context of this research, each variable belongs to a distinctive demographic trait with no clear correlation with others, which is also supported by the result of the multicollinearity test earlier. Furthermore, even though all the independent variables were established with different scales, they were intended for categorical or nominal data, which contradicts the design of conducting standardization. In the end, the researcher decided to retain the independent variables unchanged.
- The initial demographic inquiries listed in the survey questionnaire were only preliminary, towards setting up the official independent variables. Other than clearly defined demographic traits, the more abstract concepts of “Family status”, the “Social class” and the less straight forward “Chief income earner of the household” were the derivative products of the initial descriptive analysis, from the available demographic data. The two variables “Frequency of travel” and “Decision maker role” were used for the consistency and the validity of the information provided and compared against the “Chief income earner of the household”; they are not included as independent variables.
- After coding scale measurement, the dependent and independent variables of the study can be treated as continuous data type; and given the default assumption of the linear correlation between demographic and consumption behaviour, the researcher found it feasible to adopt the linear regression model. The list of independent variables included Gender, Age, Geographic location, Educational level, Employment status, Profession, Personal Income, Income earner, Family status, and Social class; and the dependent variables included Preference of destination, Involvement of family element, Destination distance and attachment, and Source of Information.

Result of multiple regression with Preference of destination

Tables 4.11 and 4.12 show a significant regression equation ($F(10,428) = 4.499, p < 0.00$), with an R square of 0.074 for the model with Preference of destination as a dependent variable.

Table 4.11. Model Summary with Preference of destination as a dependent variable

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
.308	.095	.074	2.11698	.095	4.499	10	428	.000	1.859

Source: Author

Table 4.12. ANOVA for a model of Preference of destination as a dependent variable

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	201.636	10	20.164	4.499	.000
Residual	1918.132	428	4.482		
Total	2119.768	438			

Source: Author

According to Table 4.13, only Gender, Age, and Family status were found to be statistically significant predictors for the Preference of destination, since p-values are all smaller than 0.05 (respectively calculated at 0.002, 0.001, and 0.036). In specific, Gender and Family status both have a positive impact on the Preference of destination (Beta values > 0), while the influence of Age is that of a negative tendency. Therefore, the null hypotheses of no correlation between these factors and the Preference of destination are rejected, while accepting the fitness of the null hypothesis for the other demographic variables

Table 4.13. Coefficients with Preference of destination as a dependent variable

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	9.366	.832		11.260	.000	7.731	11.001
GENDER	.713	.228	.163	3.127	.002	.265	1.161
AGE	-.594	.180	-.291	-3.299	.001	-.948	-.240
GEOGRAPHIC	-.106	.070	-.079	-1.530	.127	-.243	.030
EDUCATION	.020	.108	.012	.184	.854	-.192	.232
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	-.095	.157	-.042	-.609	.543	-.403	.212
PROFESSION FIELD	.018	.025	.042	.703	.482	-.032	.067
INDIVIDUAL INCOME	.076	.164	.045	.461	.645	-.247	.399

INCOME EARNER	.040	.338	.009	.118	.906	-.625	.704
FAMILY STATUS	.131	.062	.184	2.100	.036	.008	.253
SOCIAL CLASS	-.080	.245	-.024	-.327	.744	-.563	.402

Source: Author

Result of multiple regression with Involvement of family element

The result of goodness of fit test for model with Involvement of family is found to be meaningful at the 5% significance level: $F(10, 428) = 6.466$ and the adjusted R-square is 0.111 (Table 4.14 and 4.15). Therefore, the model is deemed to be statistically significant.

Table 4.14. Model Summary with Destination distance and attachment as independent variable

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
.362	.131	.111	2.00187	.131	6.466	10	428	.000	1.738

Source: Author

Table 4.15. ANOVA for model with Destination distance and attachment as independent variable

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	259.108	10	25.911	6.466	.000
Residual	1715.209	428	4.007		
Total	1974.318	438			

Source: Author

According to the coefficient result of Table 4.16, among the 10 independent variables, only the p-values associated with Gender, Education level, and Social class are lower than the significant value of 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no relationship between these variables and the Destination distance and attachment are rejected. According to the coefficient Beta value, it is recognized that Gender and Family status have a positive impact towards the dependent variable, while the derived effect from Geographic location and Educational level is negative.

Table 4.16. Coefficients with Involvement of family as a dependent variable

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound

(Constant)	7.465	.787		9.491	.000	5.919	9.012
GENDER	.677	.215	.161	3.143	.002	.254	1.101
AGE	-.260	.170	-.132	-1.525	.128	-.594	.075
GEOGRAPHIC	-.103	.066	-.079	-1.564	.119	-.232	.026
EDUCATION	-.252	.102	-.160	-2.464	.014	-.452	-.051
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.004	.148	.002	.026	.979	-.287	.295
PROFESSION FIELD	-.005	.024	-.012	-.212	.833	-.052	.042
INDIVIDUAL INCOME	.125	.155	.077	.808	.420	-.180	.431
INCOME EARNER	-.627	.320	-.141	-1.960	.051	-1.255	.002
FAMILY STATUS	.260	.059	.379	4.411	.000	.144	.376
SOCIAL CLASS	-.523	.232	-.161	-2.252	.025	-.979	-.067

Source: Author

Result of multiple regression with Destination distance and attachment

In this model, the result of F statistic test was found to be not significant enough, since the p-value was 0.353, much larger than the significant level of 0.05 (Table 4.18). This means that there is no statistical evidence to support the prediction model of independent variables with the Destination distance and attachment. Furthermore, the adjusted R-square is only 0.003, which can be interpreted as only 0.3% of the model's variation explained by the independent variables that actually affect the Involvement of family. Due to this, even if this model was statistically significant, the accountability of variance that this model can explain would not make much sense in statistical terms, even by the acceptance norm of low R-square in socio-science study standards. Since the model was found to lack statistical significance in design, further results of the coefficient table would be invalid.

Table 4.17. Model Summary with Involvement of family element as independent variable

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
.159 ^a	.025	.003	1.70942	.025	1.110	10	426	.353	2.078

Source: Author

Table 4.18. ANOVA for model with Involvement of family element as an independent variable

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	32.436	10	3.244	1.110	.353
Residual	1244.817	426	2.922		
Total	1277.253	436			

Source: Author

Result of multiple regression with Source of information

Table 4.19. Model Summary with Source of information as a dependent variable

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
.357 ^a	.128	.107	1.91723	.128	6.171	10	422	.000	1.906

Source: Author

The goodness of fit test and ANOVA result provided by Table 4.19 and Table 4.20 indicated a good fit of a regression model with the Source of information, as a dependent variable. The F test result $F(10, 422) = 6.171$ is significant with a p-value smaller than 0.05, and an adjusted R-square of 0.107. The Durbin-Watson value (1.906) is also within the normal range.

Table 4.20. ANOVA with Source of information as a dependent variable

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	226.813	10	22.681	6.171	.000 ^b
Residual	1551.168	422	3.676		
Total	1777.982	432			

Source: Author

The statistically significant p-values identified for Age, Educational level and Income earner (corresponding at 0.000, 0.048 and 0.046 respectively), allows for the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis that there is the influence of these independent variables on the Source of information variable. Beside the adverse influence of Age, due to the negative value of its coefficient estimation, the tendency of influence derived from other variables is of positive orientation.

Table 4.21. Coefficients with Source of information as a dependent variable

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	7.791	.759		10.270	.000	6.300	9.282
GENDER	-.024	.208	-.006	-.116	.908	-.433	.384
AGE	-.881	.164	-.469	-5.366	.000	-1.204	-.558
GEOGRAPHIC	-.008	.063	-.006	-.120	.904	-.132	.117
EDUCATION	.195	.098	.130	1.985	.048	.002	.389
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.149	.143	.071	1.042	.298	-.132	.429
PROFESSION FIELD	.007	.023	.018	.301	.763	-.038	.052

INDIVIDUAL INCOME	-.017	.150	-.011	-.111	.911	-.311	.278
INCOME EARNER	.618	.308	.146	2.005	.046	.012	1.224
FAMILY STATUS	.012	.057	.018	.213	.831	-.100	.124
SOCIAL CLASS	.285	.224	.092	1.273	.204	-.155	.725

Source: Author

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1. Regarding the result theoretical aspect

In contrast to the original setting for the hypothesis test, the analysis of the results that preceded has reduced both, the dependent variables (through EFA analysis) and the independent variables (after regression analysis). The findings also revealed a mixed outcome of influence, in the sense that not a single independent variable has complete influence over all the dependent variables, not to mention the model designed to examine the correlation status to the variable ‘Destination distance and attachment’ which was not statistically appropriate.

5.1.1. The influence of gender

Based on the distribution of the participants over this demographic trait, the effect of genders could be analysed to compare the iteration of consumption activities between male and female consumers. Even though the initial design took into consideration the presence of “other” genders’ consumption, there was only a single case throughout the entire sample with the choice “prefer not to say”. According to the dummy code setting, “female” was identified with a value of two, and “male” corresponded to 1, therefore, the positive influence recognized from the regression analysis could be translated, as correlated dependent factors were more found in the cases of female consumers than their male counterparts.

Regarding the ‘Preference of destination’ aspect, female consumers have a higher preference for exploring new destinations (as indicated by Priority 5 and Destination choice 2 components) and place the priority towards the harmony (presented by Priority 2 and Priority 3), compared to male tourists. On the other hand, the role of the family as a source of information and companions is also highly regarded by the female tourists (Evaluation 2, Information source 1, and Travel type 3). These outcomes were subtly aligned with the result of Mieczkowski (1990) and McGehee *et al.* (1996) and agreed to a great extent with the conclusion made by Norris and Wall (1994), and Meng and Uysal (2008). Accounting for the difference incurred by the gender-based feature, it is basically attributed to socio-cultural norms, with a value assigned for each role in household and in societal structure

(Jackson and Henderson, 1995), e.g. the purpose of travel for men was business and work-related, while women's tended to be driven by leisure purpose (Collins and Tisdell, 2002).

5.1.2. The influence of age

In contradiction with the conclusion made by Andreu et al. (2005), age, as a demographic factor, was found to have a meaningful distinction towards two aspects of the tourism service consumption. In specific, younger consumers enjoyed the exploration of new travel destinations ('Preference of destination') than their older peers. Theoretically speaking, this finding resonates with the stereotyped portrait of young consumers as having an "adventurous" or a "welcoming to change" attitude, opposed to the scepticism and rigid nature of senior consumers. The same deduction could be attributed to the inquiry of 'Information sources', which weighed strongly in web-based sources (Information 4 and Information 6): older consumers with reduced capabilities in perceiving and understanding technology would be an obstacle for them when approaching utilities provided through modern channels (social platform, forum, and information sites), which is knowledge and information in this case.

It should also be noted that the majority of participants in this study mostly come from the young to middle age group, and those aged over 46 accounted for only 8% of the sample. This disproportion of the sample allocation then prompted the researcher with two judgments. The first one considers that the lack of enthusiasm towards the novelty of destination choices, and the reliance on external sources of information could come not only from senior age groups but also from other younger consumers. Since the previous studies only distinguished between the young and the old as two extreme degrees of age in general, the middle age group was left as a grey area, with less attention. Therefore, this finding could arguably promote the expansion of presenting the senior characters through even younger clusters, while the broader notion would assume that not all young consumers' behaviours and attitudes fit into the mainstream depictions. The second perspective argues that these interpretations would be more convincing if the sample was distributed less bias.

5.1.3. The influence of education level

As clarified in section 2.2.3.3 regarding the education level approach, the scope of this research has limited the approach for education to academic achievements, and therefore the analysis was also made, based on this scale. A few decades back, the comparative superiority of higher education consumers was based on their regular interaction with mass media (Schramm and White, 1965; Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955), while more recent studies haven't yet addressed the shift to more modern platforms. According to Wong et al. (2016), the distinction of the educational level was mentioned as an indication for the preference of international travel over domestic tourism, while a subtle discussion on the external source of information was tested in empirical research by Djeri *et al.* (2016).

Most of the initial designs for information inquiry were retained, when examining the effect of educational attainment within this research sample; however, the direct influence is more divisive than what's recorded by Djeri et al. In particular, as the individual's level of educational attainment increases, they tend to rely less on the opinion of other family members, while showing more trust on external information sources, especially the online-based platform (Information 6 and Information 4 with higher loading score than Information 5 and Information 3). In other words, the increase in individuals' educational level generally associates with better learning capability and judgment (not a definite fact), thus the increase in the importance of these sources would mean a better interaction with the arguably objective information, implying higher self-confidence and personal evaluation capability.

5.1.4. The influence of family status

Among the three post hoc independent variables, the family status variable was less straightforward, due to its design based on the sorting of three initial variables of age, marital status, and number of children. Therefore, the interpretation of this variable will be presented by the order of criteria appearance. The synopsis is that the observations for 'Preference of destination' and 'Involvement of family' variables tend to be encountered more frequently among married consumers than the single ones, and within each group, among older consumers and/or those with children.

Although the earlier establishment of the age influence has specified that age was negatively correlated with 'Preference in destination', this was only partially represented in this case, due to its joint impact when combined with marital status and number of children. According to the structure of coding, for family status, the order of criteria used to classify sample members was marital status – age – number of children. Therefore, the earlier impact of age can only be found in the cases of comparison between mature consumers and married young couples, regardless of the number of children that each of these two groups has. Meanwhile, any other evaluation would contradict with the identified affinity between age and the 'Preference of destination'. The reason for this unexpected result was the combined impact of the three independent variables, unrelated to either the classification or the coding structure. Therefore, it is believed that, as long as the list of independent variables employed as criteria remain unchanged, the conclusion would be indifferent.

5.1.5. The influence of income earner and social class

Unlike the previous independent variables, the income-earner and social class variables only demonstrated influence on a single factor, each. The setting of income earner was also a logical classification of personal income, family income, and professional income, as components. Based on the regression result, this collective variable also resembles the previous case of family status, in the sense that component variables have different regression results compared to the collective variable. Income earner was classified with only two categories: dependant and chief earner. The correlation result would be then translated as the chief earner has a stronger tendency towards using external information sources, as reference material. Since there were no precedent records in the literature regarding this variable, this can be considered an added value of not only this sample study but also as an opportunity for future research.

On the other hand, the negative correlation of social class towards family involvement means that the progression made on the social ladder has devaluated the role of family, as a source of information. In this research, the researcher established a customized measurement to organize a social class of participants based mainly on the income with family status as a condition variable, thus the identified influence of social class toward

consumer behaviour could be considered a secondary influence from income. The rough assumption would be that the higher the income level that a person achieves, the less impact that family involvement (as a source of information, joining in making decisions and the involvement in the traveling activity) can be expected from consumers. However, since no significant result was found in the testing hypothesis that specifically addresses income influence to the family involvement, the previous deduction made based on social class influence is no more than expanding speculation, especially since the testing of income was not statistically significant for the family involvement or any other three determined factors of consumer's behaviour.

5.1.6. Conclusion

From a marketing strategy perspective, the results above can be filtered into strategies for approaching the targeted audience of domestic tourism services:

- Since the external sources of information, especially the web-based channels, were sought by young people and consumers with a high educational and financial background, it would be beneficial for the tourism service providers to increase their presence and interaction, through these channels. However, a superficial presence and occasional contact is not a sustainable approach for a long-term strategy. The most optimal approach would be to tailor each consumer group with compatible services, and to maintain up-to-date interactive platforms and multiple informal channels, to increase their exposure to consumers. For businesses that are unable to set up and maintain a thorough interactive platform, an alternative tactic would be to emphasise the individual experience or to establish “personal travel stories” and promote them through high traffic social platforms.

- The advantage of Vietnam tourism industry is the variety of attraction sites and festivals, nearly in every province. Therefore, the main concern of whether touristic destinations fail to attract domestic tourists, is how to effectively compete for increased efficiency between similar service providers. An example of this approach is for travel operators to separate their targeted market segments, and to match the existing services to the consumers' group with compatible preference: e.g. advertise for an exploring tour in

exotic nature and cultural sites for young female consumers, or organizing multiple destinations of close distance in one tour package and modify them on a seasonal basis,

- Due to the high correlation of gender, female consumers, and the family status variables, it could be also possible that by capturing the attention of the female audience, the tourism can also approach the family as a unit of consumption (which could be the family of the targeted female consumers or that of their acquaintances).

5.2. Regarding technical and methodology aspects

Even though this research may share certain similarities with previous studies in certain aspects of the topic (academic field or targeted industry), or in the direction of objectives and purposes (identifying the relationship of observed variables to establish prediction model), the methodology and the research process adopted in this study to answer the research question were still fundamentally different:

- To start with, the research sample is considered as a fraction of the population, therefore, any findings discovered within a study in a local attribute, may not be necessarily found in other sample clusters or in the overall targeted population. Given the selection of participants with unique characteristics, the outcomes may be inconsistent with the general knowledge of the subject or might completely contradict the literature; yet it doesn't also imply that any of the results is invalid.

- Secondly, the researcher found that applying a research methodology is more than just a concern of using quantitative or qualitative methods, and neither is it a task of mix-and-match for the available data using the predetermined method as a reference. On many occasions, throughout the investigation process, many assumptions and requirements of the analysis models were found to not be entirely fitting into portions of the acquired database. In addition, many statistical methods have a close resemblance in objectives and functions, with slight distinction in the technical design. Technically speaking, the multi-stage analytical methods (e.g. factor analysis) are sensitive in nature to every decision made for each component; thus, the process can be disrupted with the employment of their sequence stages. Therefore, it is beneficial for researchers to develop a full plan on the research

strategy before engaging in a multi-stage analysis and considering the fitness of the overall research plan than optimizing components' suitability.

- Although it is impossible for empirical studies of large samples to secure a full ratio of responses from the distributed questionnaire, missing responses would no doubt influence the overall research. Although a minor degree of missing cases might appear to be insignificant first but if these deficiencies of data were spread either randomly or non-randomly and the analysis technique that the researcher chose excluded missing cases, the representativeness of the sample might be compromised, and the accuracy of the analysed results would be undermined. In the end, the stacking in deviations could possibly accumulate a significant impact that can change the research analysis completely.

- Since analytical tests have strict requirements in the type of data input (ordinal, categorical or numerical), using a dummy code for variables allows the researcher a certain degree of flexibility in choosing the convenient test, in addition to simplifying in the calculation process. However, this does not mean that these choices are always appropriate, given the confusion in treating the data, or misusing the data in coding from its raw form, especially when reverting the data for interpretation purposes.

- Finally, the wide use of default methods and commonly used analytical practices are not always the right choice for every type of data. On the other hand, the extremely appropriate methods and the optimal choice of measurement are not always available or possible to access. Therefore, certain compromises when evaluating between the validity usage and the accuracy of results produced are unavoidable, and these trade-offs are the reasons for error margins and anomalies.

In this study, the rationale of using EFA techniques for factor analysis and regression analysis came from their alignment in design with the objectives and purposes of this research. However, even when the selection was made on the basis of the highest precision, the final model can still only account for a low rate of the sample's discrepancy. Overall, the four dependent factors extracted only account for over one-third of the total sample variances, while the regression analysis of the independent variables can only explain at most 11% of the dependent factors. Although it is common for studies of human behaviour to have low values of R-square, there would be no issue as long as the goodness-of-fit for

the model is statistically significant. However, the academic literature also implied that neither a low nor a high R-square value is a good sign of scientific research.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1. Limitations of the research

In terms of the techniques applied and the research process followed, few limitations were identified as follows:

- The severity of the data collected in terms of missing cases, internal consistency, multicollinearity... yet to reach thresholds that require drastic solutions cannot be also neglected. Therefore, what the research had used for this study was an intermediary treatment.
- The researcher also recognized a disproportion in the distribution of data, in certain demographic traits (female ratio, geographic distribution...), which might have introduced bias to the evaluation process and the prediction power of the model in the end. In addition, although the research sample selected satisfied the statistical term, it still fell short when compared to the potential scale of the targeted population.
- In this research, most of the statistical tests were conducted using SPSS. Despite being equipped with a considerate library of tests and support functions, not all the advanced statistical instruments or the newly developed techniques are made accessible, even within the most updated version of the software. Meanwhile, other programmes that can handle more complex tasks are not widely accessible.
- The limitation in allocated resources also limited the researches mainly in term of the research scale (recruit participants) and the

6.2. Recommendations for future study

Given that this study was the first to address this specific topic, the researcher expected that it would be beneficial for future research to continue developing the subject, based on the findings and the consolidated theoretical framework, as well as the practical analysis adopted. Despite the attempts made by the research to cover most of the topic, the researcher believes that there are still more opportunities to be investigated in future studies.

6.2.1. In terms of research result

The problem with consumers' behavioural models is that they couldn't account for the unpredictable nature of consumers. Although an interference of internal or external environment might occur, there were far too many elements that studies so far couldn't possibly be fully aware of or even recognized, especially the need to balance the attention to cover many other aspects of the study subjects. Therefore, the researcher believed that an independent study with a sole concentration on this field would be beneficial. Furthermore, instead of trying to cover and justify the wide dimension of the topic of consumer behaviour in general, a narrow approach concerning certain merchandises and well-defined aspects of consumption activities would be an appropriate study.

- It is advisable for future research to either 1) establish certain criteria as benchmarks, while selecting primary sources (which might involve manipulation of data) or 2) increase the size of the sample to dilute the possible effect of non-random sampling methods and gain a higher degree of statistical significance.
- According to the findings of this research, many variables from the initial testing designs were not judged to have significant results, especially the dependent variables list. Despite the initial intention of the researcher to include the profession industry, this variable wasn't found to have a noticeable influence in the end. In addition, there is still more development potential for the educational level, social class, and family status traits. The list of dependent factors extracted only accounted for a fragment of the consumption activity in information sources, the involvement of a reference group, and the preferred type for destination sites.
- The inter-correlation of many variables that the researcher couldn't clarify and prove through this research, yet the final findings could be further explored and examined: the demographic trait and the purpose of the trip, the attitude of consumers during the decision-making process, the influence of unexpected incidents on reaching the final decision, the consumption patterns of consumers from a close profession... Each of these directions can be developed into independent subjects for investigation.

6.2.2. In terms of research methodology

Given the mediocre explanation power of the analysis methods employed (low ratio of explained variances in all the models when performing EFA and low R-squared for regression analysis), future projects can benefit from the different approaches into the subject, via adopting a different perspective in evaluating the relationship between independent and dependent variables, as either non-linear or logically based. Future studies may modify the questionnaire of this study and run the confirmatory factor analysis to analyse the data collected. On the other hand, a completely different set of analytical methods is also encouraged for more diversity.

Though the EFA had narrowed down the list of factors to the most significant ones on the overall structure, items that were not loading to factors, due to the standard cut off threshold or to their violation of the chosen criteria are not completely useless. Therefore, another recommendation for future research would be to further investigate the effect of the factors already tested in this study, by improving the design to increase the overall variance rate.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Coding of questionnaire survey used in analysis

Question	Question coded	Answer coded
1.1. What is your gender?	Gender	1 – Male; 2 – Female; 3 – Other; 4 – Prefer not to say
1.2. Which of the following age group are you identified with?	Age	1 – 18-25; 2 – 26-35; 3 – 36-45; 4 – 46-55; 5 – 56-65; 6 – Over 65
1.3. Where do you live?	Geographic	1 – North West; 2 – North East; 3 – Ha Noi City; 4 – Midland; 5 – South West; 6 – South East; 7 – Ho Chi Minh City
1.4. What is your highest level of education?	Education	1 – High School graduated; 2 – Bachelor; 3 – Specialization career certificate; 4 – Master (MSc, MA, MBA); 5 – Doctorate
1.5. What is your employment status?	Employment status	1 – Full time; 2 – Part time; 3 – Not yet working; 4 – Retired; 5 – Unemployed
1.6. In which industries or professions do you work?	Profession field	1 – Advertising/ Public relation; 2 – Marketing/ Marketing research; 3 – Media; 4 – Journalism; 5 – Hospital/ Medical service; 6 – Education/ Academic research; 7 – Electronics/Computer/Software programming; 8 – Finance services/ Insurance/ Banking/ Real estates; 9 – Retail; 10 – Political/ government office; 11 – Transportation; 12 – Construction/ Structural Design; 13 – Food Industries (manufacturing, processing, packaging foods); 14 – Specialized food shop/ Restaurant;

		15 – State security agent (police, fire fighter...); 16 – Student; 17 – Tourism/ Lodging service; 18 – None of the above
1.7. What is your monthly average income?	Individual income	1 – Lower than 4,500,000 VND 2 – 4,500,000 – 9,000,000 VND 3 – 9,000,000 – 15,000,000 VND 4 – 15,000,000 – 30,000,000 VND 5 – More than 30,000,000 VND
1.8. What is your family's monthly average income?	Family income	1 – Lower than 4,500,000 VND 2 – 4,500,000 – 9,000,000 VND 3 – 9,000,000 – 15,000,000 VND 4 – 15,000,000 – 30,000,000 VND 5 – More than 30,000,000 VND
1.9. What is your current marital status?	Marital status	1 – Single; 2 – Married; 3 – Prefer not to say
1.10. How many children do you have?	Children	0 – None; 1 – 1; 2 – 2; 3 – 3; 4 – More than 3
1.11. How often do you usually travelling within Vietnam tourism destination on average?	Travel frequency	1 – Never; 2 – Rarely (less than twice per year); 3 – Sometime (from 3 to 6 times per year); 4 – Quite often (more than 6 times/year to less than once per month); 5 – Usually (more than once per month)
1.12. Are you the main decision maker in each trip that you are involved?	Decision maker	1 – Never applicable to me; 2 – Sometimes (less than 25% of the trip); 3 – Often (from 25% to 50%); 4 – Most of the case (more than 50% but less than 100%); 5 – Always
2.1.1. I am getting advice from family relative	Information source 1	1 – Not true; 2 – Relatively true;
2.1.2. I am using experience from the past	Information source 2	3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true;

2.1.3. I am looking for information from travel agencies' brochures, websites	Information source 3	5 – Always true
2.1.4. I am looking for review opinions from travel forums (Internet or offline groups)	Information source 4	
2.1.5. I am asking for opinions of my friends/ colleagues	Information source 5	
2.1.6. I am asking for opinion of people I know from social network/ I am searching information from social applications (Facebook, Zalo, Instagram, Twitter,...)	Information source 6	
2.1.7. I am not the one to make decision (don't actually involve/ follow other's decision)	Information source 7	
2.1.8. It takes me months to plan before decide to travel	Planning 1	
2.1.9. I need time to plan before actual trip but it doesn't consume too much	Planning 2	
2.1.10. The decision to travel just happened in the spur of moment	Planning 3	1 – Not true; 2 – Relatively true; 3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
2.2.1. I always look for many sources and other's reviews before making decision of the destination I choose	Evaluation 1	
2.2.2. I always ask for other family members' opinions before coming to the final decision	Evaluation 2	
2.2.3. The assessing between options has been determined without my opinion (company trips)	Evaluation 3	
2.2.4. I choose the most convenience destinations (closest in distance, equipped with advanced facilities, near shopping centres and department stores...)	Priority 1	
2.2.5. I opt for destinations with natural harmony	Priority 2	

2.2.6. I prefer destinations that are rich with historical and/or cultural value	Priority 3	
2.2.7. I choose the destination that I am familiar with	Priority 4	
2.2.8. I prefer the destination that I have never gone before	Priority 5	
2.2.9. The decision I made is completely based on rational reasoning of fact and information that I have collected	Emotion 1	
2.2.10. There is always emotion that influence to my final decision (e.g. the attachment with the intended visit destinations, the situational emotion that are unrelated to the trips...)	Emotion 2	
2.3.1. I am always go to the same destinations	Destination choice 1	1 – Not true; 2 – Relatively true; 3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
2.3.2. I prefer new destinations for each trip	Destination choice 2	
2.3.3. It doesn't matter to me as long as it is not within the vicinity of my resident area	Destination choice 3	
2.3.4. I prefer to travel within the prefecture of my local resident (nearby suburbs)	Destination choice 4	
2.4.1. Backpacking	Travel type 1	1 – Not true; 2 – Relatively true; 3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
2.4.2. Regular visiting trip to relatives in other cities, provinces	Travel type 2	
2.4.3. Close group travelling with careful preparation (with best friends, family members, colleagues) at places with fundamental facilities equipped	Travel type 3	
2.4.4. Religion purpose	Travel type 4	
2.4.5. They are mostly business trips	Travel type 5	
2.4.6. Exceptional high services with distinction services (5-stars hotels, resorts, specialized recreation destinations)	Travel type 6	

2.5. What is your experience with the impact of unexpected circumstances when making decision to travel?	Unexpected incidents	1 – They hardly make me change my decision; 2 – Sometimes I have to revise my plan, but they not affecting much; 3 – Most of the time, I have to change my decision (either postponed or cancelled)
2.6. Do you consider past experience when you have travelled to a destination an important reference for future journeys?	Past experience	1 – Never applicable to me; 2 – Sometimes; 3 – Only suitable with the destination I have visited before; 4 – Absolutely necessary
2.7.1. If I satisfy with the experience, I will talk about it to everyone that I know	Satisfaction 1	1 – Not true; 2 – Relatively true; 3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
2.7.2. I will not give out my opinion unless people directly seek my advice (regardless of whether I satisfy or not with the trip(s))	Satisfaction 2	
2.7.3. I would advise everyone to refrain from travel to that place if the experience failed my expectation	Satisfaction 3	

Appendix 2. Formula used to calculate sample size

$$\text{Sample size} = \frac{\frac{z^2 \times p(1-p)}{e^2}}{1 + \frac{z^2 \times p(1-p)}{e^2 \times N}}$$

With N is population size

e is margin of error (by percentage)

Z is the critical value (constant) for normal distribution at $\alpha/2$ (at 95% significant level and α is 0.05, the Z value is 1.96)

As the population increases, the denominator value is reduced close to 1, thus the sample size value is then close to the numerator value, and the calculation then will only depend on the value of the chosen confidence level and margin of error. For small population (less than 10000), the difference is still significant to the sample size. When

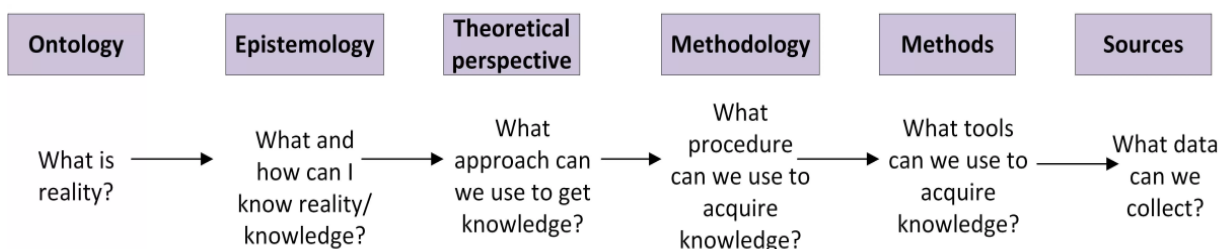
population size surpasses 100.000, the sample size is more consistent, and there is no difference between presentations from other online survey calculators

Appendix 3. Vietnam demographic profile recorded in 2017

Age structure (2017 est.)	0-14 years: 23.55% (male 11,909,326/female 10,735,324) 15-24 years: 16.23% (male 8,098,019/female 7,509,021) 25-54 years: 45.56% (male 22,087,095/female 21,719,615) 55-64 years: 8.55% (male 3,798,928/female 4,419,837) 65 years and over: 6.12% (male 2,281,923/female 3,601,075)
Population growth rate	0.9% (2017 est.)
Birth rate	15.5 births/1,000 population (2017 est.)
Urbanization (2015-20 est.)	Urban population: 34.9% of total population (2017) Rate of urbanization: 2.59% annual
Sex ratio (2016 est.)	At birth: 1.11 male(s)/female 0-14 years: 1.11 male(s)/female 15-24 years: 1.08 male(s)/female 25-54 years: 1.01 male(s)/female 55-64 years: 0.85 male(s)/female 65 years and over: 0.63 male(s)/female total population: 1 male(s)/female
Life expectancy at birth (2016 est.)	Total population: 73.4 years old Male: 70.9 years old Female: 76.2 years old

Source: CIA, 2017

Appendix 4. A simplified research methodology framework



Source: Patel, 2015

Appendix 5. Illustration of the three components: research paradigm, research methodology and research design

Research methodology	Attribute	Paradigm			
		Empirical	Normative		
	Component	Positivism (Verification) /Postpositivism (Falsification) Anti-positivism	Interpretivism: Social constructivism, Criticalism	Pragmatism	Critical theory Participatory (Other components of critical theory, neo-Marxism, feminism and materialism are not included here)
	Ontology	Realism/critical realism Objectivity	Relativism Subjective Historical Constructed reality (Pragmatism has some objectivity)		Relativism. Subjective-Objective Constructed and historical reality
	Epistemology	Detached	Transactional Participatory	Mix detached and participatory in predetermined sequence	Transactional. Experiential (PAR-Researcher must share common values with participants)
	Approach	Empirical	Normative Advocacy Activism (pragmatism mixes empirical and normative in predetermined sequence)		
	Research Method	Quantitative (With statistical representativeness , a necessary condition for generalisation: Scientific method)	Qualitative (Statistical representativeness not always a requirement)	Qualitative and Quantitative (Statistical representativeness not always a requirement)	Qualitative. Cooperative inquiry Collaborative/Democratic dialogue
	Research design/s	Experimental Descriptive Case control Case study Causal Cohort Cross-section Exploratory Longitudinal Observational Sequential Grounded theory	Descriptive Narrative Case study (Single/Multiple) Phenomenology Exploratory Historical (life/topical oral) Observational (participant/non-participant) Philosophical Dialectic Ethnography Phenomenology Grounded theory (Pragmatism can have components of quantitative research designs)		Action Research. Epistemic/Political participation determines design
	Research guide	Research questions and hypotheses Occam's razor	Sometimes research questions and hypotheses but mostly research questions only.		Research questions with intended action

		Describe, control and predict. Anti-Speculative Ideals: Caution, clarity and precision		
	Principle	Uncover the universal laws (which exist) governing social events	Describe, explain, and understand meanings, values and beliefs of social phenomena from (sometimes with) participants (experiential, contextual, historical, local, specific) and researcher's perspectives	Co-creation of knowledge Subjects are participants and sometimes co-researchers
	Researcher's posture	Objective detachment or value freedom. Bias limitation Measurement and testing Reductionist Deterministic	Subjective. Can be interactive. Relativism/multi-perspectives. Researcher can be immersed. Integration of knowledge and values. Insight and intuition. (Objective detachment not necessary but still a possibility) Research subjects can become researchers/co-researchers Blurry distinction between researcher and researched.	Blurry distinction between researcher and researched. Participants are co-researchers
	End result	Generalise from sample to population. Explanation. Prediction (Cause-Effect). Control.	In-depth description and understanding of problem. Generalisation is not always possible therefore not always sought. Sometimes can generalise or transfer conclusion to different contexts, especially from one setting to another. More than one conclusion can be reached. Empowerment of stakeholders. Social reconstruction	Critique and transformation of social structures Empowerment of stakeholders. Social reconstruction. Solve practical problems in a community. Shifting balance of power in favour of poor and marginalised groups. Restitution. Emancipation

Source: Makombe (2017) developed based on Giedymin (1975); Piele (1988), Mukherjee (1993); Ferguson (1993), Guba and Lincoln (1994); Heron and Reason (1996); Lincoln (2001); Creswell (2009); Tuli (2010); Betram and Christiansen (2014); Äge, 2010; Reason and Bradbury (2001)

Appendix 6. EM Estimated Statistics

EM Means^a

Gender	Age	Geographic	Education	Employment Status	Profession	Individual Income	Family Income	Marital Status	Number of Children	Travel Frequency	Main Decision Maker
1.537	2.041	3.755	2.432	1.690	10.762	2.434	3.321	1.491	0.731	2.603	2.498
Information 1	Information 2	Information 3	Information 4	Information 5	Information 6	Information 7	Planning 1	Planning 2	Planning 3	Evaluation 1	Evaluation 2
3.115	3.178	3.329	3.361	3.514	2.627	2.152	2.556	2.988	2.799	3.726	3.249
Evaluation 3	Priority 1	Priority 2	Priority 3	Priority 4	Priority 5	Emotion 1	Emotion 2	Destination 1	Destination 2	Destination 3	Destination 4
2.449	3.260	3.567	3.227	2.530	3.739	3.690	2.687	2.087	3.896	2.348	2.282
Travel Type 1	Travel Type 2	Travel Type 3	Travel Type 4	Travel Type 5	Travel Type 6	Unexpected	Past Experience	Satisfaction 1	Satisfaction 2	Satisfaction 3	
2.570	2.703	3.802	2.111	2.570	2.219	1.904	2.971	3.880	2.983	3.007	

a. Little's MCAR test Chi-Square = 1223.026, DF = 1142, Sig = 0.047

Source: Author

Appendix 7. Distribution of Employment status categorized by Profession

PROFESSION	EMPLOYMENT					Total
	Full time	Part time	Not yet working	Retired	Unemployed	
Advertising/ Public relation	7	2	0	0	0	9
Marketing/ Marketing research	13	5	0	0	0	18
Media	15	0	0	0	0	15
Journalism	6	2	0	0	0	8
Hospitals/ Medical service	11	1	0	0	0	12
Education/ Academic research	73	4	0	0	0	77
Electronics/Computer/Software programming	14	0	3	0	0	17
Finance services/ Insurance/ Banking/ Real estates	40	0	0	0	0	40
Retail	15	9	2	3	0	29
Political/ government office	12	0	0	1	0	13
Transportation	9	1	0	0	0	10
Construction/ Structural Design	9	1	1	1	0	12
Specialized food shop/ Restaurant	10	7	0	1	0	18
State security agent (police, fire fighter...)	6	0	0	0	0	6
Student	2	15	87	0	5	109
Tourism/ Lodging services	2	10	3	1	0	16
None of the above	29	5	5	1	1	41
Total	273	62	101	8	6	450

Source: Author

Appendix 8. Multicollinearity test result with Gender

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
GEOGRAPHIC	.797	1.255
EDUCATION	.483	2.070
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.436	2.293
PROFESSION FIELD	.577	1.734
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.749	1.334
DECISION MAKER	.688	1.454
INCOME EARNER	.515	1.942
FAMILY STATUS	.276	3.628

SOCIAL CLASS	.675	1.481
AGE	.279	3.580

Source: Author

Appendix 9. Multicollinearity test result with Age

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
GENDER	.813	1.230
GEOGRAPHIC	.812	1.231
EDUCATION	.504	1.985
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.466	2.144
PROFESSION FIELD	.580	1.723
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.756	1.323
DECISION MAKER	.694	1.441
INCOME EARNER	.516	1.937
FAMILY STATUS	.517	1.935
SOCIAL CLASS	.686	1.457

Source: Author

Appendix 10. Multicollinearity test result with Geographic

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
EDUCATION	.483	2.070
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.441	2.266
PROFESSION FIELD	.577	1.734
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.764	1.309
DECISION MAKER	.689	1.452
INCOME EARNER	.513	1.951
FAMILY STATUS	.292	3.430
SOCIAL CLASS	.685	1.461
AGE	.281	3.558
GENDER	.802	1.246

Source: Author

Appendix 11. Multicollinearity test result with Employment Status

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
PROFESSION FIELD	.604	1.655
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.753	1.329
DECISION MAKER	.710	1.408
INCOME EARNER	.593	1.687
FAMILY STATUS	.227	4.406
SOCIAL CLASS	.687	1.456
AGE	.238	4.196
GENDER	.781	1.280
GEOGRAPHIC	.781	1.281
EDUCATION	.496	2.018

Source: Author

Appendix 12. Multicollinearity test result with Education Level

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.448	2.233
PROFESSION FIELD	.597	1.674
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.749	1.336
DECISION MAKER	.705	1.418
INCOME EARNER	.518	1.931
FAMILY STATUS	.275	3.630
SOCIAL CLASS	.682	1.466
AGE	.279	3.584
GENDER	.779	1.284
GEOGRAPHIC	.774	1.293

Source: Author

Appendix 13. Multicollinearity test result with Social Class

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
GENDER	.779	1.284
GEOGRAPHIC	.784	1.275
EDUCATION	.488	2.048
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.440	2.274
PROFESSION FIELD	.585	1.710
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.750	1.334

DECISION MAKER	.706	1.416
INCOME EARNER	.528	1.892
FAMILY STATUS	.276	3.624
AGE	.272	3.677

Source: Author

Appendix 14. Multicollinearity test result with Profession

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.759	1.318
DECISION MAKER	.697	1.435
INCOME EARNER	.524	1.907
FAMILY STATUS	.281	3.563
SOCIAL CLASS	.685	1.460
AGE	.269	3.713
GENDER	.779	1.284
GEOGRAPHIC	.774	1.293
EDUCATION	.501	1.998
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.457	2.190

Source: Author

Appendix 15. Multicollinearity test result with Travel Frequency

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
DECISION MAKER	.691	1.448
INCOME EARNER	.513	1.951
FAMILY STATUS	.275	3.634
SOCIAL CLASS	.676	1.479
AGE	.270	3.702
GENDER	.780	1.282
GEOGRAPHIC	.790	1.267
EDUCATION	.483	2.069
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.438	2.286
PROFESSION FIELD	.584	1.711

Source: Author

Appendix 16. Multicollinearity test result with Role as Decision Maker

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
INCOME EARNER	.514	1.946
FAMILY STATUS	.275	3.634
SOCIAL CLASS	.693	1.443
AGE	.270	3.704
GENDER	.779	1.284
GEOGRAPHIC	.774	1.292
EDUCATION	.495	2.019
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.450	2.225
PROFESSION FIELD	.584	1.712
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.752	1.330

Source: Author

Appendix 17. Multicollinearity test result with Role as Income Earner

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
FAMILY STATUS	.277	3.611
SOCIAL CLASS	.696	1.436
AGE	.270	3.709
GENDER	.783	1.278
GEOGRAPHIC	.774	1.293
EDUCATION	.488	2.048
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.502	1.993
PROFESSION FIELD	.590	1.695
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.749	1.335
DECISION MAKER	.690	1.450

Source: Author

Appendix 18. Multicollinearity test result with Family Status

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
SOCIAL CLASS	.677	1.477
AGE	.503	1.989
GENDER	.780	1.281
GEOGRAPHIC	.820	1.220
EDUCATION	.484	2.067
EMPLOYMENT STATUS	.457	2.186

PROFESSION FIELD	.588	1.700
TRAVEL FREQUENCY	.749	1.336
DECISION MAKER	.688	1.453
INCOME EARNER	.516	1.939

Source: Author

Appendix 19. Item-Total Statistics of dependent variables

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
INFO SOURCE1	82.816	155.593	.470	.807
INFO SOURCE2	82.755	165.779	.197	.818
INFO SOURCE3	82.590	164.347	.247	.817
INFO SOURCE4	82.571	159.867	.388	.811
INFO SOURCE5	82.415	157.728	.468	.808
INFO SOURCE6	83.325	157.516	.445	.809
PLANNING1	83.375	161.483	.305	.815
PLANNING2	82.953	161.898	.340	.813
EVALUATING1	82.191	161.484	.387	.812
EVALUATING2	82.670	155.721	.489	.807
EVALUATING3	83.486	165.262	.215	.818
PRIORITY1	82.677	160.782	.338	.813
PRIORITY2	82.382	158.312	.476	.808
PRIORITY3	82.705	155.584	.507	.806
PRIORITY4	83.401	165.815	.203	.818
PRIORITY5	82.208	162.524	.330	.814
EMOTION1	82.243	163.461	.310	.814
EMOTION2	83.236	163.826	.278	.815
DESTINATION CHOICE2	82.026	166.186	.208	.818
DESTINATION CHOICE3	83.606	163.412	.264	.816
DESTINATION CHOICE4	83.660	162.069	.333	.813
TRAVEL TYPE1	83.368	162.295	.249	.817
TRAVEL TYPE2	83.241	157.829	.451	.809
TRAVEL TYPE3	82.111	161.919	.345	.813
TRAVEL TYPE4	83.811	165.009	.229	.817
TRAVEL TYPE6	83.715	164.649	.224	.818
SATISFACTION1	82.052	160.409	.368	.812
SATISFACTION3	82.948	159.709	.330	.814

Source: Author

Appendix 20. Communalities table of the first model (35 variables)

	Initial	Extraction
INFO SOURCE1	.536	.549
INFO SOURCE2	.253	.250
INFO SOURCE3	.356	.459
INFO SOURCE4	.473	.688
INFO SOURCE5	.350	.391
INFO SOURCE6	.423	.601
INFO SOURCE7	.340	.469
PLANNING1	.299	.434
PLANNING2	.260	.291
PLANNING3	.283	.376
EVALUATING1	.407	.457
EVALUATING2	.588	.785
EVALUATING3	.389	.623
PRIORITY1	.336	.332
PRIORITY2	.440	.596
PRIORITY3	.478	.536
PRIORITY4	.434	.607
PRIORITY5	.457	.529
EMOTION1	.307	.404
EMOTION2	.294	.356
DESTINATION CHOICE1	.388	.467
DESTINATION CHOICE2	.433	.545
DESTINATION CHOICE3	.290	.272
DESTINATION CHOICE4	.412	.445
TRAVEL TYPE1	.305	.479
TRAVEL TYPE2	.374	.449
TRAVEL TYPE3	.335	.383
TRAVEL TYPE4	.317	.411
TRAVEL TYPE5	.236	.279
TRAVEL TYPE6	.182	.183
UNEXPECTED INCIDENTS	.180	.199
PAST EXPERIENCE	.110	.129
SATISFACTION1	.369	.474
SATISFACTION2	.234	.467
SATISFACTION3	.259	.320

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Source: Author

Appendix 21. Communalities table of the second model (30 variables)

	Initial	Extraction
INFO SOURCE1	.529	.570
INFO SOURCE2	.217	.378
INFO SOURCE3	.352	.398
INFO SOURCE4	.468	.644
INFO SOURCE5	.347	.372
INFO SOURCE6	.410	.543
PLANNING1	.234	.204
PLANNING2	.246	.272
EVALUATING1	.401	.570
EVALUATING2	.574	.687
EVALUATING3	.237	.298
PRIORITY1	.318	.491
PRIORITY2	.428	.597
PRIORITY3	.453	.530
PRIORITY4	.369	.497
PRIORITY5	.422	.496
EMOTION1	.295	.372
EMOTION2	.275	.344
DESTINATION CHOICE2	.419	.564
DESTINATION CHOICE3	.243	.233
DESTINATION CHOICE4	.380	.452
TRAVEL TYPE1	.288	.370
TRAVEL TYPE2	.372	.426
TRAVEL TYPE3	.315	.278
TRAVEL TYPE4	.297	.622
TRAVEL TYPE5	.216	.287
TRAVEL TYPE6	.155	.144
UNEXPECTED INCIDENTS	.169	.262
SATISFACTION1	.343	.394
SATISFACTION3	.252	.270

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Source: Author

Appendix 22. Result of Velicer's Map for the original model with 35 variables

Velicer's MAP test used syntax for SPSS program developed in O'Connor, B.P. (2000). SPSS program for determining the number of components using parallel analysis and Velicer's MAP test. Behaviour Research Methods, Instrumentation, and Computers, Vol. 32, pp. 396-402

Velicer's Minimum Average Partial (MAP) Test:

Eigenvalues	Average Partial Correlations		
		Squared	power4
5.1250	0.0000	.0260	.0024
3.3176	1.0000	.0159	.0011
2.1057	2.0000	.0121	.0006
1.9354	3.0000	.0116	.0005
1.6979	4.0000	.0115	.0004
1.5402	5.0000	.0121	.0004
1.3879	6.0000	.0120	.0004
1.2226	7.0000	.0124	.0005
1.1330	8.0000	.0136	.0006
1.0302	9.0000	.0147	.0008
.9804	10.0000	.0162	.0009
.9307	11.0000	.0182	.0012
.9049	12.0000	.0200	.0014
.8427	13.0000	.0220	.0017
.8057	14.0000	.0249	.0022
.7424	15.0000	.0281	.0031
.7370	16.0000	.0315	.0036
.7214	17.0000	.0348	.0044
.6920	18.0000	.0384	.0049
.6701	19.0000	.0425	.0062
.6101	20.0000	.0476	.0085
.5706	21.0000	.0521	.0101
.5603	22.0000	.0576	.0126
.5154	23.0000	.0637	.0157
.4944	24.0000	.0728	.0195
.4654	25.0000	.0841	.0239
.4353	26.0000	.0966	.0287
.4288	27.0000	.1105	.0359
.4079	28.0000	.1298	.0460
.3901	29.0000	.1589	.0601
.3807	30.0000	.1973	.0855
.3467	31.0000	.2524	.1283
.3437	32.0000	.3506	.2176
.2824	33.0000	.5411	.4165
.2452	34.0000	1.0000	1.0000

The smallest average squared partial correlation is .0115

The smallest average 4rth power partial correlation is .0004

The Number of Components According to the Original (1976) MAP Test* is 4
The Number of Components According to the Revised (2000) MAP Test** is 4

Appendix 23. Result of Velicer's Map for the 2nd model with 30 variables

Velicer's Minimum Average Partial (MAP) Test:

Eigenvalues		Average Partial Correlations	
		Squared	power4
5.0667	0.0000	.0302	.0029
2.7963	1.0000	.0161	.0010
1.9421	2.0000	.0132	.0006
1.8226	3.0000	.0130	.0006
1.5073	4.0000	.0129	.0004
1.3117	5.0000	.0128	.0005
1.2609	6.0000	.0145	.0006
1.0404	7.0000	.0154	.0007
1.0293	8.0000	.0175	.0010
.9779	9.0000	.0200	.0012
.8755	10.0000	.0224	.0016
.8735	11.0000	.0253	.0021
.8194	12.0000	.0287	.0029
.7720	13.0000	.0323	.0038
.7156	14.0000	.0356	.0046
.7063	15.0000	.0414	.0067
.6711	16.0000	.0465	.0078
.6133	17.0000	.0521	.0089
.5889	18.0000	.0591	.0127
.5335	19.0000	.0688	.0156
.5269	20.0000	.0781	.0203
.5084	21.0000	.0921	.0270
.4712	22.0000	.1082	.0352
.4313	23.0000	.1290	.0449
.4206	24.0000	.1568	.0621
.3940	25.0000	.1998	.0904
.3862	26.0000	.2599	.1397
.3600	27.0000	.3472	.2197
.3203	28.0000	.6022	.4849
.2568	29.0000	1.0000	1.0000

The smallest average squared partial correlation is .0128

The smallest average 4th power partial correlation is .0004

The Number of Components According to the Original (1976) MAP Test* is 5

The Number of Components According to the Revised (2000) MAP Test** is 4

* The original MAP test was developed in Velicer, W.F. (1976). Determining the number of components from the matrix of partial correlations. *Psychometrika*, Vol. 41, pp. 321-327.

* The revised (2000) MAP test (with the partial correlations raised to the 4th power rather than squared) was developed in Velicer, W.F. *et al.* (2000). Construct explication through factor or component analysis: A review and evaluation of alternative procedures for determining the number of factors or components, pp. 41-71 in Goffin, R.D. and Helmes, E. (eds.) *Problems and solutions in human assessment*. Boston: Kluwer.

Appendix 24. Parallel analysis for 35 variables, sample size 450

Parallel analysis calculation based on Patil Vivek, H. *et al.* (2017). Parallel Analysis Engine to Aid in Determining Number of Factors to Retain using R [Computer software].

Available from <https://analytics.gonzaga.edu/parallelenzyme/> [Accessed: April 2020]

Component or Factor	Mean Eigenvalue	Percentile Eigenvalue
1	0.651193	0.726353
2	0.578471	0.628833
3	0.523753	0.572128
4	0.478627	0.528008
5	0.439071	0.476225
6	0.396936	0.435791
7	0.359070	0.394232
8	0.326048	0.355889
9	0.292411	0.322084
10	0.261630	0.286047
11	0.233142	0.262311
12	0.206706	0.235272
13	0.176432	0.204869
14	0.148919	0.178906
15	0.124495	0.159064
16	0.099871	0.125064
17	0.073610	0.099122
18	0.050108	0.072478
19	0.024022	0.045036

20	0.001134	0.018155
21	-0.021713	-0.004355
22	-0.044495	-0.021056
23	-0.067607	-0.047989
24	-0.091509	-0.075469
25	-0.113575	-0.092903
26	-0.135741	-0.115052
27	-0.159879	-0.137103
28	-0.182357	-0.163712
29	-0.205993	-0.181326
30	-0.228578	-0.210081
31	-0.252291	-0.231663
32	-0.275746	-0.256724
33	-0.302855	-0.281364
34	-0.331986	-0.305213
35	-0.365466	-0.336160

Appendix 25. Parallel analysis for 30 variables, sample size 450

Component or Factor	Mean Eigenvalue	Percentile Eigenvalue
1	0.591075	0.654707
2	0.512002	0.559268
3	0.464120	0.513578
4	0.410727	0.448437
5	0.370032	0.417349
6	0.331097	0.367361
7	0.294237	0.330703
8	0.258280	0.285738
9	0.226939	0.255654
10	0.197096	0.226291
11	0.166081	0.194629
12	0.138497	0.167564
13	0.107096	0.132912
14	0.081417	0.106069
15	0.053902	0.080195
16	0.026028	0.049384
17	-0.000089	0.020146
18	-0.022774	0.000369
19	-0.049341	-0.022753

20	-0.072869	-0.049870
21	-0.095748	-0.074416
22	-0.123205	-0.100803
23	-0.148197	-0.122747
24	-0.171829	-0.154920
25	-0.197942	-0.180944
26	-0.223045	-0.204699
27	-0.247651	-0.228971
28	-0.275140	-0.249458
29	-0.306157	-0.278818
30	-0.342831	-0.314974

Appendix 26. Retake on the factors extracted and reliability for the first model using direct oblimin method with variable ‘Destination choice 2’ taken out

	Direct oblimin	
Factor 1	Variables	Loading
	Evaluating 2	0.877
	Information 1	0.740
	Travel type 3	0.451
	Alpha = 0.736	
Factor 2	Variables	Loading
	Priority 4	0.788
	Destination choice 1	0.624
	Destination choice 4	0.420
	Alpha = 0.629	
Factor 3	Variables	Loading
	Evaluation 3	0.713
	Information 7	0.698
	Travel Type 4	0.427
	Alpha = 0.638	
Factor 4	Variables	Loading
	Priority 2	-0.628
	Priority 3	-0.599
	Priority 5	-0.559
	Emotion 1	-0.436
	Alpha = 0.683	
Total variance explained	25.926%	

Appendix 27. Result of the factor loading for the chosen model of 30 variables

Total Variance Explained^a

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.051	16.838	16.838	4.521	15.069	15.069	2.835
2	2.811	9.369	26.207	2.267	7.556	22.625	2.180
3	1.894	6.312	32.519	1.348	4.492	27.117	2.563
4	1.789	5.963	38.482	1.235	4.118	31.235	1.328
5	1.506	5.021	43.502	.994	3.313	34.548	2.768
6	1.315	4.384	47.886	.733	2.443	36.991	1.413
7	1.242	4.140	52.027	.661	2.202	39.193	1.659
8	1.046	3.485	55.512	.422	1.408	40.600	.819
9	1.005	3.349	58.861	.383	1.277	41.877	1.467
10	.963	3.210	62.070				
11	.921	3.070	65.140				
12	.876	2.918	68.059				
13	.832	2.774	70.832				
14	.781	2.603	73.436				
15	.719	2.398	75.834				
16	.698	2.328	78.162				
17	.691	2.302	80.464				
18	.602	2.007	82.471				
19	.581	1.937	84.409				
20	.541	1.803	86.212				
21	.522	1.738	87.950				
22	.516	1.719	89.669				
23	.488	1.627	91.297				
24	.431	1.437	92.734				
25	.426	1.418	94.152				
26	.413	1.376	95.529				
27	.376	1.255	96.783				
28	.353	1.177	97.960				
29	.348	1.158	99.119				
30	.264	.881	100.000				

Source: Author

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
EVALUATING2	.802							
INFO SOURCE1	.775							
TRAVEL TYPE3	.455							
TRAVEL TYPE6								
PRIORITY4		.498						
PRIORITY1		.488						
DESTINATION CHOICE4								
EMOTION2								
DESTINATION CHOICE3								
INFO SOURCE4			.778					
INFO SOURCE3			.634					
EVALUATING1			.414					
INFO SOURCE5								
TRAVEL TYPE1				.532				
INFO SOURCE6				.517				
TRAVEL TYPE2				.417				
PRIORITY5					.695			
DESTINATION CHOICE2					.628			
PRIORITY2					.598			
PRIORITY3					.546			
EMOTION1								
INFO SOURCE2						.820		
TRAVEL TYPE4							.715	
EVALUATING3							.491	
SATISFACTION3								
SATISFACTION1								
PLANNING2								
PLANNING1								

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 25 iterations.

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1.000	.387	.043	.390	.216	.077	.479	-.140	.417
2	.387	1.000	.353	.299	.040	.267	.307	.114	.122
3	.043	.353	1.000	.301	-.111	.298	.036	.008	-.143
4	.390	.299	.301	1.000	.245	.128	.349	-.063	.270
5	.216	.040	-.111	.245	1.000	.001	-.038	.093	.261

6	.077	.267	.298	.128	.001	1.000	.028	.139	.088
7	.479	.307	.036	.349	-.038	.028	1.000	-.213	.353
8	-.140	.114	.008	-.063	.093	.139	-.213	1.000	.036
9	.417	.122	-.143	.270	.261	.088	.353	.036	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.