



DOCTORAL THESIS

**IMPACT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON
VIETNAMESES' DECISION-MAKING PROCESS FOR
DOMESTIC TOURISM ACTIVITY**

by

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, the researcher attempted to determine the list of dependent and independent variables associated to explore the influence of demographics on consumer behaviour, in the context of Vietnamese domestic tourists. The author expected that, through the findings of this research, it would be possible to expand on the systematic database set up adopted in this research for future topics that target relevant subjects. This paper was also made with further distinction to precedent works by other Vietnamese authors in terms of contents and structuring. The majority of students' theses were designed to associate with the specific enterprise as an isolated case study, while the other type of scientific researches (e.g., scholars' articles, journals, internal documents...) are established from a macro-perspective for the whole industry.

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. After the rigorous process of reviewing precedent literature and establishing conceptualizing academic units identified to the three main theoretical domains, the author was able to draw out a conceptual framework presented at the end of Chapter 2. One of the main concerns that place as research question – the demographic variables – was determined to include nine components: Gender, Age, Geography, Education Level, Employment status, Occupation, Income, Family status, Social class

After evaluating the different methodologies, the researcher concluded that conducting an empirical study would be the most suitable approach to address the research question. Result of the Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) has condensed the initial 35 items for decision-making process down to 30 items, divided into four-factor groups. These four groups, however, provided a different perspective to the content of decision-making process from the well-known 5-stage model. However, only three factors “Preference of destination”, “Involvement of family” and “Source of information” were revealed to be statistically significant. Excluding the three elements “Occupation”, “Employment” and “Social class”, other demographic factors were found to be correlated toward the decision-making process of Vietnamese tourists when they decide on domestic travelling. Specifically, the latter group of demographic variables were found to have affected directly or indirectly (through post hoc variables) the three identified decision-making factors, but none was found to be presented in all three dependent factors.

Based on the analysed result, the author proposed suitable suggestions with respect to the findings and methodological aspects. The problem with consumers' behavioural models

is that they couldn't account for the unpredictable nature of consumers. Therefore, the author 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 merchandise and well-defined aspects of consumption activities would be an appropriate study. Regarding methodological application, future studies may modify the questionnaire based on this study template 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

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

According to MacInnis and Folkes (2010), there has been exponential growth of academic research concerning the demographic impact on economic phenomena over the past 60 years. Throughout papers of consumer behaviour written over the year, it was either “influences” or “impact factors” that were made into research headlines rather than “demographic” factors. Nevertheless, for the majority of the cases being addressed, these “influences” and “impact factors” were ultimately derived from demographic attributes while the remaining few were external elements detached from human effects (i.e., nature). Simultaneously, the holistic perspective would tell a story of a constantly changing population structure by examined scale (regional, national or global scale) from minor to significant level at any given time in a natural manner or due to disruptions or both, while any shifting in individual consumer behaviour mostly came from a subjective adjustment in perception and attitude. Regardless, these transitions would reduce values of current papers, especially empirical findings, thus prompting the need to complement the void in the knowledge of consumer behaviour and discover the impact on niche market segments.

Besides the overwhelming volume of quantitative research in the field of consumer behaviour using statistical techniques (Peighambari et al, 2016), parallel development could be observed in the systematic application of qualitative approaches since the 1980s (Coast et al., 2009). However, the adaptation of the mixed method was very limited by how underwhelming the demographics-focused studies have been in this respect (Bryman et al., 2004; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). In addition, findings of these studies were also considered to be fragmented (Mondain et al., 2004; Mondain et al, 2007; Coast et al., 2009). The conflict between quantitative results has been recognized since Snyder’s paper (1991): on one side no significant impact was found (Exter, 1986) while on the other side positive correlations were proven through pairing specific factors of demographics to certain aspects of consumption, e.g., age toward loyalty (Hsu, 2000; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997).

Studies in tourism topics were also criticized by Walton (2005) and revisited later in Butler’s work (2015) on the dominant “present-mindedness” and “superficiality” attributes, which were due to the negligence of the industry’s history prior to the World War Two milestone (an example of this misconception can be found in the works of Leigh in 2013). Such perception has led to a popular confusion that project tourism remains an emerging and trending industry ever since. On the other hand, the viewpoint of authors who engaged

in research regarding domestic tourism have been inspired by the western framework which is incompatible with developing countries (Rogerson and Mthombeni 2015). In addition, this has also contributed to the biased perspective that is already presented in international travel over domestic tourism.

Many findings relating to the external environment and elements of tourism were relatively obsolete (e.g., the authentic literature basis dated from Engle, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Middleton, 1988), while there is a lack of contemporary validated discovery. Since the knowledge of consumer behaviour was built for a universal template, mismatches are expected when applying different cultural and social settings. Furthermore, the author was unable to find adequate studies with a narrow focus on the specific case of Vietnamese domestic tourism. Among the limited local records, the relevant data was already outdated with the latest empirical research of a similar topic and background having been carried out 10 years ago (i.e., the 2011-paper by Bui and Jolliffe). Therefore, a re-assessment is deemed necessary to keep track of the progression in the Asian market, and specifically the Vietnamese segment of that market.

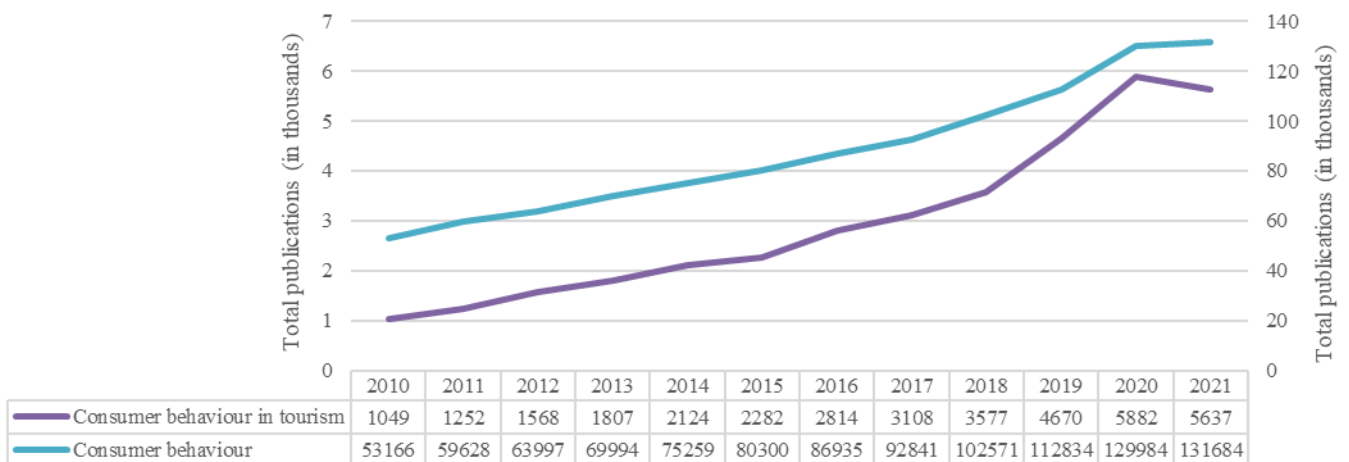
Finally, the importance of the domestic segment has been re-confirmed since the breakout of the pandemic in early 2020. This was illustrated in two specific aspects: due to the shutdown of international travel early in the outbreak and the subsequent later tight restrictions, international tourism has been put on hold while domestic tourism became the main focus. Due to that, interest in this segment has been highlighted among both in academic research and in practical implementation. However, given the complete changes in the new settings, consumer behaviour has been adjusting to adapt to a new lifestyle. This unexpected phenomenon has thus affirmed the author's initial decision to choose this topic.

The Vietnamese tourism industry has enjoyed a steady growth in volume and sales for years. According to recent reports from the Vietnamese government, there has been a significant flow of visitors in the domestic tourism market. The amount rose from 25 million travellers in 2009 as documented by Bui and Jolliffe (2011) to 62 million in 2016, which accounts for 65% of the total population (Nguyen, 2017). In addition, the gaps in spending capabilities between domestic tourists and the international ones has been gradually narrowing since the rising recorded within the former consumer group from 2016 (WTTC, 2016, 2017, 2018). The latest available data from the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism (2019) reveals the number of domestic tourists to be 80 million in 2018, whereas the international comparator was nearly 15.5 million.

1.2. Statement of the problem

In an analysis of scholarly research for the period 1998 - 2010 undertaken by Peighambari et al. (2016), there was a noticeable rise in the amount of new consumer behaviour articles (among a list of five chosen journals in this paper). 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 saturation point in the foreseeable future. The author had commenced a trial search using key words "consumer behaviour" and subsequently combined them with "tourist" in Dimension – an online database. Both "consumer behaviour" and "consumer behaviour" in "tourism" were revealed to have been increasing since 2010 (Figure 1.1), which confirmed the earlier statement. 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.

Figure 1.1. Records of articles in "consumer behaviour" and "consumer behaviour in tourism" for period 2010 - 2021



Source: Author extracted from Dimension

The solid basis to enable belief 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 turn 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 these reasons thus established the research topic as presented within this study.

1.3. Aim and objectives of the research

This research aims to identify the specific demographic variables of not just a general consumer but specifically domestic tourists and evaluate how these variables might impact towards the tourists when they are making the decision to travel. This is examined under the context of the Vietnamese domestic segment. With in-depth clarification, a filtering of consumer profile along these demographic attributes would be drawn out to form a research model and subject it to empirical testing. The exploration of the tendency and extent of impact would provide necessary grounding to determine with appropriate solutions for stakeholders, to improve the Vietnamese domestic arrivals in both literature and practical implementations.

Henceforth, corresponding objectives were determined to achieve the mentioned aim:

- To identify potential demographic variables of the consumer, customizing to the case of the domestic tourist
- To understand the consumer decision-making process specifically in terms of domestic tourist
- To examine the degree of impact that demographic factors that influence Vietnamese domestic tourists' decision-making processes.

1.4. Research questions

In order to accomplish the aim and objective presented above, the author has addressed the following questions:

- What are the demographic variables of a consumer?
- What components does the consumer's decision-making process include?
- How does each of the demographic variables of a consumer impact their decision-making process?
- How were these issues addressed in the case of the Vietnamese domestic segment?

1.5. Significance of the research

In this research, the researcher would contribute a new perspective into the “influence of demographic variables on consumer behaviour” in the context of the Vietnamese domestic segment. The distinction between this research approach and previous records was the attempt to cover as many demographic variables as possible from the setting of the conventional theoretical framework towards the consumer buying model. The approach was also built on the overall setting rather than just focusing on a single particular destination. The author expected that, through the findings of this research, it would be possible to expand on the systematic databases adopted in this research for future topics that target relevant subjects.

This paper was also made with further distinction to precedent works by other Vietnamese authors in terms of contents and structuring. The majority of students’ theses were designed to associate with the specific enterprise as an isolated case study, while other types of scientific research (e.g., scholars’ articles, journals, internal documents...) are established from a macro-perspective for the whole industry. In addition, both these types of study shared a linear approach in style (i.e., giving subjective opinions and ignoring the correlation between factors) and exhibited ambiguous methodologies. Furthermore, the majority of previous projects from both undergraduate and postgraduate students are often based on the norm approach in outlining literature basis. To be specific, these documents tended to use simple referencing with quoted opinions and statements while there was less (to zero) critical analysis and logical reasoning. The proposed “suggestions” and “solutions” also follow linear templates that do deliver minimal contribution value in practical terms. More than often, the authors’ perspectives were presented from the view of an economic politician outlining generic guidelines at a macro scale, rather than addressing specific measures. Finally, in addition to a re-evaluation of theoretical gaps, the author also demonstrated a comprehensive empirical model with validation for each methodology choice as a reference for future studies with similar themes.

1.6. Structure of the study

This thesis is organized in five chapters, each with a specific objective that ultimately contributes to address the research questions. So far, Chapter 1 has addressed the overall nature of the research and the necessity to conduct it. From this basis, the researcher organized 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 then concludes 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 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. Demographic variables

Demographic features include categories of variables that define the individualistic identity and help to 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 those 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, the psychological process when studying impetus decisions...). Besides, there are even fewer academic contributions for research of purely demographic elements as the independent variables in the contemporary empirical literature. Moreover, the presence of demographics in empirical research has reached the point of “saturation” wherein these variables have been considered the default condition of hypothesis testing rather than the subject of interest.

The choice to include components to make consumers’ demographic profile varies between authors depending 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, including both the direct components and the remote factors correlated to the context of the tourism sector. In addition, the latest findings were also brought into discussion to identify the present circumstance. These outcomes include the attempt to evaluate age by biological age and cognitive age; the importance and necessity of whether to account for “gender identity”; in-depth discussion of income; the social status and the link between them; and the interaction of demographic variables with psychological effects and related factors.

2.1.1. Age/ stage in life cycle

A 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 aged and senior. The visibility of separate divisions from quantitative age structure tends to pose as being a scientific instrument. However, the logical background to establish those ranges was 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, designing ranges with a wide gap between the lower and upper thresholds might overlook the meaningful interval with significant incidents. Albeit not explicitly stated, any findings utilising the definitive age range also imply possible compatibility to the corresponding stage in people's lives, e.g., 36 – 45 age group can be assimilated as a middle-aged group.

Overall, there is a common basis in studying age based on the radical differentiation between populations, 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 opposing margins. Even the inclusion of further 'in-between' groups as a variation of the middle aged could only alleviate this drawback to a certain extent. 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 further explanations given for defining each category and demonstrating its relationship with other demographic variables and the psychology process (Gregoire, 2003). As people mature, their cognitive ability also advances with newly acquired knowledge and experience. Combining this with chronological age, individual behaviour might as well be adjusted accordingly over time. However, the role and significance of cognition are rarely mentioned in studies. One example of this phenomenon is noted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2009), in which the authors suggest that people tend to hold onto most of their interests when they grow up and refine them through interacting with 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 education level and accumulated experience acquired through interacting with the environment. In terms of the

consumption domain, shoppers' cognition is presented in the regulation of habits and activities in compatibility with the different items of interest. Besides, an individual's priority of value is also adjusted with the manifestation of new demands, which may result in the reduction or elimination of the old ones from the consumption profile. At the beginning of the digital era, more attention was paid to 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 of similar cohorts as the previous system indicated.

Baby Boomers, Generation X, Y, Z

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 this sense, each cohort is comparable to an age range, with the distinction of being anchored to a fixed timeframe and bearing the influence of the era's socio and economic impact.

Baby boomers' cohort enlists those born after the Second World War and 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. Among the debates concerning this group, there was a statement that members' cognitive age was often perceived subjectively to be lower than their actual biological age, i.e., "youthful self-concept" (Szmigin and Carrigan, 2000, 2001; Moschis, 2003). Nevertheless, due to their withdrawal from the contemporary distribution of the consumption market and reduction in the number of group members, this generation of consumers is gradually discussed less in marketing literature. Their immediate successors, Generation X, born between 1966 and 1976 were identified as the big spenders with a strong desire to express personal identity. 'Individualistic' and 'sceptical' are the two core personalities for the people of this group (Evans et al., 2010).

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" and a tendency towards indulging in extreme "hedonism". "Digital natives" (Newman, 2015) or "tech-savvy" (Olenski, 2017) are popular terms used to describe the Millennials but it tends to overlook the fact that they were born in the period where Internet and Information Technology just

started to emerge. Another popular belief is that members of this group appear to be less cynical than their predecessors (Evans et al., 2010).

Recently, the next generation of consumers – being named Z – has attracted the interest of researchers, due to their influence on spending, estimated to be ten times more than what they spend (Childwise, 2006). As the natural-born citizen when “digital and technology” burst to a higher comparative status and already reached an advanced level, the Z consumers inherited many traits of the Millennials (Gen Y consumers) while developing their keen sense of 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 was 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.

However, this categorization has recently been reviewed and criticized for making “catchy headlines” (Marconi, 2001), rather than adding any further explanation to the distinctive behaviours. The logic to distinguish between each generation, though being clearly defined and identified, contains inner flaws: members at the end period of the previous generation tend 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 of developed countries in America and Europe. When applied to other regions, namely other regions of developed and developing countries, the gaps that surface vary in scale owing to the historical conditions and/or the underdevelopment in economic, social and cultural conditions; not to mention that this classification system is a type of “cherry-picking” selection of the most visible characteristics for each cohort, which also disregards the impact of external factors and overlooks the individual self-adjustment over time. Finally, 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.

Biological age and cognitive age influence

The increase in chronological age exposes people to the deterioration in the function of both physical status (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 can thoroughly modify the individual priority of consumption order compared to their earlier stage of life.

Mental capabilities can be placed in close relation with the physical condition but at the same time, they 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 additional 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 lower 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 a 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 "self-concept and social constraint" values (Moschis 1994). The emotional status of old people might be as well gravely different from when they were young and tend to turn sceptical and negative 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 on their past life (reminiscent feeling) and display less adaptability to the new social and cultural trending. Accordingly, it is possible to expect the same transformation in the latter generations who might develop the same traits when they grow to pass a mature state.

On the other hand, the notions of old and young are relative concepts and only meaningful when examined at a specific point in time. The underlying issue is older consumers once used to be young and it is not that they are unfamiliar with technology and

innovation in general, but their affiliations align more toward elements of their era. On the other hand, it is always possible to identify clusters of people who are situated in the period of transition between these two groups. Therefore, it is feasible that new members who recently join ranks of “older consumers” may exhibit much behaviour resembling the contemporary generation rather than their senior counterparts and predecessors. Nevertheless, this is not to undermine the existence of individuals with capabilities in learning and adaptability to catch up with the latest trend. In light of that, the new category of population identified as “cyber seniors” was introduced to reflect this group.

In another development, many scholars have provided evidence for the adaptability of older consumers to high-tech innovations similar to their younger counterparts, with specific focus placed on the differences in the extent of involvement (Wai San and Yazdanifard, 2014). This perspective has led to two suggestions. Firstly, it is a direct challenge to the stereotype notion that certain characteristics are reserved only for young generations while senior groups are labelled “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 (basic utility functions or additional entertainment value), the frequency and the degree of usage (only when it is necessary or occupying all free 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 while attention is grown increasingly toward their additional values. In addition, 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 to be reduced significantly among the new generation of consumers.

The second meaningful change in chronological age involves social and economic phenomena. Despite not being considered a default relationship, disposable financial capabilities were alleged to have a positive connection with age. The general perspective often refers to this occurrence as an accumulation of personal savings from an early life career, e.g., through investment. The point is, at certain periods, many of the late-middle aged consumers and pensioners have already possessed considerable spending ability compared to the other age groups. 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. The phenomenon is best observed from countries with ageing population structures, notably in developed countries

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 new lifestyles for both young and old people. 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 groups 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, which can function as a new reference group and/or provide a platform for new social activities. The latter involvement might instigate an individual’s interest in new commodities to join with the group event

2.1.2. Gender and gender identity

Gender accounts for influences in consumer behaviour with the function of “shaping social and cultural agendas” but has yet to be rightfully recognized so far (Catterall *et al.*, 2005; Casey and Martens, 2007a; Martens, 2009). Similar to age, it is also possible to create a connection between gender and other demographic elements to explain better 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 was also continued in Silva’s 2007-paper.

Differences between male and female consumers can be also extended further from their distinctive information process style. Males, it is suggested, process information selectively, or the “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 “comprehensive processors”, meaning that they are capable of absorbing all the information delivered and break it down into details (Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991; Darley and Smith, 1995). However, this is just a stereotype viewpoint based on the frequency of observation and cannot be justified as a representative characteristic for every member of each gender.

The fact that women are considered responsible for most household buying decisions (Gardner, 2008) has been rendered obsolete since the emergence of the gender equality movement, which has brought about changes in the concept of women in social and economic careers. In parallel, the modern perspective also became more open with regard to equality in sharing responsibilities. Nevertheless, in many developing countries, this change was only initiated in recent years amidst the remnants of the traditional bias ideology (Jayachandran, 2015).

Women, in general, have developed individualistic attitudes presented in their tendency to develop careers rather than being restricted within the role of a simple housewife. In the past, 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 their struggles in maintaining family financial status, 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 overall improvement in education levels and social empowerment campaigns, 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 develop loyalty to brands or stores that best satisfy their requirements. Despite this distinction, it is not always necessary and particularly meaningful to adopt this system, especially with the last two consumer groups discussed.

On the other development, the emergence of the 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 “non-binary”, thus opening up opportunities for new market segments to be exploited (Dodd et al., 2005; Oakenfull and Greenlee, 2005; Martin Evans et al., 2009). Nevertheless, since this group only accounts for a small proportion of any nations’ population and there have yet to be any significant reported distinctions in their desires for most commodities, the need to create a separate market

segment to target this audience group hasn't been a priority for current marketing practices

From an extensive viewpoint, many authors have started to search for more accurate expressions and concepts in the gender domain, thus the term "gender identity" has been developed to denote when 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 fully understand its role (Palan, 2001). This also simplifies the issue of distinguishing between the rise of different genders, down to just two dimensions, without any compromises. However, a new problem has risen that questions the consistency of these two identities within individuals' behaviour. Unlike the male-female distinction which is defined since birth, the personal psychological manifestation may transit in both attitude and behaviour, owing to occasional interchanges 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 traditional birth genders.

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 mechanics of this affair, the instrument known as Bem Sex-Role Inventory (developed by the American Psychologist Sandra L. Bem in 1974) or Personal Attributes Questionnaires (developed by Spence et al., 1975) was initiated to determine the mental image of sexual expression to identify individuals. However, the reliability and credibility of Bem's instruments (in both the original form and the short form) have been questioned on numerous occasions due to the inconsistent results and outcomes that they produce (Hoffman and Borders, 2001).

In a broader sense, even academic papers dedicated solely to the gender topic have yet to yield adequate evidence, and they still invoke criticism over the reliability of approaching "gender identity" instead of the traditional perspective (Robert, 1984, as cited in Palan, 2001). 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 generated sufficient productive results so far. One example of this can be found in a paper by Hayashi et al. (2016), where the authors demonstrated the inappropriateness of using findings from developed countries to apply in the developing context due to the limitation of the relation between gender diversity and innovation. Furthermore, the point is that if the normal perspectives within the intended research population do not strongly emphasize the diversity value in advancing the gender

concept, it would not become a topic of interest to secure the needs for academic research. This is specifically the case of 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.

2.1.3. Education

The importance of reviewing the consumers' education level has been recognized and has 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 what "consumers' education levels" actually cover. The hypotheses Bloom proposed more than 40 years ago, 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 a very limited impact to alleviate consumers' hesitation.

In empirical studies, scholars have frequently used the highest diploma that an individual has achieved as a measurement for their education level. However, there are two issues when using this scale. The first is that academic degree(s) is the certification of past learning processes, and it represents the recognition given to people by the educational institution who have passed an exam or finished a course, as widely understood. Therefore, it holds the value of an overall indication rather than being a scale to measure the extent of people's perception and cognition with logical reasoning. Even when accepting diplomas or other academic certifications that can present an aspect of an individual's education, it could at best only represent a reflection of the individual's past learning process. What it fails to account for is the accumulated knowledge and understanding that people attain afterwards even if they still fall short of reaching the next milestones in their educational ladder. As to the second problem, academic exams have been considered inappropriate instruments for measuring meaningful intelligence other than the analytical type, namely creative thinking, practicality... (Sternberg, 1985, 2003; Simonton, 2000). Not to mention that situational pressure when taking tests also undermine individual talents as unfavourable conditions can incur lower performance than usual or expected.

Since many types of knowledge and understanding contribute toward an education level, it is appropriate to approach education as a collective concept through its component factors, e.g., a proposal by Kulviwat et al. (2004) is the measurement of intellectual and cognitive capabilities in identifying, locating and assimilating information. On the other hand, attempts have been made to connect the education level with occupations, social aspirations and consumption level (Chisnall, 1994). Even though these relationships may be found through practical observations (Prieto and Caemmerer, 2013) and may sound rational in common sense, the theoretical aspect has yet to establish a strong basis due to unsuccessful isolation of the overlap in assumptions between education levels and other factors. An example of this is the idea that improving the education level on a wide scale in society could reshape the product preference toward high-end and exclusive items/experiences (Stanton et al., 1994). This idea, albeit logically sound, is subjective to the existence of two assumptions: [1] an established positive correlation between education 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 hypotheses.

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 acquire (for researchers) and provide (by 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 surpasses the scope of this study. Therefore, the final approach to be adopted in this research would only account for the participant's academic attainment level.

2.1.4. Income

Income, or more precisely disposable income, is the preliminary requirement that decides what products/services people can afford with which 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 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 a combination of wages, salary and interest payments. Although it hasn't been explicitly discussed or subjected to formal testing, there is a hint of a connection between the income level and the magnitude of need and desire, all together 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 opportunities to gain access to higher hedonistic rewards. However, it doesn't mean that the capability to afford would lead consumers to always aim for the highest level of satisfaction for a given need. This point was seen to vary between individual characteristics in terms of cognitive factors (financial literacy, numeric skills) and non-cognitive factors (self-control, deliberative thinking), influencing the evaluation between alternative options for overall financial wellbeing (Strömbäck et al., 2017).

The term "income" has been commonly referred to individual income. However, when the unit of consumption is the family, it would be more appropriate to consider the total available income from all 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 a 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: highly skilled jobs will result in a high wage and vice versa. Furthermore, any given profession can be structured into different position statuses, depending on the required quality as well as the skills and the experience level. Therefore, people of the same occupation might not necessarily receive similar financial benefits and incentive policies. This divergence also varies between nations, especially developing and developed countries, due to the difference in economic status and partly from the social and cultural perspective toward specific professions. However, dividing the social class by using the merit of income would not always be a reliable basis, 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, geography...). In addition, there is no concrete evidence to supports the consistency in consumption patterns 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 are unable to purchase and use luxury or high-end goods in the same manner as the wealthy (assuming that all consumers are reasonable in their decision-making and no illogical decisions are made). Along with the idea of the manner in spending, people with limited income also tend to be financially cautious when comparing offers and aligning their consumption toward the necessities rather than extravagancies

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 middle-income consumers present a diversity of needs and possibly a wider degree of trade-off between affordability and the preference for brands and quality (Ahmed et al., 2016). What makes this finding relevant was the significant growth rate of this group's members compared to their lower and upper counterparts, especially in the context of developing countries. Although the middle class from developed countries is perceived to have a slower development pace than those 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 era of the 1960s and 1970s (ibid). The income 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, while the upper class still only occupy a very small portion in any given countries' structure.

Describing what constitutes the middle class, and thus separating it from other groups, is fairly subjective and varies depending on each nation's standards. Therefore, it is not strange for the benchmark to identify the middle class of one country to be either lower or higher than that of others and the global establishment. However, in many developing countries, it is generally observed that the middle-income class still has not surpassed the threshold of the global standard ranking for even the low-income level (Banerjee and Duflo, 2007; Ravallion et al., 2008). In light of the overall development in mindset and social situation, the middle-income consumers in the developing countries are mostly composed of people within their 20s and early 40s. This feature also comes as a natural manifestation since the majority of this age group's members are known to be "self-determined, exposed, knowledgeable", and have a keen sense of desire to experience the world and the newly emerged innovations.

2.1.5. 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 components are superior or inferior to the others (in contrast to the education level and even the qualitative age). Since there is no limit to the type of profession, there were also no clear lines established to serve as a distinct borderline for industries and sectors. Due to these features, studies that only employed occupation as a demographic factor were formatted to either include few occupations that are most 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 careers (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 on 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 as a new alternative among the labour forces from Gen Z and the Millennials. The matching of a freelancer to youngsters' personality has led to differences in lifestyle, including perspective in consumption activities that distinguish with the traditional nine-to-five groups of workers. Despite the shortage in qualified tests, there has been a circulating opinion that attributes a relatively higher level of success to self-employed professionals, compared to their peers who work under others (Dickson, 2001). There are also contradictory debates that suggest the fluctuation of income and higher tension of maintaining business operations among self-employed as opposed to wage earners; however, most of this is without official records and is just subjective deduction via surveillance.

2.1.6. Family role

The family life cycle is a traditional concept that has been praised by scholars and researchers as an important factor in consumption habits. Family as a demographic variable, unlike others, exercises two roles: a platform whereby its members interact and consider each other's purchasing decisions, representing the reference function; and the second one is a model example that individuals reflect upon when reaching a particular state of demographic factors (age, gender and position). While the second role is abstract and hard to identify by regular inquiry tools, the first is more significant in the traditional family model and can be gauged through survey. In that scenario, common purchasing decisions are often derived as an agreement after collecting each member's opinion and are evaluated

rationally. Meanwhile, the magnitude of discussion has been reduced, and the main focus has 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, become 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 look into some forms of compensation (Töröcsik, 2007). Giving allowance and/or permission to contribute to some purchasing decisions are examples of such practices (ibid). Besides, there are also cases where parents let their children become involved in daily commodities and even some of the highly expensed or complex products/services as an educational lesson rather than just being originated from guilty feelings.

As a unit of consumption, the family also resembles individual consumers in certain demographic traits. In the same way as age or life cycle can be applied to consumers it can also be found in a similar fashion in the family cycle. 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 orientation of purchasing is also shifting accordingly. While the concept of income might be simple to determine in the case of the individual consumer, family size of a greater scale than the single-parent model would normally be a pool of income contributed by its members. In general, education level and social status don't have a significant influence by default when considering family members as a unit of consumption. However, in some rare cases, these factors exercise impact in favour of whoever has superiority in one or both aspects, i.e., members with high education levels and considerable social status are believed to have more significant influence in many consumption 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 this phenomenon. Individual role alteration, or family status to be specific, was found to be associated with an identifiable set of consumption patterns (McAlexander, 1991; Young, 1991), while the period of transition is also found to trigger new consumption trends (Solomon, 1983; Andreasen, 1984; Schouten 1991a). The event of divorce is also found to align with this outline, besides other incidents disrupting the family structure. This event was also found to be a case that triggers the desire to travel and there is an observable niche market catering

to this demand in Western countries. However, there have been no official academic releases on this topic so far. Regarding the Vietnam context, the topic is more or less of a sensitive matter (though not to the degree of a taboo) and the aftermath of such incidents tends to create significant disarray for involved parties to consider 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.

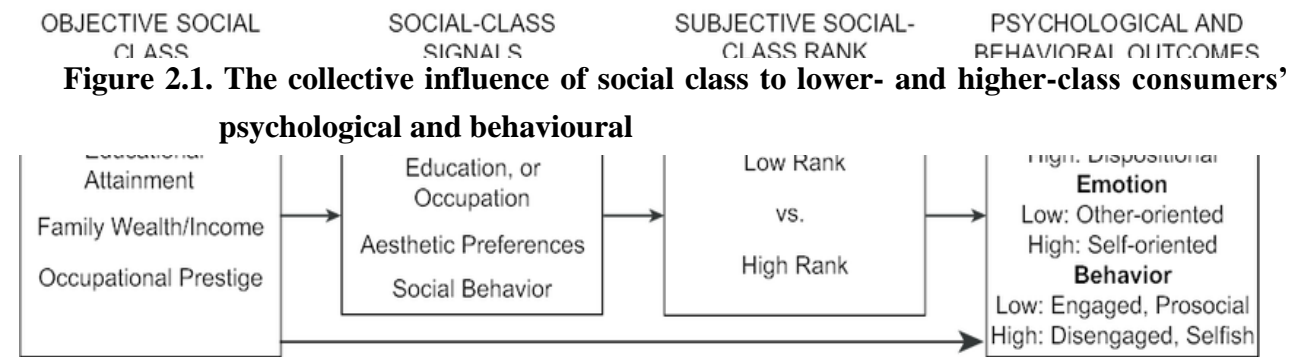
2.1.7. Social class

The hierarchy system, in which people are sorted by criteria into ranking order, is widely perceived as “social class” and presented in all 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 trivial differences 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). Much 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 more superior as an indicator to divide market segments (Fisher, 1987). 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 to a more sophisticated depiction (Figure 2.1). The 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 perspectives and methodological

fashion regarding social class and group of demographic variables (Schaninger 1981). In light of the new approaches, recent 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 current rank.

It is essential to understand that the state of imbalance between people in any given society can be identified through different criteria other than just the number of resources



Source: Keltner et al., 2011

and authority and power they wield (Keltner et al., 2011). According to these 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 that poorer class members are portrayed as being more empathetic and rely on each other more than the higher groups do. The sharing trait can be further extended to match each social class to the levels of need in Maslow's hierarchy, i.e., lower classes tend to focus on the utility function of the items that satisfy the most basic requirement layers, while higher-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 a 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 occupations (recognized as white-collar and blue-collar workers) due to their significant difference in buying patterns. The most significant criteria to determine the social grade are level of income and occupation.

Imminent issues like industrialized environment and the widespread coverage of social networks 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 “class” and “status”, has been criticised over its radical skewed presentation. Through attributing more attention toward the occupation indicator and its associated prestige, the social stratification system is detached from an objective instrument to be a systematic social order. When it was first initiated, viewing of a social group was 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 classes (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, organizing a fair range of social classes into a classification system is an impossible task. Therefore, combining other demographic characteristics still proves to be a practical choice. However, the issue is only in few profession-based societies where conventions existed to connect occupations to an assigned social class that validate this demographic variable as an evaluation scale for individual relative status. Even by then, there is still a drawback in using occupation as the sole component: this variable is previously indicated to be immeasurable (section 2.1.5.), whereas social class requires a clearly defined structure. Therefore, it is more than often being used in coordination with other supplemental elements. On the other hand, income level is supposed to be a quantitative meter to indicate the aspect of wealth (as depicted in section 2.1.4.), but tends to be adopted more frequently in qualitative terms (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 (which will be discussed later in section 2.3.2 regarding 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 backgrounds are often located close and exercise influence on each other's lifestyle via imitation effect or consulting (as the reference group).

2.1.8. Culture and subculture

As people grow older, they become more aware and receive influence from cultures through different reference groups (family, close acquaintances, social group...). Previously, the cultural impact wasn't immediately transparent and recognizable if people remained 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 incorporates other demographic elements, a similar feature to family and social class. The range of influence that culture exercises is very large, even transcends and covers that of family and social class. Similar to other socio cluster concepts, cultural value is the sum of its components, but not in the term of a definite mathematical formula. It would be unjust to reduce the value of culture as merely a display 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 topic of cross-cultural taboo and the integration toward foreign markets. These exhibitions of culture, though neither wrong nor outdated, were already filled in many discussions while the latest emerging concerns were just approached by the surface level, e.g., diluted in tradition, custom and tradition transfer between generations, conflict of culture values...

In earlier studies, it was addressed that the ethnic minorities in Vietnam have far lower living standards 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 are 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 and their overall growth were still deemed to be sluggish (Singhal and Beck, 2015; Fujii, 2017). Regarding the tourism service, the ethnic

minority members generally take part more in creating services (through introducing their distinct cultural values and living environment) than being consumers themselves.

Besides ethnicity and nationality customs that often represent cultural values, there is also religion, with equal potential in examining consumers' attitudes 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 in 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 records 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).

The impact of religion on tourism is further narrowed 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 more 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 South East Asia nations) 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 appeal of the regions. Other than that, it would be hardly possible to observe the influence of religion exerted in consumers' decision-making, although a 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 when trying to reduce the scale of culture to compare with other social constructs of a smaller degree. Therefore, the understanding and awareness of culture are often depicted as examples of clashes between different cultures and globalization (in both literature system and practical norm).

Another approach that is 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, a similar manifestation to that of social class. In term of structural aspect, subculture also defines the members' profile via one or a few other demographic principles being grouped: geographical, age, gender... To a certain degree, the social class could be positioned as an independent element on its own, while on the other hand, it can also be 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 a few characteristics (social class, subculture group...), but this is more likely to be a matter of unwritten rule. As further analysis of individual behaviour 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 features and relationships. Therefore, individual behaviour can't be nominated to represent the group that they belong to and it is not as straightforward as determining a certain behaviour as the result of integration from 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 surge 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 borders of individual nations. Therefore, at first, it was only known through the economic and population effect in the simple form of trading among commercial centres and immigration between nations. In the aftermath of the two world wars and other freedom wars in former 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 to the popularization of Western values due to their superior economy and cultural status. Viewpoints regarding this phenomenon can be divided into two opposed groups: the supporters who recognize that contributions to the local regions came from westernized processes and encouraged it,

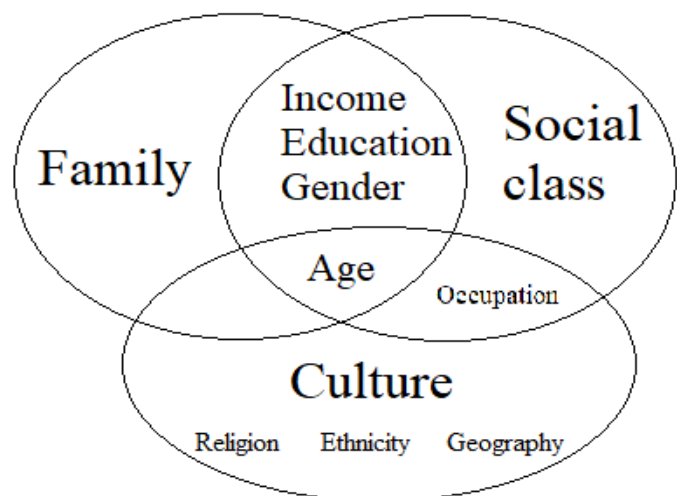
and the protesters who dubbed this event as a practice of suppressing local identity with supremacy. Though not being recognized as a direct consequence, it was clear that the development in communication technology and the spreading of modern marketing have turned globalization to a mutual process.

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 assumption, 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 use of English/Chinese as popular languages in global communication and documents, and the dispersion of multinational enterprises’ presence 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 encouraging 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). From a holistic perspective, the briefing of these theoretical domains suggested a few noteworthy points. Firstly, each demographic variable is a significant concept that is continuously renewed and extended through the

Figure 2.2. Model of demographic variable



Source: Author

development of global social and economic movements. 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 population characteristics, the interrelationships might not necessarily be reflected in the research sample or that they have a significant effect on consumption activities.

2.2. A distinction between consumer behaviour and consumer decision-making process

Although the decision-making process is not entirely reflective of consumer behaviour, it still covers most of this theoretical domain and is thus often used in many pieces of research with this representativeness intention (Dimanche and Havitz, 1995). The author also found in many studies of consumer behaviour an overlapping in discussion with consumer decision-making processes and vice versa. However, given that these two concepts are fundamentally different, it is appropriate to clarify their content and what approach should be taken for each respective theme

2.2.1. Consumer behaviour

The definition problem

Although being determined as a pillar concept in many scientific disciplines, theorization of “behaviour” has returned with modest progression. While precedent researchers avoided clarifying the term’s definition, the limited few attempts were adaptations of the usage translated in specific science language and perspective, e.g., biology (Levitis et al., 2009), philosophy (Pichot, 1999), psychology (Faßnacht, 2000, Furr, 2009a; Bergner, 2011). Throughout these records, the psychological and philosophical based records overlooked what constitutes the biological unit “internally coordinated response” (Levitis et al., 2009) with a holistic coverage. In addition, these definitions were also analysed by Uher (2016) to be “anthropocentric bias”, which the metatheoretical description that this researcher later attributed to the concept has bypassed. In addition to that is the implication of a causal relationship attributed to the “other external phenomena in the present moment” (ibid).

It is undeniable that this definition is most suitably a depiction of the main trait of consumer’s behaviour, especially in the sense of action sequence and attitude and partially portraying the decision-making process. However, additional caution would need to be taken as consumer behaviour is also distinct through its implicit systematic and prolonging characteristic (Solomon et al., 1995; Gabbot and Hogg, 1998). It was also the changes in

the perception of consumer behaviour that led a new approach in defining the concept. According to Solomon's opinion (2018), the early development of consumer behaviour study in the 1960s and 1970s had conceived the phenomenon as "buyer behaviour" that was limited by the short-term interaction made between consumer and distributors during their transaction. To be more precise, there were also uncertainties at that point to determine what consumer behaviour actually covers. An example of such effort is the discussion of "disposal" by Jacoby et al. (1977), in which the researchers contemplate whether it can be considered a component in this economic phenomenon (as quoted by Hoyer and MacInnis, 2008). The contemporary definition of "consumer behaviour" has reached a fair degree of consistency (as depicted by Hoyer and MacInnis, 2008; Kardes et al., 2011; and Solomon, 2018 to name a few), which generally fall along the line of: "*the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires*" (Solomon, 2018).

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 (besides 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 education level.

Consumption-based theory: rational, impulsive and psychological basis

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 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 developed, given the continuous changes in economic and social environments. According to the scientific view that appreciated logic-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 was later criticised on the basis of alternative belief – the satisfaction of the act that encourages consumption activities (Simon, 1997) – instead of aiming for optimal choices (e.g., the shopping experience). Cognitive and Behaviourists are the other two variants loosely constructed on rational behavioural views. 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 the 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).

Besides the mentioned philosophies, other approaches also connected consumer behaviours with spontaneity and another psychological status. Despite receiving attention for a long time (Muruganatham and Bhakat, 2013), the application of Impulsive Theory is very limited even within the borderline of the retail sector (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, besides 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 demonstrate 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 use of demographic traits as a basis for marketing research, which then proposed value, taste and preference to cover more influences in comparison. Compared to the previous settings, these 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 flaws could be expected in the construct of "attitudes, values and expressed preferences", meaning that application of "psychographic" is also deemed 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.

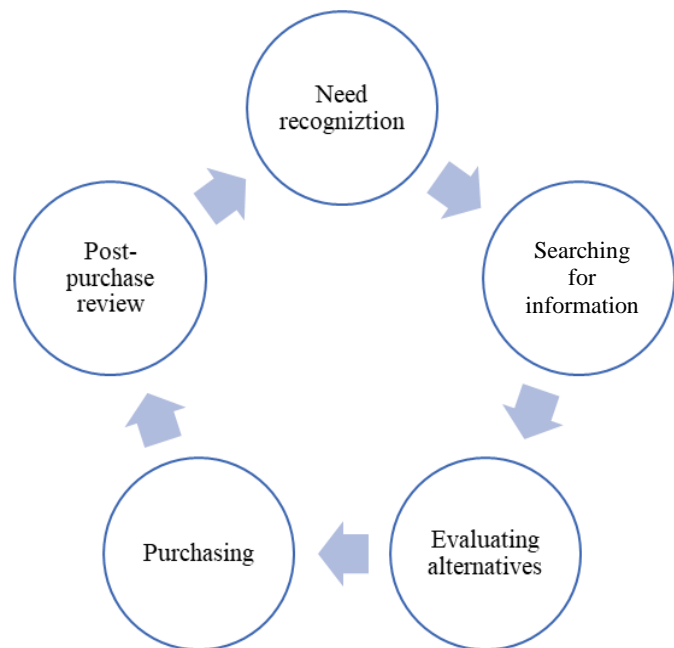
In the end, regardless of how many attempts have been made to capture the nature of the consumption activities, they are all based on past data. Even primary information tailored to the needs of new research also suffers from time lagging from the moment it is acquired, to when results built on it are announced via official documents. Therefore, each type of categorization, due to their standards, can only be said to generate results to a certain credibility level, and need to be examined for 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 impulse 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. Consumer decision-making process

The 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). Another equivalent five steps model was also introduced by Engel et al. (Figure 2.3) and both of which have spawned variations throughout researches of the consumer decision-making topic. However, what is important is to examine the related conditions further than was suggested by the model (i.e., interference variables, situational context) and the variations of the theoretical/realistic gap that might trigger.

Figure 2.3. Consumer decision-making



Source: Author extracted from Engel *et al.*' model 1968

Although the graphical illustration of this process is often taken the form of a linear line

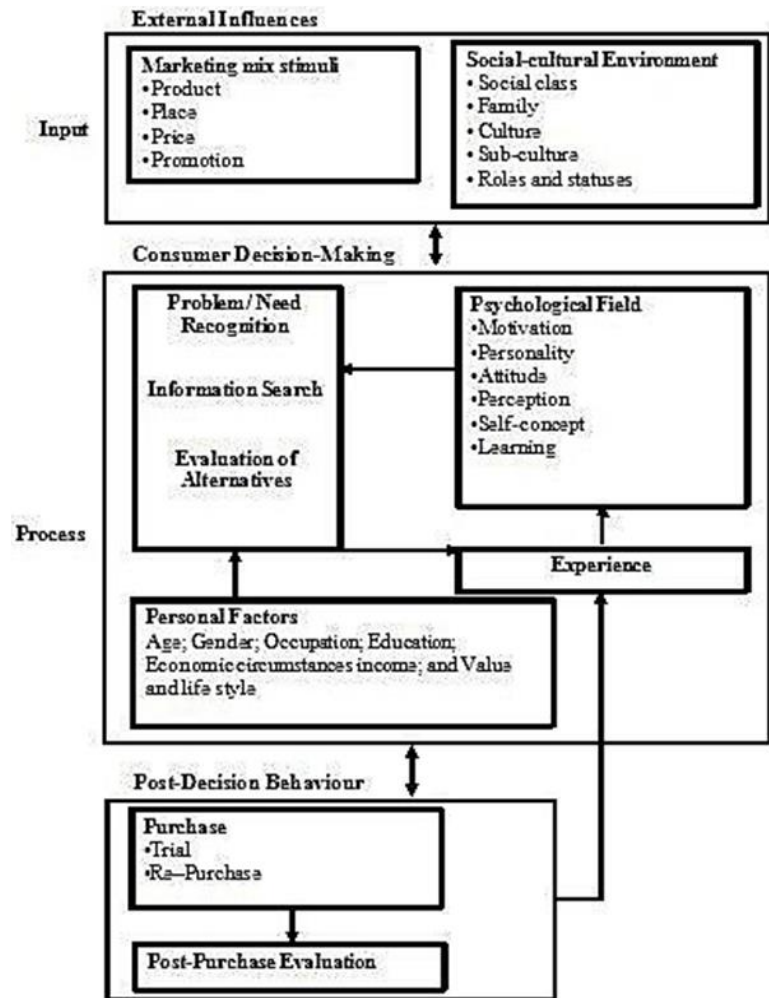
that begins with the recognition of the need identification, the thesis author found it to be more appropriate when being presented in a circular format. The reason is that at the end of the consumption phase, rational consumers would always re-evaluate their experience as a basis for future similar purchases. In fact, the most suitable presentation for this notion would be that of a continuous spiral, where future processes are not just identical repetitions but even advance to higher criteria during the transaction process.

Consumer decision-making is a mixed 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 spend an excessive amount of effort for the whole process to decide for every purchase decision, 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 knowledge possessed by consumers in advance (ibid). 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 impulse, 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 theory projected earlier. On one side, any decision being made is designed to achieve anticipated goals while on the other side, the process of procuring also initiates the tendency to seek satisfaction. Furthermore, the emotional status also exhibits an attribute of a learning process accumulated through experience. Therefore, it is appropriate to confirm the dual nature of decision-making, where its manifestations vary between the two opposite statuses of rationality and emotion.

Figure 2.4. the simplified consumer decision-making model

The simple depiction of the consumer decision-making model (abbreviated as a simplified model) was mentioned in many versions of Schiffman and Kanuk's Consumer Behaviour edition (Figure 2.4) and adopted in other research with minor adjustments. In addition to the decision-making process positioned at the centre, 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 decision-making, although this connection has yet to include



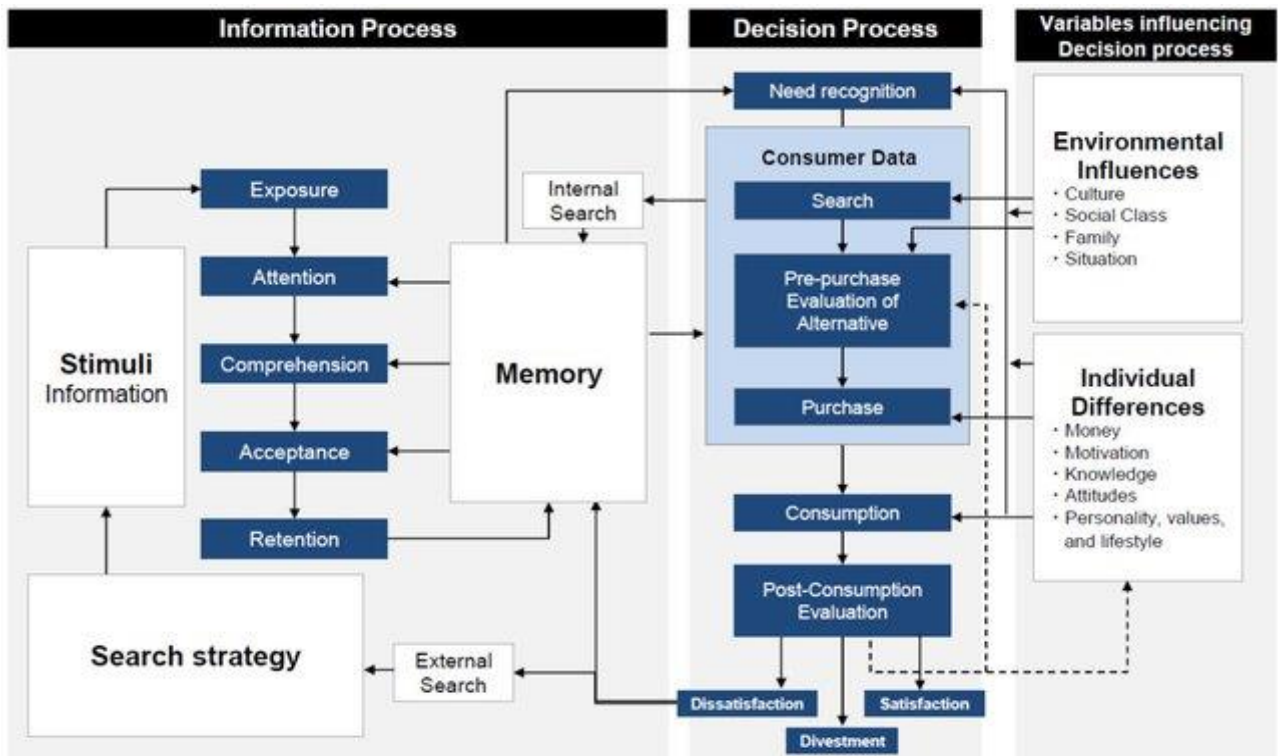
Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009

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. Later developments have either focused in detail on certain aspects of Schiffman and Kanuk's model or added new elements as seen in the extended model (Figure 2.5), which further addressed the information processing in parallel with the known process portrayed in the

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

External sources (mass media, reference groups, 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 discussed experience was often implied as the immediate experience resulting from contemporary consumption, with few exceptions that provided a brief statement connected between satisfaction and repeated

Figure 2.5. The extended consumer decision-making process model



Source: Blackwell, Minirad and Engel, 2005

purchase. However, this is just one example of applying experience for a specific brand product/item.

In reality, most repetitive commodities purchase gain benefit 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 support as evidence to confirm the model of decision-making as a continuous process between consecutive purchases. On the other hand, past experiences, which involve a perception of risk associated with a specific item(s), were not displayed either.

2.3. Discussion of precedent researches

2.3.1. 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 paying attention only to segment and describe different types of tourists instead of decrypting the significance behind customer behaviours (ibid). However, this statement should be revised since there are records of studies on this topic that proved to be contradicted.

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 criteria (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 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. In the basic sense, income is the initial determinant that enables travelling activities (Ryan, 2003). Social and psychological factors are the next layers of influence that outline the detail of the choice and are subject to having 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 to 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 consumption of this service will signal 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 popularized as essential demographic variables when taking into account 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 on equal terms with other demographic elements' substantial impact. 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 but failed to gather enough acknowledgement for such a role.

In a broader sense, the geographic factor can be broken down into smaller units of a residential area, which could then be used as a filter of social class via designing regions based on people of similar social class or status. However, incorporating this into marketing practice is rather complicated in both theoretical and practical terms, while it is also less effective. Another specific approach is presented via locally based marketing, of which the principle is to reach the majority coverage of mass residents rather than catering for any specific target segment. In a lesser case, there is a niche application using different ethnicity; however, it wouldn't be effective unless the targeted regions have high levels of mixed races or a significant concentration of some dominant racial 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, despite being theoretically prominent, a customized region setting hasn't been 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 not only 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 was proposed by this researcher between people who acquire wealth through inheritance to the demand in the British market, thus developing a niche segment of leisure consumption. Besides, a segmentation system for the socio-economic class in Britain was also introduced and its structure was widely adopted by market research agencies (*ibid*):

- Administration 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 are at the lowest, as E

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

2.3.2. Psychological influence

Although psychological elements belong to a different field of study, it is still useful to take into account their contribution to many of the consumer's decision processes. The question is not which decision will involve these factors but to what extent and under which situation their influence can be identified. In a broader sense, the cultural basis of a nation or region dictates different variations of a consumer's psychological profile, of which the most notable example depicts the fundamental differences in consumers' characteristics of Eastern and Western origin. On a minor scale, there is also the subculture that governs the degree of impact to the smaller units in society, for example: family, colleague, consumer group... One minor detail that 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 dominant factors with presence in every phase. Although this thesis doesn't need to attempt thorough approach of professional psychology, 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.

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 are bound to be inevitable flaws. Firstly, the fact that consumers act upon personal judgment toward maximizing utility goal is logical but not applicable in many situations, especially when there is not

enough information available to make decisions. Secondly, wrong information can also lead to wrong decisions, but it is still possible to be perceived as “the right choice” by individual’s subjective assessment when weighing between alternatives. As a result, recent researchers have addressed the premise assumptions, questioning the validity of whether it is sufficient to rely only on a single influential factor (either logical capabilities or mental status based). In the case of tourism, consumers’ choice of the destination and the service characteristics raises another concern that may happen before or/and during the period of consumption (Hyde and Lawson, 2003; Decrop and Snelders, 2004). Further influences that could be listed include 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 implies the approaching style to be 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.

Theory of planned behaviour

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

According to the theory, the intention is governed by ‘attitude’, ‘subjective norm’ and ‘perceived behavioural control’ (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975). ‘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 – the 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 as that of a reference guideline, and instead of providing advice, it embodies the belief and motivation that are set as recognized standards by society under similar settings. By the explanation of these authors, ‘subjective

norm' is the set of behaviour that the individual in question perceives other stakeholders' expectation of him/her to follow. In this sense, despite being a psychological construct from the personal 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 considered actual control over the behaviour since it is still in a "perceived" state. In addition, behaviour control means that there exist constraints that can deter the intention to lead to behaviour and prevent it from materializing (Altawallbeh et al., 2015).

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

Taking into account the theoretical assumption regarding the causal relationship between intention and behaviour, there are some 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 who 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, thus 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 backing value of new findings. This is because the correlation between elements as mentioned by the theory is confirmed to a certain degree,

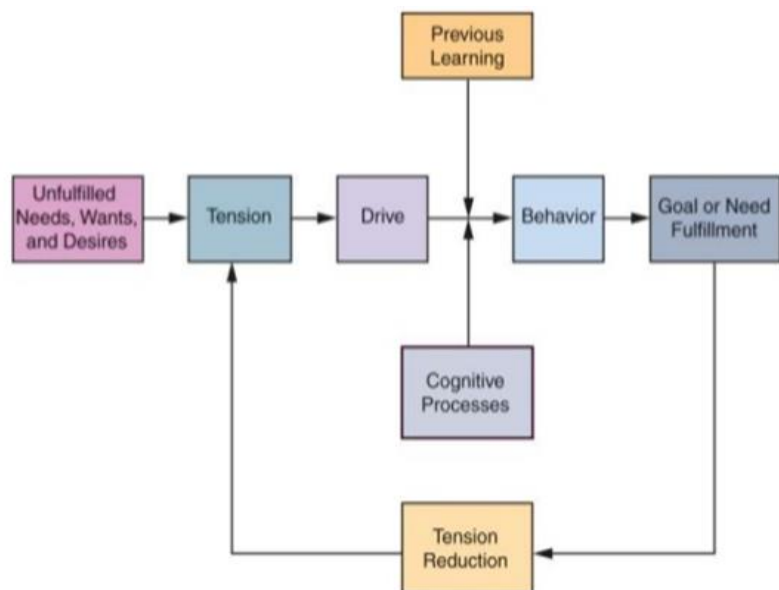
making it a redundant attempt trying to provide any further empirical evidence to prove a non-falsifiable relationship (Smedslund, 1978; Ogden, 2003). Demand for new model design, thus, becomes inevitable for any research aimed at discovering closed aspects to this topic (Sniehotta, 2014).

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 acting without any indication that 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 determined to achieve, while the “maintaining of initial urge” to take action as indicated earlier clearly specifies the lasting attribute of this element. With the role of 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 intended action/behaviour take place.

Questions regarding the motivation’s nature have been addressed (Kim, 2013), but an agreement has yet to be reached regarding whether to consider this phenomenon as a psychological state or a process. Overall, if marking unfulfilled need(s) as the origin point and the end is where said desires materialize as depicted in the motivational model proposed by Schiffman and Kanuk (Figure 2.6), it validates

Figure 2.6. Model of Motivational Process



Source: Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009

the viewpoint of considering motivation to be a continuous process. The range of unfulfilled

needs may as well include innate needs (physical inquiries to satisfy the surviving purpose of the biological 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 in the subsequent section. As the need(s) has yet to be completely fulfilled, the tension will remain and drive 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 on the state of "being motivated" and the continuity of action.

Overview of needs – motivation theories and frameworks

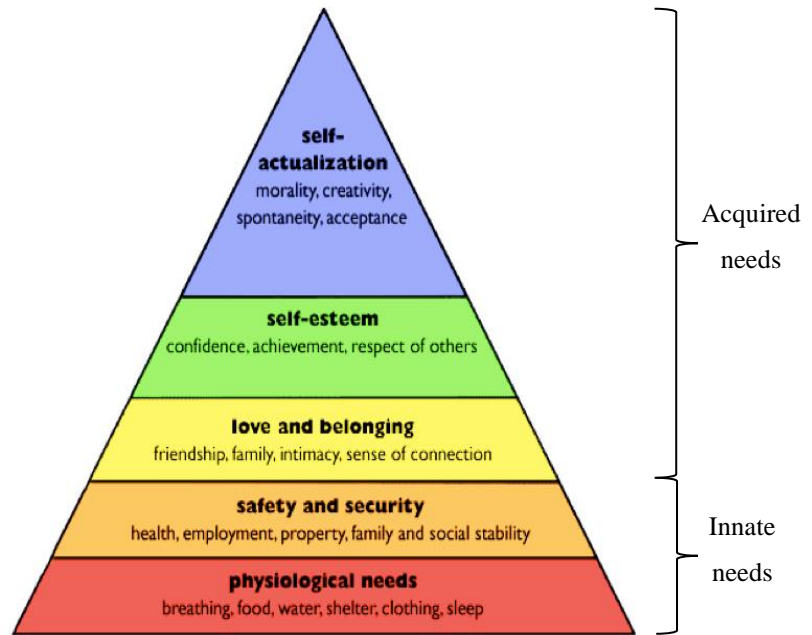
Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's framework is a popular literature material encountered in many studies of consumer behaviour. The classification introduced well-known types of human needs and established them in accordingly order. The recognizable advantage of this model is that every specific need can be

Figure 2.7. Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

assigned to and explained by one of the five stages, thus creating a visual image of which level of needs each individual is currently identified with. In a later visit to the model, Maslow assigned all levels of needs to be "instinctoid" (1970), which means they exist by default as a nature of survival. On 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 2.7.

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 and its component as goals to be achieved rather than the process to reach it, the mentioned adjustment in the



Source: Edited based on Maslow’s 1970 model

model name would mislead its original function. In another development, it was 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 concern appears to be whether there are any patterns to such overlap and if it does, then where is the satisfaction threshold, whereby either a quantitative or a qualitative method can be deployed to signal the transition from an inferior need to the next level.

The second issue involves an extension scenario that the theory did not account for by the time it was initially developed, which is *need* which rarely exists as a singular isolated unit. To be 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 a personal evaluation system (which might be

similar or different from other people's). 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 concocted 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 author proposed 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 an exact behaviour sequence. Due to how unrealistic this conclusion appears to be, 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 the need's requirement. Sometimes, this may lead to regret after the transaction is made, a common situation encountered in many cases of shopping sprees or spontaneous purchases additional to items on a shopping list. In the end, consumer needs are never fully satisfied; either due to the essential needs of maintaining a normal state of existence or by the desire in effect with a higher standard.

A comparison with other models

Besides Maslow's model, there were also other models that attempted to consider the topic of need and motivation. First of all, there were similar versions in both structure and design with some slight modifications. One close conceptualization relating to Maslow's ideology is displayed through the Freudian psychoanalytic system. The traditional Freud theory set is grounded on biological drives, instinctive nature and the attempt to satisfy the desires unconsciously. However, Freud emphasized heavily biological needs, placing sexual urges as the driver of 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). In retrospect, these two-factor groups are just another interpretation of the classification 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 the need arises as a result of comparing the gap between the 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 meeting up with the bare requirement of physiological needs to survive is 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 implication of just needs. The

complexity with interpreting motivation lies within its second term, which encloses the willpower and determination to realise its agent's desires. It can be detached as a separate concept and at the same time, belong to the same categories as the initial meaning set. To be 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 a certain checkpoint) to be achieved and are aware of the means to achieve it. There can never be a generic motivation, with neither a particular goal nor a willingness to act upon it.

Any objective-driven action can also be approached via the perspective of Push and Pull theory (first introduced by Dann, 1977 as cited by Carvache-Franco et al., 2020) – a close branch to the Theory of Planned Behaviour assumption. In detail, people don't just pursue 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 factors come solely 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 residence and habitat. In narrower terms, it includes the form of tourism service that detaches from crowded population and gives a priority to 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" 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 cases 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 changes in the social and economic state between the current state and when the authors first introduced these theories.

Emotion and mood

According to neuroscience specialists, emotions display many attributes similar to those 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 only directed the attention to only a few structures in the centre that are linked to emotions instead of the entire brain system (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 topics, thus ended up with similar conclusions that considered the negative emotions as having a detrimental effect on internal organs and gradually wear down the body's 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 affairs instead). 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, such as: 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.

Attitude

According to Schiffman and Kanuk's (2009) definition, attitude is perceived as a learned self-evaluation, demonstrating as either favourable or unfavourable sensation 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 also be 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 exposed to change over time by individual experience interaction. Therefore, consistency, in this case, has a tied causal relationship with personal bias adjustment. The second example 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 key issues perceived concerning the consistency between attitude and behaviour. For a starter, 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 them reverting to the opposite direction.

Psychological consumption from the specific situational contexts

It is perceived that shopping is the solution that consumers usually seek to lessen the pressure incurred from awareness of needs. 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 emerged need. Nevertheless, every classification of need so far has yet to provide sufficient accounting for every consumer's existing desire. Granted that all the needs are fully known, there is also no guarantee that they shall remain consistent forever, seeing how versatile human needs are. Also, types of consumption patterns 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 mementos 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 senile consumers act against innovation (Lambert-Pandraud and Laurent, 2010) or due to a 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 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 feelings of nostalgia is highly likely to be more influenced by emotions than purchasing to meet 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 all of them to be chosen. In addition, the restriction to the individual's cognitive and memory ability only allows for a limited amount of information to catch their attention and get through their mind. People

with first-hand experience or those with access to full information are less likely to be swayed by reference groups than those with little or no knowledge in the same interest. However, a superfluous amount of information could also backfire as it requires further efforts from consumers to process. Therefore, people who grow familiar with a given brand are more likely to be attracted by new branches or new lines of items under few familiar specific brands or labels than offerings of the competitors' portfolio.

2.3.3. Variation in chronological-based division system

According to Lewis and Bridger (2001), disruptive periods existed in history, where momentous social and cultural changes occurred. According to these 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 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 being just a commodity (ibid). 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 is just not convincing evidence to reject their validity. In addition, characteristics that are 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 restricted to this consumer group alone. The search for authenticity is only applicable in the context where prior experience of the purchase was proven to be more important than the purchased item. On the other hand, convenience is still the leading attribute in many purchasing decisions, especially for 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 to gain 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. On the other hand, 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 access to information does not always help saving effort and time. Instead, it resulted in consumers raising the threshold for higher expectations 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" were. Not long afterwards, serious deterioration in environmental conditions which have become visible to mass consumers have triggered their awareness, and geared toward conservation and sustainable activities, prompting the rise of ecological consumption trends (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 consumption of "green" products (Harrison et al., 2007).

2.3.4. 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 this 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 best be described as 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 for travelling is to satisfy the desire for something different from the usual setting (Crompton, 1979). 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 purposes (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, an 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 translates as coding and improving knowledge and understanding. Finally, the duration of engagement as the authors' explained is the pursuit based on convincing arguments, which is rather ambiguous and seemingly unrelated to even the literal meaning of "duration". Alternative justification for this element should be that of the longitude of time, where the previous two stages take place. To a certain extent, both "individual engagement" and "decision-making process" can be used interchangeably for 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 low pricing (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 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, the stable conduct of behaviour that has been shaped for a long time to become a norm. Therefore, unless consumers consistently do most of their purchases on a whim, which is an unrealistic assumption by any given 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., shame or regret) that consumers are only aware of 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 given consumer profile, of which strong evidence was found in much 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 recent 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 to occur more frequently among the financial proficiency consumers (Bashar et al., 2012; Parmar and Ahmed, 2013).

2.3.5. 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 stem from personal craving for uniqueness), yet they still also base their final decisions on accumulated experience, knowledge and standard value. The frequent depiction of innovative-oriented consumers tends to fit with the young generation profile, due to their high capabilities in learning and adaptive abilities. In Schiffman and Kanuk's illustration (2008), consumer innovators possess a higher education level with a high degree in both income and occupational status, which partly explained their easy-going characteristics. Nevertheless, this is by no means a concrete universal rule to force onto consumers of this category. On the opposite pole, the "dogmatic" non-innovators are portrayed with opposite personalities as they appear to be less patient and have difficulty accepting changes or new ideas.

Another purpose that people intentionally indulge in shopping sprees is to lessen the negative feelings incurred from other unfortunate social events, also known as "retail therapy" (Kemp and Kopp, 2011; Krupnick, 2011; Li and Li, 2013; Rick et al., 2014). Despite the pleasure this activity delivers, shoppers often end up with excessive spending on redundant items, thus leaving them with feelings of regret and adding to financial issues which have to be resolved later. The phenomenon is previously perceived as one of many features in consumerist society (often assimilated with western developed countries) but has recently expanded to many developing countries. This derivative of shopping is taken into account for discussion, due to the unique nature that separates it from any purpose-led traditional tangible and intangible desires. However, this appears more frequently with physical items since they are easily accessible and convenient to purchase (except for the limited exotic and unique type of products) and can answer with the impulsive and immediate requirement of the spree. On the other hand, this feature is less visible in the case of service or intangible items due to their contrast attributes, the researcher decided to exclude this scenario since this research focuses on tourism service, which belongs to the latter category.

2.3.6. Reference group

A 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 was a sub-branch of the original concept to account for a certain exhibition of the consumption style.

The earlier identification of the reference group (family and friends) was perceived to consist of clusters to which people belong, but do not fully represent their social identity. Celebrities or endorsements are the popular choices as representative agencies to advertise brand image and message to users. Meanwhile, close-quarter assemblies like colleagues or shopping groups share a more engaging experience. A typical nine-to-five officer would often spend more time with colleagues than with family members (not to mention the case of working overtime or partly at a weekend). Therefore, whether willingly or not, interaction with colleagues' groups accounts for most of their social connection and thus gives rise to the growing role of colleagues, especially informal friendships with co-workers. Although an equivalent role of colleague groups for freelancers or self-employeds can't be found, the nature of being self-governing and a larger networking relationship may as well impact individual consumption patterns further than limiting it to profession's related decisions.

The latest development of reference groups has been the expansion of the virtual based gathering via social platforms. It should be noted that this type of group has already been presented since the 2000s via specific forums and professional blogs in shopping or technical topics. What boosted this exponential growth around the 2010s was the overall advancement in connection-aided tools and platforms that enabled multiple methods of sharing information (stories, image, video...) throughout virtual communities. The distinction that separates this group from its social counterparts is the anonymity in personal profiles among membership; thus, communication by this method can be considered to have disregarded the barrier of demographic profile.

Since consumers have expressed higher trust to recommendations from others than corporate accounts, product endorsements have frequently been employed with third parties' involvement, of which celebrities and experts are the popular choices. Alongside this development, there were also numerous studies to evaluate the effectiveness of this conduct and its translation into consumer intentions to purchase the promoted items (Sliburyte, 2009; Um, 2013; Wei and Lu, 2013, Knoll and Matthes, 2017). However, these two embodiments are just facets of a bigger branch within the reference group, namely the opinion leader. An opinion leader is not necessarily assigned to just one of the previous

groups but could be anyone knowledgeable of what they promote and most importantly, possessing a certain degree of influence on the targeted audience. In addition, opinion leaders are eligible to share their evaluation on a wide range of items, which enable a larger segmented audience 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 ever before.

2.4. Tourism service industry

2.4.1. An overview of the industry

Tourism activity has become familiar with academic studies as more and more literature emerged yearly. 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 the 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 good, thus its disposition of economic activity is still more significant than the social aspect.

Adopting the customer approach, the tourism sector is widely segmented to a market of three branches: 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 and the financial balance usually benefits the latter party more. The last segment, which aims at customers who travel within their own countries, is the domestic market. It is conceived 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 whereas either inbound or domestic market is 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). Statistics records also suggested a superior performance in the growth rate of tourism in developing countries, compared to the developed counterparts (John and Simon, 2006). However, the definite volume of tourist traffic and the value of turnover are still found to be consistently higher for the latter groups. Even with that, there is no further insight for critical evaluation to be deduced from these figures than that of other less mainstream indicators, e.g., information regarding the number of returning tourists or new visitors, 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 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 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 on a regular basis, due to its abundant requirement other than just funding issues. Furthermore, consumers are also distinct in their lifestyles, preferences and judgment when determining the degree and frequency of using this service. On the other hand, competition within the services happens simultaneously at various levels: there is competition between different service providers of the same type of alternative options, among the different forms of tourism formats and at a larger scale it is 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 to the emergence of new trends, while start-up enterprises may only be capable of catering 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 provider(s)

but at the same time dissatisfied with the others within the same package. Considering how readily information is available and easily accessed, confident consumers have been found to independently create their versions of tourism deals, by combining different services.

Being aware of the negative impact resulting from the tourism industry, it was advised for the hospitality businesses segment to meet up with a requirement of certain quality standards. Such certifications were brought into practice in America and Europe, but rarely had it been cases produced with satisfactory outcomes so far (Graci and Dodds, 2015). Despite enjoying a high economic growth rate, many developing countries also encounter persistent struggles (stronger domination of short-term economic objectives orientation, political management deficiency and low proficiency of communication) that prevent them from paying attention to 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 their developed counterparts. Overall, the topic of sustainable development agenda hasn't shown any significant progress on a global scale for decades (United Nations, 2020).

2.4.2. The economic and social influence of the tourism industry

Similar to other economic activities, tourism and relevant support services also exercise their influence through the three aspects of economic, socio-cultural and environmental factors with both positive and negative exhibitions. Rather than being depicted in a general perspective, these influences will be customized for the situation of the Vietnamese domestic tourism market. In addition, the subsequent discussion will overlook common issues and focus instead on subjects (both positive and negative) that have not yet secured sufficient attention.

Instead of discussing 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 residents for their living expenses and involved further cycles within the touristic sites. In reality, this effect is far more limited due to the “tourism leakage” phenomenon (Figure 2.8). 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 major portion of the remaining expenses is normally “leaked” to the external component of the package (e.g., foreign-owned service providers, imported goods and materials...). Furthermore, there is

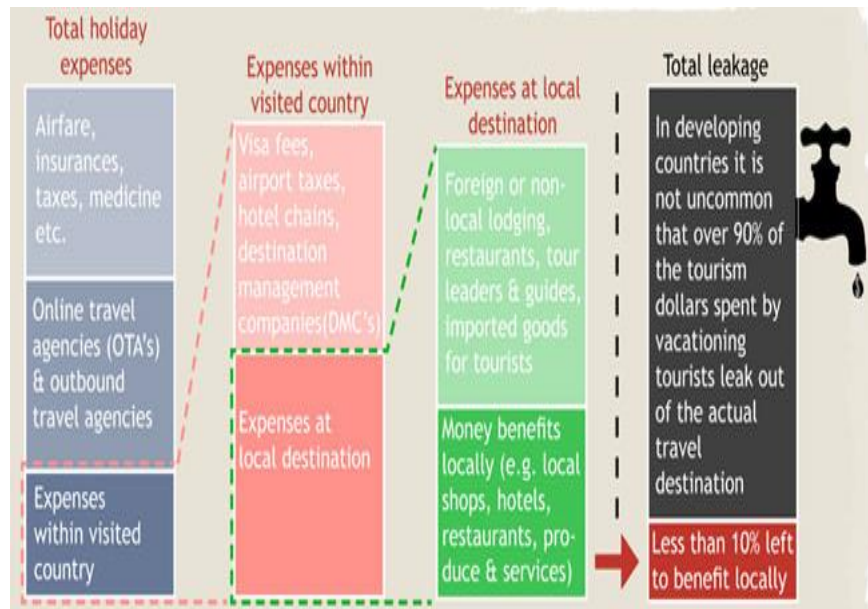
also an issue identified with the disputed trade-offs predicament between investment in intangible assets and regional environment status or communities' living conditions. This matter also further expands to undermine the share of benefits and opportunities that local residents rightfully deserve. Due to these concessions, justification of touristic contributions to local regions are more or less questionable.

It has been known that the tourism and travel sector is a labour-intensive sector that is suitable for developing countries socio-economic conditions. There was a proclamation that the residents' familiarity with a 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 technical application and 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 is in the form of different cultural and behavioural patterns from visitors in contrast 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 ignite conflicts in cultural values and beliefs between local people and tourists, which range from minor disruption to potential cultural clashes. Many studies have mentioned the exploitation of tourism toward "vulnerable" local populations (Rosenow and Pulsipher, 1979; Dogan, 1989; Burns and Holden, 1995; Monroe and Bishop, 2016) but few have questioned the reverse situation. Tempted by the economic benefits, many residents may alter their behaviour and attitudes to exploit short-term gains rather than promoting the

Figure 2.8. Depiction of tourism leakage



Source: Beach Meter, accessed by 2019

traditions and cultural values of 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 harassments, can be found as common practices in developing countries. On the other hand, the promotion of “authentic experience” tourism has modified and reduced the significance of exotic rituals and cultural manifestations to “mass-production” worth. On 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 with the number of tourists increasing, there might be issues of increasing society vices in local communities.

2.4.3. Review of related tourist studies

The idea “to consume tourism is to consume experience” diverts the sense of a tourist being a consumer who pays for the use of a product(s) into an immersive experience. However, it is hard to conclude that every form of service can convey similar messages and feelings to consumers. On the one hand, people can find themselves absorbed in hedonism-oriented services (entertainment and 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...). In practice, researching tourism has adopted many marketing principles, yet the collective results have rarely surpassed the descriptive stage and at best can only segment the overall market 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 applied to tourism early as found in the work of Mathieson and Wall (1982).

Previous models designed to study consumers' behaviour were criticized, due to their deficiency in demonstrating the activity's complex characteristics. A coordinated sorting of these studies could be broken down into three aspects: 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 tourists and returning visitors 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 light on 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; Harnig, 2009). These theories were established on the premise that internal aspects (cognition, self-identity, beliefs...) have different influences on individual behaviour through different situations, of which tourism-related context might be included. However, the dispersion of intensive case studies has 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 spreading and occasionally straying from the known patterns. On a regular short-term basis, consumers' minds undergo various degrees of fluctuations from a minor to a major extent; whereas changes in the longer term are fundamentally distinctive to their early states. Consumers are no longer acting in a homogenous and linear fashion as dictated in previous theoretical formats. For the tourism industry, the "old-type" tourists were those who preferred their journeys to be paid by their savings (Moutinho, 1993), pre-arranged and often with companions; meanwhile, new generations of tourists are often portrayed with spontaneous and unpredictable traits.

2.5. Hypotheses of the research

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 depicted in the next section (Figure 2.9):

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 a domestic tourism service.

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

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

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

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

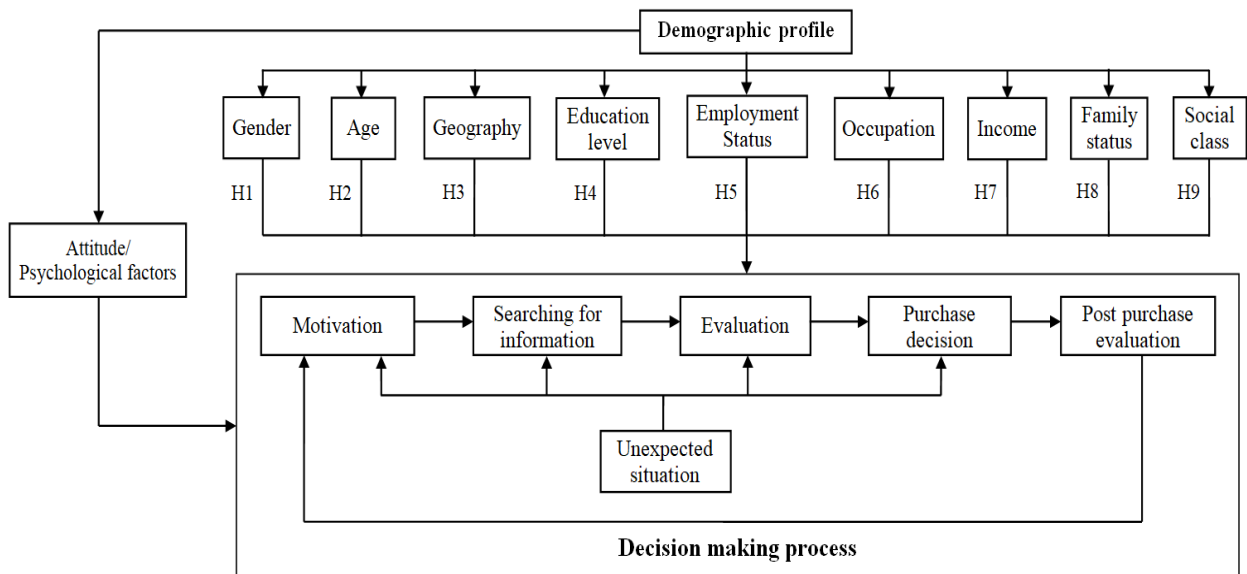
Since the effect of these demographic variables were not consistent throughout the review of the literature so far (while some have no significant influence, other records revealed contradicting results), the researcher used the assumption of no correlation between the demographic traits of consumer and the consumption activities as the default setting for the null hypothesis (H₀). In addition, 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 prematurely indicating the direction of impact in the beginning. Furthermore, these trends can also be expected as the expansion

result of the analytical instruments employed.

2.6. 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 figure components for this framework, which are also two constructs of the research questions: demographic variables and consumer behaviour for the Vietnamese domestic tourism segment. The demographic variables include nine component variables as depicted in Figure 2.9, each lead to the corresponding hypothesis of the relationship with the second construct of the study. Concerning 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.

Figure 2.9. 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 have been included as supplement iterations for each stage of the decision-making process portrayed above. Additional concern over the conceptual framework depicted in Figure 2.9 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 in incorporating the analysis of this element in each process of the decision-making

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

A summary of references sources served as evidence for the adaptation of the mentioned demographic in the conceptual framework is depicted in Table 2.1:

Table 2.1. Summary of demographic variables adaptation for this research and their reference sources

Demographic variables	Reference sources
Age	Furse, Punj and Stewart 1984; Roedder-John and Cole 1986; Cole and Houston 1987; Bloch, Ridgway and Dawson 1994; Moschis 1994; Marconi, 2001; Gregoire, 2003; Childwise, 2006; Jalees, 2009; Twenge, 2006; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009; Evans et al., 2009; Holloway, 2009; Shahjehan et al., 2012; Wai San and Yazdanifard, 2014; Nadeem et al., 2016
Gender	Barry, Gilly and Doran, 1985; Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991; Fillat, 1993; Darley and Smith, 1995; Gould, 1996; Hoffman and Borders, 2001; Palan, 2001; Mai et al., 2003; Giles, 2004; Catterall et al., 2005; Dodd et al., 2005; Oakenfull and Greenlee, 2005; Casey and Martens, 2007a; Silva, 2007; Martens, 2009; Evans et al., 2009; Holloway, 2009; Virvilaite et al., 2009; Bashir et al., 2013; Jayachandran, 2015
Education	Seitz, 1972; Bloom, 1976; Sternberg, 1985, 2003; Chisnall, 1994; Stanton et al., 1994; Holt 1997; Simonton, 2000; Kulviwat et al., 2004; Prieto and Caemmerer, 2013
Income	Morley, 1992; Crouch, 1995; Lim, 1997; Papatheodorou, 1999; De Mello et al., 2002; Ryan, 2003; Han et al. 2006; Li et al., 2006; Banerjee and Duflo, 2007; Hammond et al., 2007; Ravallion et al., 2008; Reece, 2010; Bashir et al., 2012; Parmar and Ahmed, 2013; Ahmed et al., 2016; Kharas, 2017; Strömbäck et al., 2017
Occupation	Dickson, 2001; Prieto and Caemmerer, 2013; Srinivasan et al., 2014; Ali Khan et al., 2015; Rehman and Jamil, 2016; Hill et al., 2019

Family role	Solomon, 1983; Andreasen, 1984; Schouten 1991a McAlexander, 1991; Young, 1991; Lehota, 2001; Töröcsik, 2007
Social class	Dominquez and Page, 1981a, 1981; Schaninger 1981; Fisher, 1985; Holt 1997; Giles, 2004; Silva, 2007; Holloway, 2009; Parsons and Maclaran, 2010; Keltner et al., 2011; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009; Mirzaei and Ruzdar, 2018

Source: Author

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research methodology

The author identified two clear depictions of the research methodology: the research onion (introduced by Saunders et al. first in 2007) and an illustration developed by Makombe in 2017 (Appendix 2). Up to this point, these depictions of research methodology components have shown the least ambiguity in terminology, a problem being emphasized as the serious cause of confusion in earlier papers (Makombe, 2017). The research onion model provided a coherent and systemized approach to Muranganwa's description (2016), but haven't yet identified the much-debated terminologies: "paradigm", "design" or "methodology". Makombe's matrix (2017) provided a more supplemented view from a holistic perspective with many details within the research methodology coverage. The author expected a comprehensive adaptation between these two frameworks would help to deliver a clear approach to achieve the research objectives.

3.1.1. 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 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-level 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 to solve the addressed research questions.

The major question of this thesis – identifying and measuring the degree of influence that demographic variables reflect on the decision-making process of consumers – was an inquiry of socio-economic principles. The theoretical domains of this research (demographic variables, consumer decision-making process and domestic tourism) are familiar themes of marketing research where traits of samples were identified and analysed before reaching conclusions. These tasks were conducted on the ground of justified scientific principles, and analyses were also proven with validated logical or mathematical instruments. This common format was adopted by precedent researchers of similar topics and was also followed in this thesis. Therefore, positivism was perceived by the author to be the appropriate paradigm to identify this thesis.

3.1.2. Research assumptions basis: Ontology and epistemology

The systemized assumptions and philosophical stances are underestimated among both the works of professional scholars and even more so in the studies of lower levels (undergraduate students to master level research). The absence 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 toward the scholars’ “sometimes lack of time or inclination” to do so.

Researchers following the positivism paradigm (whether implicitly or explicitly stated) often dive straight towards quantitative methods, hence empirical models were used without much attention to the meaning 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 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 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 still exhibitions or consequences 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 decisions. 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, the illustration of epistemology has emerged as soon as the author engaged in the tasks of gathering knowledge and reviewing the literature. The importance 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). While academic and practical studies have provided corresponding theories to each of the academic domains in this research as presented in the previous chapter, it has yet to reach an agreement in nature of the targeted phenomena due to their being of social science fields (i.e., demographic factors and consumer decision-making). On the other hand, the object of study is either human nature or expression of human activities to the external environment, it was possible to construct understandings and examine their validation with the empirical method

3.1.3. Philosophical stance

Researchers have argued 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 arguments of the influence of researchers' perspectives over their assumptions in 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 mindset 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), research is considered qualified in positivism when it achieves all four elements of internal validity, external validity, reliability and

objectivity. In realistic terms, a social scientific study can hardly be 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 to research activity who are short in worldview perception, applying positivism is not entirely a drawback. In addition, scholars' products also tend to be painted by their values and beliefs (ibid). Finally, despite the shortcomings and criticisms, positivism has yet to be eliminated, proving its necessity and suitable to the emerging topic in parallel with consecutively developed philosophies.

3.1.4. Research approach

Similar to the discussion involving research paradigm or methodology, there were also inconsistencies in the literature of what is considered a research approach. According to the research onion (Saunders et al., 2007), the research approach is translated as either a “deductive” or “inductive” concept, while Makombe's table (2017) suggested similar terminologies for the research paradigm, and the 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 for the “approach”.

Since the author has selected the positivistic philosophical stand, the research approach should also match this paradigm. In a holistic view, the objective of this thesis leans toward the scientific method of using an existing body of knowledge to develop new hypotheses and either accept or reject them, through extracting and analysing data representing the population. In addition, the procedures to conduct hypothesis testing would match with the deductive style, as 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 one, 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 character through each research rather than committing strictly to a single approach. This is often the case where employed instruments can be flexibly designed to collect information using both methods. 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. Consistent with the pre-establishment of positivism paradigm and the nature of this research topic, the author deduced that empirical structure would be a logical approach, followed by the rational choice of quantitative instruments with statistical tools, to achieve the identified aim and objective identified in the beginning.

Overall, the research methodology established for this research was built up from the foundation of the author's ideology and reconsideration of worldview perspective involving the topic's field of academy. By addressing these issues, it provides more insight and reason of choice that many studies have overlooked. There were also insufficient distinctions in the setting of the subsequent method and tools. The sequence of the research methodologies can be simplified as previously depicted of Patel (2015) (Appendix 3)

3.1.5. Research design

Instead of dividing the research design into fragmented sections as demonstrated by the Research onion (Saunders et al., 2007), the author integrated subsequent layers of the model under the heading of the research design. For the purpose of this study, the definition of the research “design” was considered as a process to formulate the predetermined paradigm and approach into a comprehensive structure with detailed tasks. Since the elements and components of the research topic are not new discoveries or concepts per se, it is appropriate for 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, lack of methodological approach and paradigm has caused a deficiency in a valid basis for the selected research tools among most of the Vietnamese quantitative-oriented papers. In most cases, the validity of the selection was covered by tracing adaptation of the selected instrument to match up with the research

objectives. To avoid this flaw, the researcher would like to emphasize the corresponding importance attached to each part of the research methodology as well as their interconnection to the overall status of research methodology.

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 a preliminary evaluation of data with descriptive statistics of the sample acquired, which is then followed by further empirical analysis. Extensive hypothesis testing would start with the examination of the validity of the measurement scale by Cronbach alpha value, Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Correlation testing in respective order.

Questionnaire design

The survey questionnaire is structured following a common template design, with few adjustments to align with Vietnamese consumer characteristics. The two-part questionnaire was divided into five major sections. The first section listed ten items corresponding to the nine demographic traits (i.e., 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 past journeys). The second part consisted of four sections, corresponding to the four stages of the consumer decision-making process. Each query was consistent in design and wording in a straightforward manner so that respondents can easily understand them, and avoid unnecessary mistakes later in coding. The frequency of travelling question covers quantified perimeters of suitable interval gaps and avoids overlapping in the range between successive sequences. Subsection queries under each of the four main sections are opinion ratings of personal experiences subjected to a provided statement, all of which were measured using the Likert five-scale measurement.

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 the Likert scale to represent degree of preference (from "disagree" to "agree") means applying a quantitative scale to measure a qualitative tendency. This is a common practice in quantitative research due to the ease of treating data meanwhile conclusions based on a scale depiction should be better understood in ranking term rather than mathematical meaning. However, the common employment of model structuring tools often highlights this meaning in favour of 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 were a few more important points when the author designed the demographic inquiries of this survey questionnaire:

- 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 life: 18 – 25, 26 – 35, 36 – 45, 46 – 55, 56 – 65 and over 65. The first group consists of young consumers, most of whom are still at the final stage of learning and starting applying for jobs, while others might have already accumulated a few years of working experience. The second group identifies people who have been working for several years and may as well have achieved certain positions in their career path; also, many may have begun 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 the 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).

- The two major cities – Ha Noi and Ho Chi Minh – were addressed as separate geographical units to the other five regions, due to their significantly 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 of not just significant in size for each region but also enable a diversity display in demographics for any region included. Even with these two criteria satisfied, there is also a need to separate the possible effect of different social classes within each region as well as weighing the immigration impact. These requirements would generate additional pressure to the selection of the sampling process but might not validate a visual degree of 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 fields into one category

(banking and financial services). In other instances, some positions would still classify under one industry even when the profession belongs to another industry, for example: the food industry covers a vast network that, if fully listed, would include the 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 a 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 each other more than those who work in a cross-segment 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 a high frequency of travelling). 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 the 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.

Pre-test and adjustment of the survey questionnaire

Newly constructed questionnaires are susceptible to flaws from a minor degree (e.g., wording or presentation) to the grave mistakes in content structure, unintentional bias and leading opinion questions. A 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 variety of demographic traits, spread among most of those included in the actual questionnaire. After one week, the researcher collected the results and made

appropriate modifications before consulting with the supervisor for final evaluation and official mass distribution.

The benefit of doing a pre-test would be to collect data in face-to-face format; thereby, the interviewer could identify any changes in the attitude during the process, as well as applying follow-up inquiry for further probation. However, concerning the limit of resources and means to approach selected audiences, the researcher resorted to the usage of the web-based method to produce close results while also to benefit by diversifying the geographical dimension of the sample. At the end of the draft questionnaire, the researcher enclosed a short semi-structured inquiry addressed to the preliminary chosen participants regarding the following issues:

- Was the questionnaire too long or too short? Were there any inquiries that need 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 need to be completely cut out?
- Was the questionnaire capable of covering every aspect of the topic?
- Were the current design and wordings cohesive and unambiguous?

Upon summarising the feedbacks, few common concerns were highlighted from the order of questions, the usage of formal language and content that are not familiar to Vietnamese consumers. Therefore, the following adjustments were incorporated into the questionnaires:

- The inquiry about income was converted to monthly term instead of international annual income format.
- The inquiry about the immigration effect in the geographic factor was omitted.
- The inclusion of individual roles in family alteration was re-evaluated.

Hypothetically speaking, this is still a potential feature with high compatibility to other demographic attributes 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 a highly customized questionnaire to arrive at said 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 (i.e.,18) and was then divided into 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 the early 60s

but 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.

- The decision to use the Likert scale measurement of 5 degrees was reaffirmed. Multiple items with a deep categorized system of measurement would require respondents to spend more time reading and understanding 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 is 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 for Vietnamese respondents.

- Few minor adjustments were made in the wordings and some academic terminologies were simplified to the general understanding of the mass consumer.

Among the initial group of pre-testers, the researcher had acquired consent from six individuals who agreed to attend the next phase of this 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.

The choice of statistics instrument for hypothesis testing

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 that detachment of new contexts established by any topic 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); however, the value of customized studies is rarely able to catch up with the movement of concurrent socio environment. With regards to the technical aspect of the quantitative study, scholars often encountered multi-collinearity phenomenon for

hypotheses that involve multiple independent variables. This incident becomes more frequent when surveys included components with close meaning which can confuse participants' judgement. This matter has been resolved through the calculation of the 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 values without too much significant difference (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Since neither the assumption of reliability is an assurance over the homogeneity nor the internal consistency is proven to be more sufficient (Green et al., 1977; Cortina, 1993), tighter assessment views often deem alpha value to be lacking for this assessment. For this reason, the alpha value is just one of the fundamental values for empirical research and needs to be incorporated with other descriptive analyses (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 the 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 for empirical research

As previously mentioned, recognizing which type of data each variable identified with is important to match with corresponding empirical tests. 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 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 addressed the “examining the influence” question concerning one group of variables towards another group(s), each method has a different requirement for the data input. The T-test and ANOVA analysis compare the mean between dimensions of nominal category against continuous variables or measurements with continuous attributes. Likert scale, on the contrary, is a discreet gauge with a 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, meaning neither T-test nor ANOVA was a suitable solution. Chi-square is limited by its scale and is divergent of measurement as a bivariate analysis, thus it is not appropriate for applying in multiple correlated examination.

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 standards for the correlation test administration, it is always possible to find a correlation between variables with the only difference lying in the volatility of the coefficient value.

Although both correlation and regression tests are categorized as multivariate distribution analyses that can simultaneously address these research hypotheses, the researcher found the latter type to be more appropriate in this case. 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 differentiation between dependent and independent variables 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 hasn't been a universal consensus for alpha value range, and the basis of acceptance threshold is more likely an experience-based task (Plummer and Tanis Ozcelik, 2015). Although it is desirable for alpha value to be high, yet a level too high (> 0.95) would also indicate the risk of potential multicollinearity (Gardner, 1995; Sijtsma, 2009). In addition, low alpha value does not

necessarily need to be rejected in every case either as long as the researchers can provide a satisfying interpretation (Cronbach, 1951; Schmitt, 1966). In fact, 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 (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 a 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 has been very divisive. There were opinions which considered them to be supplementary applications and expected that the combination of both methods would deliver more accurate results. The disclaimers side, on the other hand, disapproved of this practice and deemed it unnecessary with the potential of severing results consistency. Furthermore, the strict confinement when using 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 novel 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 a more fitting justification toward EFA than CFA conditions.

It is essential to recognize that reported criticism over EFA and its components did not stem from the philosophical approach or 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 results emerged for the Bartlett test (Dziuban and Harris, 1973; Dziuban and Shirkey, 1974). Both tests can be found within the descriptive function of the 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 the default set up in conventional software packages (Costello and Osborne, 2005), even though the applications of PCA have been criticized (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Preacher and MacCallum, 2003). 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 turns into a serious issue when analysis is used on 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; meanwhile, PCA does not make such distinction and components represent both types of variances.

Other highly recommended alternative options include maximum likelihood (ML) for normal distribution samples and principal axis factoring (PAF) for non-normal distribution samples (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 presence of multivariate normal distribution with linear interrelationships. Even so, ML is still found to be less accurate than PAF on rare occasions (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 limited 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 for common practice.

In conclusion, after 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 also essential, even more so 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 method purpose dictates. Another reason is the substantial errors found in the case of under-extraction or an over-extraction condition, both of 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 on a 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 even when this standard was met (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. This is 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 being biased. 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, aka. Velicer's 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 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 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 displays a tendency to underestimate the number of components to be retained, especially in case of first eigenvalues generated to be significantly greater than the rest, leading to false extraction of the component factors (Beauducel, 2001). 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 being considered to possess the highest level of accuracy for predicting the number of factors, the precision of the Comparison Data method has been limited up to five factors with the researchers' suggestion of further testing for larger scale scenarios.

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 main 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 assumptions. 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. For items with single loading, there is also uncertainty of their fitness to the latent factors. This drives practitioners to put more effort into how to verify each of these items' validity, and what decisions are required to handle the multiple loading variables. The general agreement is that items with factor loading values 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. In practice, the acceptance value is advised to be based on the size of the sample, on the basis that a higher sample size would need a smoother acceptance range but no 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 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 is 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 in 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 models, 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 tends 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 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 its original meaning, and there is no means to know whether it falls into the linear or nonlinear type in each context. Therefore, selecting the linear model is preferred, despite the possibilities of not fitting into the data set. On that basis, the author would check on the assumptions of the data sets before selecting the fitness regression analysis.

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 which won't be easily influenced by the survey questionnaire, meaning it is highly unlikely for consumers to face disruption changes in their demographics or opinions about the purchasing tourism service in 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.

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 critical point 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 timing value of findings (provided that the research activity is completed on time). But it also implicates potential delays should any disruptions occur during any research phases. Since there is not much time for 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 approach and consistency of the procedure, any anomalies or deviations in any single stage would lead to errors to the next one in this sequence, stacking to influence the outcomes. Adopting random sampling methods is not always a feasible choice for socio-economic studies, which raise the concern of the trade-off made between the level of control over the subjects and the representativeness of the sample chosen. 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 mistakes being made when entering information and translating the results could lead to the elimination of qualified elements. Moreover, not many abstract concepts in social science are officially recognized as consistent constructs, thus each interpretation of a concept comes with a variant setting derived from reference subjects used 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 this 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.

Data collection and analysis

Population

Identifying a research population implies firstly, understanding who the target audiences are, thus determining a proper approach for the research; and secondly, knowing the targeted population which would help in making a better decision for calculating the sample size. The recorded population of Vietnam has exceeded 96 million by 2019, but not all of them can either afford or are willing to travel. Nevertheless, the actual capable domestic tourists would still make up a significant segment, reaching 85 million visits by 2019 according to the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism. After contemplating this issue, the author decided to take this figure as the determined population for this research (by the time the methodology was determined and surveys were in progress). Due to the massive scale of the population, be it the “real” number or the speculated records of arrival tourists, it would make no difference in the method of establishing sample size and statistic formula adopted for unknown or known large population in the following section

Sample and sampling

The sample size is an important issue when carrying out quantitative research. A large sampling size is necessary by default when engaging in quantitative studies. In statistics principles, increasing the size of the selected sample will lead to a corresponding increase in statistically significant value, meaning the sample characteristics would be more linearly related to reach the population’s traits. Nevertheless, it is always impossible to achieve the ideal sample scale because of constraints in funding and time. The concern over sample size would be then rephrased to “What is the optimal sample size to be statistically significant for the research?”

There are three ways often used to determine sample size. The first one is calculated based on the extraction of known statistical information from the targeted sample (e.g., standard deviation), which is normally acquired from precedent studies of similar topics. For exploratory research or topics with less reference material, these values are not readily available. Thus, the next alternative method is based on two measures: the margin of error and the confidence level (or equivalent constant value based on these measures). The advantage of this application is that both indexes are not too dependent on 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 would deliver the same conclusion (assuming a similar confidence level, the margin of error or equivalent constant deriving from these two factors) and is normally recommended at 384 units (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). Therefore, a further increase in sample size would not be necessary, but there is no opposition for researchers to do so if they can afford it. 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 for large uncountable population presented in Appendix 4.

Further to deciding on the sample size, it is impossible to reach a perfect 100% response rate if the number of surveys issued is only equal to the sample size estimated (i.e., 385 survey questionnaires for the 385 respondents calculated for this study). Therefore, the actual recruitment of survey participants would have to account for a larger audience. Given the characteristics of the research topic and the author's personal experience in former projects in similar fields within consumer behaviour, the response rate for the study is expected to be 70%. The actual number of questionnaires to be distributed would then be determined at 550 ($= 385/0.7$). Taking into account the resources and time constraints for this research, the researcher deemed this size acceptable compared to the norms of social science-oriented research or by any standards 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 a heavily skewed sample, thus, the solution in practice was to rely on 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 a 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 an online survey distribution service (SurveyMonkey) and publishing via social network platforms (Facebook). Through the SurveyMonkey, the researcher is expecting with certainty the responses of 125 participants within a fixed period (randomly chosen by the service providers with respondents' profile matching with this study population). 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 to judge the need to extend the floating time for questionnaires published online. 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 tourist sites in Ha Noi (accounting for the majority of the responses), Huong Pagoda complex in the outskirts of Ha Noi, Fansipan peak, and Sa Pa province in late 2018. Since the questionnaire required a long time for respondents to read, comprehend and respond, they were distributed first to visitors who showed willing to participate to complete within their daily trip to these sites. The process took up to 10 days to complete, coinciding with the same time as online distribution.

Collecting data and data analysis method

The data in this research consisted of secondary sources from previous literature records and a customized designed questionnaire from a suitable sample (primary data). To be specific, articles and journal papers were browsed and chosen, based on the mentioning of keywords such as “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 guidance to identify the possible gaps and perspectives explored so far in precedent contributions. Instead of placing attention on the common approach route of “introduction and interpretation”, the focus for theoretical analysis aimed toward critical debates for each aspect of the conceptual domains (as delivered in chapter 2). 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 survey questionnaires to large-scale samples as discussed in the previous section. Since the formulation of the research subject, the targeted subjects were determined to be “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, without strict requirements 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 a particular subgroup's demographic profile within communities, thereby 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 a small-scale sample. However, given its versatility in locating potential homogeneous participants and adding to the diversity of geographic attributes, the author found it a suitable method in this case. Snowballing is also categorized as a non-random sampling method; however, according to Lunenberg and Irby (2008), applying a non-random sampling method over a large diversity of distributed selection from the population could partially reduce the bias attributed to a certain extent.

In addition to being a quicker method that returns a varying profile range of respondents, an online survey using a 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 completing the survey, with and without the interviewer's presence. Because of this, the answers are free from subjective influence by default, yet also limiting any further follow up and probing questions 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 in consumers' demographics. Although simple by nature, descriptive analysis has its own merit in forming the initial basic illustration of the sample in terms of its structure and distribution. This information would later prove to be useful in conjunction with the in-depth analysis processes.

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 their respective summary results. 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

3.2. Accessibility issue

The tourism industry, especially 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, potential risks (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 take part in the survey.

Participants were asked for their consent before being requested to join the survey. For the online questionnaire, this notification was introduced on 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 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 at 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.

3.3. Ethical considerations

When conducting this research, the author 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 getting acceptance for conducting this thesis, the author also applied for ethical clearance from the University of Wales Trinity Saint David and was later obtaining approval before engaging in the data collection process. The purpose of this clearance was to mitigate the potential risks that might be inflicted on the author and participants of this research and present as the commitment of the author to abide by the generally accepted principles in performing research activities. The preliminary test did not fall into the jurisdiction of this clearance; however, it was still carried out with similar treatment to that of the official survey distribution. For the online version of the survey questionnaire, a separate page was designed to ask for the consent of the participants. This page includes a brief description of the research topic, followed by a depiction of maintenance procedures for confidentiality and anonymity standards. The specific ethical conducts for this research were maintained according to the submitted forms upon finishing:

- Given the content of this research, which does not require the collection of any sensitive element or involve any interactive experiment, it was less likely of a concern that any harmful conduct would occur for the author, the assistants and surveyed participants. 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 participate in the survey or not. Participants' involvement was over once they finished the survey. In the questionnaire, there were no records of traceable information that could be used to deduce each of the participants' identities.

- 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.

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 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 also used sparingly when they are truly needed, leaving most of the content to the author's own writing.

3.4. Reliability and validity

3.4.1. Reliability

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 order to ensure the trustworthiness of the data collected, the author gathers all the completed questionnaires and later separated them into two groups: the online questionnaires and the printed questionnaires and have them coded according to the codebook (Appendix 5). This is a two-step process: the author and one assistant performed independent coding according to the assigned group (the author proceeded with the printed versions while the online data input was dealt with by the assistant). Afterwards, the input data was given to the person who was not involved with the input process to double-check for any possible mistakes. Finally, without any further problems confirmed for the whole data collected via the survey questionnaire, the joint record was transferred under the author's management for maintenance and extraction for the hypotheses testing stages.

3.4.2. Validity

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 intention to extract relevant

knowledge and organize it into a consistent literature system, together with the ability to form an academic judgement and critically evaluate the available data and information. Each of the adaptations of the statistical tool was established with references to precedent research as demonstrated in “The choice of statistic instrument” under section 3.1.5

3.5. 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 documents of similar content through online databases. Journal articles have mostly been extracted from professional online magazines of scientific bodies and while many of them are published with public access to them, a few others needed the settlement of fees to acquire the access right to the full 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 of the responses’ status at no additional cost. The author also acquired voluntary assistance from a colleague with expertise in academic surveying, and thus was able to receive aid with field experience and processing of the database.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1. Overview of Vietnamese consumer characteristics

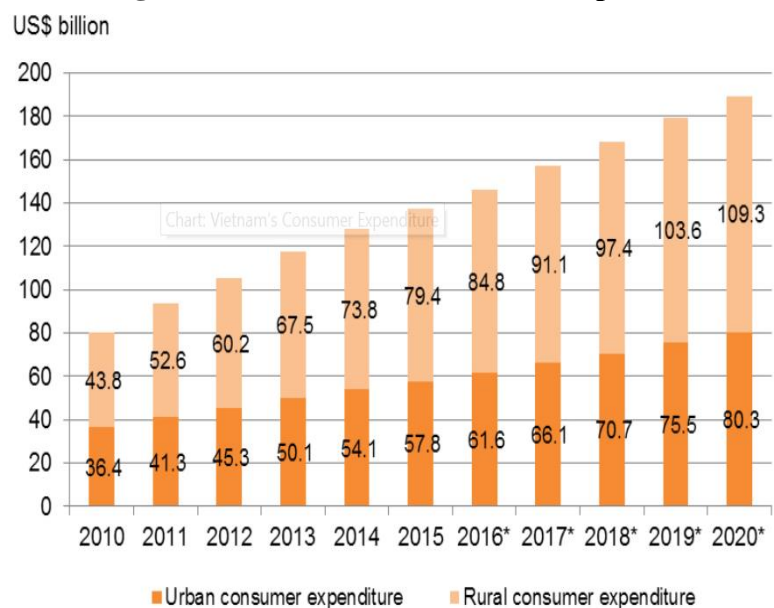
4.1.1. Economic and social background

According to the latest available United Nation’s record and the country’s own estimation (danso.org, 2020; General Statistics Office of Vietnam, 2021), the Vietnamese population had surpassed 97 million and currently ranks 15th on the global scale. The current Vietnamese population has increased over 1.5 times compared to the records of 1986 (The point of Renovation policy issued) and twice the number of 1975 (The Reunification year). The country also boasts a young population structure with an average age of 30.9 and maintains a stability rate of 70% residents under the age group of 15 to 64 ever since 2009 (Ministry of Planning and Investment General Statistics Office of Vietnam, 2009; Statista, 2021). On the other hand, it was also noted that the growth rate has slowed for the 10-year period to 2019 compared to the previous time span (Huy, 2019). As a consequence, an aging trend was predicted to be the next development of Vietnamese population as a result of reductions in the birth rate and increases in life span (Nguyen, 2017).

Urbanization continues to grow with the increase of new city/town units, and the five major cities (Ho Chi Minh, Hanoi, Hai Phong, Nghe An and Vinh) were still the centres with high resident density rates (International Enterprise Singapore, 2014). The urban population has accounted for more than one-third of the country’s total population, and this rate is expected to reach 60% by 2050 (danso.org, 2020).

During the 2010-2016 period, rural consumer expenditure rose by more than 90% (HKTDC Research, 2017), which was significantly greater than the rate of 69% from the urban sector (Figure 4.1). However, the gap in consumption power for both groups started to narrow to approach an equal status.

Figure 4.1. Vietnam’s Consumer Expenditure



* Estimate/forecast

Source: Euromonitor cited by HKTDC, 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 years have prolonged the growing pace and gradually improved social and economic conditions in both urban and the rural areas. In particular, many provinces have been promoted into industrial specialized zones thanks to foreign and government joint investments. Up until 2017, there were 326 industrial zones spreading out through 61 of the total 63 provinces and cities in Vietnam (Bnews, 2018). Despite this widespread and substantial growth, the overall development planning for these industrial zones hasn't yet addressed persistent issues such as the shortcomings of supportive industrial segments, fragile networks between industrial zones, failure to maintain environment quality... Consequently, these industrial and economic zones are still far from reaching the outlined expectations of an overall efficiency and sustainable development (ibid). In the national economy, there are urgent concerns over the high dependency on exploitation of natural resources; meanwhile, bureaucracy, lack of transparency and abuse of power are still proven as long-term hindrances to the prospect of development (Pham, 2017).

In major cities and their satellite regions, available jobs in both private and foreign-owned businesses are tending toward skilled labour and high-education graduates. The growth of manufacturing agricultural sections in suburban and rural regions was improved by general improvements in working conditions and stable export demand. By renting out unused farmlands between families and financial support from migrated workers, the economic and social structures are regulated and maintained in balance between regions (Nguyen, 2017). Furthermore, villages that are in close proximity to industrial and economic zones also gain benefits in workforce redistribution for residents and economic opportunities to provide accommodation, commodities and services for said industrial workers.

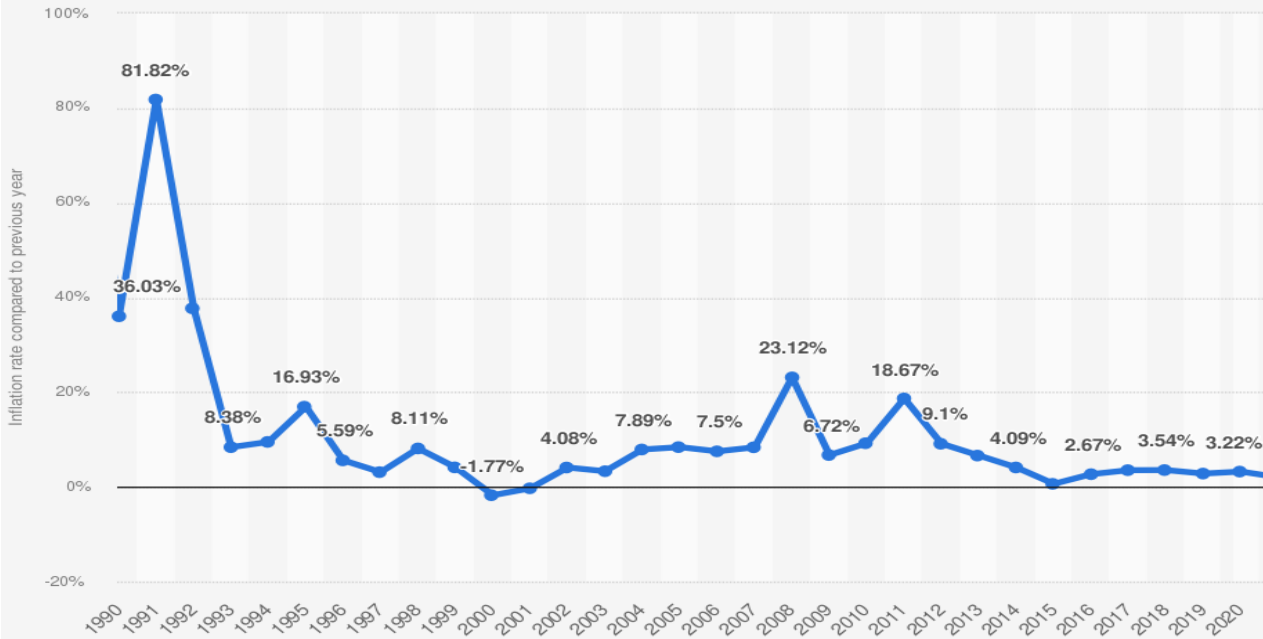
Overall, Vietnam has experienced a robust reduction in the unemployment rate and achieved steadiness in economic growth and welfare benefits (World Bank, 2018). Surprisingly, the unemployment rate in rural areas was lower than the rate recorded in urban areas, determined at 1.9% compared to 3.2%. The explanation for this came from the overabundance of migration to cities from rural regions. The majority of migrant campaigns before 1990 were directed by government programmes whereas after this point, such movement came from personal volition of a better lifestyle with a better job and earning capacity (Nguyen, 2017).

Vietnam has delivered an image of a steadily growing economy for years, which has been demonstrated by an average growth rate of 6.2% in GDP since 2007 (calculated using data of General Statistics Office in 2019). All sectors have experienced a comparatively 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 have been imbalances in the economic structure and performance where a large share of the contribution toward GDP was generated by foreign-invested enterprises and the cash flow has leaked mainly to their respective “mother” countries. The “lenient” regulations and favouritism policies to attract investment were addressed as the tipping points that create a significant advantage for the FDI (foreign direct investment) enterprises. Before concluding their study, the researchers emphasized a tendency of gradual increase in the national import/export structure from the FDI enterprises’ share against the decline of the domestic sector’s (ibid). As noteworthy as these arguments are, they also invite additional re-evaluation and elevation. Firstly, the point of this study is founded upon an examination of the generalization between three major forms of entity ownership in Vietnam: state, non-state and foreign investment. In reality, the existence of other hybrid economic entities and their interdependency tends to eclipse individual meaningful impact, especially on the account of numerous small and medium scale enterprises in large-scale supply chains. The second remark stems from the authors’ pessimism over governmental rigidity in tax and incentives toward enterprise operations, which is not necessarily a retained feature in long term development by both legislation and economic aspects. Finally, there have also been noticeable signs of improvement and expansion in recognizable terms of scale and performance from Vietnamese domestic enterprises in recent years.

The risk of inflation has emerged on a regular basis within the development of Vietnamese economic history. After the introduction of the Renovation policy, inflation status in Vietnam has been gradually brought under control. The hyperinflation rate recorded at 774.7% in 1986 was gradually brought down to just over 67% in 1990-1991 (Minh Duc, 2008) and predominantly maintained below the threshold of 10% in the following years (World Bank, 2021; O’Neill, 2021). However, other than the early 1990s, the comparable inflation rates were also found to be exceptionally high in 2008 and 2011, being determined at 23.12% and 18.67% respectively (Figure 4.2). Moving beyond external factors such as the global financial crisis during 2007-2008 and subsequent disruptions originated from either natural or political events, inflation or deflation are still the results

of the national government’s fiscal and monetary policies (as is best represented in the context of 2011). Furthermore, given that petrol and gasoline are still an essential input in every economic activity, the frequent rises in prices of these fossil fuels would subsequently pull along commodity prices, which in turn lead to an overall upsurge in inflation – as measured by the Consumer Price Index.

Figure 4.2. Inflation rate of Vietnam from 1990 to 2020 (Compared to the previous year)



Source: Statista, 2021

4.1.2. Vietnamese consumer characteristics

Age group discrepancies

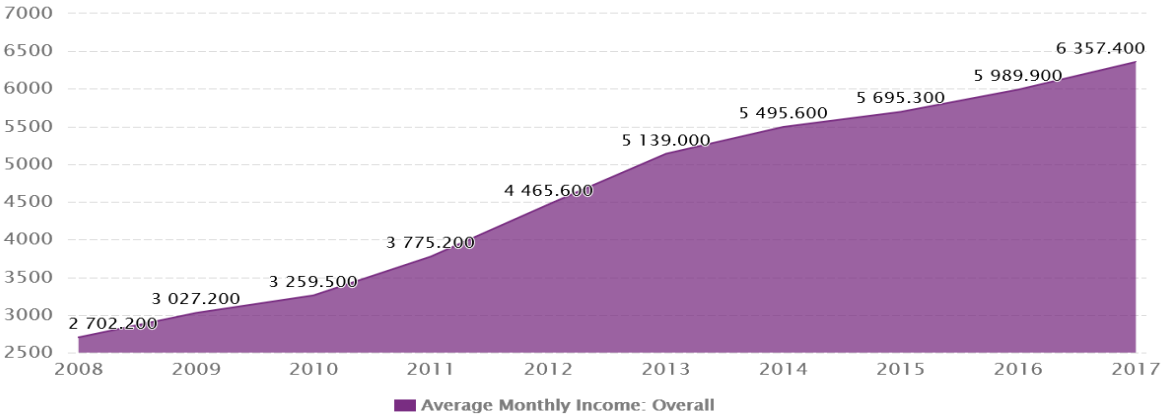
Nearly a century of colonization has brought fundamental changes to Vietnam’s economic and social structure from the previous imperial settings. In positive terms, Vietnamese people were exposed to western culture and a comparatively advanced lifestyle during this period. The local wealthy class and some of the middle-class members of society 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 Boomers” and “Generation X” ended up either being recruited by the national liberation army or being sent to work and learn in the Soviet Union or other Socialist countries. Those who returned from overseas normally brought back sizeable assets and often acquired substantial benefits. As they returned, many joined the ranks of Vietnamese middle or higher social classes. If choosing the milestone as the post-wars period, then the equivalent of “Baby Boomers” for Vietnamese consumers lagged behind their counterparts from Europe and

America by about 30 years, which is 1975 instead of 1945 (FE CREDIT, 2016). The follow-up Vietnamese generation was the Millennials, which resembles the general identifiable characteristics. In summary, consumers in Vietnam and other pre-colonized neighbouring South East Asian countries are examples of not following the same generation cohort structure portrayed in Western studies mentioned earlier.

An overview of income background

According to the latest report by McKinsey and Company (Delteil et al., 2021), there has been a surge in Vietnamese consumers’ purchase capabilities, coming not just from the newly joined consumers but also a result of the exponential increase in the share of existing consumers’ income. It also estimated that a potential 75% of Vietnamese population would be classified as consumer by 2030 from the current 40% rate (ibid). 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). The average monthly income of Vietnamese people reported by the General Statistics Office was 6.357.400 VND (approximately 275 USD, Figure 4.3). Even though this measurement has been gradually increasing over the years, Vietnam is still identified as the country at the lower side of middle tier income on a global scale. However, the reliability of this measurement has already been questioned occasionally (Saunders, 2010; Buch, 2012). First of all, the index was acquired through aggregation of the overall gross national income, which is not a realistic reflection for the majority of population. On the other hand, there is also a situation of “under-recorded” data (Bui et al., 2001) in Vietnamese surveys, i.e., difficulties in measuring by orthodox means as seen in cases of rural population residents or freelancers

Figure 4.3. Average monthly income of Vietnamese consumers recorded for period 2008 - 2017



Source: General Statistics Office, 2018

(Nguyen, 2006; Liu, 2008); or state sector workers who can earn unreported bonuses or via unauthorised means (Gainsborough et al., 2012).

Although the GDP index has been delivering a message of steady development over the years, the base level of income is still situated at the lower middle-income scale with considerable gaps across occupations. This may also be one of many reasons that consumers are more reserved in their consumption habits that aside from basic consumption, the portion of saving was found to account for 78% of the available income (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). On the contrary, counter-arguments which reject this proclamation imply that pricing tools are only effective to a certain degree as long as consumers' requirement of certain desires have yet to be satisfied (which is different from the basic level of needs identified in the Maslow Hierarchy). Possessing a high level of purchasing power leads to greater aspirations (Kantar Worldpanel, 2017) but how it is expressed varies between individuals. Some may indulge in overspending to fuel "in-the-moment" satisfaction without regard to people's 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 structure, it could be stated that the middle class constitutes the majority of the population. To be precise, it is shown that a majority of lower-middle class Vietnamese could only be identified with an "enough-to-spend" level of income and only about 13% of them can be justified as "middle class" in global income scales (World Bank, 2020). This means the current structure of Vietnam's so-called middle class was established with most people falling into the category's lower spectrum. Nevertheless, many positive predictions believed in the prospect of exponential growth in the class in the future (Boston Consulting Group, 2013). In fact, the current state of income structure could be considered an achievement of Vietnam in the span of 30 years since the base of the 1990s. For people with lower-than-average income, the demand for luxury items is less significant than meeting daily necessities. Nonetheless, the majority of consumers still share the belief that imported items surpass domestic origin goods of the same type (or even identical ones) in terms of quality. The middle and upper class (office staff and younger professionals) with a high salary level (400 - 800 USD/monthly) tend to seek

branded products and are willing to pay a higher price for what they perceive as a premium quality.

Up until the early 1990s, most of the economic sectors were still being dominated by state-owned enterprises, making it an ideal choice to progress one's own career. This has been subsequently reflected in the social structure with two main classes by job basis: the state worker (could be divided further into elite and small elite components) and the mass (often deemed in general as members of the private sector). Since the international integration and the adaptation of open economic policies took place, the economic structure has been gradually reformed. Due to the general low efficiency of management and operation, the state sector has been constantly restructuring and renovating but lost the attractiveness of being the most desirable choice of employment as it was previously presented (Ly, 2018). By contrast, the temptation of rewarding compensation paid in private sector entities and especially the foreign-invested agencies have engrossed people's interests instead (ibid). Naturally, the distinction in the social class also becomes less impactful, when the economy has been experiencing an overall rise with the growth of multi-sector industries, regulated under the government's mediation.

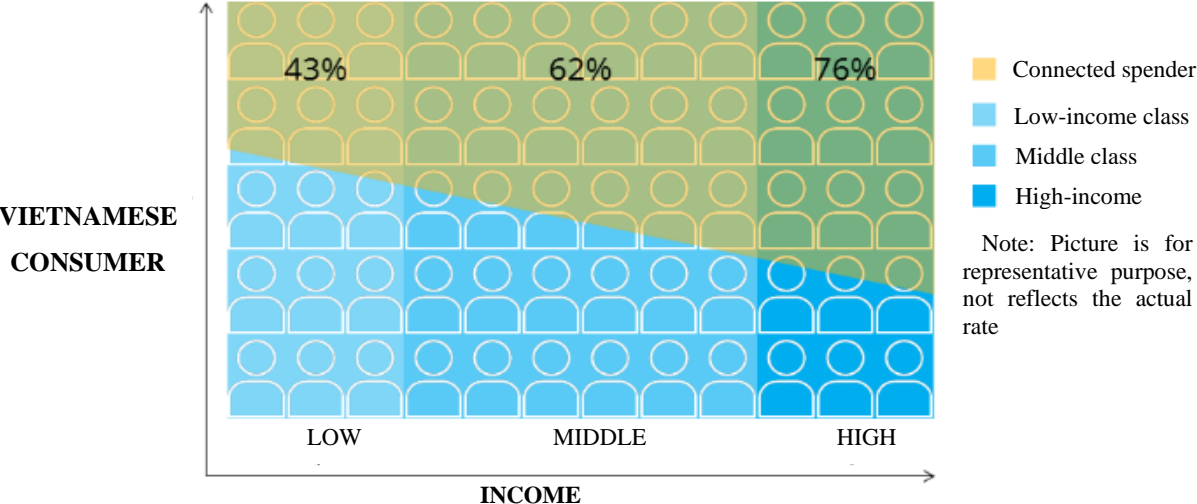
According to the governing policy and the leading doctrine of the Communist Party, the Vietnamese government recognizes its society to be an alliance between workers, peasants and intellectuals. Social class wasn't officially accepted as a source of inequalities and, according to the constitution, all classes and strata are to be placed in equal status and have equal opportunities to access affluent living conditions. In Vietnam's current situation, the concept of "social class" appears in many formal documents, but only as a figure of speech rather than being used to convey the discrimination of status and benefit clashes as dictated by its original purpose. Therefore, the inclusion of this political approach to the social class concept was determined not to be particularly useful for this research topic, and thus was not taken into account in later analysis.

Emergence of a new consumer group – the connected spenders

The latest developments in consumption trends have directed the changes in shoppers' mindsets and socio-economic movements 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 describe the future potential Vietnam consumers – the connected spenders. The concept of a "potential consumer" mentioned in this new term consists of two criteria: a good understanding of digital technology and possessing 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 total annual spending potential is anticipated to be 99 billion USD, occupying half of the total population’s volume (ibid). According to Figure 4.4 and the definition of the term, income is not the only decisive sign to identify the connected spenders, as there are even consumers from the low-income class who are also included in this name tag. Moreover, besides the two mentioned identifiers of the connected

Figure 4.4. Vietnamese connected spender within different income



Source: Nielsen, Q1 2007

spenders, it is also essential to realize that attitude and confidence in consumers’ spending capability also separate them from other segments.

An overview of other demographic characteristics

General assessment using gender as a measurement has been progressing since equality campaigns have emerged on a global scale. The movement has enhanced women’s social standing, resulting in more female participants in economic sectors that were previously considered exclusive male domains. In addition, women also gained social encouragement and recognition to hold senior positions (International Enterprise Singapore, 2014), with increased influence in both social standing and within the family. This transition was especially meaningful in Asian countries with residual gender mindsets on impartiality issues. Regardless, the comparable ratio of women in senior positions, whether in political or business fields, are still very modest. In parallel, those who identified themselves as “non-binary” or transgender also received less prejudice and took part in normal economic and social activities. Overall, this group only accounts for a relatively small portion of the Vietnamese population.

Previously, Vietnamese people were more reserved in their social relationships. The circle of trust and interaction was restricted to family members and certain acquaintances of similar status; thus, the reference groups for any individual purchasing decision also contained members from these circles. Ever since globalization took place and, later on, growth of the internet and innovation in mobile devices, consumers have been exposed to a global network of information and new groups of reference - peer user forums and review websites. In these channels, anonymity has reduced the importance of class and status to an insignificant degree compared to when interaction was made only via direct means. Instead, the only issues that matter are the past users' experiences and their opinions on items under discussion.

In contrast to the theoretical image depicted for the "New generation consumers", this segment in Vietnam has displayed a high level of scepticism against enterprises' marketing campaigns. The popular consensus is rationalized to have been caused by the flooding of accessible information with questionable credibility and validity. According to a survey in 2017 by Isaac and Grayson, it was revealed that previous marketing tactics in which enterprises either employ celebrities as endorsers or hire actors to play the role of peer consumers to give positive opinions for their goods are no longer effective in generating credibility. In addition, advertising messages in traditional media channels have also proven to be ineffective when gathering attention from both old and new generations of consumers. In contrast, it was found that Millennials and later cohorts have displayed more trust in reviews from peer users, especially those from virtual networks. This is still consistent with the consumer's characteristics of being dependent on consulting groups; however, the slight changes lie in new platforms and perceptions of who might be labelled as of "similar status".

Religious practice in Vietnam is a complicated subject, not because of the diversity or existence of multiple different religious schools but because of the nature of practising the religion itself. By default, most Vietnamese people who admit to not following any religion (as registered in their legal documents) are implicitly influenced by Buddhism and Confucius teachings that have long been assimilated into the cultural and ethical norm. On the other hand, religious temples and activities are publicly available so that everyone can gain access regardless of whether they are from the same or different religions, or even atheists. It is also observed that local pagodas often receive large numbers of visitors during festivals or other traditional celebrations. Among those who regularly attend pagodas, their

purpose is not thought to be entirely to practice Buddhism teachings but for other personal reasons; therefore, it can't entirely be considered as religious-intended travelling.

Comparison of urban and rural consumers

Due to the urbanization gradually taking place and the migration toward major cities, the population of rural Vietnam has been diminishing, yet it still accounts for a large proportion (68% in 2014 recorded by Nielsen and 66% in 2016 recorded by World Bank). Compared to their urban counterparts, rural consumers display exceptional bonding with family members and neighbourhoods, 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 of “pioneer” customers 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 fads: on one side, some people welcome the latest consumption trends and attempt to be adaptive, while the “conservative” counterparts still maintain their usual 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, being presented by about 62% of Vietnamese people now already having mobile phones, half of which are smartphones. 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, recorded at 24.7 hours per week.

From studying the consumption pattern of Vietnamese consumers in major cities, Nielsen (2014) identified the presence of spontaneous traits in decision-making. This report 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. Specifically, they exhibit favouritism to international brands in every possible consumption-related discussion. On the other hand, there hasn't yet been a clear conclusion regarding the attitude toward local-made merchandise of the same brand. The decisive reason is that international products have been capable of creating appealing designs coupled with higher quality, whereas domestic items are considered by default to be inferior in either aspect or both. However, recent attitude of Vietnamese consumers when considering the purchase of international origin items have taken a few noteworthy changes:

- Firstly, foreign goods were recently re-established into three major categories based on their origin of manufacture: (1) western goods; (2) Japanese, Thailand, Indonesia... items and (3) Chinese products. Items falling under category (1) are considered to have the finest quality by default and thus hold high status in most consumers' subconscious ranking. Products of category (3) have been flooding into the Vietnamese market for a long time and were once preferred over domestic items due to their visual attractiveness and significantly cheaper price ranges. However, following a series of incidents whereby hazardous substances were detected by national government agencies and/or neighbouring countries' inspection, Vietnamese consumers have become rather cautious and many even turned against any items with "Made in China" labels. The last group, category (2), has gradually gained support in recent years, thanks to their aggressive penetration strategies via their distribution channels and the diminished market share occupied by type (3) products.

- Secondly, Vietnamese-owned brands and locally manufactured items, through slow development, have gradually caught people's attention and gained consumers' support. Similar to the case of category (2) products earlier, this progress has been realized also partly during the decline of Chinese-sourced merchandise, and on the other hand, is the result of the restructuring strategies and overall improvement attempts in quality from domestic businesses. Nevertheless, the unsettled matter existed where the rate of consumer preferences and purchases of domestic goods, though increasing significantly previously, has reduced 18% and 22% respectively for the period 2017 – 2018 (Dang Loan, 2018)

- Finally, the purpose of seeking foreign-made goods has been changing in accordance with economic and social transitions. Vietnamese consumers often admire international goods for their quality when comparing them with domestic equivalents. Therefore, improving the living standards has been set as their initial purpose, and continues to be so.

Purchasing foreign-origin merchandise 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 preference for consuming imported goods also serves as an announcement to the public about the image of a lifestyle (for the middle class), and a statement of individual's identity (for the upper class).

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 scale. 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 the total 141 countries and regions; whereas natural and cultural resources are regarded as highly significant (33 out of 141).

An overview of the tourist traffic since 2000 has revealed trends of significant increase for both international and domestic markets in the Vietnam tourism industry; however, there are periodic fluctuations found in both for these two segments (based on statistics records extracted from Vietnam National Administration of Tourism, 2019 and from World Bank, 2022). Since the international tourist traffic is susceptible by strong influence from global development, it is expected that negative disruptions would occasionally hamper the travelling intention, thus leading to a reduction in the number of international visitors. This event is best demonstrated in 2003 and 2009 where the number of international tourists were found to be lower than their immediate prior years in Vietnam (Appendix 6), i.e., the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) coronavirus outbreak in 2002-2004 and both the lingering impacts from the 2007-2008 financial crisis and swine flu pandemic in 2009. Sporadic impediments can also be seen in case of domestic travellers but no negative developments were found in the growth rate throughout the years. By 2018, the number of Vietnamese domestic tourists reached 80 million, accounting for over 83.7% of the total population recorded (Appendix 7). According to the investigation of Bui and Jolliffe in 2011, these consumers prefer organising their trips personally to purchasing package tours (59.6% and 40.4% respectively), and their major source of information were prioritised in order of friends (40.4%), the internet (28.3%), experience (25.2%), and guidebooks (21.3%). Travel agents, tour operators and brochures only played a minor role (less than 15%) in travel decisions.

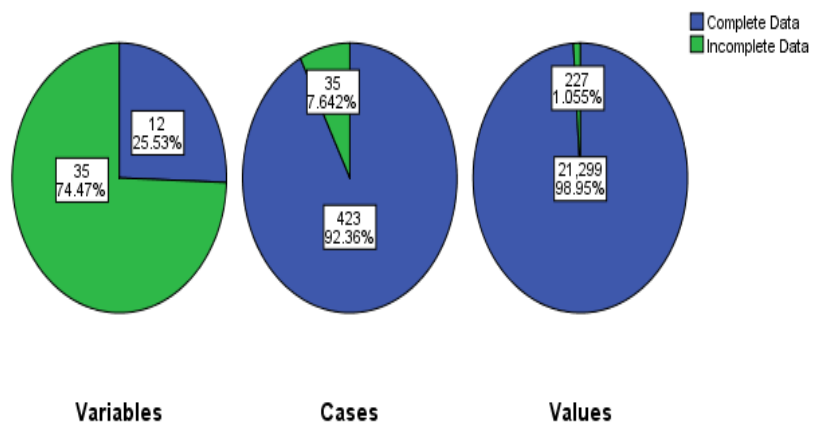
Tourism in Vietnam is repeatedly praised for attracting new visitors from both domestic and international markets, yet the destination image of the country as a tourist site has shown rather limited presence in research. As Nguyen (2019) cited the review study made by Nghiem (2014), stating that none of the literature research on the Asian market had mentioned the Vietnamese’ destination image during the period 2008 to 2012. The lack of Vietnamese tourism consideration in experts’ studies is important for two reasons: it reflects the condition of the country’s status quo and the identity of the Vietnam tourism industry against those of neighbouring regions. There might be counter arguments to the first remark but most of that came from native researchers and to a certain degree, these arguments tend to be subjective. In addition, most of these studies were concentrating on the development of specific sites rather than evaluating the national standpoint. Furthermore, professionals’ reviews of documents and articles can be channels 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 encounters obstacles from the practitioners’ point of view, and this issue is even more difficult for state-governed agencies.

4.2. Overview of the data collected

4.2.1. 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 concerning 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 (Figure 4.5). The “Cases” pie chart

Figure 4.5. Overall summary of missing values



Source: Author

presents the number of samples extracted from research population and “Values” pie chart represents specific responses of each participant for an inquiry and was calculated as a multiplier of variables with cases. Therefore, the actual missing values and cases were insignificant, despite their spanning across multiple inquiries

The degree of missing values among the 35 identified variables was then determined through scanning the severity degree of missing, which are recognized to be extracted from the online channels’ record. There were 12 variables with a serious lack of data. Upon further investigation, the researcher identified 3 variables where participants only chose the highly positive options (4 – “sometimes true” and 5 – “always true”) for one item. This phenomenon is found in constructs involving both alternative selection and mutual exclusive type.

Throughout the gathered questionnaires collected, there are cases where participants didn’t fill in one or several questions but there is still a variety of degree to the answer for other items of the moderate-high choices. As later reconfirmation with these targeted audiences, the blank items were because they either skim through questions too fast and miss some or that they only choose the one option for a single item that is most suitable out of other inquiries included in the same question. Regardless of situations, since other relevant items of the same branch already displayed positive scores, the researcher then treated the blank items with the score of 1 – “not true”. Based on this assumption, the researcher believed it within reason to apply similar treatment for the cases identified with 3 variables missing. Meanwhile, the other 9 records with serious missing data only delivered low score (1 – “not true” or 2 – “relatively true”) for the recorded items, thus there was no basis to make further deductions.

According to the detailed summary report of the missing values, the lack of data only occurred among the identified 35 variables: the missing data were all items belonging to the consumption constructs (question 2.1 to 2.7), while the 12 demographic information inquiries were all filled in. In both alternative and mutually exclusive items induced constructs, the variances 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 with only 1% of the total values throughout the survey database (Figure 4.5) and no component items surpassing 2% cases. Consulting with the proposal to check on the possibilities of using the multiple imputation method by Jakobsen et al. (2017), 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. In addition, the result of Little’s test (1988) returned a significant p-value

level to reject the null hypothesis of data being missing as completely random, and thus, validating the usage of multiple imputations (Appendix 8).

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., perceived connection in the theme 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 use of mean substitution or regression substitution as these two methods have been shown to produce biases 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, this manner can still retain the maximum available data for each variable, with the only exception for operations that involve cases with missing values. The finalized sample size to be used for further analysis would be a total of 450 cases, which still surpasses the required level for significant statistics the author introduced in the initial sampling expectation (385 people).

4.2.2. 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 that chose “other option” for the gender inquiry, meaning the distinction in binary gender use 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 the 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 toward those who are 25 years old or under.

Table 4.1. Sample structure distribution by age

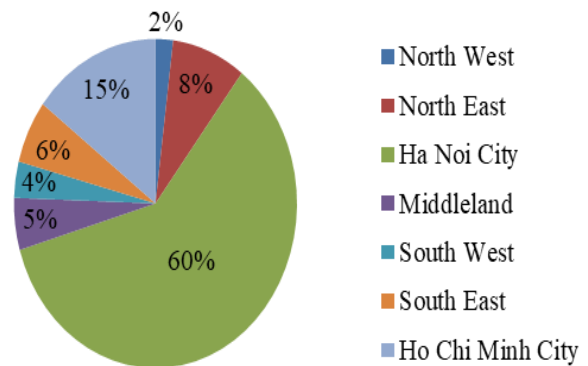
AGE	GENDER			Total
	Male	Female	Other	
18-25	43	136	1	180
26-35	63	61	0	124
36-45	69	41	0	110
46-55	24	1	0	25
56-65	6	0	0	6
Over 65	4	1	0	5
Total	209	240	1	450

Source: Author

Geographic distribution (Question 1.3)

There was a low level of discrepancies among the respondent by geographic criteria. Despite the feedbacks collected being spread over all five regions, the highest amount of response still originated from the two major cities. The highest number of observations was 60% for Ha Noi residents, leaving a huge gap followed by Ho Chi Minh City as the area with the second-highest ratio of responses (Figure 4.6). Other regions registered lower feedbacks, which are all under 10% and the North West region returned the lowest number of participants.

Figure 4.6. Distribution of sample by geographic criteria



Source: Author

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 education level. Specifically, the perceived high education level (Bachelor or Masters) took up 58% of the total sample (Table 4.2), and most of them were working as either full time or part time workers. Since the inquiry had informed 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 both high and low-level education attainment for any given individual (otherwise it would be disqualified and taken out from the sample pool).

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

Specialized career training includes educational programs that place emphasis on the practical skills and experience associated with the corresponding professions. These programmes are official alternatives that shorten the path to a career for those who do not want to go through high school and university, and they also do not draw limits to restrict people’s enrolment. Despite having shorter curriculum and lower entry requirements, these programmes are not the favourite choice of participants, and have far lower attendees. This feature can also be seen among the chosen research sample where only 14 cases of participants (accounting for little over 3% of the total sample size) had graduated from this educational format (Table 4.2).

There is a sharp 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 the “not yet working” participants spread across different professions (Appendix 9). A probable explanation is that the respondents recalled their previous career engagement before the current condition of being (temporarily) unemployed. This is similar to the case of retired participants, which also delivered the same response. The researcher specifically addresses this situation because the initial intention of the “Not yet working” category was to isolate students from the other groups; however, it ended up with a mixed result as recorded. Both the retired rate and the unemployment rate were recorded at a lower rate than 2% of the total research sample.

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 brought about the conclusion that Vietnam has a high proportion of people in the early labour ages and most of them are equipped with educational qualifications of a high degree. This is also

consistent with the Vietnamese population structure profile, and thus, consolidating the representativeness of the sample selection for this research.

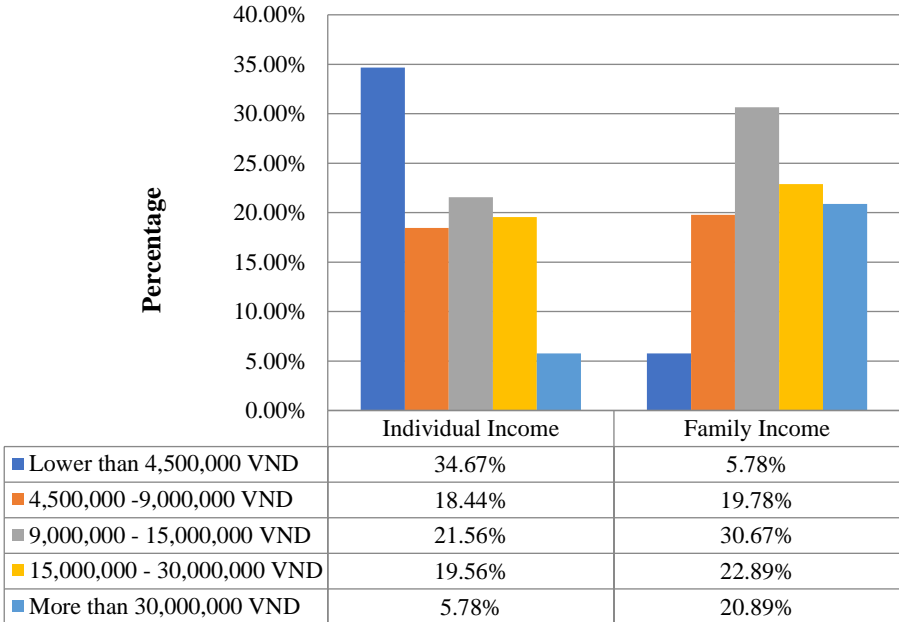
Profession and Income (Question 1.6, 1.7 and 1.8)

It could be observed that the sample data display degrees of divergence among participants; among all the listed professions, the “Student” and “Education/Academic research” options made 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 either 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 can be separated by those who directly serve in the tourism field, including Specialized food shop/Restaurant and Tourism/Lodging services (totalling up to 28 participants), and the others. The exclusion of Retail and Transportation from being counted within the tourism service is because members of these two sectors are not necessary involved in tourism support circles and that there are not many participants working in these sectors (29 from Retail and 10 from Transportation). In the researcher’s perspective,

this distinction could be beneficial since it gives 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 4.7. Summary report of individual income and family



Source: Author

The depiction of income status for the 450 surveyees has indicated a high ratio of low-income earners, with no significant difference among the next three perceived “medium income range” (Figure 4.7). 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, 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 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.

The 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 four single respondents admitted to 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 was found 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. Further calculation also indicates that the average number of children for couples in this research was 1.5 (in both cases including and excluding the “more than 3” option).

The family cycle stages were traced by the following variables: marital status, age, number of children; and when considering the participant of early age range (18 – 35), the author also took into account individual and family income to determine suitable category they belong to. In this study, “young adult” title is applied

Table 4.4. Crosstabulation table between the 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

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 the family cycle, the author would like to address a few assumptions as the basis. 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 on their own if their income level was found to be equal in both the individual’s and the family’s level. Assumption 3), participants who are not students and earn a level of individual income that is either equal to or different only by one level from their family income is considered to be the family chief earner. With all of these assumptions, the researcher identified the following stages in the 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) Retired 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 10 exceptional cases (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 fit the assumption of being “Dependent”, and 291 participants who are the “main earner”. Since the “Dependents” number were more than the members of group (1), it is possible to deduce that not many participants were the main earner of their household, regardless of being single or married. These classifications would be used in conjunction with the information of the frequency of travel, and their disposition when making decisions (using questions 1.11 and 1.12).

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

After taking out the invalid cases (i.e., those who have never travelled), the majority of

the participants (70%) can be classified as either “rarely” or “sometimes” travellers. 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 participants as regular travellers. 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 a family with medium financial background or greater. The standout case of travelling more than once per month was found to mostly involve business trips (recorded 4 points in scale for items 2.1.7 and 2.4.5). Among the 38 “main earners”, only 21 were revealed to have acted 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
	Ratio	24.9%	23.8%	48.7%
Sometimes (from 3 to 6 times per year)	Count	43	146	189
	Ratio	9.6%	32.4%	42.0%
Quite often (more than 6 times/year to less than once per month)	Count	4	37	41
	Ratio	0.9%	8.2%	9.1%
Usually (more than once per month)	Count	0	1	1
	Ratio	0.0%	0.2%	0.2%
Total	Count	159	291	450
	Ratio	35.3%	64.7%	100.0%

Source: Author

Table 4.6 has shown that people with limitations in their family’s financial potency travelled less frequently on an annual basis, compared to other income groups (Table 4.6). They also take up only a small portion of the sample as well. Given the low perceived frequency of travel with “rarely” and “sometimes” options each took nearly half of the sample based on family incomes and the individual income earner role (Tables 4.5 and 4.6), it is debatable whether domestic tourism could be considered a normal commodity for consumption in Vietnamese households.

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 main earners. The latter group of consumers have a comparatively higher presence for the decisive role (Table 4.7), on top of the regularity in travelling earlier. In a separate analysis, the author identified targets among this sample using a combination of gender, main earner/independent, and role in making decisions to address the profile of the main decision maker. There is not much discrepancy between the recorded main earner of family household by gender since the ratio between male/female is 166/125 (Appendix 10). In addition, it can be seen via Appendix 10 that not all of the main income earners are the one who decides to travel, regardless of gender. Overall, there was also not enough evidence to deduce whether the main earners or the dependents were the main decision maker

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

DECISION MAKER		INCOME EARNER		Total
		Dependent	Main earner	
Never applicable to me	Count	52	17	69
	Ratio	11.6%	3.8%	15.3%
Sometimes (less than 25% of the trip)	Count	89	160	249
	Ratio	19.8%	35.6%	55.3%
Most of the case (more than 50% but less than 100%)	Count	13	87	100
	Ratio	2.9%	19.3%	22.2%
Always	Count	5	27	32
	Ratio	1.1%	6.0%	7.1%
Total	Count	159	291	450
	Ratio	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 likely invite subjectivity and inconsistency. Using the suggestion in the literature review chapter (section 2.1.6 and 2.1.7), the author found it plausible that by creating dummy variables via a combination of known demographic inputs from previous questions, the mentioned issues can be partially covered.

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 while 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 on their own. However, examination of those who still live with family and the married would require the additional information of family income, thus the lower-class boundary was expanded to the income level below 9 million VND, middle class ranged from 9 to 30 million VND, and the upper class remained unchanged. In the end, the researcher determined 93 cases belong to 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 information of marital status, number of children, age, income and the financial contribution to the household. The alignment of the initial three variables would be similar to the established system for the family stage, which has also partly adopted the criteria of income status earlier. Therefore, reapplying these sets 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” instead of “family status”.

The “family stages” and the “social class” are post-survey variables, established based on a logical sorting systematically of the existing demographic variables. As a result, the newly assigned values for these two variables would have a high tendency of being correlated with the component variables they were based on (i.e., the multicollinearity phenomenon). Results of the multicollinearity tests (Appendix 11 to 22) have returned satisfaction values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), among which, the highest VIF value was 4.196 in the model between Employment Status and Age as displayed in Appendix 12. 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 either 5 (Rogerson, 2001) or 10 (Kennedy, 1992; Hair et al., 1995), no further adjustment was needed to be implemented on these variables and the two established variables were also validated.

4.3. 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 5). This appendix also contains a list of corresponding answers for each inquiry, which were converted into presentative numerical values.

4.3.1. Cronbach alpha test result

The test of reliability for 35 dependent variables and 423 cases (listwise deletion method excluded the cases with missing data, thus 27 cases were not included) 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) would the alpha value 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 continued elimination of items could cause the alpha value to rise any further.

All the alpha values acquired from 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 the alpha value is generally high for large-scale samples. Therefore, it is essential to take caution instead of just relying on the straight numeric values. 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 comparisons of EFA tests would be made between the two models to reach a better judgement on the decision to eliminate items and which model should be retained in later analysis.

4.3.2. 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 4.8. 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

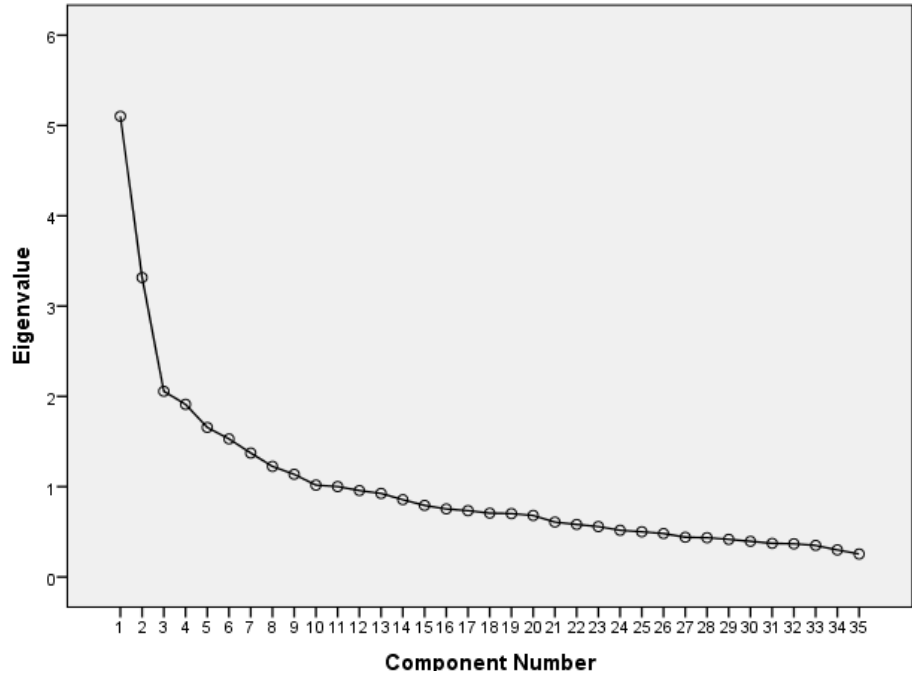
The communalities table shows the degree in variance of each variable accounted for by the extracted factors, i.e., value which is closer to 1 indicates that the extracted factor explains more of the variance for that corresponding individual item. This information provides an additional basis to evaluate 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 (i.e., exhibit a loading value greater than 0.4 or belong to a 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 22 and 23. Both models then received the same method and similar standard employed for the cut-off factor loading, which was mentioned under the factor analysis segment of section 3.1.5

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. On the other hand, the Scree plot test in Figure 4.8 suggested that at the mark of 10 factors, the line first reached a levelling 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 (Appendix 24).

Based on the rotated loading of the pattern matrix, only three factors met the criteria used for retention (under section 3.1.5). This is lower than the indication results of K1, Scree plot and MAP. Table 4.9 depicted the final factor lists for the first model, via the two rotation methods,

Figure 4.8. Scree plot graph of the first model



Source: Author

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 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%	

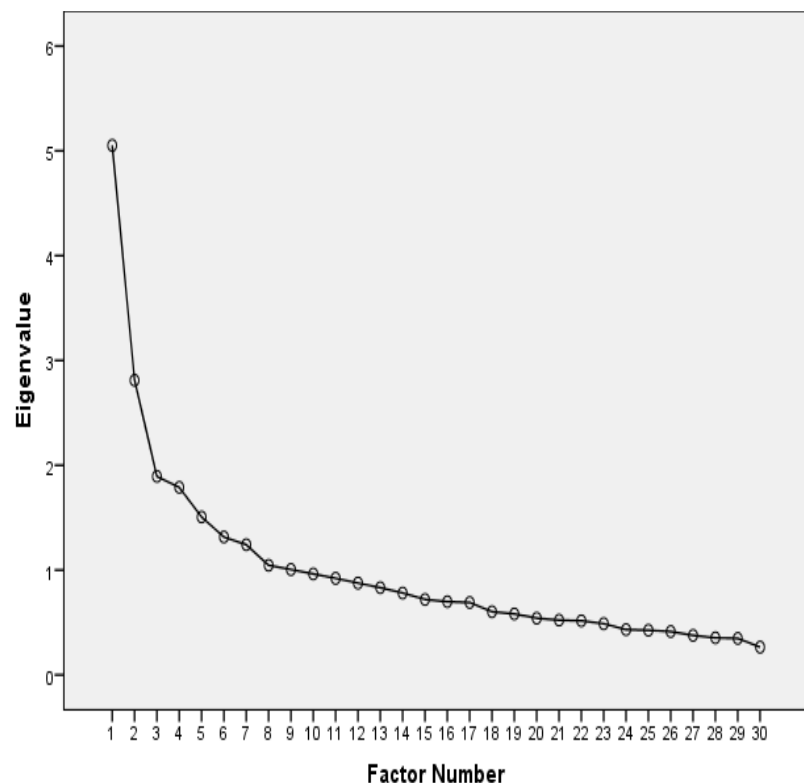
Source: Author

Albeit the direct oblimin rotation produced factors with a higher rate of explained variances, the low alpha value of its second factor would require further re-evaluation. After taking out the item ‘Destination choice 2’, a rerun of factor analysis is compulsory for the overall model. This adjustment leads to the new four factors, extracted with better improvement in factor loading structure, and slightly higher from the explained variances (Appendix 25) compare to 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 the K1 rule, nine factors were expected for this model, accounting for an explanation rate of 58.861% of the total variances. On the other hand, the result of the 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 4.9). In addition, the results of the MAP test, in this case, were also divisive

Figure 4.9. Scree plot graph of the first model



Source: Author

by the format being used: the original MAP (1976) specified five factors to be extracted, while the revised MAP (2000) pointed toward four factors (Appendix 26).

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

	Direct oblimin		Promax (kappa = 4)	
Factor 1	Variables	Loading	Variables	Loading
	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' structures had identical components, while the other two shared many items in common (Table 4.10). Since the promax rotation delivered a 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 more suitable for the principal component than the principal axis factoring. In the result of the parallel test (Appendix 27 and 28), 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 later model provided a better rate of variance explanation, while individual factors also have a high internal consistency level, without any issues for its components. Therefore, the researcher decided to choose the second model made of 30 input variables with four factors loading and promax method employed. The four new factors consisting of a total 15 variables will be named in consecutive order as Preference of destination (Factor 1), Involvement of family member (Factor 2), Destination distance and attachment (Factor 3), and Source of Information (Factor 4). Further demonstrations of the factor loadings and rotation matrix for this model can be found in Appendix 29.

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 a high level of loading into their designated factors. However, this method might not be always superior to the normal sum or the average sum due to its reliance on the extraction and rotation methods (Di Stefano 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 downside is scores estimated via Bartlett or Anderson-Rubin methods are not recommended for oblique rotation when 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 cons of each of these methods, the final choice was that of the weight sum score methods and treat the cases with missing data by 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.

4.3.3. Regression result

Before initiating the regression analysis, the author would like to clarify a few points:

- Evaluating the decision of whether to standardize independent variables or not? Theoretically speaking, this action is often applied to predictors/independent variables

when they are quantified by different sets of measurement. 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 keep 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 abstract concepts of “Family status”, the “Social class” and “Chief income earner of the household” were the deductive products of the initial descriptive analysis, being extracted 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 the scale measurement, the dependent and independent variables of the study can be treated as continuous data types. Given the default assumption of linear correlation exists 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, Education level, Employment status, Profession, Personal Income, Income earner, Family status, and Social class; and the dependent variables included Preference of destination, Involvement of family member, 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-squared of 0.074 for the model with Preference of destination as a dependent variable. The significant level was determined at the 5% level

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's calculation using SPSS

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's calculation using SPSS

According to Table 4.13, only Gender, Age, and Family status were found to be predictors with statistically significant level for the Preference of destination since their p-values are all smaller than 0.05 (respectively calculated at 0.002, 0.001, and 0.036). Specifically, 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's calculation using SPSS

Result of multiple regression with Involvement of family member

The result of the goodness of fit test for the 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 “Involvement of family member” as an 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’s calculation using SPSS

Table 4.15. ANOVA for the model with “Involvement of family member” as an 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’s calculation using SPSS

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 identified that Gender and Family status have a positive impact on the dependent variable, while the effects from Geographic location and Education level are negative.

Table 4.16. Coefficients with “Involvement of family member” 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’s calculation using SPSS

Result of multiple regression with Destination distance and attachment

In the regression model using Destination distance and attachment as independent variables, the result of the 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 being explained by the independent variables that affect the Involvement of the family. Due to this, even if this model was statistically significant, the accountability of variance that this model can explain would not hold much sense in statistical terms, even by the accepted 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. Therefore, the author didn’t conduct further analysis into this factor

Table 4.17. Model Summary with “Destination distance and attachment” as an 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	.025	.003	1.70942	.025	1.110	10	426	.353	2.078

Source: Author’s calculation using SPSS

Table 4.18. ANOVA for the model with “Destination distance and attachment” 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’s calculation using SPSS

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	.128	.107	1.91723	.128	6.171	10	422	.000	1.906

Source: Author’s calculation using SPSS

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
Residual	1551.168	422	3.676		
Total	1777.982	432			

Source: Author’s calculation using SPSS

The statistically significant p-values identified for Age, Education level and Income earner (corresponding at 0.000, 0.048 and 0.046 respectively), allow for the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis that there are influences of these independent variables on the Source of information variable. Besides the adverse influence of Age, the influences derived from other variables are that of positive alignments.

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’s calculation using SPSS

As a summary to the hypothesis testing, the author listed the results of the regression analysis in the following table:

Table 4.22. Summary of the result of hypothesis testing

List of hypotheses	Result of testing
H1: There is an influence of Gender on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service.	Accepted (positively correlated to both “Preference of destination” and “Destination distance and attachment”)
H2: There is an influence of Age on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service.	Accepted (negatively correlated to both “Preference of destination” and “Source of information”)
H3: There is an influence of Geography on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Accepted (negatively correlated to the “Destination distance and attachment”)
H4: There is an influence of Education level on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Accepted (negatively correlated to the “Destination distance and attachment”; positively correlated to “Source of information”)
H5: There is an influence of Occupation on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Rejected
H6: There is an influence of Employment status on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Rejected
H7: There is an influence of Income on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Accepted (positively correlated to the “Source of information”)
H8: There is an influence of Family status on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Accepted (positively correlated to both “Preference of destination” and “Destination distance”)
H9: There is an influence of Social class on the consumption behaviour of Vietnamese consumers when choosing a domestic tourism service	Rejected

Source: Author

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

The literature review chapter has addressed the scarcity of findings with regards to consumer behaviour in domestic tourism research. The most relevant study for this niche topic dated back to a 2011 article by Bui and Jolliffe; therefore, this thesis can be considered a re-statement of the tourism context for the specific Vietnamese domestic segment. Although the solid association of quantitative methods to study consumer behaviour among Vietnamese research, this thesis was carried out with slight adjustments in the topic approach and more so in methodologies.

The author's initial intention was to carry out a hypothesis testing whereby correlations could be identified between consumer demographic variables to their manifestation of decision-making in consuming domestic tourism service. Although this expectation was still possible in the end with a correlated matrix (Figure 5.1), the exhibition for the dependent variables (i.e., the 3 factor loadings) was slightly different from the depiction of the framework in the literature section (i.e., the 5-stage decision-making process). Apart from factor 4, which contain most of the original variables under the "collecting information" stage, factors 1 and 2 were combined from items of different constructs. Therefore, it is expected that there would be certain inconsistencies when considering their literal connection. The findings also revealed a mixed outcome of influence in the sense that not a single independent variable has exerted complete influence over the three final factors. In addition, there are no significant statistical correlations identified for the three demographic variables of Employment status, Profession field and Individual income

Table 5.1. Summarized correlation matrix of the regression analysis

	Factor 1 – Preference of destination	Factor 2 – Involvement of family	Factor 3 – Destination distance and attachment	Factor 4 – Source of information
Gender	+	+	/	X
Age	-	X	/	-
Geographic	X	X	/	X
Education	X	-	/	+
Employment status	X	X	/	X
Profession field	X	X	/	X

Individual income	X	X		X
Income earner	X	X		+
Family status	+	+		X
Social class	X	-		X

Note: (+) Positive correlation; (-) Negative correlation; (X) No correlation

Source: Author

5.2. The influence of gender

Based on the overall distribution of participants by this trait, the effect of genders could revert to being a comparison in 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 record throughout the entire sample. According to the dummy code setting, female was identified with a value of “2” and male corresponded to “1”; therefore, the positive influence recognized from the regression analysis could be translated as correlated dependent factors tend to be found more in female consumers than their male counterparts.

Regarding the “Preference of destination” aspect, female consumers have a higher affinity toward exploring new destinations (as indicated by Priority 5 and Destination choice 2 components) and especially place the priority towards the natural harmony sites (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 greater extent with the conclusion of Norris and Wall (1994) and Meng and Uysal (2008).

Given the gender-based differences identified by this research, it is insufficient to confirm whether previous designation of value to each member in the household and societal structure (Jackson and Henderson, 1995) would continue to be an adequate explanation. As previously mentioned in the literature review chapter, both social perception and the involvement in economic activities have made dramatic changes over the years, especially compared to the 1990s. Changes would then reflect into individual mindsets, lifestyle and consumption behaviour elements. It is also importance to take into account that the “main voice” in households is neither reserved for the main income earner nor does it belong solely to the oldest male member. As a consequence, many previous

stereotypical viewpoints would most likely be outdated, e.g., the implication that the purpose of travel for men would be business and work-related while women tended to be driven by leisure purposes (in Collins and Tisdell, 2002).

Solo travel as a trend has been on the surge since 2016 until the outbreak of the latest pandemic (Nguyen, 2020), and the movement also spotted a greater margin of female travellers in America and European countries (Waught, 2018; Catto, 2018). However, given the difference in life style between these countries and Asian counterparts, said trend has yet to create significant impact in the latter regions (Nguyen, 2020). As per confirmative findings by Foels and Tomcho (2005), the differences between female and male lie not between the sense of either being interdependent or independent - a notion cited by Baumeister and Sommer (1997) – but within the form of interdependence. The positive correlation between gender and Factor 2 does not imply that male tourists do not completely shut out their family member's opinion in the decision-making process or that they don't enjoy travel with these companions. In summary, Vietnamese tourists still bear the homogeneous Asian trait of family-oriented culture.

5.3. The influence of age

In contradiction to the conclusion made by Andreu et al. (2005), age - as a demographic factor - was discovered with a meaningful distinction towards two aspects of the tourism service consumption in this study. Specifically, younger consumers enjoyed the exploration of new travel destinations ('Preference of destination') than their older peers. Theoretically speaking, this finding resonates with the popular depiction of young consumers due to their "adventurous" or a "welcoming to change" attitude, which is opposed to the scepticism and rigid nature of senior consumers. The same deduction could be attributed to the Factor 4 – Source of information – which weighed strongly in web-based sources (Information 4 and Information 6): older consumers with reduced capabilities in perceiving and understanding technology would hinder their approach to utilities provided by modern channels (social platform, forum, and information sites).

It should also be noted that the majority of participants in this study survey come mostly from the young to middle age group while those who aged over 46 accounted for only 8% of the sample. This disproportion of the sample allocation then prompted the researcher with two judgments. Firstly, 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 consumers as two extreme degrees of age in general, the middle age group was left in a grey area with less attention. Therefore, this finding could arguably promote the expansion of the senior characters among even younger clusters, while the broader notion would assume that not all young consumers' behaviours and attitudes fit into the mainstream depictions. For the second implication, since this sample was extracted from the population at a very small scale, the interpretations could vary should a different method in selecting how sample member were chosen with possibly less bias distribution in age structure.

The author also found it necessary to revisit an argument made earlier that projected the replacement of Generation Y for the Anglophonic world as the primary source of visitors in some destinations and tourism attractions (Pendergast, 2010). In this research, the findings also reconfirm the idea of successive generations replacing previous generations to be the new force of consumption. However, moderate consideration should be maintained as the generation cohort, as the former term indicates, were depicted to be taken from societies capable of "mass communication events of social consequence" (Schewe and Meredith's, 2006) and analysis using such systems was rather limited for developing countries.

5.4. The influence of education level

Among the small amount of research including education level to consumer's travelling activity, the empirical findings provided by Djeri et al. (2017) had painted a consistent influence of education level to the five stages of the decision-making process (the first phase was found to be similar regardless of education level). However, since the education influence identified in this thesis only concerned the source of information and family involvement, the author will only connect equivalent stages for this demographic variable.

As clarified in section 2.1.3, the scope of this research has been limited to the classification of education to individual academic attainment; therefore, the analysis was also made based on this scale. In earlier decades, the comparative superiority of higher education consumers was based on their regular interaction with media (Schramm and White, 1965; Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955) while access to information has become easier for the masses, especially with the emergence of Internet and mobile devices. The leverage in utilizing information thus lies in how to acquire accuracy and useful knowledge from the vast data pool in the global network.

The positive correlation identified could then be explained as people with high levels of education (measured by educational attainment) would be cautious in searching for information, which is why they look for a variety of sources: travel agencies' brochures and websites, tourism forums, friends/colleagues, social networks (corresponding to items Info 3, Info 4, Info 5 and Info 6). At the same time, as the individual's level of educational attainment increases, they tend to rely less on the opinion of other family members. In other words, the increase in individuals' education levels is generally associated with better learning capability and judgment (as indicated in this research sample). Since these sources turn out to be important inputs for high education tourists, it hypothetically suggests that these consumers would be likely to access more objective information compared to the case of one-dimensional messages from enterprises via traditional media formats. This point partly aligns with Djeri et al. (2017) with respect to the account of self-confidence enabling high education consumers to search for information from various sources. To a certain extent, there are also hints of independence found in high education tourism from this thesis survey, presenting by the negative correlation between education and the "Involvement of family" factor. However, it is also insufficient to support for the remark of solo travelling becoming more popular as the level of education attainment increases.

5.5. The influence of family status

Family is the only element with presence as both a dependent variable (factor 2) and an independent variable (as the "post hoc" variable). Among the three "post hoc" independent variables, the definition of family status was less straightforward due to its design based on three initial variables of age, marital status, and the number of children. Therefore, the interpretation of this variable will be presented by the order of criteria appearance. The synopsis is that observations for both 'Preference of destination' and 'Involvement of family' variables tend to be encountered more frequently among married consumers than the single ones, and among older consumers and/or those with children within each group. In other words, the family status doesn't just symbolize consumers as single consumers and the category that they are assigned, but also implies the family which they belong to as a collective unit of consumption. In this sense, it is logical for family status to be positively correlated to the involvement of family; meanwhile, the preference of new location and natural harmony or cultural value can be considered an additional preference for participants of large-scale families

Although the earlier establishment of the age influence has specified that age was

negatively correlated with 'Preference in destination', the joint impact when combined with marital status and number of children has offset the negative influence found in the examination of age earlier. 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 the identified affinity between age and the 'Preference of destination'. The reason for this incident was the combined impact of the three independent variables, unrelated to either the classification or the coding structure. Therefore, as long as the list of independent variables employed as criteria remain unchanged, the conclusion would be indifferent.

5.6. 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 basis of income earner was also a logical classification using personal income, family income, and profession as criteria. 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 main earner. The correlation result would then be translated that the main earner has a stronger intention towards using external information sources as reference material. Due to the void in connection between status as income earner and the role of main decision-making for the trip identified for this sample in section 4.2.2 (page 125), it is not possible to link the correlation result to the criteria of decision maker. Since there were no precedent records in the literature regarding this variable, this can be considered a new contribution of this study.

On the other hand, the negative correlation of social class towards family involvement means that the progression made on the social ladder has devalued the role of family as both a source of information and as a travel companion. In this study, the researcher attempted to build a system of class for participants based on income variable with family status as a conditional variable, thus the identified influence of social class toward consumer behaviour could be considered a secondary influence from income. A rough assumption would be that the higher the income level that a person achieves, the less impact family involvement (as a source of information, joining in making decisions and the involvement

in the travelling 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 based on social class influence was no more than extended 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.

Although family bond was stated to be a strong force of influence on Asian tourists (Chan, 2006; Guo, 2006), it seems to be out of line for the "Involvement of family" factor to be negatively correlated with education level earlier and social class in this discussion. As a result, due to the mixed correlation derived from the demographic variables, a clear indication of alignment toward family involvement had yet to be reached in the scope of this study and the author was unable to confirm the previous findings of Bui and Jolliffe (2011)

5.7. Concluding remark

In this thesis, the author has attempted to establish 9 potential demographic variables of the consumer in general with the expectation of examining their influence to the 5 stages of decision-making in the specific cases of Vietnamese domestic tourists.

The analysis of the sample selected, however, has led a slight deviation from the proposed hypotheses. Specifically, only gender, age, education level, income earner (status), family status and social class were found to be applicable as independent variables. Even though the variables of individual status as income earner (whether they are the main earner or dependent of their households), family status and social class all include income (individual and/or family income) as a component in their respective establishments and these demographic traits were identified with different impact toward the decision-making factors, there is no indication of income having exhibited any of these similar influences. However, given that the scope of study didn't elaborate further to account for the control variable effect, it is unable to reach the conclusion of indirect influence made by income as one of demographic variables.

With regard to the decision-making process, the relevant stages found through this study's analysis were three valid factors, each containing items that originally spread across different constructs of the original 5 stages model. By comparison, it is still possible to

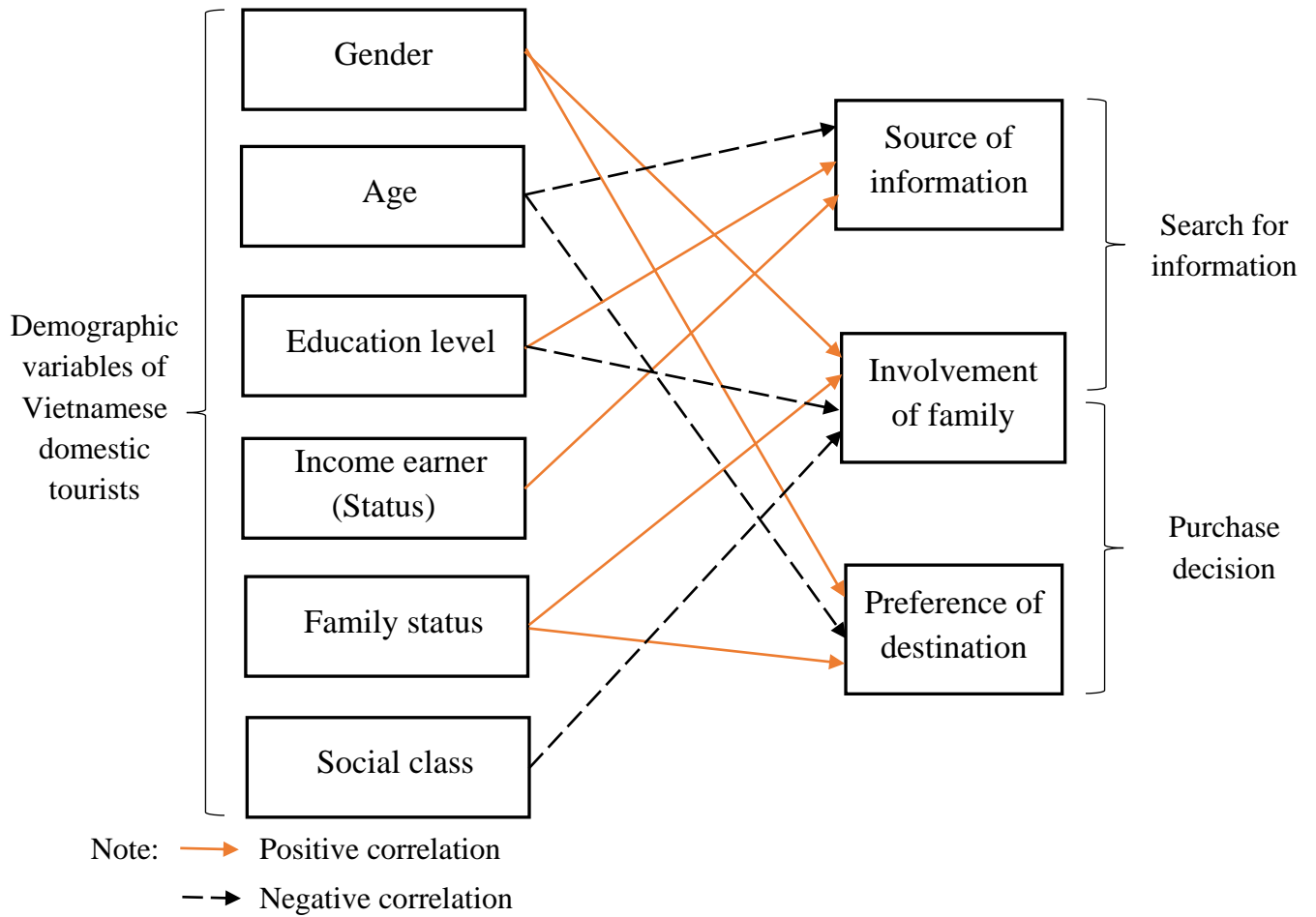
identify the presence of information collection (Factor 4 – Source of information and partly Factor 2 concerning the family members’ opinion and advice), an aspect of the purchase decision (Factor 1 – Preference of destination and partly Factor 2 concerning the preparation together with companions in comfortable locations). A slight hint of evaluation can also be extracted from Factor 2 within the travelling companion item, but it is still impractical to address it in equal status as the mentioned two stages. The majority of items belong to constructs established for evaluation, purchase decision, post purchase evaluation as well as emotional demonstration were not found to be significantly meaningful in term of statistics for this study.

From the discussion concerning the valid demographic variable and the decision-making stage, a summary depiction of consumer profile for domestic tourism in Vietnam can be portrayed with these main traits:

- The exercise of searching for various sources of information, especially the rich data provided by social networks and the Internet was identified more in both younger ages and high education level consumers. This feature can also be enforced in the case of those who are the main income earner for their household.
- Female tourists and mature couples tend to value the involvement of family members as both sources of reference and companion travellers. On the contrary, those who have high levels of education and rank high in social class ladders tend to display a contradictory element in their travelling decision
- Preference of new destinations (supposedly as the search for new experience) and the choice of destinations rich in natural, historical or cultural values tend to be found more in female and young aged tourists compared to their counterparts. There are also older people with this tendency as they move into later stages of the family cycle (as they become mature, married and/or have children)

Compared to the conceptual framework proposed by the end of the literature review chapter, the findings from analysis thus far allowed the author to come up with a more concise presentation to the trait of Vietnamese domestic tourists:

Figure 5.1. Modified framework of the demographic traits influence of Vietnamese tourists toward their decision making stages in domestic travelling



Source: Author

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

Upon reviewing the literature of relevant research, the author recognized that findings with direct or close alignments to consumer characteristics/demographic traits in domestic travel were generally far out-dated. The most recent article based on Vietnamese background was also a decade old (the article by Bui and Jolliffe in 2011). Given the new transitions that took place in socio-economic conditions and major changes in people's lifestyle, it validates the presence of this thesis rather than just updating the perspective of the existing literature. Besides the usual distinction often brought into comparison between Eastern and Western attributes, Vietnam also possesses unique features in historical and cultural value that separate it from other countries of South East Asia as well as other Asian nations in general. In addition, the adopted approach also distanced with the usual explorations that focus on satisfaction to loyalty framework. Study based on consumer demographic has arguably brought about intangible constructs and the introduction of measurement scales for each demographic variable could not adequately lift off their abstractedness, especially when being placed in comparison with members chosen by different sample selection methods. The basis of a relationship between variables used for hypothesis testing and the statistics methods also relies on many customized assumptions. After weighing the pros and cons of both statistics and research methodologies, the author still deemed it a suitable direction as this approach can also be incorporated with other perspectives regarding tourism fields, thus helping developing a complete picture.

Near the end of this research, the then corona virus outbreak had just emerged and gradually turned more and more severe to the global socio-economic conditions. Not long after, the hospitality services sector was listed among the most damaged victims from this unprecedented phenomenon. In academic research aspects, the event opened up many opportunities and stimulating perspectives for examination, especially in regard to tourism. However, the author still considered the original subject and findings of this thesis to be relevant and essential for the new transition period. This came from the notion that the domestic segment has been a prominent and stable segment in Vietnamese tourism for a

long time, and the curfew imposed to international travel in the long term would shift consumers' attention toward the domestic option as an alternative. In fact, the domestic segment was also determined to be the core component to revitalize the tourism sector by the Prime Minister (Decision No. 147/QĐ-TTg, 2020) and Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (Decision No. 2292/QĐ-BVHTTDL, 2021). Therefore, the study of consumers' demographic traits, the decision-making process and their correlation seem to hold more importance than ever for tourism agencies and enterprises in their adaptation to the "new normal". For that reason, this study can be considered to have assisted in laying out structures for future consideration.

From the literature review section, the author has attempted to demonstrate each demographic variable and discuss them in term of relevance and noteworthy issues in contemporary contexts. Since each of these demographic variables were familiar concepts encountered in consumer behaviour research and marketing domain, the author found it redundant to rebuild definitions for each term; instead, the centre of focus was attributed to contemporary issues of significant concerns and critical analysis. On the other hand, the research methodology section was materialized through tracing back to the foundation of research activity. Method terminologies were explained in detail to govern corresponding choices to ensure the consistency basis of the overall paradigm. This approach, in the author's opinion, was accomplished thanks to the adaptation of "Research onion" by Saunder et al. (2007, 2012) and summary framework of Makombe et al. (2017). As a result, the author was able to come up with a valid literature and research methodology framework

In this paper, the author admitted a few issues introduced in the literature review were lost in translation into the findings chapter. Although these issues could be overserved in the Vietnam context, they have yet to reach the significant level in perceived theoretical and social status in comparison to that of developed countries (e.g., gender identity, religious practice...). As indicated by the findings, they were also found to be not significant in statistics within the selected sample as well. The author's initial intention to carry out this research was to examine the influence of tourists' demographic attributes toward their consumption behaviour, in which the decision-making process is a component. However, it has later come to the author's realization that performing consumer behaviour

is a very broad domain that would also require further psychologic knowledge for advanced level discussions, which the author was not well prepared for at that time. In addition, what consumer behaviour implies is that signature patterns of consumption would need to be identified thoroughly and would require to be related to each other. By pursuing this approach, it would bring about conflicts with the determined paradigm and to a lesser degree, it also requires a considerable effort to scan through every listed demographic variable and surpass the scope of this research. Therefore, the author expects that once this thesis has been accepted, further directions initiated from this topic could be realized and carried out accordingly

6.2. Reflecting to the Research aims and objectives

In the introduction chapter, the author laid out the aims for this research in identifying the specific demographic variables of not just a general consumer but the domestic tourists and evaluate how these variables might impact them when making decisions to travel. Results of exploring the tendency and extent of impact would provide necessary foundations to come up with appropriate solutions for stakeholders to improve the Vietnamese domestic arrivals in both literature and practical implementations. Abiding by these aims, the author broke it down to the corresponding objectives to regulate the research progress:

- To identify potential demographic variables of consumers, customizing to the case of domestic tourism
- To understand the consumer decision making process specifically in terms of domestic tourism
- To examine the degree of impact that demographic factors manifest into Vietnamese domestic tourists' decision-making processes.

Along the journey of this research, the author has acquired insightful knowledge to the fundamental of each demographic variable and their manifestation to the specific case of tourism, distinction in approach to the consumption behaviour and the decision-making process, and the exhibition of these domains in the specific context of Vietnamese domestic markets. By a thorough review made in Chapter 2, the author was able to address the first two objectives, resulting in a conceptual framework. Chapter 3 has set up scientific-based

order of studying in methodologies whereby the analysis employed in Chapter 4 was able to identify the appropriate demographic variables of the sample selection (independent variables) and the eligible stages of decision-making processes (dependent variable). The regression analysis by the end of Chapter 4 also concluded the degree of relationship between these two sets of variables, thus fulfilling the final objectives presented earlier. The next section of this chapter will discuss in detail the contributions of this thesis

6.3. Implication in technical and methodology aspects

Even though this thesis may share similarities with previous studies in certain aspects (academic field or targeted industry) or the direction of objectives and purposes (identifying the relationship of observed variables to establish prediction model), the methodology and the research process employed to answer the research question were fundamentally different. Previously, there were opinions that opposed the application of marketing principles into tourism research, stating the possible inhibition of progress by replicating standard conceptual frameworks and measurements (Mazanec, 2009) or questioning the validity and applicability borrowed from other mainstream consumer behaviour literature (Boksberfer et al., 2011; McKercher et al., 2012). However, it is important to realize that tourists are consumers who use a specific service or group of services from the hospitality sector; therefore, in essence, literature of consumer in the most general sense is likely to be applicable in the tourists' situations. The possible gaps are either derived from discrepancies between literature and reality (which is a common issue for almost any field of social science research) or differences in sample selection. For the latter reason, the author considered a lack of studies that target domestic tourism in developing countries to be a valid reason by itself to oppose the quoted statements

Throughout the process of this thesis, the author had to learn addition knowledge in literature across consumer behaviour and tourism domains as well as study in detail the necessary statistical instruments and how to operate and apply them correctly. This process has provided the author with valuable experience for continuing with academic research of an advanced level in the future. The author has identified a few suggestions in techniques and methodology terms that could help improve the efficiency and clarify certain difficulties in the early steps of research activity (which is also the common problem that beginner researchers often encounter):

- Firstly, the research sample is considered a fraction of the population, therefore, any findings discovered within a study in a local attribute may not necessarily be found in different sample clusters or 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 depiction collected from literature. However, it doesn't mean that any of these results are invalid and researchers should not attempt to interfere with the data at any given point to produce a "smoother" result.

- Secondly, the researcher found that applying a research methodology is more than just a concern of using quantitative or qualitative methods (as frequently describe in many papers by Vietnamese undergraduates or even masters students), 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, many assumptions and requirements of the analysis models were found to not entirely fit into the database profile. In addition, many statistical methods exhibit a close resemblance in objectives and functions but are different in mathematical technique. Technically speaking, the result of multi-stage analytical methods (e.g., factor analysis) are sensitive to the choice of decision within each stage; thus, deviations in any step can jeopardize the progress of subsequent stages. Therefore, it is beneficial for researchers to develop a full plan of the research strategy before engaging in a multi-stage analysis and taking into account the fitness of the overall research plan rather than just 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 hinder progression in conducting research. Although a minor degree of a few missing cases or values might appear to be insignificant at first, their collective influence in a large-scale sample can be significantly detrimental and it is possible to derail the findings from the correct discoveries. On the other hand, underestimating the importance in handling missing cases could also compromise the representativeness of the sample and undermine the accuracy of analysis. Since this step is often overlooked in journal articles and theses of multitude level, the author found it important to remember throughout this project to raise awareness for beginner researchers.

- Due to the strict requirements in the type of data input (ordinal, categorical or numerical) often required in statistics, using a dummy code for variables allows researchers a certain level of flexibility in choosing the convenient test and simplifying the calculation

process. However, this does not mean these choices are always appropriate, given the confusion in treating the data or misusing data when coding from initial inputs, especially when reverting the processed information back to corresponding original format.

- Finally, the 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 most 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 among the reasons that lead to 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 established from the beginning. However, even when the selection was determined with utmost caution and precision, the final model can still only account for a low rate of the sample's discrepancy. Overall, the three dependent factors extracted only account for less than 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 issues 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

6.4. Implication in practical aspect

The findings have portrayed a diversity of domestic tourists as they engage in the decision-making process. From the author's perspective, there are a few potential directions to be developed for tourism agencies:

- The advantage of the Vietnam tourism industry lies in the variety of attraction sites and festivals offered in nearly every province. Therefore, the main concern is not of whether tourist destinations might fail to attract domestic consumers but how to effectively compete for better 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. It has been found in this

research that young female tourists and large families are particularly interested in travelling to new destinations, especially harmony environments (in natural, historical and cultural values). This is an easy advantage to explore given that there are numerous tourism destinations scattered through almost every Vietnamese province. Many regions of rural and mountainous areas are also blessed with exotic environments and natural conservation parks. Since the majority of urban consumers rarely have chances to travel outside of their living habitats, short field trips would provide them with new experiences as a change from their usual living style and also doesn't take much of their time for planning and organization. Therefore, the first implication is to design trips that fit in weekend scales to target the female consumers and the married couples. In addition, it is advised to explore different approaches and different combinations of tour packages to maintain the unique and novelty offer (e.g., organizing trips by seasons, alternative between locations for similar purposes...)

- Secondly, taking into account the dependency of consumers to the web-based source (as identified in cases of consumers that fit either one of the following criteria: young age, high level of education, being the main income earner of the household, and possess high social standing), it is recommended to design an easy to access checkpoint of tourism services provided through an official website. By providing a user-friendly interface, it is expected that the consumer would develop positive experience each time they visit. In order to achieve this, the concern then point toward a rich information technology resource and infrastructure that can provide basic information of travelling (price, availability, accessibility) and additional comparison functions to different providers for certain service. Furthermore, with a professionally designed website and appropriate branding strategy, it is possible to establish the tourism services' own trademark to strike an impression to consumers of high social standing and education levels who tend to enjoy luxury and premium services. For businesses that are unable to set up and maintain interactive interfaces, an alternative tactic would be to emphasize the individual experience or to establish "personal travel stories" and promote them through high traffic social platforms.

- Although family role as a source of information doesn't gain positive evaluation from many consumer targets, those who actually appreciate this element (female and

married couple) are still an important component to the greater targeted consumer base. Therefore, through these interested consumers, tourism packages and companies' branding can be promoted to other members within a greater family. Therefore, it is important to overcome the initial hurdle of capturing the interests of female and married couple consumers. Only after building up their trust and loyalty as frequent visitors can different services be promoted to other member of their family, subsequently expanding the consumer base.

It has been shown numerous times before how resilient tourism industries are, given the past catastrophes like the terrorism on 11th September 2001, the Great Recession 2008 and other outbreaks before. While it's unclear when a full recovery of international travel would take place, it is undeniable that the hospitality sector should soon return. Before that, it comes as an opportunity for tourism agencies to focus on consolidating their domestic shares and reconsidering an overhaul to their competitive strategies before the transition of the post-COVID-19 era

- As the implication of family involvement factors identified, the majority of Vietnamese tourists still enjoy group travelling. Therefore, new assurances in respect of well-being for holidaymakers and their companions will soon be a compulsory requirement when travelling. This means both a higher expectation comes from the consumers side and an obligation to any functioning tourism agencies by government bodies. The immediate change that seems to be most feasible is the lessening in interaction during the planning phase. In particular, simplify the procedure of looking for information, booking for travel tickets through online payment methods, applying "contactless" instruments like biometric recognition, automaton... can be listed as a few measures to help enabling social distancing requirement.

- The need to restructure the labour force in the tourism sector is going to be an essential issue to resolve for Vietnamese enterprises. The majority portion of the workforce being part-time labour will leave a significant gap once socio-economic status resumes normality. More than the requirement of a professional employee who can cope with the changes in the sector status toward digital transformation, the need to develop knowledgeable and professional hospitality workers is also addressed to match up with the

rise of “smart consumers” and how to deliver the best service quality throughout the purchase and after-purchase stages.

6.5. Limitations of the research

In terms of the techniques applied and the research process that took place, there were a few limitations identified as follows:

- The severity of the data collected in terms of missing cases, internal consistency, multicollinearity... to reach thresholds that require drastic solutions cannot be neglected. Therefore, despite the remedies being adequately explained, the author still found it possible to have a better treatment. Only by the time this thesis nearly finishes, the author was aware of improvements that can be applied in term of principles and advanced analysis techniques that can address the research questions more efficiency and accuracy. However, with the limitation in knowledge and necessary instruments to employ these enhancements, the author regrets to admit that it would no longer fit into the research design

- 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 final sample was valid in statistical term, it only accounts for a minuscule portion in scale of the targeted population. Imbalance in distribution of participants' trait, though not being intended, was unavoidable when taking the survey method. Although it might be possible to address these biases, it would violate statistical principles in sampling and conducting research should the author attempt to modify data after collection was completed.

- Although family was enlisted and expected to show noticeable signs of influence toward tourism consumption activities, the findings were unable to deliver this conclusion. The author speculated that this might be due to the variable being a result of deduction from the initial demographic inputs and partly from the chosen sample. Should another group of targeted audience be selected, the findings might have turned out differently. On the other hand, this thesis wasn't able to go into detail on the aspect of interaction between family members in conversations involving individual experience. However, this is also among the direction that best fits longitudinal studies with a different approach.

- In this research, most of the statistical tests were conducted using SPSS. Despite being equipped with a considerable library of tests and support functions, not all the advanced statistical instruments or the newly developed techniques were accessible.

Meanwhile, other programmes that can handle more complex tasks are not widely accessible.

- The limitation in allocated resources also limited the research mainly in terms of scale (recruiting participants), the format of study and the length of research activity. In retrospect, this limitation also hinders the possibility of extending the study activity to a larger sample.

- In this study, the author focused on the decision-making process, which is a significant aspect of consumer behaviour but doesn't cover all theoretical domains that consumer behaviour includes. It was due to the specific alignment of literature theorem and contextual background that certain differences were bridged in this study. Therefore, it remains open to further development in regard to other aspects of consumer behaviour to explore, even if this niche line of research were to be continued in the future

6.6. Recommendations for future study

The author expected that it would be beneficial for future research to continue expanding based on the results of this study, notably from the consolidated theoretical framework and the practical method of analysis adopted.

6.6.1. 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, a narrow approach concerning certain merchandise and well-defined aspects of consumption activities would also be a sufficient direction.

- 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. Despite the initial intention of the researcher to include the professional dimension, this

variable wasn't found to have a noticeable influence in the end. In addition, there is still more development potential for the education 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.

- There are latent inter-correlations between variables that the researcher couldn't clarify and prove through this research, meaning 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.

Since the start of the pandemic in early 2020, a return to domestic tourism has been addressed as a top priority in many nations as the optimal solution to recover this sector, which has also been strongly emphasized in many Vietnamese government official documents. The background of academic research activities has also been shifting toward a recovery strategy with domestic segment being determined as the core of all planning and discussions. As an extension to this thesis topic suggestion for the new context, the author expects there will be more room for discussion regarding study of the adaptation of domestic tourists in the new context, thus confirming the necessity of consumer's demographic traits and consumption pattern in the "new normal" context

6.6.2. In terms of research methodology

Given the average 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 by adopting a different perspective in evaluating the relationship between independent and dependent variables. There is also room for modifications of the survey questionnaires and further elevation can be achieved by running the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) to identify the interwoven connection between listed variables and latent variables to tighten up the issues of "noise" elements. On the other hand, a completely different set of analytical methods is also encouraged for more diversity.

Although 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 possible recommendation 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. The survey questionnaire

Blank English version of the survey questionnaire:

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

This survey is designed to collect data for the research “Study of the demographic variables impact on Vietnamese domestic tourism consumption pattern”. Please note that this survey is completely confidential and all data is collected and processed with discretion. Your personal identity and information will not be disclosed to any third-party group.

Providing information to any of the following questions is voluntary. The answer that you provide will be presented in an aggregate form and not be linked back to you in any way.

Section 1. Demographic information

Please tick on the choice that best describes your personal characteristics

1.1. What is your gender?

Male Female Other Prefer not to say

1.2. Which of the following age group are you identified with?

18-25 26-35 36-45
 46-55 56-65 Over 65

1.3. Where do you live?

North West North East Ha Noi City
 Midland South West South East
 Ho Chi Minh City

1.4. What is your highest level of education?

High School graduated
 Bachelor degree
 Specialization career certificate
 Master Degree (MSc, MA, MBA)
 Doctorate Degree

1.5. What is your employment status?

Full time Part time

- Not yet working Retired
 Unemployed

1.6. In which industries or professions do you work?

- Advertising/ Public relation
 Marketing/ Marketing research
 Media
 Journalism
 Hospital/ Medical service
 Education/ Academic research
 Electronics/Computer/Software programming
 Finance services/ Insurance/ Banking/ Real estates
 Retail
 Political/ government office
 Transportation
 Construction/ Structural Design
 Food Industries (manufacturing, processing, packaging foods)
 Specialized food shop/ Restaurant
 State security agent (police, fire fighter...)
 Student
 Tourism/ Lodging service
 None of the above

1.7. What is your monthly average income?

- Lower than 4,500,000 VND (<£150)
 4,500,000 VND – 9,000,000 VND (≈£150 - £300)
 9,000,000 VND – 15,000,000 VND (≈£300 - £500)
 15,000,000 VND – 30,000,000 VND (≈£500 - £1000)
 More than 30,000,000 VND (>£1000)

1.8. What is your family's monthly average income?

- Lower than 4,500,000 VND (<£150)

- 4,500,000 VND – 10,000,000 VND (≈£150 - £330)
- 10,000,000 VND – 20,000,000 VND (≈£330 - £660)
- 20,000,000 VND – 30,000,000 VND (≈£660 - £1000)
- More than 30,000,000 VND (>£1000)

1.9. What is your current marital status?

- Single
- Married
- Prefer not to say

1.10. How many children do you have?

- None
- 1
- 2
- 3
- More than 3

1.11 How often do you usually travelling within Vietnam tourism destination on average?

- Never
- Rarely (less than twice per year)
- Sometime (from 3 to 6 times per year)
- Quite often (more than 6 times/year to less than once per month)
- Usually (more than once per month)

1.12. Are you the main decision-maker in each trip that you are involved?

- Never applicable to me
- Sometimes (less than 25% of the trip)
- Often (from 25% to 50%)
- Most of the cases (more than 50% but less than 100%)
- Always

Section 2. Tourism consumption activity

2.1. On a scale of 5, please select the option that best describes yourselves when collecting information and time for preparation before a domestic travelling. (1 – Not true, 2 – Relatively true, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Sometimes true, 5 – Always true)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Source of information					
I am getting advice from family relative					
I am using experience from the past					

I am looking for information from travel agencies' brochures, websites					
I am looking for review opinions from travel forums (Internet or offline groups)					
I am asking for the opinions of my friends/colleagues					
I am asking for the opinion of people I know from social networks/ I am searching for information from social applications (Facebook, Zalo, Instagram, Twitter...)					
I am not the one to make the decision (don't involve/ follow other's decisions)					

b. Time needed for preparation					
It takes me months to plan before decide to travel					
I need time to plan before actual trip but it doesn't consume too much					
The decision to travel just happened in the spur of moment					

2.2. On a scale of 5, please select the option that best describes the evaluation process when you decide to travel domestically. (1 – Not true, 2 – Relatively true, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Sometimes true, 5 – Always true)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Evaluating process					
I always look for many sources and other's reviews before deciding on the destination I choose					
I always ask for other family members' opinions before coming to the final decision					
The assessing between options has been determined without my opinion (company trips)					

b. Priority of choice					
I choose the most convenient destinations (closest in distance, equipped with advanced facilities, near shopping centres and department stores...)					
I opt for destinations with natural harmony					
I prefer destinations that are rich with historical and/or cultural value					
I choose the destination that I am familiar with					
I prefer a destination that I have never gone before					

c. Emotional attachment					
The decision I made is completely based on rational reasoning of fact and information that I have collected					
There is always emotion element that influences my final decision (e.g., the attachment with the intended visit destinations, the situational emotion that is unrelated to the trips...)					

2.3. On a scale of 5, please select the option that best describes yourselves when deciding on the destination of the trip. (1 – Not true, 2 – Relatively true, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Sometimes true, 5 – Always true)

	1	2	3	4	5
I always go to the same destinations					
I prefer new destinations for each trip					
It doesn't matter to me as long as it is not within the vicinity of my resident area					
I prefer to travel within the prefecture of my resident (nearby suburbs)					

2.4. On a scale of 5, please select the option that best agrees with you when deciding the form of travelling. (1 – Not true, 2 – Relatively true, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Sometimes true, 5 – Always true)

	1	2	3	4	5
Backpacking					
Regular visiting trips to relatives in other cities, provinces					
Close group travelling with careful preparation (with best friends, family members, colleagues) at places with fundamental facilities equipped					
Religion purpose					
They are mostly business trips					
Exceptional high services with distinction services (5-stars hotels, resorts, specialized recreation destinations)					

2.5. What is your opinion about the impact of unexpected circumstances on your travel decision? (Please select the option that best agrees with you in most of the case)

- They hardly make me change my decision
- Sometimes I have to revise my plan, but they not affecting much
- 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?

- Never applicable to me
- Sometimes
- Only suitable with the destination I have visited before
- Absolutely necessary

2.7. On a scale of 5, please select the option that best describes yourselves when reevaluating the experience of the past domestically travel you made. (1 – Not true, 2 – Relatively true, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Sometimes true, 5 – Always true)

	1	2	3	4	5
In case of being satisfied with the experience, I will talk about it to everyone that I know					

I will not give out my opinion unless people directly seek my advice (regardless of whether I satisfy or not with the trip(s))					
I would advise everyone to refrain from travel to that place if the experience failed my expectation					

Thank you very much for your cooperation

The Vietnamese version of the blank survey questionnaire

PHIẾU KHẢO SÁT

Phiếu điều tra này được sử dụng nhằm thu thập dữ liệu cho đề tài “Nghiên cứu về ảnh hưởng của các biến số nhân khẩu đối với hành vi tiêu dùng của khách du lịch nội địa Việt Nam”. Mọi thông tin cá nhân trong nghiên cứu được bảo mật và xử lý cẩn trọng. Danh tính và các thông số của người điều tra sẽ không bị tiết lộ cho các bên thứ ba.

Việc cung cấp thông tin cho bất kỳ câu hỏi nào đều là tự nguyện. Tất cả câu trả lời sẽ được tổng hợp theo mẫu thống kê và không ảnh hưởng đến đối tượng điều tra trên bất kỳ phương diện nào

Phần 1. Thông số nhân khẩu

Đánh dấu lựa chọn mô tả đúng nhất đặc điểm cá nhân của anh/chị

1.1. Giới tính anh/chị?

- Nam Nữ Khác Không muốn nêu cụ thể

1.2. Anh/chị thuộc nhóm tuổi nào?

- 18-25 26-35 36-45
 46-55 56-65 Over 65

1.3. Khu vực sinh sống hiện tại của anh/chị?

- Tây Bắc Đông Bắc Thành phố Hà Nội
 Miền Trung Tây Nam Đông Nam
 Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh

1.4. Trình độ học vấn cao nhất mà anh/chị đã đạt?

- Tốt nghiệp phổ thông
- Tốt nghiệp đại học văn bằng cử nhân
- Có chứng chỉ đào tạo nghề
- Thạc sĩ (M.A., M.S., M.B.A, M.Ed., M.F.A)
- Tiến sĩ

1.5. Tình trạng công việc hiện tại của anh/chị?

- Toàn thời gian
- Bán thời gian
- Chưa đi làm
- Đã nghỉ hưu
- Không có việc làm

1.6. Công việc hiện tại của anh/chị thuộc nhóm ngành nào?

- Quảng cáo/ Quan hệ công chúng
- Marketing/ nghiên cứu về Marketing
- Truyền thông
- Ngành báo chí
- Y khoa/ Dịch vụ y tế
- Giáo dục/ Nghiên cứu học thuật
- Điện tử/ Máy tính/ Lập trình
- Dịch vụ tài chính/ bảo hiểm/ ngân hàng/ bất động sản
- Kinh doanh buôn bán
- Chính trị/ Cơ quan chính phủ
- Giao thông vận tải
- Xây dựng/ Thiết kế kiến trúc
- Công nghiệp thực phẩm (sản xuất, chế biến, đóng gói thực phẩm)
- Cửa hàng thực phẩm chuyên nghiệp/ Quán ăn, nhà hàng
- Cơ quan bảo hộ / An ninh (cảnh sát, cứu hỏa)
- Sinh viên
- Du lịch/ Dịch vụ lưu trú
- Khác

1.7. Mức thu nhập trung bình hàng tháng của anh/ chị?

- Ít hơn 4,500,000 VND (<£150)
- 4,500,000 VND – 9,000,000 VND (≈£150 - £300)
- 9,000,000 VND – 15,000,000 VND (≈£300 - £500)
- 15,000,000 VND – 30,000,000 VND (≈£500 - £1000)
- Nhiều hơn 30,000,000 VND (>£1000)

1.8. Mức thu nhập trung bình hàng tháng của gia đình anh/ chị?

- Ít hơn 4,500,000 VND (<£150)
- 4,500,000 VND – 10,000,000 VND (≈£150 - £330)
- 10,000,000 VND – 20,000,000 VND (≈£330 - £660)
- 20,000,000 VND – 30,000,000 VND (≈£660 - £1000)
- Nhiều hơn 30,000,000 VND (>£1000)

1.9. Tình trạng hôn nhân của anh/chị?

- Độc thân
- Đã kết hôn
- Không muốn nói

1.10. Anh/chị có bao nhiêu con?

- Không có
- 1
- 2
- 3
- Nhiều hơn 3

1.11. Tần suất trung bình anh/chị đi du lịch trong nước?

- Chưa bao giờ
- Hiếm khi (ít hơn 2 lần 1 năm)
- Thỉnh thoảng (từ 3 đến 6 lần 1 năm)
- Khá thường xuyên (nhiều hơn 6 lần 1 năm nhưng ít hơn 12 lần 1 năm)
- Thường xuyên (từ 1 lần 1 tháng trở lên)

1.12. Anh chị có phải người đưa ra quyết định chính trong mỗi chuyến đi không?

- Không phải
- Đôi khi (ít hơn 25% số lần đi du lịch)
- Thường xuyên (từ 25% đến 50%)

Phần lớn (nhiều hơn 50% nhưng không phải hoàn toàn)

Đúng hoàn toàn

Phần 2. Quá trình lập kế hoạch và đánh giá thông tin thu thập

2.1. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi thu thập thông tin và thời gian chuẩn bị trước khi đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Nguồn thông tin					
Tôi thường hỏi ý kiến người thân trong gia đình					
Tôi sử dụng kinh nghiệm bản thân					
Tôi sử dụng thông tin từ ấn phẩm, trang web của các đại lý du lịch					
Tôi tham khảo ý kiến đánh giá từ các diễn đàn du lịch (trên Internet hoặc thực tế)					
Tôi hỏi ý kiến của bạn bè/đồng nghiệp					
Tôi hỏi ý kiến của những người tôi biết thông qua mạng xã hội/ Tôi tìm thông tin từ các ứng dụng xã hội (Facebook, Zalo, Instagram, Twitter...)					
Tôi không phải người đưa ra quyết định (không tham gia hoặc làm theo sự sắp xếp của người khác)					

b. Thời gian chuẩn bị					
Tôi thường dành nhiều tháng để lên kế hoạch trước khi quyết định đi du lịch					
Tôi cần nhiều thời gian để lên kế hoạch nhưng việc này không tốn quá nhiều thời gian					
Việc lên kế hoạch xuất hiện ngẫu nhiên					

2.2. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi đánh giá thông tin khi đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Quá trình đánh giá					
Tôi thường tìm kiếm nhiều nguồn thông tin và xem xét đánh giá của những người khác trước khi đưa ra quyết định lựa chọn đi du lịch					
Tôi thường hỏi ý kiến các thành viên trong gia đình trước khi quyết định					
Việc quyết định lựa chọn các yếu tố này không phụ thuộc vào tôi (do công ty hoặc người khác tổ chức)					

b. Ưu tiên trong việc ra quyết định					
Tôi chọn các địa điểm thuận tiện (gần khoảng cách đi lại, có chỗ hạ tầng tiện nghi, gần khu mua sắm và các khu trung tâm thương mại...)					
Tôi ưu tiên các địa điểm hài hòa về mặt tự nhiên					
Tôi ưa thích các địa điểm giàu giá trị lịch sử và/hoặc giá trị văn hóa					
Tôi chọn những địa điểm quen thuộc					
Tôi chọn những địa điểm mà tôi chưa từng đi tới					

c. Sự gắn kết về mặt cảm xúc					
Việc tôi ra quyết định hoàn toàn dựa trên phân xét những thông tin và thực tế đã tìm hiểu					
Việc tôi đưa ra quyết định thường bị chi phối bởi cảm xúc (vd: sự gắn bó với địa điểm dự định đến, cảm xúc ngẫu nhiên không liên quan đến việc đi du lịch...)					

2.3. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi quyết định đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
Tôi luôn luôn đi đến cùng một địa điểm					
Tôi ưa thích khám phá địa điểm mới cho mỗi lần đi					
Quyết định địa điểm không quan trọng miễn là nó không nằm trong phạm vi khu vực tôi sinh sống					
Tôi ưa thích đi trong phạm vi khu vực địa phương (trong trung tâm thành phố, thị trấn hay vùng ngoại ô cận kề)					

2.4. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với loại hình các chuyến đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
Du lịch ba lô					
Du lịch thăm người thân ở các thành phố hay tỉnh thành khác					
Du lịch theo nhóm nhỏ có sự chuẩn bị cẩn thận cùng những người thân quen (bạn thân, gia đình, đồng nghiệp) tại các đại điểm có trang bị tiện nghi tối thiểu					
Mục đích tín ngưỡng, tôn giáo					
Phần lớn là công tác theo chỉ định của đơn vị công tác					
Tại những nơi có mức độ phục vụ cao cấp và các dịch vụ đặc thù (khách sạn tiêu chuẩn 5 sao, các khu nghỉ dưỡng, những địa điểm giải trí chuyên biệt)					

2.5. Anh/chị đánh giá giá như thế nào về ảnh hưởng của những yếu tố bất định (ngoài dự kiến) trong quá trình đưa ra quyết định đi du lịch (hãy đánh dấu lựa chọn phù hợp nhất với bản thân)

- Không có ảnh hưởng làm tôi phải thay đổi quyết định của mình
- Đôi khi có ảnh hưởng, nhưng không đáng kể để phải thay đổi quyết định
- Phần lớn thời điểm làm tôi phải đổi kế hoạch (hoãn hoặc hủy bỏ)

2.6. Anh/ chị có cho rằng kinh nghiệm đi du lịch trong quá khứ là yếu tố quan trọng đối với các quyết định trong tương lai?

- Không bao giờ phù hợp với tôi
- Đôi khi
- Chỉ đối với những địa điểm tôi đã đi đến trước đây
- Hoàn toàn cần thiết

2.7. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi đánh giá lại trải nghiệm về những chuyến đi du lịch nội địa trước (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
Nếu thỏa mãn, tôi sẽ giới thiệu đến những người mà tôi biết					
Tôi sẽ không chủ động đưa ra ý kiến của mình trừ khi người khác chủ động hỏi (trong cả trường hợp hài lòng và không hài lòng về trải nghiệm đối với chuyến đi)					
Tôi sẽ khuyên mọi người không nên đến địa điểm đó trong trường hợp trải nghiệm đó không đáp ứng kỳ vọng của tôi					

Xin chân thành cảm ơn

PHIẾU KHẢO SÁT

Phiếu điều tra này được sử dụng nhằm thu thập dữ liệu cho đề tài “Nghiên cứu về ảnh hưởng của các biến số nhân khẩu đối với hành vi tiêu dùng của khách du lịch nội địa Việt Nam”. Mọi thông tin cá nhân trong nghiên cứu được bảo mật và xử lý cẩn trọng. Danh tính và các thông số của người điều tra sẽ không bị tiết lộ cho các bên thứ ba.

Việc cung cấp thông tin cho bất kỳ câu hỏi nào đều là tự nguyện. Tất cả câu trả lời sẽ được tổng hợp theo mẫu thống kê và không ảnh hưởng đến đối tượng điều tra trên bất kỳ phương diện nào

Phần 1. Thông số nhân khẩu

Đánh dấu lựa chọn mô tả đúng nhất đặc điểm cá nhân của anh/chị

1.1. Giới tính anh/chị?

Nam Nữ Khác Không muốn nêu cụ thể

1.2. Anh/chị thuộc nhóm tuổi nào?

18-25 26-35 36-45
 46-55 56-65 Over 65

1.3. Khu vực sinh sống hiện tại của anh/chị?

Tây Bắc Đông Bắc Thành phố Hà Nội
 Miền Trung Tây Nam Đông Nam

Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh

1.4. Trình độ học vấn cao nhất mà anh/chị đã đạt?

Tốt nghiệp phổ thông
 Tốt nghiệp đại học văn bằng cử nhân
 Có chứng chỉ đào tạo nghề
 Thạc sĩ (M.A., M.S., M.B.A, M.Ed., M.F.A)
 Tiến sĩ

1.5. Tình trạng công việc hiện tại của anh/chị?

- Toàn thời gian Bán thời gian
 Chưa đi làm Đã nghỉ hưu
 Không có việc làm

1.6. Công việc hiện tại của anh/chị thuộc nhóm ngành nào?

- Quảng cáo/ Quan hệ công chúng
 Marketing/ nghiên cứu về Marketing
 Truyền thông
 Ngành báo chí
 Y khoa/ Dịch vụ y tế
 Giáo dục/ Nghiên cứu học thuật
 Điện tử/ Máy tính/ Lập trình
 Dịch vụ tài chính/ bảo hiểm/ ngân hàng/ bất động sản
 Kinh doanh buôn bán
 Chính trị/ Cơ quan chính phủ
 Giao thông vận tải
 Xây dựng/ Thiết kế kiến trúc
 Công nghiệp thực phẩm (sản xuất, chế biến, đóng gói thực phẩm)
 Cửa hàng thực phẩm chuyên nghiệp/ Quán ăn, nhà hàng
 Cơ quan bảo hộ / An ninh (cảnh sát, cứu hỏa)
 Sinh viên
 Du lịch/ Dịch vụ lưu trú
 Khác

1.7. Mức thu nhập trung bình hàng tháng của anh/ chị?

- Ít hơn 4,500,000 VND (<£150)
 4,500,000 VND – 9,000,000 VND (≈£150 - £300)

- 9,000,000 VND – 15,000,000 VND (\approx £300 - £500)
- 15,000,000 VND – 30,000,000 VND (\approx £500 - £1000)
- Nhiều hơn 30,000,000 VND ($>$ £1000)

1.8. Mức thu nhập trung bình hàng tháng của gia đình anh/ chị?

- Ít hơn 4,500,000 VND ($<$ £150)
- 4,500,000 VND – 10,000,000 VND (\approx £150 - £330)
- 10,000,000 VND – 20,000,000 VND (\approx £330 - £660)
- 20,000,000 VND – 30,000,000 VND (\approx £660 - £1000)
- Nhiều hơn 30,000,000 VND ($>$ £1000)

1.9. Tình trạng hôn nhân của anh/chị?

- Độc thân
- Đã kết hôn
- Không muốn nói

1.10. Anh/chị có bao nhiêu con?

- Không có
- 1
- 2
- 3
- Nhiều hơn 3

1.11. Tần suất trung bình anh/chị đi du lịch trong nước?

- Chưa bao giờ
- Hiếm khi (ít hơn 2 lần 1 năm)
- Thỉnh thoảng (từ 3 đến 6 lần 1 năm)
- Khá thường xuyên (nhiều hơn 6 lần 1 năm nhưng ít hơn 12 lần 1 năm)
- Thường xuyên (từ 1 lần 1 tháng trở lên)

1.12. Anh/chị có phải người đưa ra quyết định chính trong mỗi chuyến đi không?

- Không phải
- Đôi khi (ít hơn 25% số lần đi du lịch)
- Thường xuyên (từ 25% đến 50%)
- Phần lớn (nhiều hơn 50% nhưng không phải hoàn toàn)
- Đúng hoàn toàn

Phần 2. Quá trình lập kế hoạch và đánh giá thông tin thu thập

2.1. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi thu thập thông tin và thời gian chuẩn bị trước khi đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Nguồn thông tin					
Tôi thường hỏi ý kiến người thân trong gia đình	✓				
Tôi sử dụng kinh nghiệm bản thân			✓		.
Tôi sử dụng thông tin từ ấn phẩm, trang web của các đại lý du lịch				✓	
Tôi tham khảo ý kiến đánh giá từ các diễn đàn du lịch (trên Internet hoặc thực tế)					✓
Tôi hỏi ý kiến của bạn bè/đồng nghiệp				✓	
Tôi hỏi ý kiến của những người tôi biết thông qua mạng xã hội/ Tôi tìm thông tin từ các ứng dụng xã hội (Facebook, Zalo, Instagram, Twitter,...)			✓		
Tôi không phải người đưa ra quyết định (không tham gia hoặc làm theo sự sắp xếp của người khác)	✓				

b. Thời gian chuẩn bị					
Tôi thường dành nhiều tháng để lên kế hoạch trước khi quyết định đi du lịch			✓		
Tôi cần nhiều thời gian để lên kế hoạch nhưng việc này không tốn quá nhiều thời gian			✓		
Việc lên kế hoạch xuất hiện ngẫu nhiên				✓	

2.2. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi đánh giá thông tin khi đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. Quá trình đánh giá					
Tôi thường tìm kiếm nhiều nguồn thông tin và xem xét đánh giá của những người khác trước khi đưa ra quyết định lựa chọn đi du lịch					✓
Tôi thường hỏi ý kiến các thành viên trong gia đình trước khi quyết định	✓				
Việc quyết định lựa chọn các yếu tố này không phụ thuộc vào tôi (do công ty hoặc người khác tổ chức)	✓				

b. Ưu tiên trong việc ra quyết định					
Tôi chọn các địa điểm thuận tiện (gần khoảng cách đi lại, có cơ sở hạ tầng tiện nghi, gần khu mua sắm và các khu trung tâm thương mại...)			✓		
Tôi ưu tiên các địa điểm hài hòa về mặt tự nhiên				✓	
Tôi ưa thích các địa điểm giàu giá trị lịch sử và/hoặc giá trị văn hóa				✓	
Tôi chọn những địa điểm quen thuộc			✓		
Tôi chọn những địa điểm mà tôi chưa từng đi tới				✓	

c. Sự gắn kết về mặt cảm xúc					
Việc tôi ra quyết định hoàn toàn dựa trên phân xét những thông tin và thực tế đã tìm hiểu				✓	
Việc tôi đưa ra quyết định thường bị chi phối bởi cảm xúc (vd: sự gắn bó với địa điểm dự định đến, cảm xúc ngẫu nhiên không liên quan đến việc đi du lịch...)				✓	

2.3. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi quyết định đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
Tôi luôn luôn đi đến cùng một địa điểm			✓		
Tôi ưa thích khám phá địa điểm mới cho mỗi lần đi				✓	
Quyết định địa điểm không quan trọng miễn là nó không nằm trong phạm vi khu vực tôi sinh sống			✓		
Tôi ưa thích đi trong phạm vi khu vực địa phương (trong trung tâm thành phố, thị trấn hay vùng ngoại ô cận kề)				✓	

2.4. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với loại hình các chuyến đi du lịch nội địa. (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
Du lịch ba lô		✓			
Du lịch thăm người thân ở các thành phố hay tỉnh thành khác	✓				
Du lịch theo nhóm nhỏ có sự chuẩn bị cẩn thận cùng những người thân quen (bạn thân, gia đình, đồng nghiệp) tại các đại điểm có trang bị tiện nghi tối thiểu		✓			
Mục đích tín ngưỡng, tôn giáo		✓			
Phần lớn là công tác theo chỉ định của đơn vị công tác		✓			
Tại những nơi có mức độ phục vụ cao cấp và các dịch vụ đặc thù (khách sạn tiêu chuẩn 5 sao, các khu nghỉ dưỡng, những địa điểm giải trí chuyên biệt)	✓				

2.5. Anh/chị đánh giá giá như thế nào về ảnh hưởng của những yếu tố bất định (ngoài dự kiến) trong quá trình đưa ra quyết định đi du lịch (hãy đánh dấu lựa chọn phù hợp nhất với bản thân)

- Không có ảnh hưởng làm tôi phải thay đổi quyết định của mình
- Đôi khi có ảnh hưởng, nhưng không đáng kể để phải thay đổi quyết định
- Phần lớn thời điểm làm tôi phải đổi kế hoạch (hoãn hoặc hủy bỏ)

2.6. Anh/ chị có cho rằng kinh nghiệm đi du lịch trong quá khứ là yếu tố quan trọng đối với các quyết định trong tương lai?

- Không bao giờ phù hợp với tôi
- Đôi khi
- Chỉ đối với những địa điểm tôi đã đi đến trước đây
- Hoàn toàn cần thiết

2.7. Dựa trên bậc thang 5 mức độ, hãy đánh dấu vào lựa chọn anh/chị cảm thấy phù hợp nhất với bản thân khi đánh giá lại trải nghiệm về những chuyến đi du lịch nội địa trước (1 – Không đúng, 2 – Đôi khi đúng, 3 – Trung lập, 4 – Tương đối đúng, 5 – Luôn luôn đúng)

	1	2	3	4	5
Nếu thỏa mãn, tôi sẽ giới thiệu đến những người mà tôi biết				✓	
Tôi sẽ không chủ động đưa ra ý kiến của mình trừ khi người khác chủ động hỏi (trong cả trường hợp hài lòng và không hài lòng về trải nghiệm đối với chuyến đi)			✓		
Tôi sẽ khuyên mọi người không nên đến địa điểm đó trong trường hợp trải nghiệm đó không đáp ứng kỳ vọng của tôi				✓	

Xin chân thành cảm ơn

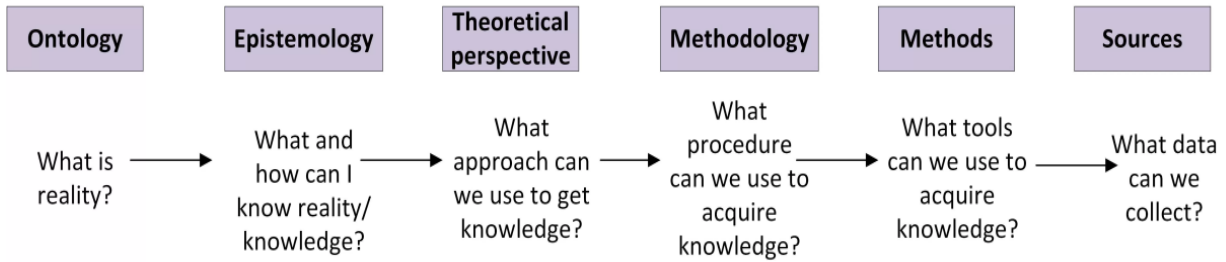
Appendix 2. Illustration of the three components: research paradigm, research methodology and research design

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

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 3. A simplified research methodology framework



Source: Patel, 2015

Appendix 4. 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 5. 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 travel 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; 3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
2.1.2. I am using experience from the past	Information source 2	
2.1.3. I am looking for information from travel agencies' brochures, websites	Information source 3	
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	

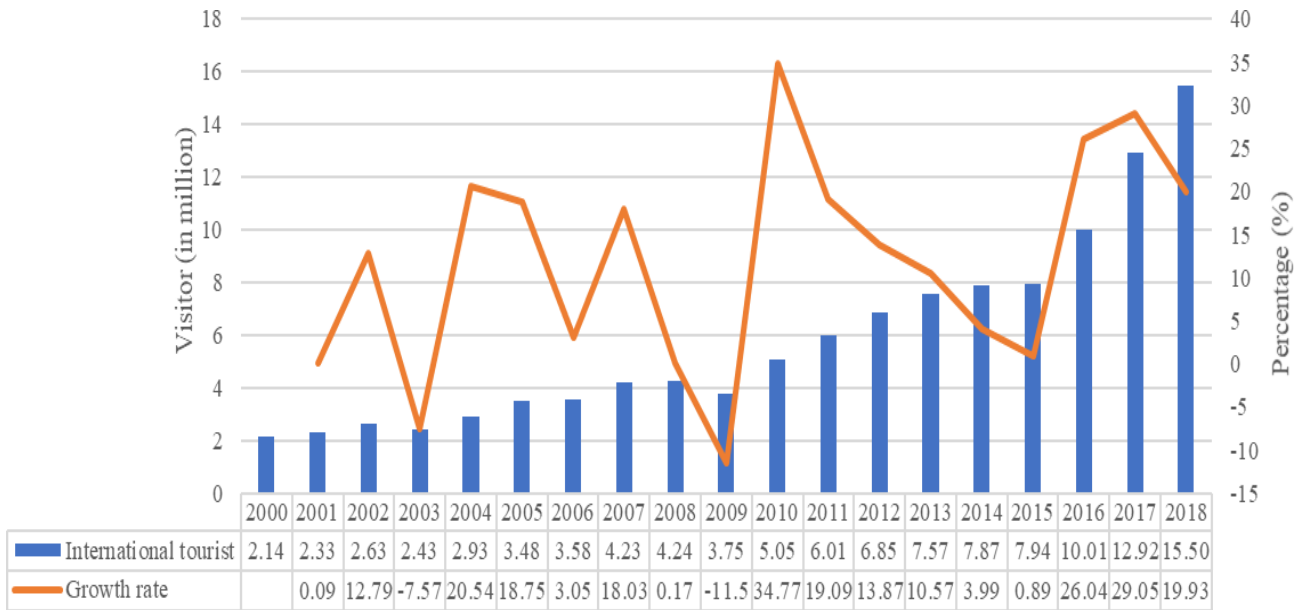
2.1.7. I am not the one to make decision (don't actually involve/follow other's decision)	Information source 7	
2.1.8. It takes me months to plan before decide to travel	Planning 1	
2.1.9. I need time to plan before actual trip but it doesn't consume too much	Planning 2	
2.1.10. The decision to travel just happened in the spur of moment	Planning 3	
2.2.1. I always look for many sources and other's reviews before making decision of the destination I choose	Evaluation 1	1 – Not true; 2 – Relatively true; 3 – Neutral; 4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
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	Emotion 2	

destinations, the situational emotion that are unrelated to the trips...)		
2.3.1. I 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;

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	4 – Sometimes true; 5 – Always true
2.7.3. I would advise everyone to refrain from travel to that place if the experience failed my expectation	Satisfaction 3	

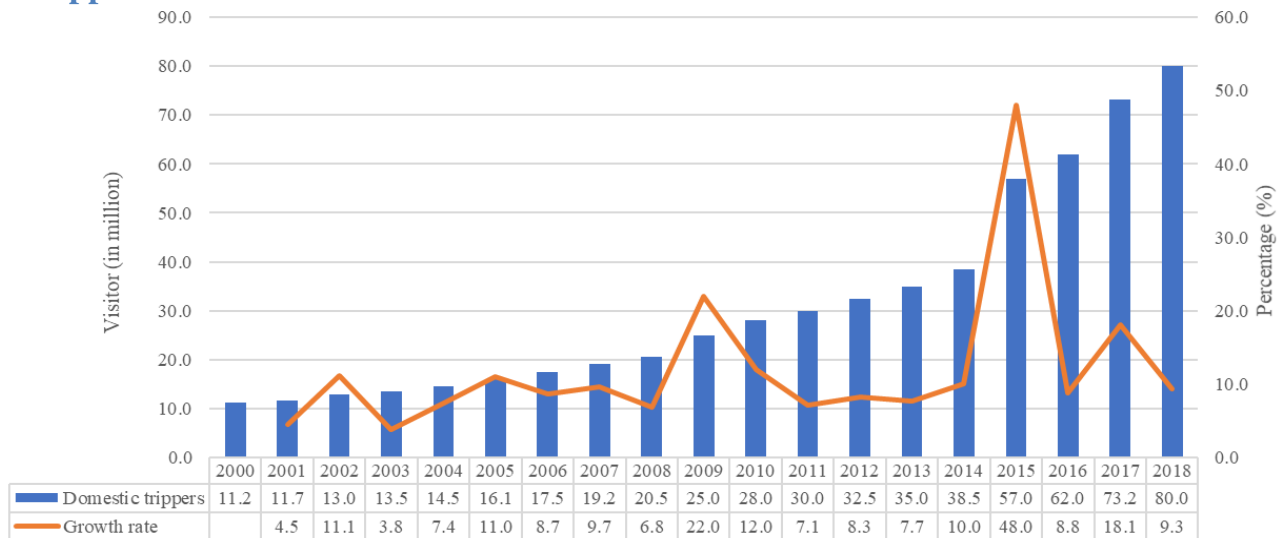
Source: Author

Appendix 6. International tourist arrival to Vietnam from 2010 to 2018



Source: Author extracted from World Bank statistics, 2022

Appendix 7. Domestic tourist of Vietnam from 2010 to 2018



Source: Author extracted from Vietnam National Administration of Tourism statistics, 2019

Appendix 8. EM Estimated Statistics (Little's Missing Completely At Random (MCAR) test)

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

Appendix 9. 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 10. Classification of decision-making role for traveling by gender and income earner status

Main criteria	Male + Main earner		Male + Dependent		Female + Main earner		Female + Dependent	
	Decision maker	Follower	Decision maker	Follower	Decision maker	Follower	Decision maker	Follower
Count	166		43		125		115	
Count	71	95	8	35	43	82	10	105

Source: Author

*There was one case who chose “other” option for gender and this participant also is a dependent with less involvement when making decision to travel

** Those who answer greater than or equal to 3 for inquiry 1.12 is established as “Decision maker” and the rest that chose either 1 or 2 was determined as “Follower” in the sense that they are not the one who make decision for travelling

Appendix 11. 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 12. 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 13. 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 14. 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 15. 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 16. 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 17. 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 18. 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 19. 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 20. 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 21. 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 22. 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 23. 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 24. 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

Source: Author

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 25. 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%	

Source: Author

Appendix 26. 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

Source: Author

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 27. 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/parallelengine/> [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 28. 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 29. 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.