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# The role of salient referrals in slow tourism preferences

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## Abstract

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During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, tourism has seen a rapid increase in different forms of sustainable and alternative tourism. Slow tourism is an emerging branch of sustainable tourism literature. Gaining attention among scholars, slow tourism is principally influenced by three dimensions: (1) mode of transport, (2) destination- and travel experience and (3) environmental consciousness. The author conducted a quantitative study to explore the tourists decision-making process. The aim of the study was to find out whether salient referrals, referring to the perceived social pressure by an individual's referrals salient at one time, had a significant impact on slow tourism preferences. Based on a survey collected in Amsterdam, the pilot study found that salient referrals had limited explanatory power in the behavioural decision-making process of tourists to go for slow tourism. Nonetheless, behavioural beliefs, attitude and perceived behavioural control had a more influential role in guiding the decisions of non-slow tourists. The pilot study contributed to the scarcity of papers concerning slow tourism by providing a contextualized view of the drivers for the behavioural intention of tourists.

Keywords: slow travel, slow tourism, salient referrals, theory of planned behaviour, quantitative research design,

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## Acknowledgements

The GEO proposed thesis topic of “climate change and mobilities” was rather straightforward due to my fascination with people and communities and their interaction with places and the environment. The aim of this study is to contribute to research about an emerging trend called “slow tourism”. The study obtained limited but useful insights into the behavioural decisions in slow tourism and integrated them in policy implications and suggestions for future research. During this project, my supervisor, Edward Huijbens, has been my primary source of inspiration and support. I would like to express my gratitude for his advice and helpful discussions. He allowed me to take this thesis paper to a higher level and I owe him the recognition for that. I am also thankful for the input of family and friends. I also want to thank every respondent that was willing to spend time entering the survey. Without them, I would not have been able to develop the project at current. I am grateful that some people recognize their responsibility in caring for the environment and are willing to take the initiative to be the change in the situation.

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I hereby declare that this thesis is wholly the work of Almar van der Vlugt. Any other contributors have either been referenced in the prescribed manner or are listed in the acknowledgements together with the nature and the scope of their contribution. Where I have consulted the published work of others this is always clearly attributed. Where I have quoted from the work of others the source is always given. A list of the references used, is included. An appropriate referencing style is used throughout. With the exception of such quotations this thesis is entirely my own work. I have read and understand the penalties associated with plagiarism as stated in the Student Charter.

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## 1. Introduction

During the twentieth century, tourism has seen a rapid increase towards different forms of sustainable tourism, amongst which ecotourism, green tourism and responsible tourism can be considered as branches (Lu & Nepal, 2009). According to the UNWTO, sustainable tourism aims to establish a suitable balance between environmental, economic and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development (Sustainable Development of Tourism, n.d.). Sustainable tourism calls for environmental protection while at the same time ensuring economic development and preserving the quality of life for local inhabitants (McCool & Moisey, 2008). An emerging strand of sustainable tourism literature is that of slow tourism. Using sustainability as a guiding principle, slow tourism aims to reduce travel distance by plane and car and minimise the environmental footprint to, from and within the destination (Caffyn, 2012). However, the definition is much broader than that. As opposed to conventional ways of travelling, the essence of slow tourism lies in slowing down, enriching the experience on the way to and in the destination (Lumsdon, & McGrath, 2011). Hence, slow tourism is a new trend that is alternative to the fast and stressful forms of tourism (Peeters, Szimba & Duijnisveld, 2007).

Although empirical research indicates that forms of slow travel account for at least 10% of the European holiday market (Lumsdon, & McGrath, 2011), the viability of the sector remains unclear. Authors have acknowledged the scale of sustainability problems and the gap between environmental concerns and subsequent tourism travel behaviour. Although this might be due to the conservative attitude of tourists (Bramwell & Lane, 2013), others have recognized that sustainability options on the demand and supply side prevent tourists from acting environmentally conscious (Budeanu, 2007; Miller, Rathouse, Scarles, Holmes & Tribe, 2010). Much of the system connected to tourism is therefore locked, making it seem implausible that tourists are willing to engage in slow tourism behaviour. Nonetheless, literature (Lam & Hsu, 2006; Meng & Choi, 2016B; Sparks, 2007) accounts for the potential of reference groups in behavioural change. However, this has only brought forward mixed results.

This thesis addresses this gap and proposes to grasp slow tourism using the theory of planned behaviour. The theory targets the issues related to the behavioural intention of people by coming up with specific interventions that might result in changes in intentions or different perceptions of behaviour (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2015). The pilot study conducted as part of this thesis will address non-slow tourists decision with a special focus on salient referrals. The paper starts with a take on slow tourism concepts, exploring the role of mode of transport, destination and travel experiences, environmental consciousness.

Subsequently, the antecedents of behavioural change will be outlined and the role of salient referrals will be elaborated. Following this, the paper presents the results of a survey conducted in Amsterdam. Finally, a reflection on the integration of slow tourism and the theory of planned behaviour will be provided, setting out the potential direction for future policy and research.

## 2. Literature study

### 2.1 Slow tourism

While the definition of slow tourism is rather ambiguous, authors have outlined a range of principles of slow tourism. For instance, Matos (2004) made an initial contribution to slow tourism and outlined two essential principles. According to the author, the basis for slow tourism lies in (1) “taking time” and (2) “attachment to a particular place”. This implies taking time to discover the particularities of a place, especially in relation to nature, understanding the local culture and other characteristics. Central to the definition of slow tourism is thus engagement, immersion and slowness (Heitmann, Robinson & Povey, 2011). This experiential component of slow tourism started as a reaction toward modernity’s increasing tendency towards fast consumerism. Having all kinds of negative consequences on people’s lifestyles and the environment, fast consumerism only allows people to rush rather than relax (Honoré, 2005). In leisure and tourism, fast consumerism also led to the domination of faster modes of travel, not least with the introduction of jet engine air travel, today having adverse effects on the climate (Peeters et al., 2007). Slow tourism plays a role in offering an alternative to this fast type of tourism (Peeters et al., 2007), in which people make an active effort to learn about the characteristics of a destination while travelling at a slower pace from, to and within a given destination.

Lumsdon & McGrath (2011, p.276) created a definition and a framework of slow tourism. According to them, slow tourism is about appreciating time and slowness in which the journey is integral in the whole travel experience. By integrating the journey itself, the mode of transport that is used becomes important, but also the activities that are done in the destination. Furthermore, elements of the locality and reduced duration and distance of travel are equally important. This is in line with Caffyn (2012, p.78), who advocated that slow tourism is about reducing travel distance by plane and car; maximising the time available for a trip; reflexing and refreshing the mind; exploring the particularities of a place with regard to people, nature and culture; emphasis on quality experiences rather than quantity and trying to minimise the carbon footprint to and within the destination. In these definitions, a few underlying dimensions are evident which are (1) mode of transport, (2) environmental consciousness and (3) destination experience. In the subsequent sections, a more thorough understanding of these dimensions will be provided.

## 2.2 Slow tourism and mode of transport

To move from one place to the other, tourists may either choose for slow or fast modes of travel, depending on their itinerary, time schedule and preferences. However, little is known about the instrumental reasons for choosing a certain mode of travel (Oh, Assaf, & Baloglu, 2016). In their study, Oh et al. (2016, p.5) define fast modes of travel as “the mental tempo of movement or travel activities that is felt by the traveller, mostly under time pressure, as fast, rushed, or hastened in processing external stimuli during the trip”. This signifies that tourists feel like they do not have enough time to process all the experiences during their trip, particularly because of the tendency to visit as much in as little time possible. According to them, the traveller might also choose for slower modes of travel, in which the tourist experiences “a mentally and attitudinally slowed temporal process of responding to external stimuli” (Oh et al., 2016, p. 5). This implies that slow tourists, based on their personal expression of attitudes, choose for slow modes of travel in order to have enough time to process experiences on the way to and in the destination.

Molz (2009, p.270), explored this distinction between slow and fast and investigated how the speed at which tourists move is made meaningful in popular representations of travel. Her article examined the significance of ideals and morals that are embedded in Western society and argued that meanings related to pace are related to political ideas about mobility. She contends that in Western society, speed is explicitly rewarded, while slowness and waiting are seen as incorrect and away from the ideals of success and freedom. The slow travel movement contrasts this by seeking positive experiences in moving slowly and associating slowness with moral deliberation and environmental stewardship. Moreover, the slow movement is deemed as a “more authentic way of being in the world that generates an intimate connection with people, places and cultures” (Molz, 2009, p.283). Molz (2009) concludes that representations of pace could open opportunities for using alternative modes of transport. However, these opportunities for alternative mobility practices can only be realized, provided people start to associate slowness with moral deliberation, environmental sustainability and stillness.

Dickinson, Lumsdon & Robbins (2011, p. 282) also wrote about the carbon-intensive travel practices that tourism has become used to. Their framework provides that through slow travel, people seek an antidote to faster modes of travel, preferring the train, cycling and walking over air and car travel. By travelling slowly, tourists negotiate their relationship with the environment. Thus, travelling slowly can be seen as an expression of ethical and ideological values. In particular, slow modes enjoy a lower ecological footprint (Conway & Timms, 2012), which is illustrated in table 1 (Dickinson et al. 2010). However, the authors also acknowledge the scale of the problem and the gap between environmental concerns and

subsequent tourism travel behaviour. As of today, tourists are still justifying their travel customs and air travel behaviour, expressing denial towards climate change in general. This will be explained in a subsequent section about slow tourism and environmental consciousness.

**TABLE 1: AVERAGE CO<sup>2</sup> EMISSIONS OF DIFFERENT MODES OF TRANSPORT**

Mode of transport	Emissions per KG/ person
Air <500 km	0.183
Air 500-1000 km	0.134
Air 1000-1500 km	0.130
Air 1500-2000 km	0.121
Air >2000 km	0.111
Car	0.121
Rail	0.033
Cycle	0
Walk	0

### 2.3 Slow tourism and destination and travel experience

One of the most prominent ways in which destination experiences have been conceptualized is by means of four cognitive realms outlined by Pine & Gilmore (1999): (1) entertainment, (2) education, (3) escapism and (4) aesthetic experience. Oh, Fiore & Jeoung (2007) explained these four realms in the following way. In entertainment and aesthetic experience, tourists are passively involved whereas tourists are actively involved in educational and escapism experiences. On the other hand, tourists typically absorb entertainment and education experiences. Finally, tourists rather immerse themselves in escapism and aesthetic experiences. These dimensions have also been recognized by authors writing about slow tourism. For instance, Varley and Semple (2015, p.84-85) argued that escapism and freedom may well be themes of slow tourism. More specifically, the authors refer to the active participation of slow tourists who must commit to different activities that constitute slow tourism.

In another strand of literature, Agapito, Mendes & Valle (2013) discuss sensory experiences and argue that human senses construct the experiences in and the perceptions of the destination. According to these authors, internal and external factors primarily drive sensory experiences. For instance, holiday choice might be based on personal preferences but also on external factors, such as the temperature in the destination. Fullagar, Wilson & Markwell (2012), bring forward that slow forms of tourism also draw

upon the sensory embodiment of the journey. This implies that slow tourism is an interactive process in which the human senses and the external environment help construct and enhance the journey itself. On the one hand, slow tourism is defined by internal factors such as the personal identity of tourists, situational variables and the overall perception of the destination. Alternatively, external factors could relate to the design of roads or the functionality of products and services, like public transport.

Dickinson et al (2010, p.283) recognized the need for enhanced destination experiences in slow tourism. The authors investigated how people construct and modify their travel experiences to justify particular decisions and behaviour. According to the authors, slow tourists construct the travel experience by actively focusing on the landscape, culture, interaction with other tourists and the local community. In doing so, slow tourists are negotiating their own identity with the destination. However, the authors explicitly highlight the level of effort that should be considered when someone is involved in slow tourism. Still, the high effort provides highly managed experiences, which positively influences the travel narrative. It is therefore given that tourism requires having a certain personal identity, active participation and commitment and putting a level of effort in managing destination experiences.

## 2.4 Slow tourism and environmental consciousness

In tourism and travel literature, environmental consciousness is i.a. the recognition of environmental impacts caused by different modes of travel (Shen, Sakata & Hashimoto, 2008, p.1230). This third branch of literature emphasizes the ways that slow tourism reduces carbon emissions on the way to and within the destination (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011). Slow tourists often travel less distance compared to a conventional holiday. Less distance covered is compensated by spending more time in the destination in search of meaningful experiences. This sustainable form of travelling shows peoples' commitment to the environment (Lin, 2017) and suggests that slow tourism could become the segmentation of services that are aimed at environmentally conscious consumers (Yurtseven, & Kaya, 2011).

Despite increasing conceptions about green consciousness among tourists (Hares, Dickinson, Wilkes, 2010), tourists are still not very interested in adopting a sustainable lifestyle or using sustainable products. In general, the response to sustainability initiatives is still low (Budeanu, 2007). Miller et al. (2010), identify that this might be due to a lack of sustainable opportunities on the supply side. Tourists often feel like there is a lack of alternatives to long-distance travel. Moreover, tourists also seem to put more responsibility on the government to address sustainability initiatives. Miller et al. (2010) therefore conclude that environmentally conscious behaviour is contingent on the sustainable options on the supply

side. Alternatively, Budeanu (2007) points out that sustainable actions need to be considered on the demand side too. Although there are many initiatives on the supply side that are supposed to steer tourism and travel behaviour, tourists act only marginally upon them. According to the authors, there are several reasons why tourists do not behave in an environmentally conscious manner. Reasons related to habits, convenience and personal preferences, but also price, service quality and time consumption, prevent tourists from acting sustainably.

Lumsdon & McGrath (2011) mentioned another barrier preventing the behavioural change of tourists. According to them, there is considerable inertia in tourists structures. This implies that there is little room for change in the way that travel opportunities and choices are offered to tourists (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011, p. 282). Behavioural choices become institutionalized and are “limited by travel supply structures, which then reinforces behavioural decisions”. For instance, on several occasions, train tickets are still more expensive than flying by plane even though going by train is more environmentally sound. Due to this perceived effort of changing behaviour and the institutionalization of travel structures, it seems unlikely that tourists are willing to change their behaviour and engage in slow tourism.

## 2.5 Slow tourism and salient referrals

The concept of “salient referrals” comes from the theory of planned behaviour. Central in the theory of planned behaviour is the prediction of behavioural intention. According to Epstein (1983), two measures for predicting behavioural intention need to be considered, which are reliability and validity. Measures need to meet the requirement of reliability because behavioural intention is contingent on the situation and therefore not generalizable or replicable if changes in the conditions of the situation occur. Due to this, behavioural intention needs to be measured in several instances before it can be considered reliable. Alternatively, validity needs to be considered when measures for predicting behavioural intention are employed. In order to measure behavioural intention accurately, it is wise to make sure that the items that are used are highly related. Thus, behavioural intention is highly situationally specific meaning that measures for predicting behaviour need to be aggregated over a number of situations before findings can be replicable and scientifically meaningful.

Ajzen (1991), the author that proposed the theory of planned behaviour, also mentioned the principle of aggregation. He uses aggregation to refer to the principle that not only general dispositions but also other factors unique to the situation, might influence an individual’s behaviour. Ajzen (1991) does not deny that general dispositions have an influence on behavioural intention. However, other factors unique to the situation might be evident as well, which might influence behavioural intention. By aggregating different

behaviours, occurring on different occasions and situations, other factors unique to the situation will cancel each other out, resulting in a more accurate representation of an individual's behavioural intention.

The theory of planned behaviour uses a collection of constructs to explain behavioural intention. In their respective aggregates (Ajzen, 2006), behavioural beliefs & attitude, normative beliefs & subjective norms and control beliefs & perceived behavioural control are believed to predict behavioural intention (see figure 1). The figure demonstrates three constructs that directly influence behavioural intention, which are (1) attitude, (2) subjective norms and (3) perceived behavioural control (De Leeuw, Valois, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2015). The first one is that people will be likely to engage in behaviour towards which they have a favourable attitude. Furthermore, people will engage in behaviour if the perceived social pressure to do so is high. The last antecedent is perceived behavioural control, which is the perceived ease of performing the behaviour.

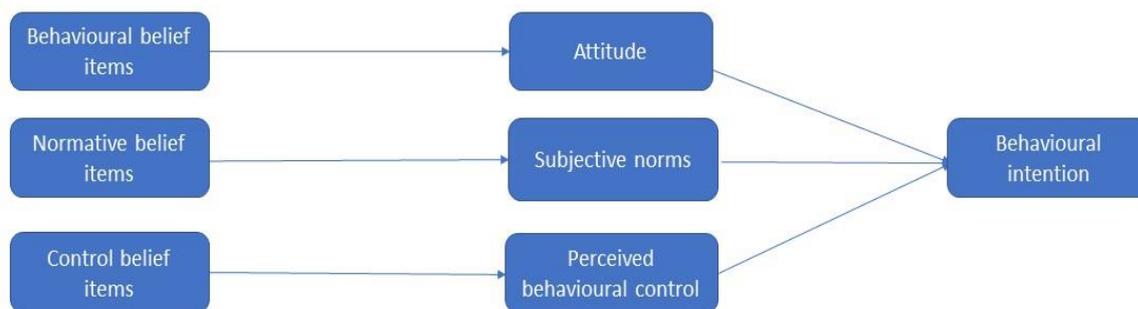


FIGURE 1: A VISUAL REPRESENTATION OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The antecedents of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are individual beliefs, which reflect the underlying cognitive structure i.e. the mechanisms that account for the link between a specific behaviour and a particular outcome (Armitage & Conner, 2001, 474). The corresponding items are (1) behavioural beliefs, (2) normative beliefs and (3) control beliefs. Attitude is defined by behavioural beliefs which are salient at the time. The higher someone values a given outcome, the more favourable the attitude towards a certain behaviour will be. Subjective norms are believed to be formed by normative beliefs, which is the likelihood that referrals, with whom the individual is motivated to comply, will approve or disapprove the behaviour (Armitage & Conner, 2001, p.474). It is about what referrals think an individual should do and the individual's own motivation to comply with the values of those referrals. Finally, control beliefs relate to the individual's perception of power in controlling context-specific factors that can facilitate or restrain from the performance of the behaviour.

Meng & Choi (2016, B), proposed to grasp slow tourism using the theory of planned behaviour and applied it to a slow tourism destination. Concerning attitude, slow tourists valued high-quality experiences and learning about the particularities of a destination. Tourists engaged in slow tourism destination because it yields outcomes that they think are important to them. As an individual will value other opinions, subjective norms also need to be considered in individual behaviour. With regards to subjective norms, Meng & Choi (2016, B) showed that tourists were motivated to comply with the values and suggestions of referrals such as friends and family. Finally, behavioural control implies that available resources and capabilities define whether someone will engage in a certain type of behaviour. In this sense, engaging in slow tourism depends on the time and a certain degree of flexibility that individuals possess. As for behavioural control, slow tourists had a high perception of control with regards to engaging in slow tourism. According to Meng & Choi (2016), subjective norms were the strongest variable in predicting the intention of slow tourists to engage in slow tourism. This means that the perceived pressure from family, friends and relatives that are salient at the time, is the factor that mostly influences behavioural intention. The authors concluded that salient referrals must be found to develop effective marketing strategies of tourism organisations that focus on influencing the perception of tourists toward slow tourism.

Other studies, that focused on the behavioural intention of choosing a certain destination or vacation type, have also recognized the influence of subjective norms. Sparks (2007), while mapping the behavioural intention of tourists in choosing a wine destination, proposed significant effects of subjective norms on behavioural intention. Sparks (2007) acknowledged the influence of direct (friends and family) and indirect (travel agents) referrals on behavioural intention. Sparks (2007) encouraged future lines of inquiry to look at how referrals influence the tourists' cognitive image of the destination. Moreover, Lam & Hsu (2006) concluded that subjective norms have a direct impact on choosing Hong Kong as a holiday destination. According to them, social influence from referrals could help promote slow tourism since referrals can spread a positive word of mouth about it. Alternatively, Chung, Kim, Lee & Kim (2018) investigated the perceptions of slowness by South-Korean tourists. The authors did not find significant effects of subjective norms on behavioural intention and argued that the visit of a slow festival was imperative regardless of the opinion of tourists' referrals.

Up to now, the research of subjective norms on behavioural intention has only brought mixed results. Moreover, subjective norms have not been determined adequately in the case of non-slow tourists. The paper will address this gap, assuming that reference groups will influence the behavioural intention of non-slow tourists. The literature accounts for the fact that it is important for tourism organisations to

understand the factors that drive non-slow tourists to go for slow tourism. This will enable tourism organisations to develop effective strategies that would help slow tourism become a viable marketing segment.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Research design

By using the theory of planned behaviour, the core ingredients of slow tourism (1) mode of transport, (2) environmental consciousness (3) destination- and travel experience can be integrated. By recognizing that these concepts are closely interconnected, slow tourism is approached in a holistic way. Whereas modes of transport, destination and travel experiences and environmental consciousness are the primary elements that drive slow tourism, the literature review showed that the role of salient referrals is less clear. The aim of the study was to determine whether salient referrals have a role in motivating tourists to engage in slow tourism. Since the constructs of the theory of planned behaviour are imperative for behavioural intention, a deductive quantitative research design was chosen. Therefore, the following research questions and hypotheses were constructed.

***Q1: What is the role of behavioural belief items and attitude in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism?***

H1= Behavioural belief items do not significantly predict a change in the attitude of non-slow tourists towards slow tourism

H2= Attitude does not significantly predict the intention of non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism.

***Q2: What is the role of normative belief items and subjective norms in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism?***

H3= Normative belief items do significantly predict a change in the perception of subjective norms

H4= Subjective norms do significantly predict the intention of non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism

***Q3: What is the role of control belief items and perceived behavioural control in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism?***

H5= Behavioural belief items do not significantly predict a change in the perception of perceived behaviour control

H6= Perceived behaviour control does not significantly predict the intention of non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism

## 3.2 Data collection

The study employed a data collection period of three weeks from 29-04-2019 until 17-05-2019. Data was collected at three spots in Amsterdam: (1) Amsterdam Dam square, (2) Amsterdam Central Station and (3) Amsterdam the Pijp. Amsterdam as a tourism destination was chosen as a tourism destination, since it attracts a variety of travellers with different travel intentions. Destinations with a potential slow tourism orientation were avoided because it reduced bias and made sure that the pilot study addressed slow tourism in a conservative manner (Oh et al., 2016). The first week was used to survey at Amsterdam Central Station, the second week at Amsterdam the Pijp. The last week was spent at Amsterdam Dam Square. A more detailed version of the data collection schedule can be found in appendix A, figure 9. Quota sampling was used during the data collection period, a form of non-probability sampling in which a certain characteristic is chosen (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena & Nigam, 2013) and represented in the sample. The researcher decided to sample based on gender. The number of males and females were tracked, and the researcher put a demand on who was going to be sampled. Occasionally, the researcher demanded specifically for a male to complete the survey and the other way around. This assured that the study sample at least retained the properties of the entire population in terms of sex.

### 3.2.1 Questionnaire design

A 32-item questionnaire involved concepts from the theory of planned behaviour (see appendix B). The questionnaire was already constructed by Meng & Choi (2016, B). Due to the rather limited time of the data collection, some concepts were removed from the survey. The item “environmental concerns” was cut out of the survey since Meng & Choi (2016, B) treated it as a separate factor that influences behavioural intention. Still, most of the items on the constructs from the theory of planned behaviour were maintained and divided into seven categories. The categories represented in the questionnaire were (1) behavioural belief items, (2) attitude, (3) normative belief items, (4) subjective norms, (5) control belief items, (6) perceived behavioural control and (7) behavioural intention. Using a five-point Likert Scale, the respondents answered questions in the different categories. The items in each category ranged from (1) strongly disagree, (2) somewhat disagree, (3) neither disagree nor agree, (4) somewhat agree to (5) strongly agree.

Five items represented behavioural beliefs, which were: (1) I like to explore places of interest and enjoy the discovery, learning, and sharing of my experience (2) I engage with local food, local markets, local people, local places, and local culture (3) I like to travel at a slower pace, enjoying landscape, nature and people (4) I think the journey to the destination is integral in the experience and (5) I think that using

sustainable modes of transport (walk, bike, bus and train) is important. These belief items represent what constitutes a slow tourism experience according to the tourists that were surveyed. Conversely, four items indicated the attitude of tourists towards slow tourism which were: (1) I think that slow tourism is good (2) I think that slow tourism is valuable (3) I think that slow tourism is beneficial to the local community and (4) I think that slow tourism is attractive to me. To be willing to engage in slow tourism, tourists need to positively evaluate the behaviour.

Three items indicated the presence of normative beliefs, which were: (1) I would engage in slow tourism if my family would advise me to (2) I would engage in slow tourism if my friends would advise me to and (3) I would engage in slow tourism if my colleagues would advise me to. Individual beliefs that referrals, for instance friends, family or colleagues, with whom the tourist is motivated, are likely to generate a positive intention towards slow tourism. Alternatively, subjective norms was represented by three items: (1) Most people who are important to me would think it is okay for me to go for slow tourism (2) Most people who are important to me would support if I go for slow tourism and (3) Most people who are important to me would agree with me about going for slow tourism. As has been mentioned, behavioural intention can also be influenced by the reference groups of the tourists. Once again, a positive word of mouth by the tourist's referrals might positively influence behavioural intention.

Finally, three items constituted control beliefs, which were: (1) I would engage in slow tourism if it was more convenient (2) I would engage in slow tourism if I had more time and (3) I would engage in slow tourism if I had more money. These items are individuals beliefs that can either facilitate or restrain the tourists from engaging in slow tourism behaviour. On the other hand, four items were used to represent perceived behavioural control. These items were: (1) Whether or not I travel for slow tourism is completely up to me (2) I am confident that if I want to, I can go for slow tourism and (3) I have enough resources, time, and opportunities to go for slow tourism. These items all relate to the perceived ease of participating in slow tourism. The assumption is that tourists will score low on control beliefs and perceived behavioural control. Finally, the variable behavioural intention was indicated by two items, which were (1) I intend to engage in slow tourism in the near future and (2) I will make an effort to travel with slower and more sustainable modes of transport (walk, bus, train) in the near future. The plausibility of the behavioural intention of tourists to engage in slow tourism is contingent on the determinants that were mentioned above.

### 3.3 Sampling design

The survey was distributed to tourists at the data collection spots using an online tool called Qualtrics. Using this tool, respondents filled in the survey on site with the device that the researcher brought. The rule of thumb to collect the responses was to approach every third person. At the variables (1) What is your current stay in Amsterdam and (2) How many times have you visited Amsterdam, two extreme outliers ( $n=8$  and  $n=21$ ) were respectively identified. However, the data was not included in the theoretical model and therefore maintained. Although the aim was to collect at least 150 questionnaires, 118 responses (78.7%) were accumulated. Quota sampling resulted in a sample consisting of 47.5% male (56) and 52.5% female (62). Birth year ranged from 1957 to 2000 ( $n=118$ ,  $M=1985$ ,  $SD=10.04$ ). On average, tourists had spend 3.69 in Amsterdam with a standard deviation of 3.49 days. Alternatively, tourists had visited Amsterdam 1.92 times with a standard deviation of 2.42 days. The descriptive statistics are presented in table 2 below.

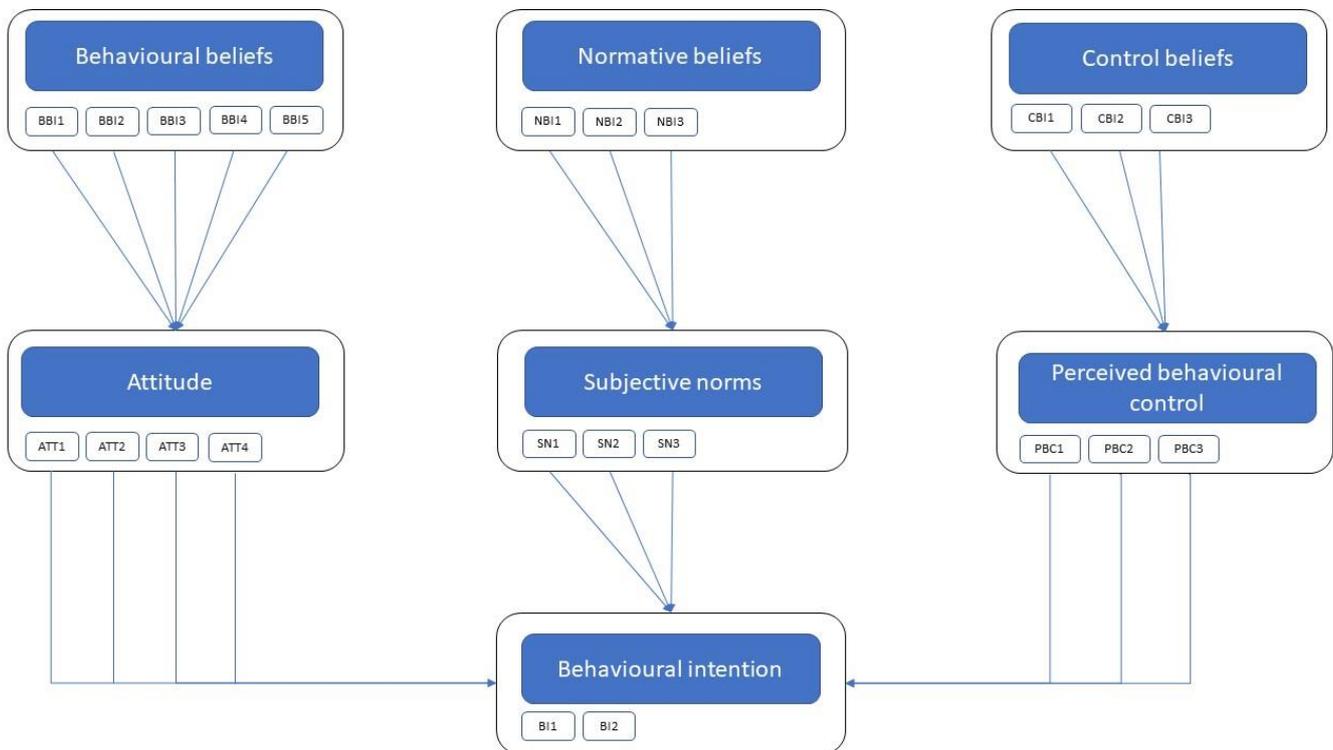
**TABLE 2: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS**

Respondents' descriptive statistics		
Variable	Category	Distribution
Gender	Male	N=56 (47.5%)
	Female	N=62 (52.5%)
Birth year	Mean	1985 (std.= 10.04)
	Median	1987
Number of days stayed in Amsterdam	Mean	3.69 (std.=3,46)
	Median	3.00
Number of times visited Amsterdam	Mean	1.92 (std.= 2.42)
	Median	1.00

### 3.4 Data analysis

The literature provided reasonable belief that people’s behavioural intention is largely guided by attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and salient individual beliefs. The focus is therefore on the causal structure between the constructs of the theoretical model. Before going on to explaining the data analysis method, it is important to point out that constructs from the theory of planned behaviour are latent in nature. This refers to variables of which the true values are not observable and measurable (Skrondal & Rabe-Hesketh, 2007). Due to this property, the statistical model that is used must connect the hidden values of latent variables with directly observable variables. In order to model the theoretical framework, multiple indicators were used to capture the essence of every construct (Jeon, 2015), which is illustrated in figure 2 below. Because the constructs are represented by multiple indicators, caution was used in making sure that the indicators were highly correlated. This enables for measuring true variability in the outcome variables (Field,2009, p.666-667). Therefore, a reliability analysis was conducted to determine whether the items on the constructs were sufficiently related, which will be explained in the subsequent section

**FIGURE 2: A VISUAL REPRESENTATION OF THE THEORETICAL MODEL IN WHICH THE CONSTRUCTS ARE REPRESENTED BY MULTIPLE ITEMS**



### 3.4.1 Reliability analysis

The reliability analysis uses the Cronbach's Alpha test of reliability, which is an estimate of the internal consistency associated with the scores that can be derived from a scale item. The Cronbach's Alpha indicates how much variance in the dependent variable can be considered true variance. Table 3 represents the Cronbach's Alpha for each construct, which all range from 0-1. The value represents the average correlation between the items, meaning that higher Alpha values correspond to more internal consistency. Whereas 0.00 means that there is no consistency in measuring the construct, 1.0 refers to a perfect consistency. A commonly accepted rule for determining internal consistency is that the value on the Alpha should lie between 0.7 and 1. This means that 70% of the variance in the scores can be considered true variance. Table 3 demonstrates that behavioural belief items and perceived behavioural control do not meet the criteria of internal consistency.

**TABLE 3: CRONBACH'S ALPHA STATISTICS**

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Internal consistency
Behavioural belief items	0,671	Questionable
Attitude	0,836	Good
Normative belief items	0,802	Good
Subjective norms	0,846	Good
Control belief items	0,786	Acceptable
Perceived behavioural control	0,607	Questionable
Behavioural intention	0,753	Acceptable

### 3.4.2 Data analysis method

Multiple observable items were used to represent the constructs from the theory of planned behaviour. Since these indicators acceptably fit the constructs, multiple regression was used to represent the underlying causal structure. Multiple regression is an extension of linear regression and utilizes a number of independent variables to predict the value of the dependent variable, otherwise known as the outcome variable (Field, 2009). Six multiple regression analyses have been conducted during the data analysis.

1. The dependent variable *attitude (AT)* was predicted by five independent variables from *behavioural belief items (BBI)*.
2. The dependent variable *behavioural intention (BI)* was predicted by four independent variables from *attitude (AT)*.
3. The dependent variable *subjective norms (SN)* was predicted by three independent variables from *normative beliefs (NBI)*.
4. The dependent variable *behavioural intention (BI)* was predicted by three independent variables from *subjective norms (SN)*.
5. The dependent variable *perceived behavioural control (PBC)* was predicted by three independent variables from *control beliefs (CBI)*.
6. The dependent variable *behavioural intention (BI)* is predicted by three items on *perceived behavioural control (PBC)*.

To provide an example of one of the multiple regression procedures, the dependent variable attitude was predicted by behavioural beliefs that were represented by five indicators. The independent variables that were representing behavioural beliefs, were kept separately. Alternatively, the items that were representing attitude were grouped as one variable. In the subsequent multiple regression, the individual items that represented attitude functioned as independent variables and predicted the dependent variable “behavioural intention”. Once again, the dependent variable “behavioural intention” was created by merging the items on behavioural intention into one variable. The same procedure applied for the other multiple regressions shown above.

Accepting or neglecting the hypotheses that were presented earlier relied on a number of statistics, mainly the  $R^2$ , adjusted  $R^2$ , F, t and B. The  $R^2$  shows how much percentage of variation in the dependent variables is accounted for by the independent variables. The independent variables account for a high amount of variance when the  $R^2$  is high as well. The adjusted  $R^2$  works practically the same as the  $R^2$ , but it takes the number of explaining variables in the data set into account. Since the six multiple regressions use a different number of independent variables, the adjusted  $R^2$  was preferred. The F-statistic was used to

determine whether regression is the appropriate model for analysing the relation between the dependent and independent variables. The procedure for the multiple regression continued when the F-statistic had a p-value below 0.05. A significant p-value on the F-statistics usually illustrates that one or more independent variables significantly predict a change in the dependent variable. The t-statistic was employed to determine whether one of the coefficients of the independent variables significantly differs from the dependent variable. Once again, a significant p-value ( $<0.05$ ) indicates that a independent variable significantly explains a difference in the dependent variable. Finally, the B-statistic was used by the researcher to see how big the size of the regression effect was (Field, 2009). B-statistic values closer to one indicate a bigger the statistical effect. Having laid out the procedure for doing a multiple regression, the next part will dig deeper into assumption violations.

### 3.4.3 Assumption violations

Given the rather small sample size, attention was paid to assumption violations. Multiple regression pays attention to two assumptions (1) data should be normally distributed and (2) data should be homoscedastic. Once data is collected, the assumption is that data should be normally distributed. According to Ahsanullah, Kibria & Shakil (2014, p.7), the normal distribution is “a continuous probability distribution with a general shape”. It holds that 95% of the data should be distributed between -2 and 2 standard deviations from the mean. Typical features of a normal distribution are that it is symmetric and bell-shaped curved. One can validate normality by using a Shapiro-Wilk test.

Data is not normally distributed if the test shows a significance value lower than 0.05. This was applicable for all the constructs that were used in this study. The results of this test are given in table 4 on page 24. An appropriate measure for non-normally distributed data is bootstrapping. Neal & Simons (2007, p.445), contend that bootstrapping is a method of estimating a sample distribution of any given construct. Bootstrapping uses the existing sample to draw a collection of, for instance, 1000 samples that would yield 1000 estimates of the mean of a construct. This frees the researcher from the need to have a normally distributed sample. Concerning the non-normality of the data in this study, bootstrapping was applied to obtain a more accurate estimation of the regression effects. To do this, the researcher selected *bootstrap*. Bootstrapping was done according to the default SPSS settings.

The second assumption concerns homoscedasticity, a term referring to the homogeneity of error variance. Standard error variance should be similar across a number of samples from the population in order to meet the assumption of homoscedasticity. The standard error, a measure referring to the accuracy of an estimate,

becomes inefficient and inconsistent if heteroscedasticity is present (Long & Ervin, 2000, p.2). Since SPSS does not have a test for measuring homoscedasticity, a macro was downloaded with the Koenker test. A commonly accepted rule for the Koenker test is that the p-values should be larger than the chosen alpha value of 0.05 to be homoscedastic. Whereas low values on the Koenker test-statistic represent heteroscedasticity, values close 1 refer to homoscedasticity. By looking at table 4, one can see that none of the constructs that were used in this study was below 0.05. In fact, all were higher than 0.05, meaning that the null hypothesis, that heteroscedasticity is not present, should be accepted.

**TABLE 4: THE RESULTS FROM THE SHAPIRO-WILK TEST AND THE KOENKER TEST**

Construct	Shapiro-Wilk test	Koenker Test
Behavioural belief items	0.006	0.565
Attitude	0.000	0.503
Normative belief items	0.000	0.806
Subjective norms	0.000	0.920
Control belief items	0.000	0.313
Perceived behavioural control	0.001	0.859

## 4. Results

### 4.1 The relation between behavioural belief items and attitude

The independent variables from behavioural belief items were: (1) I like to explore places of interest and enjoy the discovery, learning and sharing of my experience, (2) I engage with local food and markets, local people and local culture, (3) I like to travel at a slower pace, enjoying the landscape, nature and people, (4) I think the journey to the destination is integral in the experience and (5) I think that using sustainable modes of transport (walk, bike, bus and train) is important. The independent variables all have to do with how non-slow tourists value the outcomes of engaging in slow tourism.

The first step of the analysis is to enter all the requested items from behavioural beliefs as independent variables and the average score on attitude as the dependent variable. The output showed that the adjusted  $R^2$  is 0.28, meaning that 28% of the variance in the average score on attitude is explained by the difference in the independent variables. The F-statistic is significant ( $F=10.148$ ,  $df=5$ ,  $p=0.000$ ), which indicates that at least one of the independent variables significantly predicts the average score on attitude. The significance of the F-statistics allows for interpreting the t- and B-statistic. Considering the t-statistic in the coefficient table, the following can be concluded. The coefficient of the predictor “I like to explore places on interests and enjoy the discovery, learning and sharing of my experience” is significant ( $t=2.345$ ,  $p=0.021$ )<sup>1</sup>. This implies that this independent variable significantly explains a difference in the average score on attitude.

On the other hand, the coefficient of the predictor “I engage with local food and markets, local people and local culture” is not significant ( $t=1.970$ ,  $p=0.087$ )<sup>2</sup>. The independent variable “I like to travel at a slow pace, enjoying the landscape, nature and people” is not significant either ( $t=2.771$ ,  $p=0.054$ )<sup>3</sup>. The same applies for the independent variables “I think the journey is integral in the experience” ( $t=0.240$ ,  $p=0.805$ )<sup>4</sup> and “I think that using sustainable modes of transport (walk, bike, bus and train) is important” ( $t=1.793$ ,  $p=0.112$ )<sup>5</sup>. All the coefficients of the predictors are equal to zero, meaning that these predictors do not account for explaining variance in the average score on attitude. Note that in all cases, the 95% confidence

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<sup>1</sup> Behavioural belief item 1

<sup>2</sup> Behavioural belief item 2

<sup>3</sup> Behavioural belief item 3

<sup>4</sup> Behavioural belief item 4

<sup>5</sup> Behavioural belief item 5

interval for bootstrapping included the value 0, meaning that the bootstrapping coefficients were considered<sup>6</sup>.

Concerning the importance of the significant independent variables, it can be concluded that “I like to travel at a slow pace, enjoying the landscape, nature and people” has the biggest effect ( $B=0.189$ ). For every 1 unit increase in this independent variable, it accounts for an increase of 0.189 in the dependent variable. The summary of the output is presented below (Table 5).

**TABLE 5: SUMMARY OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE ATTITUDE (N = 118)**

Theory of planned behaviour					
Independent variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sign.</i>
Behavioural belief item 1	0.178	0.076	0.214	2.345	0.021*
Behavioural belief item 2	0.140	0.082	0.178	1.970	0.087
Behavioural belief item 3	0.189	0.095	0.246	2.771	0.054
Behavioural belief item 4	0.016	0.065	0.022	0.240	0.805
Behavioural belief item 5	0.102	0.066	0.157	1.793	0.112
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.312			
<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.281			
<i>F</i>		10.148**			

*Note:* \* $p < .05$  & \*\* $p < .01$ .

<sup>6</sup> Note that with bootstrapping, the coefficient table can differ

## 4.2 The relation between attitude and behavioural intention

The independent variables of the construct attitude were: (1) I think that slow tourism is good, (2) I think that slow tourism is valuable, (3) I think that slow tourism is beneficial to the local community, (4) I think that slow tourism is attractive to me. The independent variables all show reasons for having a favourable attitude towards slow tourism.

Once again, the first step is to interpret the adjusted R-square. This is 0.27, meaning that 27% of the variance in the average score on behavioural intention is explained by the difference in the independent variables. The F-statistic is also significant ( $F=11.680$ ,  $df=4$ ,  $p=0.000$ ), meaning that at least one of the independent variables significantly predicts the average score on behavioural intention. Since the F-statistic is significant, one can start looking at the t-statistic.

Considering the t-statistic in the coefficient table, the following can be concluded. The coefficient of the predictor “I think that slow tourism is good” is not significant ( $t=0.701$ ,  $p=0.527$ )<sup>7</sup>. This is neither the case for “I think that slow tourism is valuable” ( $t=1.748$ ,  $p=0.097$ )<sup>8</sup> and “I think that slow tourism is beneficial to the local community” ( $t=0.616$ ,  $p=0.565$ )<sup>9</sup>. It can be concluded that all the coefficients of the predictors are equal to zero. This implies that these predictors do not significantly explain a difference in the average score on behavioural intention. Note that in all these cases, the 95% confidence interval for bootstrapping included the value 0, meaning that the bootstrapping coefficients were considered.

On the other hand, the coefficient of the predictor “I think that slow tourism is attractive to me” is significant ( $t=0.280$ ,  $p=0.013$ ). This leads to the conclusion that the coefficient of the predictor is not equal to zero. Since this is the only significant independent variable, one can conclude that this is the most important predictor of behavioural intention. The unstandardized B-value of the predictor suggests that with every increase of 1 unit in the independent variable, the dependent variable increases with 0.28 units ( $B=0.280$ )<sup>10</sup>. The output of this observed relation is summarized in table 6 on the next page.

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<sup>7</sup> Attitude 1

<sup>8</sup> Attitude 2

<sup>9</sup> Attitude 3

<sup>10</sup> Attitude 4

**TABLE 6: SUMMARY OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION (N = 118)**

Theory of planned behaviour					
Independent variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sign.</i>
Attitude 1	0.095	0.151	0.089	0.701	0.527
Attitude 2	0.235	0.141	0.204	1.748	0.097
Attitude 3	0.058	0.099	0.060	0.616	0.565
Attitude 4	0.280	0.111	0.280	2.524	0.033*
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.293			
<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.267			
<i>F</i>		11.680**			

*Note:*

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

### 4.3 The relation between normative belief items and subjective norms

The independent variables were: (1) I would engage in slow tourism if my friends would advise me to, (2) I would engage in slow tourism if my family would advise me to, (3) I would engage in slow tourism if my colleagues would advise me to. The independent variables all have to do with the likelihood that the individual is motivated to comply with the suggestions of referrals.

For this relationship, the adjusted R-square is 0.06, meaning that 6% of the variance in the average score on subjective norms is explained by the difference in the independent variables. The F-statistic is significant ( $F=3.734$ ,  $df=4$ ,  $p=0.013$ ), meaning that at least one of the coefficients of the predictors is not equal to zero. This implies that at least one of the independent variables significantly predicts the average score on subjective norms.

Regarding the T-statistic, the following can be deduced. Although the F-statistic shows that at least one of the independent variables explains some variance in the outcome of subjective norms, this is not the case. The independent variable “I would engage in tourism if my friends would advise me to” is not significant ( $t=1.392$ ,  $p=0.160$ )<sup>11</sup>. The same applies for “I would engage in tourism if my family would advise me to” ( $t=1.795$ ,  $p=0.067$ )<sup>12</sup> and “I would engage in tourism if my colleagues would advise me to” is not significant ( $t=-0.984$ ,  $p=0.390$ )<sup>13</sup>. In all cases, the confidence interval for bootstrapping included the value 0. Therefore, bootstrapping coefficients were considered.

Although none of the predictors is significant, one aspect from the coefficient table is standing out. In case the independent variable “I would engage in tourism if my colleagues would advise me to” would be significant, the coefficient for the unstandardized B would be negative. This could imply that the perceived social pressure of colleagues negatively affects the willingness of people to engage in slow tourism, but still this is only a speculation. The output is summarized in table 7.

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<sup>11</sup> Normative belief item 1

<sup>12</sup> Normative belief item 2

<sup>13</sup> Normative belief item 3

**TABLE 7: SUMMARY OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE SUBJECTIVE NORMS (N = 118)**

Theory of planned behaviour					
Independent variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sign.</i>
Normative belief item 1	0.160	0.116	0.167	1.392	0.160
Normative belief item 2	0.179	0.097	0.225	1.795	0.067
Normative belief item 3	-0.081	0.091	-0.113	-0.984	0.390
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.089			
<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.066			
<i>F</i>		3.734*			

*Note:*

\**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01.

#### 4.4 The relation between subjective norms and behavioural intention

The independent variables were: (1) Most people who are important to me would think it is okay if I would go for slow tourism, (2) Most people who are important to me would support if I would go for slow tourism, (3) Most people who are important to me would understand if I would go for slow tourism. All the independent variables relate to how individuals perceive the social pressure of referrals.

In this case, the adjusted R-square is 0.047 meaning that only 4.7% of the variance in the average score on behavioural intention is explained by the difference in the independent variables. The F-statistic is significant ( $F=2.916$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p=0.037$ ), meaning that at least one all the coefficients of the predictors is not equal to zero. This implies that at least one of the independent variables significantly predicts the average score on behavioural intention. Nevertheless, the t-statistic in the coefficient tables shows otherwise. The coefficient of the predictor “Most people who are important to me would think it is okay if I go for slow tourism” is not significant ( $t=0.964$ ,  $p=0.382$ )<sup>14</sup>. This is neither the case for “Most people who are important to me would support if I go for slow tourism” ( $t=1.218$ ,  $p=0.240$ )<sup>15</sup> and “Most people who are important to me would understand if I go for slow tourism” ( $t=0.054$ ,  $p=0.953$ )<sup>16</sup>. One can conclude that the coefficients of the predictors are all equal to zero. This implies that none of the independent variables significantly explain a difference in the average score on behavioural intention. Since all the coefficients of the predictors are not significant, it is not relevant to look at the unstandardized B-values. The output is summarized in table 8 on the next page.

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<sup>14</sup> Subjective norm 1

<sup>15</sup> Subjective norm 2

<sup>16</sup> Subjective norm 3

**TABLE 8: SUMMARY OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION (N = 118)**

Theory of planned behaviour					
Independent variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sign.</i>
Subjective norms 1	0.126	0.142	0.124	0.964	0.382
Subjective norms 2	0.168	0.143	0.163	1.218	0.240
Subjective norms 3	0.008	0.154	0.007	0.054	0.953
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.071			
<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.047			
<i>F</i>		2.916*			

*Note:*

\**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01

#### 4.5 The relation between control belief items and perceived behavioural control

The independent variables were: (1) I would engage in tourism if it was more convenient, (2) I would engage in slow tourism if I had more time, (3) I would engage in slow tourism if I had more money. The independent all have to with an individuals' perception of power of controlling context specific factors that can facilitate or restrain from the performance of the behaviour.

In this case, the adjusted R-square is 0.008, meaning that only 0.8% of the variance in the average score on perceived behavioural is explained by the difference in the independent variables. The F statistic is not significant ( $F=1.296$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p=0.279$ ), meaning that all the coefficients of the predictors are equal to zero. This implies that none of the independent variables significantly predicts the average score on perceived behavioural control. Checking the t-statistic in the coefficient table indicates the same. It can be concluded that with this relationship, a linear regression model does not fit. To correct for this, new independent variables need to be added or the items on the construct "control belief items" need to be improved. The results are summarized in table 9 below.

**TABLE 9: SUMMARY OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL (N = 118)**

Theory of planned behaviour					
Independent variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sign.</i>
Control belief item 1	-0.081	0.107	-0.085	-0.085	0.435
Control belief item 2	0.186	0.112	0.211	1.701	0.091
Control belief item 3	-0.006	0.096	-0.008	-0.060	0.945
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.033			
<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.008			
<i>F</i>		1.279			

*Note:*

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

#### 4.6 The relation between perceived behaviour control and behavioural intention

The independent variables were: (1) Whether or not I travel for slow tourism is completely up to me, (2) I am confident that if I want to, I can go for slow tourism, (3) I have enough resources, time and opportunities to go for slow tourism. The independent variables relate to the perceived ease of engaging in slow tourism.

In this case, the adjusted R-square is 0.038, meaning that only 3.8% of the variance in the average score on behavioural intention is explained by the difference in the independent variables. The F statistic is not significant ( $F=2.531$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p=0.061$ ), meaning that all the coefficients of the predictors are equal to zero. This implies that none of the independent variables significantly predicts the average score on behavioural intention. Nonetheless, the t-statistic indicates something different. This is because the coefficient of the predictor “I am confident that if, I want I can go for slow tourism” is still significant ( $t=2.094$ ,  $p=0.038$ )<sup>17</sup>. This indicates that the coefficient of the predictor is not equal to zero. Because of the significance, it is relevant to look at the unstandardized B, which is 0.234. The unstandardized B-coefficient of the predictor suggests that with every increase of 1 in the independent variable, the dependent variable increases with 0.23 units ( $B=0.234$ ).

Still, the coefficient of the predictors “whether or not I travel for slow tourism is completely up to me” ( $t=-0.022$ ,  $p=0.866$ )<sup>18</sup> and “I have enough resources, time and opportunities to go for slow tourism” ( $t=0.584$ ,  $p=0.558$ )<sup>19</sup> are neither significant. This means that these coefficients of the predictors are equal to zero. This implies that these two predictors do not significantly explain a difference in the average score on behavioural intention. The output table is presented in table 10 on the next page.

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<sup>17</sup> Perceived behavioural control 2

<sup>18</sup> Perceived behavioural control 1

<sup>19</sup> Perceived behavioural control 3

**TABLE 10: SUMMARY OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION (N = 118)**

Theory of planned behaviour					
Independent variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>Sign.</i>
Perceived behavioural control 1	-0.019	0.110	-0.022	-0.192	0.866
Perceived behavioural control 2	0.234	0.011	0.245	2.094	0.038*
Perceived behavioural control 3	0.046	0.086	0.055	0.584	0.595
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.062			
<i>Adjusted R</i> <sup>2</sup>		0.038			
<i>F</i>		2.531			

Note: \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$

## 5. Discussion

The paper discussed three components of slow tourism, including (1) mode of transport (2) destination and travel experiences (3) environmental consciousness. Adding to that, the paper proposed to grasp the link between salient referrals and slow tourism preferences using the theory of planned behaviour as a theoretical framework.

*Q1: What is the role of behavioural belief items and attitude in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism?*

At least two significant factors were identified. First, there was a significant relationship between questions concerning the exploring of places of interests and enjoying the discovery, along with learning and sharing experience and having a favourable attitude towards slow tourism. Therefore, the first hypothesis, that behavioural beliefs do not significantly predict a change in the attitude of tourists towards slow tourism, should be rejected. Secondly, there was a small positive relation between the item concerning the attractiveness of slow tourism and behavioural intention. This means that the second hypothesis, that attitude does not significantly predict the intention of non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism, should also be rejected. Tourists might as well feel attracted to the image being sketched by slow tourism in which landscape, culture, interaction with tourists and the local community are central (Dickinson, Robbins & Lumsdon, 2010). Value may be gained in marketing that emphasises unique and potentially high-quality experiences available in destinations, which could help to promote slow tourism.

Conversely, the relationship between travelling at a slower pace and having a favourable attitude towards tourism was not significant. Furthermore, the analysis did not find reveal a significant relationship between the item relating to the use of sustainable modes of transport and a favourable attitude towards slow tourism. The results neither suggested a significant relation between the “journey being integral in the experience” and having a favourable attitude towards slow tourism. The values of moving slowly and using sustainable modes of transport are therefore not shared by non-slow tourists. People still price speed, which means that tourism organisations must put effort in accruing certain positive associations to a slower pace and in turn, how these associations can shape mobility practices (Molz, 2009).

To make the public more aware of slow tourism, appreciation for time and slowness should be integral in the marketing approach of tourism organisations. Furthermore, elements relating to taking a slower pace from, to and within the destination; experiencing locality; using sustainable modes of transport and staying

within the proximity of the accommodation, should be emphasized. (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011, p.276). Concerning future research, it could be interesting to focus on getting a more complete understanding of the attitudinal process of choosing for slow tourism and sustainable mobility. For instance, researcher can look to the destination experience, personal development and the core slow tourism experience of tourists (Sparks, 2007). Moreover, research could investigate slow tourism by means of longitudinal research, investigating the influence of marketing on the public perception of slow tourism and sustainable modes of transport over time.

*Q2: What is the role of normative belief items and subjective norms in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism?*

No significant relations existed between normative belief items and subjective norms. The same is true for the assumed relation between subjective norms and behavioural intention. This suggests that the third hypothesis, that normative beliefs do significantly predict a change in the perception of subjective norms, should be rejected. The fourth hypothesis, that subjective norms do significantly predict the intention of non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism, can neither be confirmed. This is inconsistent with Meng & Choi (2016), who suggested that subjective norms result in an enhancement of intention to choose for slow tourism. This was also acknowledged by Lam & Hsu (2006), who found significant effects of subjective norms on behavioural intention. Due to these mixed results, it is important for future research to determine the influence of subjective norms on behavioural intention. Referrals can function as an important communication channel in influencing an individual's cognitive image of slow tourism (Sparks, 2007). The author conveys the importance of marketing the benefits of slow tourism to the public to improve the perception towards slow tourism of referrals. Tourism organisations might also put effort into ensuring travel satisfaction among visiting tourists of a slow tourism destination. As a referent to friends and family members, a positive word of mouth might be spread about slow tourism.

*Q3: What is the role of control belief items and perceived behavioural control in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism?*

The research did not find a significant relation between control belief items and perceived behavioural control. This signifies that the fifth hypothesis behavioural belief items do not significantly predict a change in the perception of perceived behaviour control, can be confirmed. On the other hand, the independent variable "I have confidence in going for slow tourism" has a positive influence on perceived behavioural control, meaning that the more confident people are about going for slow tourism, the more

inclined they are to do it. This implies that the sixth hypothesis, that perceived behaviour control does not significantly predict the intention of non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism. Nevertheless, the items of “Whether or not I travel for slow tourism is completely up to me” and “I have enough resources, time, and opportunities to go for slow tourism” did not have a significant impact on behavioural intention.

Despite this confidence of non-slow tourists, developments are still needed that empower tourists to make more sustainable holiday and mobility decisions. For instance, travel modes and destination activities can be labelled according to their sustainability, providing feedback to tourists about their relationship with the destination and the environment (Rathouse, Scarles, Holmes & Tribe, 2010). To make the public aware of these labels, they should present positive qualities of environmentally friendly offers but also focus on the convenience of the offers and the customers’ personal benefits (Budeanu, 2007). How tourism destinations might manage these policies, is an interesting opportunity for future research. Moreover, future research is needed to point out whether barriers to engaging in slow tourism are caused by the inertia of travel supply structures (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011, p. 296). The results of this pilot study are summarized in figure 3, in which the significant relations are indicated with an asterisk (\*).

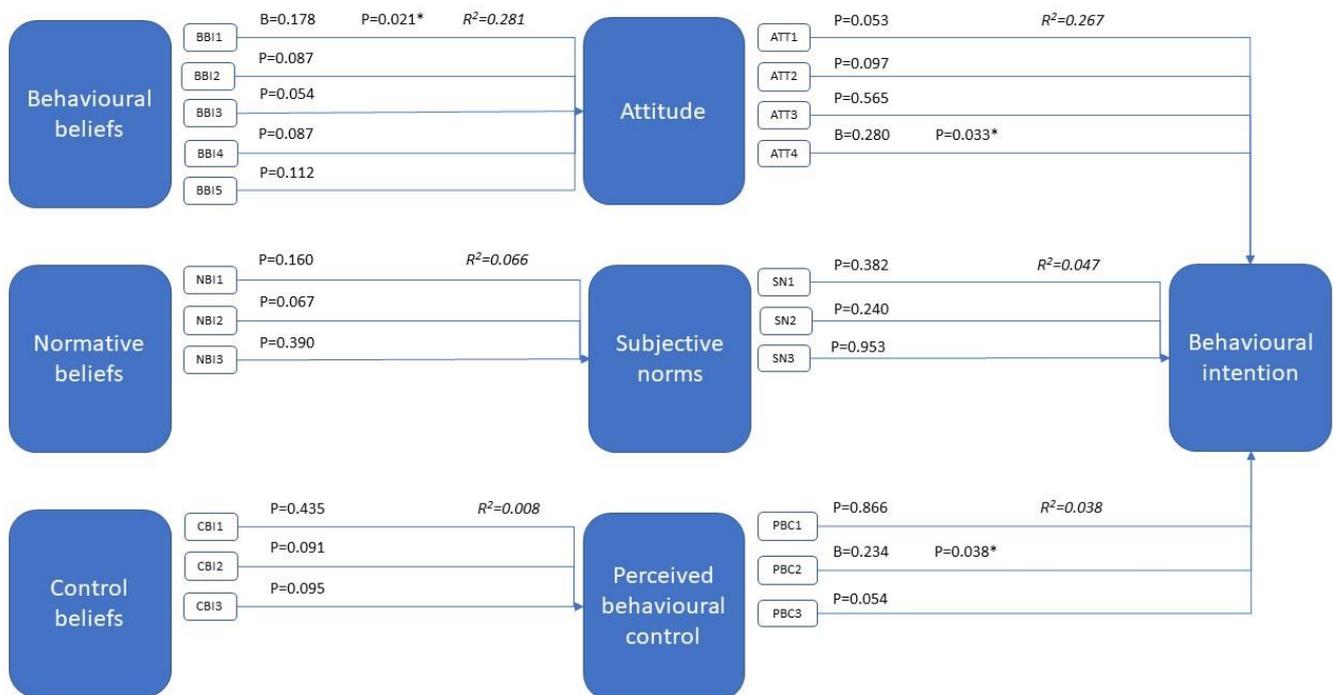


FIGURE 3: RESULTS OF THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS. NOTE THAT (1) BBI=BEHAVIOURAL BELIEF ITEMS (2) ATT=ATTITUDE (3) NBI=NORMATIVE BELIEF ITEMS (4) SN=SUBJECTIVE NORMS (5) CBI=CONTROL BELIEF ITEMS (6) PBC=PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL

## 5.1 Limitations

Before going on to the concluding remarks of this study, some limitations must be pointed out. Looking at the theory of planned behaviour, Ajzen (1991, p. 203) conveyed that prior behaviour can also have an impact on future behaviour. For instance, people that engaged in eco-tourism in the past could be more interested in slow tourism. The researcher did not take this into account in the design of this study and therefore limits the internal validity of the outcomes. Moreover, respondents who convey they have the intention to act might subsequently fail to do so. A measure that would enable for this is to repeat the research, asking people if they indeed engaged in slow tourism. Another important limitation is that the variability in the outcome variables could be accounted for factors that were not measured during the data collection (Sniehotta, Presseau & Araújo-Soares, 2014). Other factors that are not measured during the data collection could explain more variability in the outcome variable compared to constructs from the theory of planned behaviour. For instance, demographic factors like age could also influence the intention to change behaviour. Regarding this, older people might be more willing to engage in slow tourism since they have more time compared to other people.

To account for the abovementioned limitations, future lines of inquiry could assess slow tourism with other theoretical models. Other theoretical models might be more conclusive in explaining reality which would increase our understanding of slow tourism even more. Sniehotta et al. (2014), propose several models. First, slow tourism could be investigated using the Self-Regulation Theory. This theory suggests that our actions are guided by an interplay of self-generated and external sources of influence (Bandura, 1991, p. 249). The Self-Regulation model theorizes beyond motivation and intention and actually considers what people can do to change their behaviour. The model proposes means of changing behaviour such as self-monitoring and a reflection on goal standards. Future research can look at how tourists plan to engage in slow tourism and how to act in line with that goal.

Furthermore, there are some analytical issues to be discussed. For instance, the data collection only took place in a small part of a metropolitan city. Moreover, during the data collection, the technique of quota sampling was applied, which can be prone to low data validity. Since the data sample was small, the chance of getting a false-positive error will be bigger. This implies that this study might have looked for relationships that are not existing (Institute of Work & Health Toronto, 2014). According to Yang & Banamah (2014, p.16), quota sampling also tends to lean only towards people that are interested in the topic and willing to respond to the questionnaire. This might have resulted in a biased sample, consisting of people that only respond positively towards slow tourism. Moreover, people that completed the survey

might not be entirely familiar with the subject which could have influenced the results of the study. Finally, the data analysis employed multiple regression while concepts from the theory of planned behaviour are latent variables.

To correct for this, several measures can be taken in future research. To capture the essence of the theory of planned behaviour in relation to tourism, it would be better to gather data in multiple different cities (Meng, & Choi, 2016, B). This would allow for comparing results across the destinations. Additionally, the survey could be conducted using a consumer panel, allowing for random selection and reduced bias in the sample. Although beyond the scope of this study, more appropriate data analysis models can be identified. For instance, structural equation modelling can be used for its ability to compute the relationship between observed variables and latent variables. Other than that, ordinal regression could be applied which is a latent variable model for multiple regression. This would enable researchers for more reliable and valid outcomes.

## 6. Conclusion

The purpose of this pilot was the link between salient referrals and slow tourism preferences, using concepts from the theory of planned behaviour. This was assessed by three research questions, which included (1) What is the role of behavioural belief items and attitude in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism? (2) What is the role of normative belief items and subjective norms in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism? (3) What is the role of control belief items and perceived behavioural control in motivating non-slow tourists to engage in slow tourism? The results showed significant effects on behavioural belief items, attitude and perceived behavioural control. On the other hand, there were no significant impacts of normative belief items, subjective norms and control belief items. Limitations of this study included the applicability of the theory of planned behaviour; the location of data sampling; the sampling technique and the lack of awareness about slow tourism in general. Moreover, other data analysis methods might be more suitable due to the latent nature of antecedents of behaviour.

Future studies may investigate the slow tourism decision making process, using an attitudinal approach. Future lines of inquiry could also determine the influence of marketing on the public perception of slow tourism and sustainable modes of transport in a cross-sectional study design. Due to the mixed results on subjective norms, it is important that future research determines the influence of subjective norms on behavioural intention. It does not seem plausible that there is no impact of subjective norms on individual behavioural decisions. Academics could also consider investigating the influence of sustainability labels on transport and destination activities and the influence of travel inertia on behavioural decisions.

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## 8. Appendix

### Appendix A: Time-management plan

FIGURE 4: INDICATION OF THE TIME MANAGEMENT PLAN

WBS	TASK	Task division	START	END	DAYS
<b>1</b>	<b>Project proposal</b>	Not applicable	Thu 3/07/19	Mon 4/15/19	39
	Writing the abstract	Not applicable	Thu 3/07/19	Wed 3/20/19	13
	Writing the proposal	Not applicable	Sun 3/24/19	Sun 4/14/19	
<b>2</b>	<b>Data collection phase</b>	Not applicable	Wed 4/24/19	Wed 5/08/19	
	Collecting the data at Amsterdam Schiphol Airport	Not applicable	Wed 4/24/19	Fri 4/26/19	
	Collecting the data at Amsterdam Central Station	Not applicable	Mon 4/29/19	Wed 5/01/19	
	Collecting the data at Amsterdam Dam Square	Not applicable	Wed 5/08/19	Fri 5/10/19	
	Entering the data in SPSS and making the codes	Not applicable	Mon 5/13/19	Sat 5/18/19	
<b>3</b>	<b>Writing the thesis draft</b>	Not applicable	Wed 5/08/19	Wed 6/05/19	
	Interpreting the data and writing the results	Not applicable	Mon 5/13/19	Mon 5/27/19	
	Writing the discussion	Not applicable	Mon 5/27/19	Mon 6/03/19	
	Writing the conclusion	Not applicable	Mon 6/03/19	Sun 6/09/19	
	Revising the thesis draft	Not applicable	Sun 6/09/19	Fri 6/14/19	
<b>4</b>	<b>Improving the thesis draft</b>	Not applicable	Thu 6/13/19	Thu 6/27/19	
	Revising the feedback and improving the draft	Not applicable	Tue 6/18/19	Mon 6/24/19	
<b>5</b>					

## Appendix B: Survey

Thank you for your participation in this questionnaire!

The questionnaire is intended to collect data about the willingness of tourists to engage in slow tourism. **Slow tourism is about appreciating time and slowness in which the journey itself is integral to the whole travel experience. Thereby, the mode of transport that is used becomes important, but also the activities that are done in the destination. Furthermore, reduced duration and distance of travel are equally important.** This questionnaire will address slow tourism by using the theory of planned behaviour. The idea behind this theory is that certain factors influence the intention of people to change their behaviour.

Kindly respond to all the below questions, which will take approximately 5-7 minutes. If anything is unclear to you, please do not hesitate to ask me. For your own privacy, personal data will not be shared with third parties. Furthermore, the questionnaires will be stored confidentially and will only be used for the purposes of my project at current. The questionnaire will start with some general questions. After that, eight categories with 4-6 questions will follow. Once again, thank you for participating in this questionnaire!

Almar van der Vlugt

TABLE 11: SURVEY THAT WAS USED DURING THE DATA COLLECTION

### General questions:

Gender	Male	Female	Other
Year of birth			
Nationality			
Your current stay in Amsterdam (number of days)			
How many times have you visited Amsterdam before?			

**Perception of authenticity (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I feel connected with local ways of life					
I want to experience the unique lifestyle and customs					
I like a calm and peaceful atmosphere during the visit					
I like the feeling of being myself during travel					

**Behavioural belief items (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I like to explore places of interest and enjoy the discovery, learning, and sharing of my experience					
I engage with local food, local markets, local people, local places, and local culture					
I like to travel at a slower pace, enjoying landscape, nature and people					
I think the journey to the destination is integral in the experience					
I think that using sustainable modes of transport (walk, bike, bus and train) is important.					

**Attitude (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I think that slow tourism is good					
I think that slow tourism is valuable					
I think that slow tourism is beneficial to the local community					
I think that slow tourism is attractive to me					

**Normative belief items (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I would engage in slow tourism if my friends would advise me to					
I would engage in slow tourism if my family would advise me to					
I would engage in slow tourism if my colleagues would advise me to					

**Subjective norms (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Most people who are important to me would think it is okay for me to go for slow tourism					
Most people who are important to me would support if I go for slow tourism					
Most people who are important to me would agree with me about going for slow tourism					

**Control belief items (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I would engage in slow tourism if it was more convenient					
I would engage in slow tourism if I had the time					
I would engage in slow tourism if I had enough money					

**Perceived behavioural control (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Whether or not I travel for slow tourism is completely up to me					
I am confident that if I want to, I can go for slow tourism					
I have enough resources, time, and opportunities to go for slow tourism					

**Behavioural intention (mark X where you feel appropriate)**

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I intend to engage in slow tourism in the near future					
I will make an effort to travel with slower and more sustainable modes of transport (walk, bus, train) in the near future					