

School of Marketing

Hedonic Binging in Indulgent Travel Consumption

Zorana Soldat

**This thesis is presented for the Degree of
Master of Philosophy (Marketing)
of
Curtin University**

August 2017

Statement of Original Authorship

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Zorana Soldat
30th August 2017

Acknowledgements

Undertaking this MPhil research has been an exciting and fulfilling journey. Even through the tough times I have found the experience to be rewarding not just on an academic level but also on a personal level. I am grateful to have been afforded the opportunity to work on research I find truly enjoyable. I am honored to acknowledge the roles of several people without whom this research would not have been possible.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my Supervisor A/Prof. Vanessa Quintal. Without her endless support I would never have been able to start let alone complete this MPhil research. I will be forever grateful to her for believing in me, taking me under her wing and sharing her wealth of expertise and knowledge. Through this experience Vanessa has taught me to be resilient, strong and has helped me grow as a person.

My sincerest thank you to my Associate Supervisor Prof. Ian Phau who has given me support through his leadership, vast knowledge and experience in all aspects of research. I am profoundly grateful to my Associate Supervisor Dr. Sean Lee who passed on his knowledge and mentored me through some difficult stages of the research. I also wish to thank Dr. Billy Sung for his support and teachings with the lab.

My heartfelt thanks go to my partner Aaron who has been my biggest supporter from the beginning. His continual encouragement and belief in me gave me the strength to push through all obstacles. I wish to thank my loving parents and sister for their inspiration and motivation in every aspect throughout this journey. Thank you to my friends for their encouragement and always being there for me.

Abstract

Purpose – Three research objectives were set for the current study. First, was to clarify understanding of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism. Second, was to conceptualise and operationalise hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context. Third, was to introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists’ desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption.

Design/methodology/approach – A pragmatist paradigm and its mixed-method approach incorporated qualitative and quantitative research. The qualitative research comprised an extensive literature review, three focus groups (N=15) and an expert panel (N=4) to generate and screen potential scale items for hedonic bingeing. The quantitative research comprised a Pilot Study (N=125), Study One (N=233) and Study Two (N=350) which implemented two transformational advertising stimuli, namely, the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. These studies examined hedonic bingeing for its impacts on tourists’ desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption, utilising an adapted model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB).

Findings – The hedonic bingeing construct was operationalised by 15 scale items and the MGB constructs by 14 scale items. For both Study One and Study Two, *H2*, *H3a*, *H5*, *H8* and *H9* were supported, whereas *H1* and *H7* were not supported. This suggested that avoiding negative anticipated emotion, impulsiveness and attitude had significant impact on desire, and perceived behavioural control and desire had significant impact on intention for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. However, positive anticipated emotion and perceived behavioural control had no impact on desire for both luxury vacation packages. Further, *H3b* and *H6* were supported for Study One. This implied that planned impulsiveness and subjective norms had significant impact on desire for only the all-inclusive luxury vacation package. *H10* demonstrated significant impacts between Study One and Study Two in *H1*. This suggested that the positive anticipated emotion-desire relationship was stronger for the all-inclusive luxury vacation package. *H4* remained untested because compulsiveness was not identified in quantitative analysis.

Research limitations – The two main studies only targeted the Australian population and had relatively small sample sizes, impacting on their generalisability to other countries. The research considered only luxury hotels/resorts with two transformational advertising stimuli, namely, the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages, confining the research focus to two conditions. The hedonic bingeing construct did not undergo all scale development procedures, restricting its validity in other contexts. However, due to the current study’s exploratory nature, these limitations were acknowledged as parameters which defined the scope of the research.

Research implications – Findings addressed the research objectives and suggest some theoretical and managerial implications. Theoretically, the study extends the research area by conceptualising and operationalising a four-dimensional hedonic bingeing construct in the context of tourism. The successful introduction of hedonic bingeing to the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB), and its applicability as a decision-making framework, makes a theoretical contribution to the hedonic bingeing literature related to tourism. Managerially, the study highlights key drivers of desire and intention as well as identifies niche market segments of indulgence-seeking tourists on the impulsive-compulsive continuum. This paves the way for implementing relevant positioning, communication and product development to gratify both spontaneous and enduring hedonic needs.

Originality/value – To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, this is the first known study to conceptualise hedonic bingeing in the context of indulgent travel consumption. The adapted model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) and its applicability as a decision-making framework, is also the first in tourism literature.

Contents

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1-1
1.0. BACKGROUND OF STUDY.....	1-1
1.0.1. Hedonism.....	1-3
1.0.2. Binging.....	1-4
1.0.3. Hedonic binging.....	1-5
1.0.4. Model of goal-directed behaviour.....	1-5
1.1. RESEARCH GAPS AND SIGNIFICANCE.....	1-6
1.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	1-7
1.3. RESEARCH MODEL.....	1-8
1.4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	1-8
1.5. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY.....	1-9
1.5.1. Theoretical implications.....	1-9
1.5.2. Managerial implications.....	1-10
1.6. DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS.....	1-11
1.6.1. Hedonism.....	1-11
1.6.2. Binging.....	1-12
1.6.3. Hedonic binging.....	1-12
1.6.4. Positive anticipated emotion.....	1-12
1.6.5. Negative anticipated emotion.....	1-13
1.6.6. Impulsiveness.....	1-13
1.6.7. Compulsiveness.....	1-13
1.6.8. Attitude.....	1-13
1.6.9. Subjective norms.....	1-14
1.6.10. Perceived behavioural control.....	1-14
1.6.11. Past behaviour.....	1-14
1.6.12. Desire.....	1-14
1.6.13. Behavioural intention.....	1-14
1.7. DELIMITATIONS.....	1-15

1.8.	STRUCTURE OF THESIS.....	1-15
1.9.	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	1-15
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....		2-17
2.0.	INTRODUCTION.....	2-17
2.1.	HEDONISM OVERVIEW.....	2-17
2.1.1.	<i>Sensory stimulation and experiential enjoyment.....</i>	<i>2-19</i>
2.1.2.	<i>Fun, amusement, enjoyment and fantasy.....</i>	<i>2-20</i>
2.1.3.	<i>Hedonism versus utilitarianism.....</i>	<i>2-21</i>
2.1.4.	<i>Positive emotions and its pursuit.....</i>	<i>2-22</i>
2.1.5.	<i>Negative emotions and its avoidance.....</i>	<i>2-26</i>
2.2.	BINGING OVERVIEW.....	2-29
2.2.1.	<i>Impulsiveness.....</i>	<i>2-31</i>
2.2.2.	<i>Compulsiveness.....</i>	<i>2-35</i>
2.2.3.	<i>Impulsiveness and compulsiveness.....</i>	<i>2-40</i>
2.3.	DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORKS.....	2-41
2.4.	ATTITUDE.....	2-44
2.5.	SUBJECTIVE NORMS.....	2-45
2.6.	PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL.....	2-46
2.7.	PAST BEHAVIOUR.....	2-47
2.8.	DESIRE.....	2-48
2.9.	BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION.....	2-49
2.10.	RESEARCH GAPS.....	2-50
2.11.	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	2-52
2.12.	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	2-52
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT.....		3-54
3.0.	INTRODUCTION.....	3-54
3.1.	THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING.....	3-54
3.2.	RESEARCH MODEL.....	3-58
3.2.1	<i>Positive anticipated emotion.....</i>	<i>3-58</i>

3.2.2.	<i>Avoiding negative anticipated emotion</i>	3-59
3.2.3.	<i>Impulsiveness</i>	3-61
3.2.4.	<i>Planned impulsiveness</i>	3-61
3.2.5.	<i>Compulsiveness</i>	3-62
3.2.6.	<i>Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation</i>	3-63
3.2.7.	<i>Subjective norms</i>	3-65
3.2.8.	<i>Perceived behavioural control</i>	3-66
3.2.9.	<i>Past behaviour</i>	3-67
3.2.10.	<i>Desire and intention to take an indulgent vacation</i>	3-68
3.2.11.	<i>Context of the luxury vacation package</i>	3-69
3.3.	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	3-69
CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY		4-71
4.0.	INTRODUCTION.....	4-71
4.1.	RESEARCH PARADIGMS.....	4-71
4.2.	QUALITATIVE RESEARCH.....	4-73
4.2.1.	<i>Review of literature</i>	4-73
4.2.2.	<i>Focus groups</i>	4-73
4.2.3.	<i>Expert panel</i>	4-74
4.3.	QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH.....	4-74
4.3.1.	<i>Studies</i>	4-74
4.3.2.	<i>Sampling frame</i>	4-76
4.3.3.	<i>Sampling technique</i>	4-77
4.3.4.	<i>Instrumentation</i>	4-78
4.3.5.	<i>Measures</i>	4-81
4.3.6.	<i>Statistical techniques and analyses</i>	4-82
4.3.7.	<i>Data storage</i>	4-85
4.4.	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	4-85

CHAPTER 5 RESULTS	5-86
5.0. INTRODUCTION.....	5-86
5.1. STUDIES	5-86
5.2. SAMPLE PROFILES.....	5-87
5.3. PILOT STUDY.....	5-91
5.3.1. <i>Exploratory factor analysis</i>	5-91
5.4. STUDY ONE	5-93
5.4.1. <i>Exploratory factor analysis</i>	5-94
5.4.2. <i>Confirmatory factor analysis</i>	5-96
5.4.3. <i>Full measurement model</i>	5-101
5.4.4. <i>Reliability and validity</i>	5-102
5.4.5. <i>Testing H1 to H9</i>	5-103
5.5. STUDY TWO	5-108
5.5.1. <i>Confirmatory factor analysis</i>	5-108
5.5.2. <i>Full measurement model</i>	5-110
5.5.3. <i>Reliability and validity</i>	5-110
5.5.4. <i>Testing H1 to H9</i>	5-112
5.6. STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO.....	5-117
5.6.1. <i>Independent groups t-test</i>	5-117
5.6.2. <i>Testing H10</i>	5-118
5.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY	5-123
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION	6-125
6.0. INTRODUCTION.....	6-125
6.1. OVERVIEW OF STUDY	6-125
6.2. HYPOTHESISED RELATIONSHIPS	6-126
6.3. CONTRIBUTIONS	6-129
6.3.1. <i>Theoretical contributions</i>	6-129
6.3.2. <i>Managerial contributions</i>	6-130
6.4. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS.....	6-133

6.4.1. <i>Limitations</i>	6-133
6.4.2. <i>Future directions</i>	6-134
6.5. FINAL SUMMARY	6-136
REFERENCES	137

Tables

TABLE 3.1: SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES	3-70
TABLE 4.1: STUDY OBJECTIVES AND DESIGN	4-75
TABLE 4.2: DATA COLLECTION AND SAMPLES.....	4-77
TABLE 4.3: EXISTING SCALES ADAPTED TO MEASURE KEY CONSTRUCTS	4-81
TABLE 5.1: PILOT STUDY, STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO – RESPONSE RATES	5-87
TABLE 5.2: PILOT STUDY, STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO – DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES.....	5-89
TABLE 5.2: PILOT STUDY, STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO – DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES (CONTINUED).....	5-90
TABLE 5.3: PILOT STUDY – EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSES FOR HEDONIC BINGING	5-92
TABLE 5.4: STUDY ONE – EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSES FOR HEDONIC BINGING	5-95
TABLE 5.5: STUDY ONE – COMPOSITE RELIABILITIES, AVERAGE VARIANCE EXTRACTED SCORES AND CORRELATIONS	5-102
TABLE 5.6: STUDY ONE – STANDARDISED PATH COEFFICIENTS AND MODEL FIT	5-106
TABLE 5.7: STUDY TWO – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODELS	5-109
TABLE 5.8: STUDY TWO – COMPOSITE RELIABILITIES, AVERAGE VARIANCE EXTRACTED SCORES AND CORRELATIONS	5-111
TABLE 5.9: STUDY TWO – STANDARDISED PATH COEFFICIENTS AND MODEL FIT	5-115
TABLE 5.10: STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO – INDEPENDENT GROUPS <i>T</i> -TEST	5-118
TABLE 5.11: STUDY ONE AND STUDY TWO – CHI-SQUARE DIFFERENCE	5-121
TABLE 5.12: SUMMARY OF H1 TO H10 FINDINGS	5-124
TABLE 6.1: SUMMARY OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES	6-125

Figures

FIGURE 1.1: RESEARCH MODEL	1-8
FIGURE 1.2: STRUCTURE OF THESIS	1-16
FIGURE 2.1: IMPULSIVE-COMPULSIVE CONTINUUM – PROPOSED.....	2-40
FIGURE 3.1. MODEL OF GOAL-DIRECTED BEHAVIOUR TO ENGAGE IN A TOURISM ACTIVITY.....	3-56
FIGURE 3.2: RESEARCH MODEL	3-64
FIGURE 5.1: POSITIVE ANTICIPATED EMOTION – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL.....	5-97
FIGURE 5.2: AVOIDING NEGATIVE ANTICIPATED EMOTION – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL	5-97
FIGURE 5.3: IMPULSIVENESS – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL.....	5-98
FIGURE 5.4: PLANNED IMPULSIVENESS – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL.....	5-99
FIGURE 5.5: ATTITUDE – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL	5-99
FIGURE 5.6: SUBJECTIVE NORMS – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL	5-100
FIGURE 5.7: PERCEIVED BEHAVIOURAL CONTROL – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL	5-100
FIGURE 5.8: BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION – ONE-FACTOR CONGENERIC MODEL	5-101
FIGURE 5.9: STUDY ONE – STRUCTURAL MODEL IN HYPOTHESIS TESTING	5-104
FIGURE 5.10. STUDY TWO – STRUCTURAL MODEL IN HYPOTHESIS TESTING.....	5-113
FIGURE 6.1: IMPULSIVE-COMPULSIVE CONTINUUM - FINAL	6-135

Appendices

SURVEY INSTRUMENT: ALL-INCLUSIVE LUXURY VACATION PACKAGE.....	151
SURVEY INSTRUMENT: OPTIONAL LUXURY VACATION PACKAGE	159

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0. Background of study

The notion of a contemporary binge-consuming society has been raised in social behaviour from a wide range of contexts (Passini 2013). Society's bingeing behaviour has been observed on a continuum which extends from the 'naughty and/but nice' such as social media-bingeing (Harsh 2017), binge watching (Jenner 2016; Schweidel and Moe 2016) and binge flying (Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham 2011) to the 'dark and destructive' such as binge gaming (Van Rooij et al. 2010), binge eating (Ferriter and Ray 2011) and binge drinking (Sonmez et al. 2006). Central to the binge-consuming popular culture is hedonism. Contemporary society indulges in hedonic consumption to enjoy life's luxuries and the material 'good life' (Dittmar 2007). Hedonic consumption fulfils society's search for self-identity by providing a means of expressing its individuality from the choice of luxurious products/services it purchases (Kilbourne 2006). However, how individuals in society make goal-directed choices to binge hedonistically on luxurious consumer products/services requires further exploration.

Luxury consumption encompasses a wide range of products and services, noticeably, in luxury tourism. Park, Reisinger and Noh (2010) highlighted that modern luxury travel goes beyond the necessities, ranging from authentic experiences, personalised packages and physical and mental wellness. The premium experiences which can attract luxury tourists include private islands, luxury resorts/hotels, luxury cruises, yachts, health spa/wellness treatments, tailor made tours, culture tours and golfing (Park, Reisinger and Noh 2010). In 2014, 46 million luxury trips were undertaken by the world population (ITB Berlin 2015). In the same year, an estimated €172 billion was spent on global luxury travel, demonstrating a 48 percent increase

between 2009 and 2014 (ITB Berlin 2015). The most common luxury vacation options were tours at 29%, followed by luxury city visits, beach vacations and cruises (ITB Berlin 2015).

Palpably, there is a viable segment of tourists who seek to indulge in emotional stimulation when they are on vacation (Park and Reisinger 2009). This segment encompasses a broad demographic but previous research has noted the high percentage of baby boomers (e.g. Park, Reisinger and Noh 2010) and a rise in millennials (e.g. Clausing 2015). On the one hand, Park, Reisinger and Noh (2010) observed that luxury travel shoppers vary greatly across ages, profession, gender and psychographics, although this profile is highly populated by baby boomers with available time to travel due to retirement and expendable income. On the other hand, Clausing (2015) indicated that millennials are leading the way in the luxury travel market due to the older generation's commitment to more pressing financial obligations such as raising children and saving money for retirement.

In the wake of luxury tourism, the phenomenon of bingeing hedonistically on luxurious tourism products/services appears to be emerging. While on vacation, tourists may be more susceptible to luxuries as they impulsively seek to gratify themselves (Xiao Lu and Pras 2011) with abundant, pleasurable and emotional stimulation (Park and Reisinger 2009). These tourists are preoccupied compulsively with pursuing dream-like experiences (Grinstein, Kronrod and Wathieu 2012; Horvath and van Birgelen 2012) such as splurging on luxury hotels (Clausing 2015). For such tourists, the forays with luxury are time-limited and temporary (Buckley and Mossaz 2016; Caruana and Crane 2011). They offer an escape from everyday routine (Caruana and Crane 2011) and an avoidance of the mundane (Tuan 2000). This makes the experiences more exclusive and unique (Bigne et al. 2009; Buckley and Mossaz 2016). Understanding the behaviour of binge-consuming tourists in the context of a hedonic luxury vacation has not been considered, to date, by the research area. Such insights can advise input into product

development and communications strategies which address this niche market. Further, they can help to deal with the long-term sustainability of local environments and communities impacted by binge consumption (Robertson 2017) by working closely with public and private sectors to identify green initiatives and solutions (Shankman 2017).

The current study stipulates that the primary goal of tourists who indulge in a luxury vacation is to stimulate experiential enjoyment (Okada 2005) by maximising positive emotion and minimising negative emotion (Song et al. 2012). The drive to own these pleasurable sensory experiences may be triggered by impulsiveness (Chen and Lin 2013), planned impulsiveness (Laesser and Dolnicar 2012) and compulsiveness (Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham 2011). In the study, this phenomenon of emotion-based, impulsive and compulsive luxury consumption in tourism is referred to as hedonic bingeing. Consequently, hedonic bingeing is considered for its impacts on desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption, a research area that has not been adequately investigated in the literature.

1.0.1. Hedonism

Hedonism dates back to the ancient Greek word '*hedone*' (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2002). In modern psychology, hedonism is conceptualised as a "raw subjective feeling" (Seligman and Royzman 2003, 1) with a goal that is directed to pursue pleasure (Chapman, Chapman and Raulin 1976) and to avoid pain (Sober and Wilson 1998). In this nexus of pursuance and avoidance, positive and negative emotions are related, particularly when an individual is exposed to a hedonic product/service (Ruth et al. 2004).

In conventional marketing, hedonism is commonly viewed as "fun, amusement, fantasy arousal, sensory stimulation, and enjoyment" (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a, 135), highlighting the self-fulfilment of pleasure, emotion and merriment encompassed by the

construct. More recently, researchers contended that hedonism is experiential enjoyment, representing the quest for pleasure via emotional experience (e.g. Clarke 2013; Okada 2005; Scarpi 2006). In tourism, Caruana and Crane (2011) observed hedonism's liberating effects, freeing consumers from the routine of work and fuelling their anticipated pleasure in taking a vacation.

1.0.2. *Binging*

In present-day psychology and psychiatry, binging is characterised by sudden, immediate, impulsive, uncontrolled and addictive consumption (Beatty and Ferrell 1998). This behaviour is typically exacerbated by the large quantities consumed within a short time frame (Grant, Odlaug and Schreiber 2013). Thus, binge-consuming in modern society is driven by an “excessive sensibility for boredom,” “search for ever-new sensations” and “distorted self-esteem” (Passini 2013, 374).

In contemporary marketing, impulsive buying primarily centres around the immediate and unintended purchase, with a goal that is directed to positively stimulate the senses (Flight, Rountree and Beatty 2012; Hausman 2000; Wood 1998). Compulsive buying focuses on excessive, uncontrolled and risk-taking tendencies with a goal that is directed to satisfy low self-esteem (Passini 2013) but often, results in post-purchase negative emotions (Sonmez et al. 2006; Chang 2014; Ferriter and Ray 2011). Since impulsiveness and compulsiveness are considered as a personality trait (Sonmez et al. 2006; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004; O'Guinn and Faber 1989), binge-consuming encompasses both tendencies of impulse-control and obsessive-compulsive disorders (e.g. Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney and Monroe 2008).

It has been suggested that consumers fit on an “urge to buy continuum” (D'Astous 1990, 28). On one end of this continuum sits 'naughty and/but nice' impulsiveness (Flight, Rountree and

Beatty 2012; Hausman 2000; Wood 1998). On the extreme end, sits ‘dark and destructive’ compulsiveness (Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004).

1.0.3. Hedonic binging

The relationship between hedonism and binging has been explored in clinical psychology, psychiatry and behavioural science (e.g. Koob 1996; Manassee et al. 2015; Witt and Lowe 2014). However, the research area has mainly confined its focus to addictive and destructive behaviour relating to eating and drug intake. Consumer behaviour research has also acknowledged a correlation between hedonism and binging (e.g. Hausman 2000). In this context, the spotlight is primarily directed on self-gratifying and impulsive shopping behaviour (e.g. Herabadi, Verplanken and Knippenberg 2009; Joo Park, Kim and Forney 2006). Moreover, buying compulsively endows consumers with short-term positive rewards but long-term negative emotions (O’Guinn and Faber 1989).

1.0.4. Model of goal-directed behaviour

The model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) was introduced in psychology to explain intention to perform a purposeful behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). The MGB identifies anticipated emotions, attitude, subject norms, perceived behavioural control, past behaviour, desire and behavioural intention as its key constructs. The current study’s use of the MGB in exploring hedonic binging is justified in three ways. First, the MGB’s anticipated emotions encapsulate the sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) and experiential enjoyment (Clarke 2013; Okada 2005; Scarpi 2006) that tap into hedonism. Second, the MGB has the capacity to accommodate other factors to increase its predictability power (e.g. Lee et al. 2012; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Richetin et al. 2008; Song et al. 2014); thus, impulsiveness and compulsiveness in binging are incorporated into the

model. Finally, the MGB has potential to explain goal-directed bingeing behaviour in the new context of a hedonic luxury vacation since the model has been validated in some consumer behaviour and tourism studies (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2014; Song et al. 2012, 2014).

1.1. Research gaps and significance

Notwithstanding statistical evidence that global luxury travel is on the rise (e.g. ITB Berlin 2015) and some acknowledgement in the tourism literature that indulgent travel consumption exists (e.g. Park and Reisinger 2009), four key research gaps are identified in the literature. Addressing these gaps are significant for their contributions to the research area.

First, lack of attention has been paid to the role of emotion in decision-making. Conventional studies acknowledge the cognitive processes involved in decision-making (Kim, Njite and Hancer 2013; Loewenstein and Lerner 2003) but do not take into account the affective processes. The current study's focus on hedonism as sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) and experiential enjoyment (Okada 2005, 44) puts the spotlight back on emotion as an affective process. An affect-based emotion in influencing desire to consume hedonic travel products/services adds new perspective to the research area, particularly in the context of tourism.

Second, there is a need for an empirical decision-making model which can integrate both cognitive and affective processes to explain behaviour. How cognition and affect impact on conative behaviour requires further investigation (Malhotra 2005). The model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB), introduced by Perugini and Conner (2000) as well as Perugini and Bagozzi (2001), has potential to incorporate into its framework, the affective and cognitive aspects relating to hedonism. Due to its fairly recent introduction to research, there is a small body of MGB-related studies. A few of these studies are focused on tourists' decision-making (e.g. Han

and Yoon 2015; Song et al. 2012, 2014) but principally, not in the context of indulgent travel consumption.

Third, in current consumer behaviour literature, impulsiveness and compulsiveness are examined separately. However, researchers have called for the need to investigate the relationship between the constructs in different contexts such as shopping and vacations (Flight, Rountree and Beatty 2012). Further, it has been suggested that this impulsive-compulsive dichotomy be explored with the continuum of compulsive behaviour theory (Clark and Callega 2008; D'Astous 1990; Johnson and Attmann 2008; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). The current study proposes an adapted impulsive-compulsive continuum which can help identify the influence and extent of bingeing in indulgent travel consumption.

Finally, a decision-making model and underpinning theory which can explain impulsiveness and compulsiveness in bingeing behaviour is lacking in consumer behaviour studies (Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). The current study's proposed framework which introduces hedonic bingeing to the theoretically underpinned MGB could provide a decision-making model which explains why consumers binge on hedonic products/services.

1.2. Research objectives

To address the identified research gaps, three research objectives are proposed for the current study:

RO1: Clarify understanding of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism.

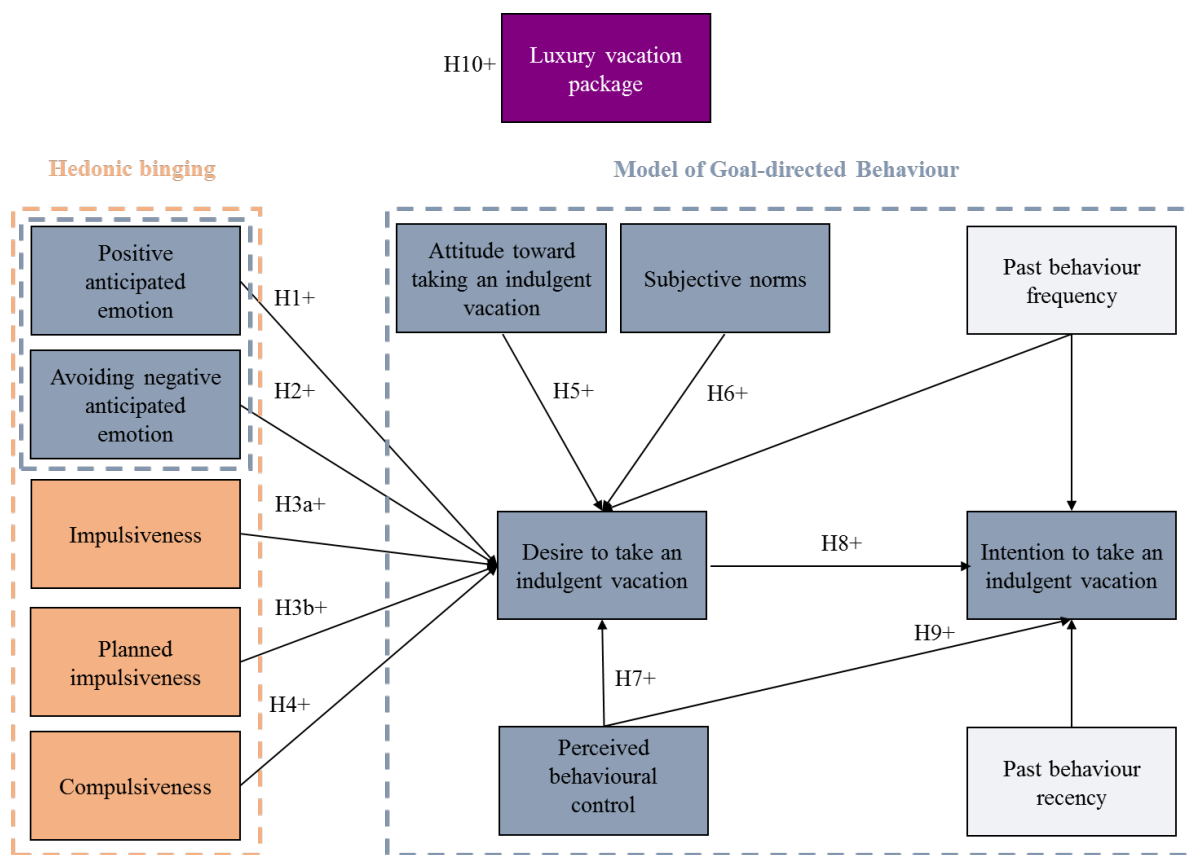
RO2: Conceptualise and operationalise hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context.

RO3: Introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption.

1.3. Research model

The research model proposed in the current study can be seen in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Research model



Adapted from model of goal-directed behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001)

1.4. Research methodology

The current study adopted a pragmatist paradigm and its mixed-method approach in utilising qualitative and quantitative research. The qualitative research comprised a multi-disciplinary

literature review, three focus groups (N=15) and an expert panel (N=4). The quantitative research comprised a Pilot Study (N=125), Study One (N=233) and Study Two (N=350).

The Pilot Study and Study One adopted the same transformational advertising stimulus which focused on an all-inclusive luxury vacation package with a *planned* impulse that took into account *pre-arranged indulgences*. Study Two implemented a different transformational advertising stimulus which focused on an optional luxury vacation package with an *unplanned* impulse that took into account *optional indulgences*. Respondents were recruited by the snowballing method through Facebook, LinkedIn and email, and directed to an online web survey. The sampling frame targeted adults, above 21 years of age, who had previously patronised a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation. Consequently, those who did not fulfil this criterion were screened out.

1.5. Contributions of the study

It is envisioned that successful application of the current study's research objectives will make several contributions to tourism research and the tourism industry. These contributions have theoretical and practical implications.

1.5.1. Theoretical implications

The current study's adoption of the pragmatist paradigm and its qualitative and quantitative research makes an overall theoretical contribution to business research. Currently, the pragmatist paradigm has been utilised in the management, education and sociology disciplines. However, it remains relatively novel to the business discipline (Creswell 2014), specifically in tourism marketing.

The study's first and second research objectives set out to clarify understanding of the hedonism and binging constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature as well as to establish

conceptual and operational definitions of the hedonic bingeing construct. As a result of the qualitative research, five dimensions representing hedonic bingeing, namely, positive anticipated emotion, avoiding negative anticipated emotion, impulsiveness, planned impulsiveness and compulsiveness were identified and underpinned by theory. The study's proposed impulsive-compulsive continuum also determined the influence and extent of bingeing while on a hedonic luxury vacation. This addressed the first and third research gaps, and adds to theoretical understanding of hedonic bingeing, particularly in a decision-making tourism context.

The study's third research objective was to introduce hedonic bingeing into the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. The quantitative research demonstrated an acceptable model fit and high R²s which explained desire and intention, implying that the integration of hedonic bingeing with the MGB was successful. This addressed the second and fourth research gaps, and theoretically extends the hedonic bingeing literature by offering a decision-making framework that is applicable to the tourism context.

1.5.2. Managerial implications

The current study's proposed decision-making framework enables practitioners in luxury tourism establishments to better understand what impacts desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. Input from the study can guide practitioners to provide timely, relevant and credible information (Laesser and Dolnicar 2012; Quintal, Lee and Soutar 2010) that allays negative emotions and affirms positive emotions when purchasing hedonic luxury vacation packages.

The proposed decision-making framework offers practitioners a means for identifying tourist segments based on how they sit on the suggested impulsive-compulsive continuum. The impulsive-compulsive personality trait (Sonmez et al. 2006; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004; O’Guinn and Faber 1989), when considered with demographic and lifestyle factors, can help to differentiate between varied indulgence-seeking tourist segments. These could include the *‘Naughty and Nice’ Planned Impulsive*; the *‘Naughty but Nice’ Impulsive* or the *‘Dark and Destructive’ Compulsive* tourist segments.

In identifying distinct indulgence-seeking tourist segments, practitioners would do well to craft relevant strategies to address them. A luxury resort serving the *‘Naughty but Nice’ Impulsive* segment needs to introduce products/services which gratify spontaneous needs. A luxury resort catering to the *‘Naughty and Nice’ Planned Impulsive* segment would find it feasible to develop innovative all-inclusive vacation packages which provide a short-term glimpse of the pre-arranged indulgences on offer (Laesser and Dolnicar 2012).

1.6. Definitions of key terms

The conceptual definitions of key concepts and constructs, as used in the current study, are summarised in this section.

1.6.1. Hedonism

Hedonism is “sensuous gratification for oneself,” (Huismans and Schwartz 1995, 90) in order to achieve “experiential enjoyment” (Okada (2005, 44). Hedonism’s goal is “pleasure (which includes the avoidance of pain) [as] the only good in life” (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy 2002, 526).

1.6.2. *Binging*

Binging refers to impulsive, sudden, immediate, uncontrolled and addictive behaviour (Beatty and Ferrell 1998). This impulsive-compulsive tendency is viewed as a personality trait (Sonmez et al. 2006; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004; O'Guinn and Faber 1989).

1.6.3. *Hedonic binging*

From conceptualisations identified in the literature, hedonic binging is proposed as *sensuous self-gratification to achieve experiential enjoyment, by pursuing positive and avoiding negative emotions, driven by an impulsive-compulsive personality trait.*

1.6.4. *Positive anticipated emotion*

Positive anticipated emotion addresses an expectation of pleasurable sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) and is forward-looking to future behaviour (Lee et al. 2012). Such emotion includes feelings of being excited, delighted, happy, glad, satisfied, proud and self-assured (Bagozzi, Dholakia Basuroy 2003).

1.6.5. Negative anticipated emotion

Negative anticipated emotion encompasses an expectation of unpleasant sensory stimulation (Sober and Wilson 1998) and is also forward-looking to future behaviour (Lee et al. 2012). Such emotion includes feelings of being angry, frustrated, guilty, ashamed, sad, disappointed, depressed, worried, uncomfortable and fearful (Bagozzi and Pieters 1998).

1.6.6. Impulsiveness

Unplanned impulsiveness operates as “spur-of-the-moment” (Chen and Lin 2013, 427), “unplanned,” “minimal deliberation” and “accompanied by heightened emotion” (Wood 1998, 302). It is referred to as a ‘naughty but nice’ personality trait.

Planned impulsiveness is an expectation and intention to behave spontaneously under compelling conditions such as a sale (Adelaar 2003; Han et al. 1991; Stern 1962). It relates to a ‘naughty and nice’ personality trait.

1.6.7. Compulsiveness

Compulsiveness operates as a “preoccupation” which is “irresistible, intrusive, and/or senseless” (Muller et al. 2005, 3) undertaken “with greater frequency” (Ridgway et al. 2008, 392) and is addictive (Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham 2011). It is referred to as a ‘dark and destructive’ personality trait.

1.6.8. Attitude

Attitude denotes a “psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, 81).

1.6.9. Subjective norms

Subjective norms reflects an individual's sensitivity to social pressures or others' beliefs that they should or should not perform the behaviour of interest (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975).

1.6.10. Perceived behavioural control

Perceived behavioural control is a "decision maker's sense of control over performing the chosen actions in the service of decision enactment" (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003, 279-280).

1.6.11. Past behaviour

Past behaviour refers to previous behaviour which encompasses frequency and recency. Frequency of past behaviour relates to the amount an individual has expended in a particular behaviour within a set period of time in the past (Lee et al. 2012). Recency addresses the "performance of a behaviour over a short period of time, typically a few weeks or days" (Leone, Perugini and Ercolani 2004, 1950).

1.6.12. Desire

Desire denotes a direct motivation for intention to perform the behaviour of interest (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001).

1.6.13. Behavioural intention

Behavioural intention reflects readiness to plan and execute the behaviour of interest (Ajzen 1991) and is the likelihood to act (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975).

1.7. Delimitations

Given the current study's exploratory nature, it was conducted with three key delimitations. First, the two main studies limited their sampling frame to target the Australian population and address their sample size quota ($N \leq 350$). This put the spotlight on Australian tourists but limited generalisability to other countries. Second, the research only considered luxury hotels/resorts with two transformational advertising stimuli, namely, the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. Although this gave focus to hedonic binging at luxury hotels/resorts, other tourism and leisure contexts need to be considered, such as personalised designer tours (Bakker 2005), luxury cruises and luxury special-interest travel (e.g. Park, Reisinger and Noh 2010). Third, the study is limited in its operationalisation of hedonic binging because it did not undertake all scale development procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003). Since the intent of the study was to explore the hedonic binging construct, existing scale items were adapted to measure it. A subsequent phase of the research will address scale development to validate its psychometric properties.

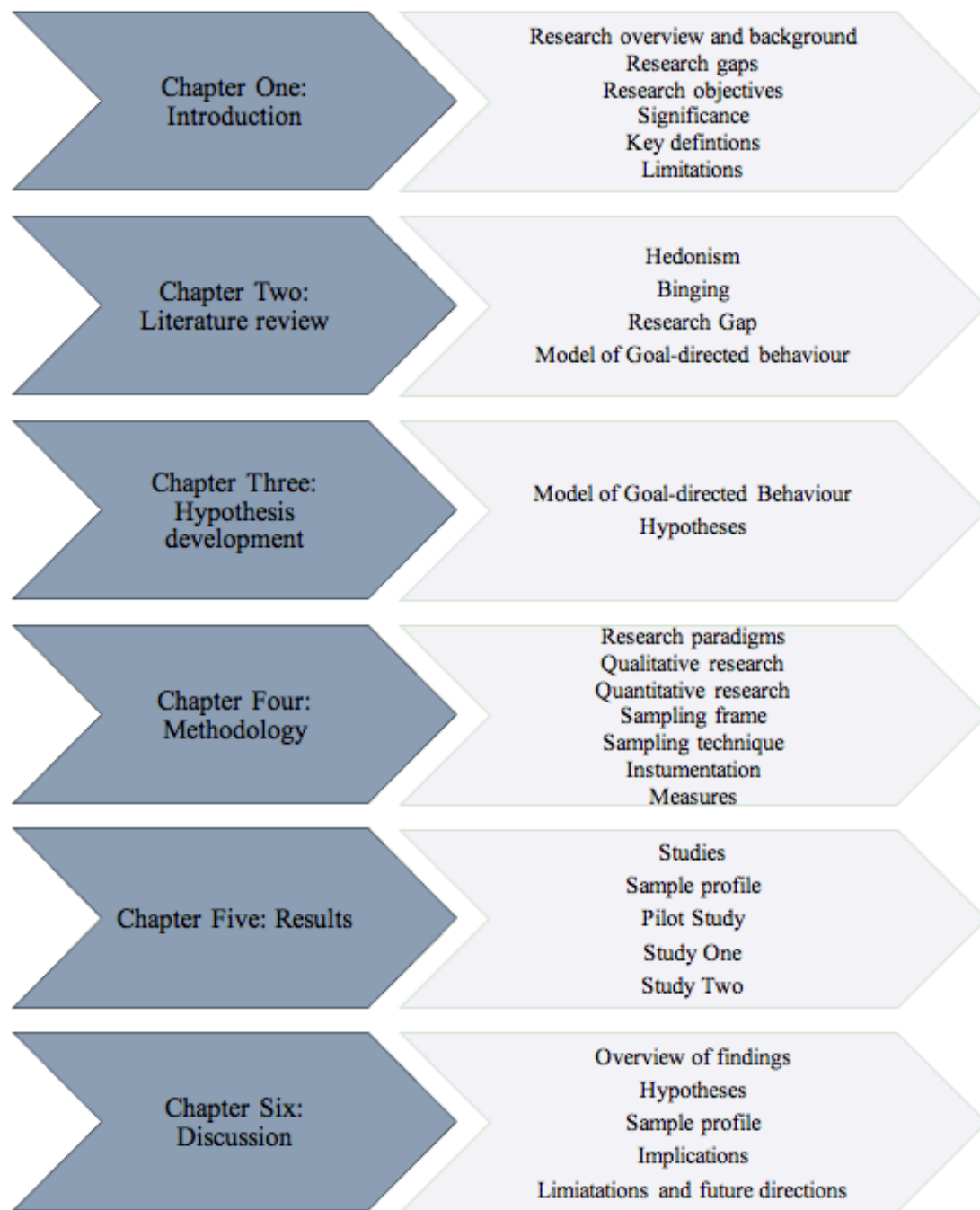
1.8. Structure of thesis

To facilitate navigation through the thesis, its structure is outlined in Figure 1.2.

1.9. Chapter summary

This chapter provides an overview of the current study's scope. First, it summarises the research background and articulates issues for hedonic binging in the context of tourism. Then, it identifies the research gaps in the literature, the research objectives which the study intends to address, and the research methodology to achieve this. Next, it considers the contributions of the study and denotes the definitions of key constructs. Finally, it sets the study's delimitations and presents the thesis structure.

Figure 1.2: Structure of thesis



Chapter 2

Literature review

2.0. Introduction

Chapter One outlined the scope of the current study. This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the research. The study's first research objective was to clarify understanding of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism. In doing so, the literature review identifies theoretical underpinnings of the hedonism and bingeing constructs in order to introduce hedonic bingeing as a multi-dimensional construct. The study's second research objective was to conceptualise and operationalise hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context. To achieve this, the literature review unpacks the hedonic bingeing attributes, namely, positive and negative anticipated emotions, unplanned and planned impulsiveness as well as compulsiveness in the context of tourism. The study's third research objective was to introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. The literature review suggests how hedonic bingeing may be introduced to the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs, namely, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and past behaviour to predict desire and behavioural intention. Finally, the research gaps in the literature addressed by the research objectives are identified.

2.1. Hedonism overview

The study of hedonism and hedonic-driven behaviour has been a fundamental dimension in research extending from consumer psychology to consumer behaviour. The hedonism concept dates back to the ancient Greek language where '*hedone*' was used to signify "pleasure (which includes the avoidance of pain) [as] the only good in life" (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy

2002, 526). Comparably, Kashdan, Biswas-Diener and King (2008, 219) tracked the origins of hedonism to Aristotle and conjectured that hedonism refers to being “occupied by the search for pleasure.” These early conceptualisations suggest there is a nexus between the pursuit of positive experience and the avoidance of negative experience in living the hedonic life.

In early psychology, Mill’s (1863, chapter 2) 19th century commentary on hedonism observed that “pleasure, and freedom from pain, are the only things desirable as ends,” highlighting the notion of avoiding pain and only seeking pleasurable outcomes. Two centuries later, hedonism continued to be viewed as “raw subjective feeling” (Seligman and Royzman 2003, 1) which aims to pursue pleasure (Chapman, Chapman and Raulin 1976) and avoid pain (Sober and Wilson 1998). For instance, Leone, Perugini and Ercolani (2004) reiterated that avoiding negative emotions, such as being angry, frustrated, guilty, ashamed, sad, disappointed, depressed, worried, uncomfortable and fearful, while seeking positive emotions, such as being excited, delighted, happy, glad, satisfied, proud, self-assured and enjoyment are motives that drive hedonism.

In defining hedonism as “pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself,” Huisman and Schwartz (1995, 90) observed the self-fulfilment of pleasure, emotion and enjoyment that the construct encompassed. This led Grinstein, Kronrod and Wathieu (2012) to comment on the dream-like state evoked from such sensuous self-gratification. Thus, hedonism taps into a fantasy experience, enabling individuals to escape through pleasurable consumption (Labrecque, Krishen and Grzeskowiak 2011). Collectively, these studies imply that hedonism is a multi-faceted construct, predominantly focused on pursuing positive emotions and avoiding negative emotions for experiential enjoyment.

2.1.1. Sensory stimulation and experiential enjoyment

Hedonism is often celebrated for its liberation of sensory stimulation and emotional experience. One of the seminal marketing studies on hedonism comes from Hirschman and Holbrook (1982a, 135) who defined hedonism as “fun, amusement, fantasy arousal, sensory stimulation, and enjoyment.” Drawing from Hirschman and Holbrook (1982a), Okada (2005, 44) conceptualised hedonism as “experiential enjoyment.” Similarly, Scarpi (2006, 7-8) considered the “experiential side” of hedonism as “comprising pleasure, curiosity” and concluded that hedonism is important in shaping emotions in the consumer experience. Caruana and Crane (2011) identified the freedom with engaging in hedonistic, yet responsible tourism and reported that hedonism offers liberation from the routine of work and anticipation of pleasure derived from taking such a vacation. These studies highlight hedonism’s liberating role in stimulating the senses and creating positive emotional experiences for the tourist.

Some researchers have argued for the distinction between sensory stimulation and emotional experience by calling to attention the disparity between traditional hedonism and modern hedonism. Citing Ruth (1996), Clarke (2013, 77) contended that the “key to modern hedonism is the quest for pleasure via emotional experience rather than sensory stimulation.” On the one hand, traditional hedonism embodies involvement with “pleasures” rather than “pleasure” (Campbell 1994, 509). In this sense, “pleasures” refer to a pleasurable sensation gained from behaviour such as eating or drinking (Campbell 1994). In other words, traditional hedonism is oriented around sensual pleasure. On the other hand, modern hedonism is concerned with seeking pleasure in an emotional experience (Shaw and Aldridge 2003). In this sense, “pleasure” refers to the quality of the experience (Campbell 1994). The author concluded that emotions are powerful tools of pleasure as they are concerned with heightened states of arousal in the experience.

2.1.2. Fun, amusement, enjoyment and fantasy

In their seminal marketing study, Hirschman and Holbrook (1982b) conceived hedonism as the “fantasy and emotive aspects of one’s experience with products.” Drawing on this earlier conceptualisation of enjoyment and fantasy, Scarpi (2006, 7-8) defined hedonism as “playfulness rather than to task completion” and “fantasy, escapism and fun.” From these studies, it is evident that an idealised hedonic state evokes ultimate pleasurable emotions which create a Utopian or fantasy state (Hopkinson and Pujari, 1999). Such an idealised hedonic state is typical in the context of leisure travel where hedonism rouses emotion and creates fantasy (Fesenmaier and Tussyadiah 2009). The authors reported that online-shared travel videos stimulate memories and fantasies which stir emotional pleasure for hedonistic-driven travellers, underlining the role of previous emotional experiences and the imagination. Thus, gratifying emotional consumption instigates a dream-like state, particularly in individuals prone to hedonic behaviour (Malone, Smith and McCabe 2014).

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982b) cautioned that subcultures are likely to vary in the amount of fantasy and emotions considered to be acceptable by their members. The fun, enjoyment, escapist and fantasy approach adopted by hedonists runs contrary to the sombre, wary, self-sacrificing and grounded approach observed by traditionalists. On the one hand, conventional communities steeped in traditions such as religion are more likely to reject hedonism in favour of restraint and self-denial (Huisman and Schwartz 1995). On the other hand, contemporary societies are more likely to embrace hedonism in favour of its freedom and self-gratification (Passini 2013). For instance, Chaudhry and Stumpf’s (2011) study of counterfeit products found that hedonic shoppers demonstrate lower ethical concerns and are more complicit with a counterfeit product if it addresses their own needs. O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy (2004) investigated whether marketing is responsible for the current lifestyle which encourages

individuals to pursue hedonism without constraint. The authors concluded that marketing does not create a want for the hedonistic lifestyle but merely surfaces a current need. These studies suggest that hedonism runs contrary to traditional institutions of authority, denying communal principles and hierarchy; instead, instigating social change and self-empowerment (Passini 2013).

2.1.3. *Hedonism versus utilitarianism*

Consumer psychology and marketing literature related to consumer behaviour makes distinctions between consumption values gained from hedonism versus utilitarianism. Zeithaml (1988) defined value as the overall assessment of subjective worth of a product/service, considering all relevant evaluative criteria. According to Shukla (2012, 578), this definition “fits well” in the context of luxury where consumption is focused on prestige and hedonic outcomes, although the definition also accommodates functional (utilitarian) outcomes. In the context of the current study, when a tourist takes a luxury vacation, they anticipate hedonic value from staying at a luxury resort, indulging in state-of-the-art health and wellness spa treatments, engaging in personalised sessions with fitness gurus and dining at award-winning restaurants. However, they also expect utilitarian value from sleeping, exercising and eating during their luxury vacation.

The hedonic value derived from a product/service refers to the pleasurable sensory stimulation in the process of brand choosing and buying (Kuikka and Laukkanen 2012). The authors examined hedonic value derived from chocolate consumption and reported that consumers who perceive higher hedonic value demonstrate greater brand satisfaction which impacts on their attitudinal loyalty. These findings corroborated Osman and Sobal’s (2006) study which concluded that people are motivated to eat chocolate mainly for hedonic reasons.

Conversely, the functional or utilitarian value of a product/service refers to its usability value, quality value and uniqueness value (Shukla 2012). For instance, Jones, Reynolds and Arnold (2006) investigated utilitarian shopping value, satisfaction with retailers and re patronage intention. The authors found that although utilitarian shopping value positively impacts on satisfaction and re patronage intention, it does not impact on positive word-of-mouth. This was because hedonic shopping value is more likely to tap into the emotional significance of the shopping experience which is related to satisfaction, re patronage anticipation and positive word-of-mouth.

Interestingly, Okada's (2005) study of utilitarian and hedonic goods reported that in making the purchase, the consumer is willing to invest more in time for hedonic goods and more in money for utilitarian goods. Since the process of making a hedonic purchase encompasses the pleasurable experience, the consumer is more willing to eke out the time in this process and extend the experience. However, given that a utilitarian purchase addresses a functional need for performance, the consumer is more willing to shell out money to satisfy this need.

2.1.4. Positive emotions and its pursuit

Conceptualisations

The majority of the literature on hedonism views the construct from the perspective of evoking positive emotions (e.g. Campbell 1972; Caruana and Crane 2011; Malone, Smith and McCabe 2014). Subscribers of hedonism theory contend that hedonism stimulates the senses and anticipates positive emotions of experiential enjoyment (Grappi and Montanari 2011; Okada 2005). For instance, Deci and Ryan (2001, 144) linked hedonism to "preferences and the pleasures of the mind... [and] "body." Scarpi (2012, 55) highlighted the connection between

hedonism and positive anticipated emotion when the author stipulated that “hedonism increases the effect of arousal on positive emotions.”

The positive emotions anticipated from performing hedonistic behaviour directly affect desirous states for performing the behaviour. For instance, Hunter (2006) examined consumers’ perceptions and behaviour toward shopping centres. The author highlighted the significant role positive anticipated emotion has on desire to visit shopping centres. Likewise, Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow (2006) explored consumers’ loyalty toward their insurance provider and concluded that positive anticipated emotion is directly related to desire to remain loyal toward the insurance provider.

Underpinning theories

Three underpinning theories are critical in unpacking positive anticipated emotion from the hedonism construct. The first underpinning theory is derived from the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) which was introduced by Perugini and Conner (2000) as well as Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). According to the MGB, anticipated emotions refer to “forward looking emotions” (Lee et al. 2012, 91). A tenet of the MGB is that pursuing positive anticipated emotion is antecedent to desire in the consumer decision-making process.

Researchers have empirically tested and verified the direct relationship between positive anticipated emotion and desire. For instance, Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy’s (2003) MGB study of how individuals set personal goals reported that positive anticipated emotion influences desire to strive for achieving personal goals. Similarly, Bay and Daniel (2003) utilised the MGB to examine student retention in higher education and reiterated that positive emotion anticipated from academic success instigates desire to work hard to achieve this goal. Song et al.’s (2014) adoption of the MGB to investigate attendees at an oriental medicine

festival corroborated that positive anticipated emotion is a significant predictor of desire to visit the festival. Clearly, such MGB-related studies suggest that positive anticipated emotion affects desire to act.

The second underpinning theory for positive anticipated emotion is narcissism theory (Freud 1914). Narcissism is conceptualised as a “persistent pattern of grandiosity, self-focus and self-importance” and its preoccupation with fantasies of power, success and beauty (Naderi and Paswan 2016, 377). Narcissism in contemporary society paves the way for hedonism’s disregard of traditional values and authority for the pursuit of self-empowerment and self-gratification (Passini 2013). The author called attention to the current culture which enables narcissists to obsess on achieving social success through their appearance and popularity. Interestingly, narcissists are likely to have low self-esteem and overcome their insecurities by seeking approval from their peers (Passini 2013). Further, their self-gifting of entertainment and personal care products/services is internally attributed, exclusively personal and pleasure-oriented (Clarke and Mortimer 2013). These studies corroborate modern society’s self-absorption with seeking pleasure and self-gratification in its pursuit of hedonism.

The third underpinning theory for positive anticipated emotion is escapism theory which links emotions and fantasy with escapism (Nowell-Smith and Lemmon 1960). Two schools of thought have emerged from escapism theory. On the one hand, escapism may be viewed from a psychological and sociological perspective, with negative connotations in contemporary society (e.g. Evans 2001). For instance, Tuan’s (2000) book on escapism theory defines escapism as taking a break from life and suggests that escapism is avoidance of real life. Moreover, the author stipulates that seeking escape may be enacted foolishly by ignoring realism and stability. On the other hand, escapism may be viewed from a marketing perspective, with positive connotations in contemporary society. For instance, Labrecque,

Krishen and Grzeskowiak (2011, 460) defined escapism in a product context as “experiences that serve as a means to allow a person to break away from unwanted social realities, even if only temporarily.” The authors argued that there is very little damage in occasional escape from reality in relaxation, and this in fact, can deliver a healthy release for the mind. In fact, sociologist, Rojek’s (1993) book on modern transformation identified escapism as an influential motivation for travel and leisure, both hedonic pursuits. The author remarked that popular culture views travel and leisure as escapes from daily routine and repetition.

Operationalisations

In operationalising positive emotions, researchers have tapped into several aspects of hedonism, namely, pleasurable sensory stimulation, experiential enjoyment, escapism and fantasy. The model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) identifies seven positive emotions such as “*excited, delighted, happy, glad, satisfied, proud, self-assured*” (Bagozzi, Dholakia Basuroy 2003, 282). Perugini and Bagozzi’s (2001) consumer psychology study validated these same seven positive emotions when they found positive anticipated emotion to influence desire for personal body weight regulation. These descriptors were reiterated in Leone, Perugini and Ercolani’s (2004) study which contended that positive anticipated emotion impacts on desire to learn a statistical software program. Subsequently, Clarke’s (2013) gift-giving study in tourism and leisure contexts selected seven positive emotions such as *liking, enjoyment, love, delight, wonder, thrill* and *pleasure* and noted that gifts purchased while at leisure or on vacation result in positive emotion for both donors and recipients. Grappi and Montanari (2011) incorporated positive emotions (e.g. “*I truly felt delighted*”) with experiential enjoyment (e.g. “*This experience was truly enjoyable*” and “*I enjoyed the experience for its own sake*”) and the escapist (e.g. “*I truly felt it like an escape*”) aspects of hedonism when they studied visitor

behaviour at a festival. The authors reiterated that hedonism positively influences revisit intention toward the festival.

2.1.5. Negative emotions and its avoidance

Conceptualisations

Explicit in the hedonism construct is the pursuit of pleasurable sensory stimulation (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener and King 2008) and the experience of positive emotions (Okada 2005; Scarpi 2006). Implicit in the hedonism construct is the avoidance of unpleasant sensory stimulation (Sober and Wilson 1998) and the experience of negative emotions (Perugini and Ercolani 2004). The negative emotions anticipated from inability to perform hedonistic behaviour inversely affect desirous states for performing the behaviour. For instance, Han and Yoon (2015) researched tourists' environmentally-responsible actions toward hotels and concluded that avoiding negative anticipated emotion influences desire to engage in environmentally-friendly behaviour.

Underpinning theories

Two underpinning theories are important in explaining negative anticipated emotion in the hedonism construct. The first underpinning theory is taken from the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) which was pioneered by Perugini and Conner (2000) as well as Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). The MGB premises that avoiding negative anticipated emotion is a predictor for desire in consumer decision-making.

The direct relationship between avoiding negative anticipated emotion and desire has been validated in consumer psychology, marketing and tourism marketing studies. For instance, Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy's (2003) MGB study of students' achievement goals suggested that avoidance of negative anticipated emotion increases desire to take action and set academic

goals. This avoidance acts as a motivation to set and drive future academic goals. Carrus, Passafaro and Bonnes (2008) utilised the MGB's ability to predict pro-environmental behaviour. The authors observed that avoiding negative anticipated emotion and past behaviour are significant in explaining desire to engage in pro-environmental activities such as taking public transport. Similarly, Kim et al. (2012) studied gender's effect on tourists' overseas travel with the MGB. The authors reported that avoidance of negative anticipated emotion plays a significant role in influencing behavioural desire. Further, Song et al. (2012) explored the MGB's ability to predict behavioural intention toward a mud festival. The authors found that visitors who want to continue their enjoyment of the festival and avoid negative emotions of being angry, disappointed, worried and sad are more likely to revisit it again. These studies underpin hedonism as avoiding negative emotions and seeking positive emotions.

The second underpinning theory for negative anticipated emotion is fear of missing out (FoMO) which is conceptualised as the basis of fear of what an individual may miss out on because of barriers such as time and money (Herman 2010). It can be argued that (FoMO) drives the avoidance of negative emotions in the pursuance of hedonic activities. In a seminal academic study on FoMO, Przybylski et al. (2013, 1841) explored social media engagement and characterised FoMO as the "desire to stay continually connected with what others are doing." The authors observed that FoMO and the avoidance of negative emotions such as boredom and loneliness will propel a user's desire to stay constantly online so that they remain in the know. Extending from Przybylski et al.'s (2013) study, Alt (2016) corroborated the direct relationship FoMO has with avoidance of negative emotions. The author explored FoMO and the use of social media amongst college students and remarked that FoMO and the potential of experiencing negative emotions instigate students to engage in social media even while attending lectures. Collectively, these studies highlight how FoMO stimulates avoidance of negative anticipated emotion in the pursuit of hedonism.

Operationalisations

In operationalising negative emotions, researchers have identified the unpleasant sensory stimulation, dull, dreary, boring and routine aspects which are avoided in hedonism. The model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) identifies 10 negative emotions, namely, *angry, frustrated, guilty, ashamed, sad, disappointed, depressed, worried, uncomfortable* and *fearful* (Bagozzi and Pieters 1998). Subsequently, Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) consumer psychology study validated these same 10 descriptors and found them to impact on desire to regulate body weight. In tourism and leisure studies, Grappi and Montanari (2011) identified negative emotions as being *bored, angry* and *annoyed* when they explored visitors' revisit intention to attend an Italian festival. Concurring with this, Song et al. (2012) used *angry, disappointed, worried* and *sad* when they examined visitors' negative emotions at a mud festival. Clarke's (2013) investigation of gift-giving and gift-receiving conjectured that gifts purchased while on vacation or at leisure result in negative emotions, such as *guilt, embarrassment, disappointment, shame, pain* and *boredom*, for both the donor and recipient. The author attributed boredom to the donor if they needed to expend effort to find a gift while on their vacation and disappointment to the receiver if the gift did not meet their expectations.

Nexus between positive and negative anticipated emotions

It has already been pointed out that the earliest conceptualisations of '*hedone*' signified "pleasure (which includes the avoidance of pain) [as] the only good in life" (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2002, 526). The authors studied issues of globalisation, marketing, consumerism and the hedonic lifestyle and posited that a consumer's drive to augment pleasure and evade pain impacts on their buying behaviour. This suggested a nexus between positive and negative emotions in hedonism.

Interestingly, Campbell (1994) argued that any emotion, including a negative one, is able to deliver pleasurable stimulation. The author (1994, 509) illustrated this argument with negative emotions of “fear, anger, grief, and jealousy” in the context of consumerism. In order for the stimulation to create a pleasant experience, the individual must be able to “control” the negative emotions (Campbell 1994, 509). This phenomenon is best explained by reversal theory which describes how an individual can reverse and be flexible between psychological states of emotion and motivation due to meaning attributed to a situation (Apter 1982). For instance, Anderson and Brown (1987) explored reversal theory in relation to gambling addiction. The authors observed that boredom in a low arousal state can be reversed to hedonic excitement in a high arousal state. In medical research, Finfgeld et al. (2002) considered the ways nurses influence health behaviour change. The authors concluded that reversal theory applies to involuntary behaviours which can be moulded with interpersonal and extra personal circumstances so that a negative pattern of behaviour is changed to affect positive behaviour and emotion.

In operationalising hedonism derived from gift-giving, Ruth et al. (2004) utilised 10 descriptors which tapped into both positive and negative emotions, namely, *love, happiness, gratitude* and *pride* as well as *uneasiness, fear, embarrassment, sadness, anger* and *guilt*. The authors argued that multiple emotions coexist or are sequential in the consumer. Thus, an individual could feel positive emotion (e.g. *pride*) when receiving a gift and negative emotion (e.g. *guilt*) when gifting actually occurs. This suggests that positive and negative emotions are intertwined when an individual is exposed to a hedonic product/service.

2.2. Binging overview

Binging has been characterised by impulsive, sudden, immediate, uncontrolled and addictive consumption (Beatty and Ferrell 1998) in psychology and psychiatry literature. Adapting

definitions from the American Psychiatric Association (1994), Faber et al. (1995, 297) defined bingeing as “excessive amount[s]” when not required and a “lack of control” during a “short period.” The authors observed bingeing in purchasing and eating contexts and highlighted a correlation between binge buying and binge eating. Adapting from Johnson and Schlundt’s (1990) assessment and treatment of eating disorders, Ferriter and Ray (2011, 99) also defined bingeing as a “period of uncontrolled or excessive indulgence.” The authors noted that binge eating and binge drinking share characteristics with neuroticism, a sense of urgency and negative affect. Likewise, Grant, Odlaug and Schreiber (2013) conceptualised bingeing as consuming large amounts in a short time frame when they investigated behavioural addiction treatments.

Studies in consumer psychology have reiterated bingeing as impulsive, sudden, immediate, uncontrolled and addictive in purchase behaviour. For instance, Passini (2013) reviewed bingeing in the context of consumerism. The author (2016, 374) conceptualised bingeing as characterised by “impulsive,” “excessive,” “uncontrolled consumption” and a “feeling of loss of control” in a “limited period of time.” These urges are driven by an “excessive sensibility for boredom,” “search for ever-new sensations” and “distorted self-esteem” (Passini, 2013, 374). Similarly, Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham (2011, 1071) defined bingeing as “excessive” when they explored travellers’ carbon-conscious attitude toward binge frequent flying. The authors found increasing negative opinion toward binge frequent flying while on vacation.

It has been acknowledged in marketing literature that compulsive buying encompasses both tendencies of impulse-control and obsessive-compulsive disorders (e.g. Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney and Monroe 2008). Impulse buying centres mainly on the immediate and unintended and primarily aims to stimulate positive emotions during the on-the-spot purchase (Flight Rountree and Beatty 2012; Hausman 2000; Wood 1998). Compulsive buying focuses on

excessive, uncontrolled and risk-taking tendencies, pertaining primarily to post-purchase negative emotions. Such compulsive buying has been diagnosed as an addiction (Grant, Odlaug and Schreiber 2013; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). Collectively, these studies imply that bingeing is a multi-faceted construct, predominantly centred around tendencies toward impulsiveness and compulsiveness.

2.2.1. *Impulsiveness*

Conceptualisations

Marketing studies of impulsiveness have acknowledged that emotions are a significant pull factor for consumers' buying tendencies. Wood (1998, 302) conceptualised impulse buying as “unplanned,” “minimal deliberation” and “accompanied by heightened emotion.” Thus, “impulse buying may be associated with positive states [such as] feeling happy or deserving of a treat” (Herabadi, Verplanken and Knippenberg 2009, 21). Further, Hausman (2000) commented on the emotional pull of impulse by observing that consumers buy products for an assortment of non-utilitarian reasons motivated by fantasy, fun, social or emotional. Likewise, Joo Park, Kim and Forney (2006) highlighted the emotional pull of impulse buying in fashion contexts. Consequently, when observing shoppers and students, Herabadi, Verplanken and Knippenberg (2009, 21) identified two dimensions of impulse buying, namely, high/low arousal of positive emotions and hedonic/utilitarian values. The authors concluded that consumers with higher positive emotions are more likely to find greater hedonic value in their impulse purchases.

It has been suggested that impulse buying is such an emotionally-driven behaviour that the consumer ignores potential consequences or alternatives in order to satisfy their immediate emotional need (e.g. Flight, Rountree and Beatty 2012; Hausman 2000). This prompted Rook

(1987) to posit that purchasing impulsively feels freeing, almost like breaking the rules but partaking in relatively innocent, ‘naughty but nice’ behaviour. In fact, Rook and Fisher (1995, 305) professed that it is possible to “conceive of consumption situations in which impulse buying would be viewed as normatively neutral, or even positively sanctioned behaviour.”

Unsurprisingly, some researchers have declared that impulsive consumers neither feel guilty, regretful (e.g. Clarke and Mortimer 2013) nor demonstrate negative post-purchase evaluation but instead, view their behaviour in a favourable light (e.g. Hausman 2000). Hausman (2000) observed that once hedonic factors are acknowledged as a motivator, impulse buying may be viewed as a valued pastime in acquiring goods. It has even been suggested that the environmental setting induces this positive mood. For instance, Herabadi, Verplanken and Knippenberg (2009) reported that the pleasant ambient settings of a shopping environment stimulates positive emotional states. In fact, Joo Park, Kim and Forney (2006) recommended that retailers should pay attention to positive situational cues such as store design, displays, packaging and sales to create a hedonic experience and trigger impulse buying for shoppers.

In marketing literature, two schools of thought prevail on impulsiveness. The first identifies unplanned impulse purchase behaviour (e.g. Beatty and Ferrell 1998; Chen and Lin 2013; Omar and Kent 2001; Stern 1962). The second considers planned impulse purchase behaviour (e.g. Adelaar 2003; Han et al. 1991; Laesser and Dolnicar 2012; Stern 1962).

Early marketing research subscribes to the first school of thought which considers impulse buying to be entirely unplanned (Kollat and Willet 1969). Unplanned impulse buying is commonly conceptualised as “when a person experiences an irresistible urge to buy” (Brenicic and Shoham 2003, 129) that is “spur-of-the-moment” (Chen and Lin 2013, 427) and pertaining to the “urge to shop for something immediately” (Omar and Kent 2001, 234). Beatty and Ferrell (1998) studied precursors to impulse buying such as time, money, enjoyment and impulse

buying tendencies. The authors conceptualised impulse buying as “experiencing an urge to buy” that is often strong and “irresistible” and contended that positive emotion motivates the consumer’s urge to buy impulsively (Beatty and Ferrell 1998, 170). Since unplanned impulsiveness is spontaneous, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, no studies have explored its impact on desire to engage in a spontaneous act.

Some marketing studies that have followed, although these comprise a smaller pool, subscribe to the second school of thought which considers that impulse buying may be intentional and planned. Thus, consumers who plan to purchase a product but perhaps have not decided on a brand or type, may also be characterised as impulse buyers (Rook 1987). Han et al. (1991) illustrated planned impulse buying in the context of fashion which is on sale at a store. The authors observed planned impulse buying to occur when a consumer walks into the store with a general intention to purchase but only makes the decision to purchase dependant on sale conditions instore. Likewise, Adelaar (2003) concurred that planned impulse buying takes place when a consumer enters a store intending to purchase an item but that this purchase is dependent on sale conditions.

Impulsiveness, whether unplanned or planned, may affect desirous states for performing a behaviour such as the purchase of a hedonic product/service. On the one hand, Kalla and Arora (2011) observed that impulse buying is motivated by hedonistic appeals or pleasure-seeking goals and these in consequence, may cause the consumer to experience desire for a related product. Harmancioglu, Finney and Joseph (2009) also examined consumers’ impulse buying behaviour of new hedonic products and concluded that impulse buying satisfies desire for such products. On the other hand, Laesser and Dolnicar (2012) pointed out that tourists who desire to take short vacations demonstrate planned impulsiveness by consulting travel planning tourism services prior to making a decision.

Underpinning theories

Two underpinning theories are key to unpacking impulsiveness from the bingeing construct. The first underpinning theory is derived from present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996). The theory accounts for instant fulfilment, preference for behaviours with immediate reward as well as a fatalistic attitude toward the salient social environment and the stimulating product/service which takes place in the 'now' (Passini 2013). Consequently, contemporary society's absorption with satisfying current demands underpins impulsive behaviour.

The second underpinning theory for impulsiveness, and closely related to present-time orientation theory, is gratification theory (Maslow 1948). The author explored the theoretical consequences of need-gratification on a hierarchy of raw emotional needs. Gratification theory occurs in "an environment in which the emphasis is on immediate gratifications and satisfaction of needs" Chatman (1991, 438). The author studied the applicability of gratification theory on information-seeking by a lower socio-economic population. Chatman (1991) found that respondents prefer receiving information from familiar sources that are readily accessible, immediate and concerned with the now and do not actively seek information outside these usual channels.

Operationalisations

In operationalising unplanned and planned impulsiveness, researchers have tapped into the spur-of the moment, urge to buy and irresistible impulses encapsulated in unplanned and planned impulse buying behaviour. In consumer research, Rook and Fisher (1995) identified nine scale items for unplanned impulsiveness, namely "*I often buy things spontaneously,*" "*Just do it describes the way I buy things,*" "*I often buy things without thinking,*" "*I see it, I buy it*

describes me,” “Buy now, think about it later describes me,” “Sometimes I feel like buying things on the spur-of-the moment,” “I buy things according to how I feel at the moment,” “I carefully plan most of my purchases (reverse),” and “Sometimes I am a bit reckless about what I buy.” These nine descriptors are reiterated by Omar and Kent (2001) who noted that impulse shopping relates to spontaneous behaviour which shoppers believe to be acceptable. For planned impulsiveness, Han et al. (1991) identified three scale items, namely, *“I decided what to buy only after looking around the store,” “I expect to find something I want to buy when I get to the store,” and “I tend to decide what to buy while looking around the store.”* The authors concluded that individuals tend to engage in planned impulse buying (buying based on sale conditions) while they are physically looking at purchasable items.

2.2.2. Compulsiveness

Conceptualisations

In consumer psychology and marketing literature, compulsive buying behaviour is conceptualised as “chronic, repetitive purchasing that occurs as a response to negative events or feelings” and increased consumption (O’Guinn and Faber 1989, 149). Brencic and Shoham (2003, 128) reiterated that the construct encompassed “chronic, repetitive” behaviour. Muller et al. (2005, 3) elaborated on compulsive buying behaviour when they suggested that it was “preoccupation with buying or impulses to buy” which are “experienced as irresistible, intrusive, and/or senseless.” Such behaviour is undertaken “with greater frequency” (Ridgway et al. 2008, 392). In fact, Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney and Monroe (2008) noted that compulsive-prone buyers consume with more frequency than average buyers. This prompted Ridgway et al. (2008, 392) to summarily define the compulsive aspect of binging as being “preoccupied with buying,” and “buy[ing] more.”

The psychology and psychiatry literature largely ascribes compulsion in bingeing to addictive behaviour (e.g. Faber et al. 1995). For instance, Wood (1998, 302) likened the “compulsive impulse” to “addictive motivation.” Gold, Frost-Pineda and Jacobs (2003) highlighted the association between food cravings, binge eating, denial, compulsiveness and addiction. Marketing and tourism studies also corroborated this premise. For instance, Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham (2011, 1071) referred to bingeing as a “behavioural addiction” when they discerned a negative relationship between attitude toward binge frequent flying and carbon footprint increases. Further, Chang (2014, 194) observed the shopping behaviour of tourists and equated their “unplanned purchase behaviour” with “addiction.”

The compulsion in bingeing, associated with addictive behaviour, is driven by negative evaluation and context, and a desire to escape from this negativity. For instance, Brencic and Shoham (2003, 128) argued that compulsive behaviour is repetitive behaviour that “becomes a primary response to negative events or feelings.” Thus, compulsive individuals are driven by a pressing need to alleviate their negative contexts (O’Guinn and Faber 1989) and “negative affectivity” (Kellett and Bolton 2009, 89). Consequently, Schweidel and Moe (2016, 3) examined advertising for its impact on binge watching and asserted that bingers engaged in their addictive behaviour in order “to escape reality.” The authors found that binge viewers, who are further along in their binge watching and more addicted to their TV programs, are more likely to become frustrated with advertisements as it interrupts their watching.

The compulsive aspect of bingeing is also driven by risk-taking which is viewed as a personality trait (Sonmez et al. 2006). For instance, O’Guinn and Faber (1989) drew attention to compulsive buyers whom they suggested exhibit problematic compulsive personality traits in addiction. Similarly, Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir (2004, 419) set out to investigate compulsive buying, compulsive substance abuse and compulsive gambling. The authors

reiterated that compulsive behaviour is “problematic” and characteristic of an individual’s personality trait, namely, risk-taking which is associated with addiction. Consequently, it has been surmised that bingeing, characterised by the risk-taking personality trait, is associated with developed levels of urgency and neuroticism (Ferriter and Ray 2011).

Consumer psychology and marketing studies have explored the outcomes of engaging in compulsive purchasing. For instance, O’Guinn and Faber (1989, 149) argued that buying compulsively provides consumers with short-term positive rewards but long-term negative emotions. Subsequently, Grant, Odlaug and Schreiber (2013) observed that binge eaters derive positive emotion such as pleasure *during* their bingeing behaviour but negative emotion such as guilt *after* their bingeing behaviour.

Underpinning theories

There are three underpinning theories which are crucial in explaining compulsiveness in the bingeing construct. The first underpinning theory is obsessive compulsive disorder theory (Freud 1909). Obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) is characterised as “thoughts and irresistible urges which are extraordinarily difficult to resist” (Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004, 422). Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney and Monroe (2008, 623) corroborated that OCD is defined by “obsessions (thoughts, preoccupations),” and “compulsions,” which “consume large amounts of time” and interfere with regular human function.

Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney and Monroe (2008, 623) considered OCD when they examined consumers’ tendency to buy compulsively and drew the conclusion that compulsive buying encompasses both tendencies toward impulse-control and obsessive-compulsive disorders. This reiterates the obsessive-compulsive drive consumers may feel in their preoccupation with purchasing without further thought. However, Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir’s (2004)

cross-cultural study on compulsive buying, compulsive substance abuse and compulsive gambling cautioned that although obsessive thoughts typify the initial stage in developing compulsive behaviour, not all obsession leads to compulsion.

The second underpinning theory for compulsiveness is present-time orientation (Davies and Omer 1996). Passini (2013) postulated that such orientation necessitates immediate reward from appealing social settings and stimulating consumer products/services. The author asserted that acting in the 'now' is linked to an individual's compulsive personality. For instance, tourism experiences are perishable and have limited time frames. The temporary nature of a vacation drives tourists to act in the 'now' and spoil themselves with luxuries they otherwise would not have when they are at home (Caruana and Crane 2011). This behaviour is expected to be heightened in compulsive personalities who are likely to engage in intensified indulgent consumption (Chung, Song and Koo 2014). Thus, present-time orientation escalates in compulsive personalities, causing them to binge sporadically to meet their current needs.

The third underpinning theory for compulsiveness is the psychological theory of neuroticism (Goldberg 1992). For instance, Churchill, Jessop and Sparks (2008, 632) observed that consumers who are predisposed to compulsiveness are inclined to have a "tendency toward insecurity and negative affect" and concluded that neuroticism moderates behavioural intention. Similarly, Gohary and Hanzaee (2014) examined neuroticism in their investigation of the Big Five personality traits which motivate compulsive buying. The authors recorded direct relationships that neuroticism had with compulsive behaviours. Corroboratively, Chang's (2014) investigation of the shopping behaviour adopted by guided package tourists conjectured that compulsive bingeing was triggered by internal factors such as low self-esteem and external factors such as approval-seeking.

Operationalisations

In operationalising compulsiveness, researchers have identified the addictive, negative affect, escapism and risk-taking traits encompassed in compulsive buying behaviour. Adapting Edwards' (1993) compulsive buying scale, Johnson and Attmann (2008) identified 13 items for shopping compulsively, namely, *"I feel driven to shop and spend, even when I don't have the time or the money," "I get little or no pleasure from shopping (reverse)," "I hate to go shopping (reverse)," "I go on buying binges," "I feel 'high when I go on a buying spree," "I buy things even when I don't need anything," "I go on a buying binge when I'm upset, disappointed, depressed, or angry," "I worry about my spending habits but still go out and shop and spend money," "I feel anxious after I go on a buying binge," "I buy things even though I cannot afford them," "I feel guilty or ashamed after I go on a buying binge," "I buy things I don't need or won't use" and "I sometimes feel compelled to go shopping"*. The authors concluded that neuroticism and fashion interest had significant impacts on compulsive shopping for attire. Adapting O'Guinn and Faber (1989) as well as Faber and O'Guinn (1992), Brencic and Shoham (2003) identified seven items for compulsive buying, namely, *"I bought something and when I got home I wasn't sure why I had bought it," "I just wanted to buy things and didn't care what I bought," "I bought things even though I couldn't afford them," "I wrote a check when I knew I didn't have enough money in the bank to cover it," "If I have money left at the end of the day, I just have to spend it," "I felt anxious or nervous on days I didn't go shopping," and "I bought something in order to make myself feel better."* The authors noted that gender as well as tendencies to either purchase off the shopping list or make an unplanned purchase predicted compulsive shopping behavior.

2.2.3. *Impulsiveness and compulsiveness*

Consumer psychology has evolved its approach toward the relationship between impulsiveness and compulsiveness in bingeing. In earlier studies, bingeing is characterised by impulsiveness and compulsiveness, which are viewed as distinct constructs, that may operate on each other. For instance, O’Guinn and Faber (1989) argued that compulsion to act may be triggered by an overpowering sense of impulse. Corroboratively, Wood (1998, 302) suggested that impulse buying was antecedent to ‘compulsive impulse’ which was an addictive motivation.

In more recent studies, bingeing is characterised by impulsiveness and compulsiveness which exist on a continuum. D’Astous (1990, 28) advanced this argument by contending that the majority of consumers fit on an “urge to buy continuum.” On one side of this continuum sits impulse buying and on the extreme side, sits compulsive buying. Elaborating on the compulsive side of the continuum, Johnson and Attmann (2008) identified a typology of compulsive personalities, namely, non-compulsive, recreational, borderline compulsive, compulsive and addicted buying. The current study proposes an adapted impulsive-compulsive continuum for hedonic bingers, as can be seen in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Impulsive-compulsive continuum – proposed



Adapted from the continuum of compulsive behaviour theory (D’Astous 1990)

The continuum of compulsive behaviour theory has been used in several contexts such as services (e.g. Clark and Callega 2008), retail (e.g. Johnson and Attmann 2008) and addiction studies (e.g. Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). To date, and to the best of the

researcher's knowledge, the impulsiveness-compulsiveness continuum has not been examined in the current study's context of tourism and specifically, in indulgent travel consumption.

2.3. Decision-making frameworks

In consumer psychology literature, several theories have been introduced to explain human behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action (TRA), Ajzen's (1988) theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) are amongst key theories commonly used to interpret behaviour.

According to the TRA, behavioural intention directly leads to a specific outcome of behaviour. Behavioural intention itself is dependent upon the antecedents of attitude and subjective norms (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). TRA-related studies have been implemented in diverse disciplines including consumer psychology (e.g. Bagozzi et al. 2000), marketing (e.g. Bagozzi, Baumgartner and Yi 1992) and tourism (e.g. Ryu and Jang 2010). The majority of these studies have shown some support for the TRA decision-making framework. For instance, Ryu and Jang (2006) adopted the TRA to explore tourists' behaviour toward local food and found that attitude was a stronger predictor of behavioural intention to sample local cuisine, eclipsing the influence of subjective norms. Similar results were reported in other TRA-related tourism studies, with Ryu and Han (2010) observing that attitude was a significant predictor of behavioural intention, whereas subjective norms was not.

Although the TRA has been widely adopted, some limitations have been observed. Ajzen (1991) pointed out that the TRA does not explain variability across different contexts and does not accurately predict a behaviour outcome in a specific situation. In fact, Ajzen (1991, 181) conceded that the TRA possesses "limitations in dealing with behaviours over which people

have incomplete volitional control.” These volitional controls include factors such as money, opportunity, human resources and time (Song et al. 2014).

To address the shortcomings of the TRA, Ajzen (1988) advanced the TPB. According to the TPB, behavioural intention remains as the dependent and outcome variable. However, perceived behavioural control is also introduced as an antecedent to behavioural intention and actual behaviour, along with attitude and subjective norms (Madden, Ellen and Ajzen 1992). TPB-related studies have been implemented in diverse disciplines including social psychology (e.g. Armitage and Conner 2001), health psychology (e.g. French and Hankins 2003), marketing (e.g. Yeon Kim and Chung 2011) and tourism (e.g. Hsu and Huang 2012). The majority of these studies have validated the TPB decision-making framework. For instance, Quintal, Thomas and Phau (2015) utilised the TPB to examine wine tourists’ behaviour in the winescape and reported that attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were all significant predictors of their intention to revisit the winescape. However, it has been highlighted that attitude may be a stronger predictor of intention over subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (e.g. Armitage and Conner 2001; Trafimow and Finaly 1996).

Despite inspiring common and contemporary use, some criticisms have been levelled at the TPB. Studies have highlighted the TPB’s inability to explain behaviour in longitudinal studies (Sniehotta, Pesseau and Araújo-Soares 2014) and in specific contexts such as predicting school choice (e.g. Goh 2011) or visitor non-compliance at national parks (e.g. Goh et al. 2017). This was attributed to the model’s limitations in accounting for an individual’s past behaviour or desire (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001).

To address the limitations of the TPB, Perugini and Conner (2000) as well as Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) introduced the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB), which added a new perspective to the TPB. According to the MGB, behavioural intention and actual behaviour are

the dependent and outcome variables. However, anticipated emotions, desire and past behaviour are also introduced as antecedents to behavioural intention and actual behaviour, along with attitude subjective norms and perceived behavioural control.

MGB-related studies have been implemented in diverse disciplines including social psychology (e.g. Perugini and Bagozzi 2001), marketing (Richetin et al. 2008; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006), hospitality (Han and Yoon 2015) and tourism (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2014; Song et al. 2012, 2014). For instance, Song et al. (2012) utilised the MGB to understand attendees' intention to revisit a mud festival. Kim et al. (2012) introduced the MGB to determine whether gender affected tourists' choice of international travel destinations. Lee et al. (2012) used the MGB to examine non-pharmaceutical intervention on influenza and its impact on travel intention. Due to its fairly recent introduction to consumer psychology, there is a limited body of MGB-related studies. Although a few of these studies are focused on tourists' decision-making (e.g. Han and Yoon 2015; Song et al. 2012, 2014), they are not focused in the context of indulgent travel consumption.

Having considered the limitations of the TRA and TPB as decision-making frameworks, the MGB was selected for the current study. This was justified in three ways. First, the MGB already identifies anticipated emotions which encapsulate the sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) and experiential enjoyment (Clarke 2013; Okada 2005; Scarpi 2006) that tap into hedonism. Second, the MGB has potential to take into account other factors to increase its explanatory power (e.g. Lee et al. 2012; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Richetin et al. 2008; Song et al. 2014); thus, impulsiveness and compulsiveness in bingeing are introduced into the model. Finally, given that the MGB has been validated in some consumer behaviour and tourism studies (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2014; Song et al. 2012, 2014), it demonstrates

ability to explain goal-directed bingeing behaviour in the new context of a hedonic luxury vacation.

2.4. Attitude

Attitude was conceptualised by Fishbein (1967) in the context of the theory of reasoned action (TRA). The author proposed the TRA to predict behavioural intention. In advocating the TRA, Ajzen and Fishbein (1969) conceived attitude as the individual's approach toward performing a specific behaviour within a given situation. This definition contrasted with conventional psychology which viewed attitude as the individual's approach toward an object or group of objects. Ajzen and Fishbein (1969) compared the two approaches toward attitude using decision theory and the TRA, validating their conceptualisation of attitude toward a behaviour and its ability to predict behavioural intention. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) elaborated on this conceptualisation when they suggested that attitude is an individual's positive or negative assessment of self-performance of a particular behaviour. Extending from the TRA, Ajzen (1991) introduced the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). When proposing the TPB, Ajzen (1991) consolidated the definition of attitude as signifying the degree to which the individual has a positive or negative assessment of performing a specific behaviour. In the TPB, the author reiterated that attitude toward a behaviour predicts behavioural intention.

Extending from the TPB, Perugini and Conner (2000) as well as Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) conceived attitude toward desire when they introduced the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB). In their conceptualisation, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) highlighted the distinction between attitude in the TPB and attitude in the MGB. According to the authors, attitude in the TPB focuses on the act itself, whereas attitude in the MGB focuses on the achievement of personal goals because of the introduction of anticipated emotion. According to the MGB, attitude toward desire impacts on desire to act.

MGB-related consumer behaviour and tourism studies have validated the premise that attitude toward desire predicts desire to act. For instance, Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow (2006) studied consumers' loyalty toward their insurance provider and found that attitude is positively related to desire to remain loyal toward the insurance provider. Song et al. (2012) observed visitors at a mud festival and reiterated a significant relationship between attitude and desire to revisit the festival. Likewise, Kim et al. (2012) examined gender for its effect on tourists' decision-making and concluded that attitude has significant and positive effect on desire.

2.5. Subjective norms

In the context of the theory of reasoned action (TRA), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) introduced subjective norms as a predictor of behavioural intention. In the TRA, subjective norms referred to the individual's sensitivity to social principals or others' beliefs that they should or should not perform a given behaviour. In the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), Ajzen (1991) reiterated subjective norms as perceived social pressure to perform a specific behaviour. Both the TRA and TPB proposed that subjective norms influences intention to perform a behaviour. Drawing from the TPB, Gatfield and Chen (2006, 81) defined subjective norms as the "perceived social pressure associated with performing certain behaviours" when they investigated the behavioural motivations of international students. The authors concluded that subjective norms predicts behavioural intention related to the choice of an overseas university.

In the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB), subjective norms was conceptualised as expectations felt from others which are mainly based on the need for approval (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). In MGB-related consumer psychology and tourism studies, subjective norms impacts on desire to act. For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) explored the goal of body weight regulation amongst students and found that the opinion and approval from peers significantly impacts on desire to regulate body weight. Lee et al. (2012)

corroborated this relationship when they observed that the views of social others on non-pharmaceutical intervention for influenza impact on tourists' desire to travel. Similarly, Han and Yoon's (2015) study of tourists' environmentally-responsible actions toward hotels contended that subjective norms influences desire to engage in environmentally-responsible behaviour.

2.6. Perceived behavioural control

With the introduction of perceived behavioural control as an antecedent to behavioural intention, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) extended into the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (1991, 183) conceptualised perceived behavioural control as an individual's "perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour of interest." The author argued that individuals with more PBC are inclined to have higher intention to engage in a particular behaviour. Drawing from the TPB, Yeon Kim and Chung (2011, 42) defined perceived behavioural control as the "degree of control that an individual perceives over performing the behaviour" in their study of organic personal care products. The authors validated the TPB when they found that consumers with higher self-perceptions of control over resources, such as time, money and skills, demonstrate increased behavioural intention.

In advancing the TPB, the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) identified perceived behavioural control as the final cognitive factor as well as an antecedent of desire to act and actual behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). Perceived behavioural control was conceptualised as the "decision maker's sense of control over performing the chosen actions in the service of decision enactment" (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003, 279-280).

In MGB-related consumer psychology and tourism studies, there is evidence for the direct relationships that perceived behavioural control has on desire to act, behavioural intention and actual behaviour. On the one hand, Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) study on exercising concluded that perceived behavioural control significantly impacts on desire and actual engagement in exercise. On the other hand, Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow (2006) investigated consumers' loyalty toward their insurance provider and noted that perceived difficulty in exerting control over the information search for an insurance provider is inversely related to loyalty intention toward an existing insurance provider. Studies in tourism conducted by both Kim et al. (2012) and Song et al. (2012) corroborated the perceived behavioural control-behavioural intention relationship.

2.7. Past behaviour

Ajzen (1991) identified past behaviour as an antecedent to future behaviour in the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). The author conceptualised past behaviour as a "reflection of all factors that determine the behaviour of interest" (Ajzen 1991, 203). The author contended that controlling for the stability of other variables, past behaviour could be used to test the adequacy of any model designed to predict future behaviour.

Extending from the TPB, the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) conceived past behaviour not only as previous behaviour but also to encompass dimensions of frequency and recency (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). Frequency of behaviour describes the amount the individual has partaken in a particular behaviour within a set period of time in the past (Lee et al. 2012). Recency of behaviour refers to the "performance of a behavior over a short period of time, typically a few weeks or days" (Leone, Perugini and Ercolani 2004, 1950). According to the MGB, frequency and recency of past behaviour impacts on desire to act, behavioural intention and actual behaviour.

Consumer psychology studies have utilised the MGB to validate the impacts that frequency and recency of past behaviour have on desire to act, behavioural intention and actual behaviour. For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) investigation of dieting and exercising to regulate body weight suggested that frequency of past behaviour is a predictor of desire to act and behavioural intention, whereas recency of past behaviour is only a predictor of actual behaviour. Leone, Perugini and Ercolani (2004) compared the predictability of the TPB and MGB for training in a statistical software program. The authors found that frequency of past behaviour impacts desire to act, and that both frequency and recency of past behaviour impacts actual behaviour.

Tourism and hospitality studies have also adopted the MGB to examine frequency of past behaviour as a predictor for desire to act. For instance, Song et al. 2012 explored revisit intention toward a mud festival and noted that frequency of past behaviour is a predictor of desire to act. Conversely, Lee et al. (2012) investigated tourists' travel intention in the context of non-pharmaceutical intervention for influenza and highlighted a significant relationship between frequency of past behaviour and behavioural intention.

2.8. Desire

Desire was introduced in the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) as a direct antecedent to intention (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). In the MGB, desire provided motivational content to "attitudes towards the act (A_{act}), anticipated emotions (AE), subjective norms (SN) and PBC" (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, 80). The authors conceptualised desire as being comparative to a performance-based behaviour because it is associated with goal attainment such as body weight regulation. Subsequently, Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003, 276) characterised desire as the "motivational impetus of the volitional decision-making process."

In MGB-related consumer psychology and tourism studies, there is evidence for the direct relationships that desire has on behavioural intention. For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) suggested that desire to exercise and diet is antecedent to intention to engage in body weight regulation. Similarly, Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) found that desire significantly influences intention to train in the use of statistical software. Corroboratively, Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow (2006) considered consumers' loyalty toward their insurance provider and concluded that desire is positively related to intention to remain with the same insurance provider. Likewise, Han and Yoon (2015) investigated tourists' environmentally-responsible actions toward hotels. The authors surmised that desire impacts on intention to visit an environmentally-responsible hotel.

2.9. Behavioural intention

According to the theory of reasoned action (TRA), intention referred to the likelihood to act and an indication of actual behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). In the extended theory of planned behaviour (TPB), behavioural intention was "assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence a behaviour" (Ajzen 1991, 181). Drawing from the TPB, Quintal, Thomas and Phau (2015, 598) described intention as "an individual's readiness to perform a given behaviour." Gatfield and Chen (2011) further conceptualised purchase intention by considering the strength of individual intention, highlighting the magnitude of the likelihood to act.

Behavioural intention was identified in the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) as intention to perform a specific behaviour which is principally motivated by desire to perform that behaviour (Kim et al. 2012). In the MGB, desire to act is regarded as the closest determinant of behavioural intention (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003; Han and Yoon 2015; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

2.10. Research gaps

A review of the literature suggests that hedonic bingeing encompasses the multi-dimensions of positive and negative anticipated emotions, unplanned and planned impulsiveness as well as compulsiveness. However, four key research gaps exist in the research area. These are identified in the following paragraphs.

First, scant attention has been paid to the role of emotion in decision-making. Conventional studies acknowledge the cognitive processes involved in decision-making but do not consider any affective processes (Kim, Njite and Hancer 2013; Loewenstein and Lerner 2003). For instance, Tversky and Kahneman (1974) investigated the heuristics of decision-making and concluded that it was important to empirically analyse cognitive biases for their impact on decision-making. This prompted Loewenstein and Lerner (2003) to observe that acknowledgement of emotion's role in decision-making is a modern approach. Subsequently, Kim, Njite and Hancer (2013) argued that it is essential to include the role of emotion in any decision-making framework in order to increase its reliability. The current study's focus on hedonism as sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) and experiential enjoyment (Okada 2005) motivated by the pursuit of positive emotion (Bay and Daniel 2003; Song et al. 2014) and the avoidance of negative emotion (Carrus, Passafaro and Bonnes 2008; Kim et al. 2012) puts the spotlight back on emotion as an affective process. An affect-based emotion influencing desire to consume hedonic travel products/services adds new perspective to the research area, particularly in the context of tourism.

Second, there is a need for an empirical decision-making model which can integrate both cognitive and affective processes to explain behaviour. Malhotra (2005) embodied this sentiment by calling for more insight into how cognition and affect impact on cognitive behaviour. The model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) has scope to take into account the

cognitive (e.g. subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) and affective (e.g. positive and negative anticipated emotions) aspects of hedonic decision-making. However, to date, limited studies have adopted the MGB to examine decision-making (e.g. Han and Yoon 2015; Kim et al. 2012; Leone, Perugini and Ercolani 2004; Song et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006) and particularly, not in the context of engaging in indulgent travel consumption. Consequently, the research area remains at an infancy stage. The current study's adaptation of the MGB will integrate the cognitive and affective aspects of hedonic decision-making. It offers researchers a decision-making framework which explains how consumers engage in hedonic consumption.

Third, in the existing body of literature, impulsiveness and compulsiveness are primarily examined separately. There are individual studies for impulsiveness in consumer buying behaviour (e.g. Brencic and Shoham 2003; Chen and Lin 2013; Herabadi, Verplanken and Knippenberg 2009; Joo Park, Kim and Forney 2006). Independent studies for compulsiveness in consumer buying behaviour also exist (e.g. Chang 2014; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004; Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney and Monroe 2008). This has prompted the call for research into the relationship between the two constructs across different contexts such as shopping and vacations (e.g. Flight, Rountree and Beatty 2012). Indeed, some contemporary research has expressed an interest in the continuum of compulsive behaviour theory (e.g. Clark and Callega 2008; D'Astous 1990; Johnson and Attmann 2008; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). However, this research area is in its early development stage and requires more consideration. The current study's proposed impulsive-compulsive continuum could help researchers pinpoint the influence and extent of bingeing in specific contexts and develop a typology of bingeing personalities. Such input could guide practitioners in addressing specific market segments.

Finally, marketing researchers have called attention to the lack of underpinning theory to explain the hypothesised effects of impulsiveness and compulsiveness in bingeing behaviour (e.g. Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). A review of the literature suggests there is a dearth of studies that examine unplanned impulsiveness and its influence on desire to binge. Further, Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir's (2004) study which examined compulsive buying, substance abuse and gambling called for the need to consider more underpinning theory such as obsessive-compulsive disorder in marketing research on consumer bingeing behaviour. An empirical decision-making model with theoretical underpinning, could provide researchers with a framework for replication in various bingeing contexts such as touring, eating, drinking, shopping, gaming and gambling.

2.11. Research objectives

To address the four key research gaps identified in the literature review, the current study sets out with the following research objectives:

RO1: Clarify understanding of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism.

RO2: Conceptualise and operationalise hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context.

RO3: Introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption.

2.12. Chapter summary

This chapter conducted a multi-disciplinary literature review of the hedonism and bingeing constructs in psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism. It established hedonic bingeing as a multi-dimensional construct and conceptualised the construct as encompassing positive and

negative anticipated emotions, unplanned and planned impulsiveness as well as compulsiveness. The literature review identified scale items that tapped into the multi-dimensions of hedonic bingeing and operationalised the construct in a decision-making tourism context. It also explained how hedonic bingeing is introduced to the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) to account for tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. From the literature review, the research gaps were identified and the research objectives justified. The next chapter introduces the research model and theory which underpins the hypothesised relationships in the model.

Chapter 3

Research model and hypothesis development

3.0. Introduction

Chapter Two reviewed the current study's key constructs and the theories that underpin them. This chapter introduces the research model and hypotheses which examine hedonic binging's impact on tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption in an adapted model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB). First, the MGB which underpins the research model is revisited. Then, each hypothesis in the research model, underpinned by the MGB and other secondary theories, is introduced. Finally, hypotheses are identified in a table to summarise the research model and its relationships.

3.1. Theoretical underpinning

In consumer psychology literature, several theories have been advanced to explain human behaviour. The theory of reasoned action (TRA), its extended theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and the further extended model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) are representative of theories that model decision-making behaviour (Madden, Ellen and Ajzen 1992; Richetin et al. 2008). Perugini and Conner (2000) as well as Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) introduced the MGB, which addressed criticisms of the TRA and TPB and added a new perspective to goal-directed decision-making. The MGB included anticipated emotions, desire and past behaviour with the TPB constructs of attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention. Specifically how the MGB operates in the context of tourists' engagement in an activity can be seen in Figure 3.1.

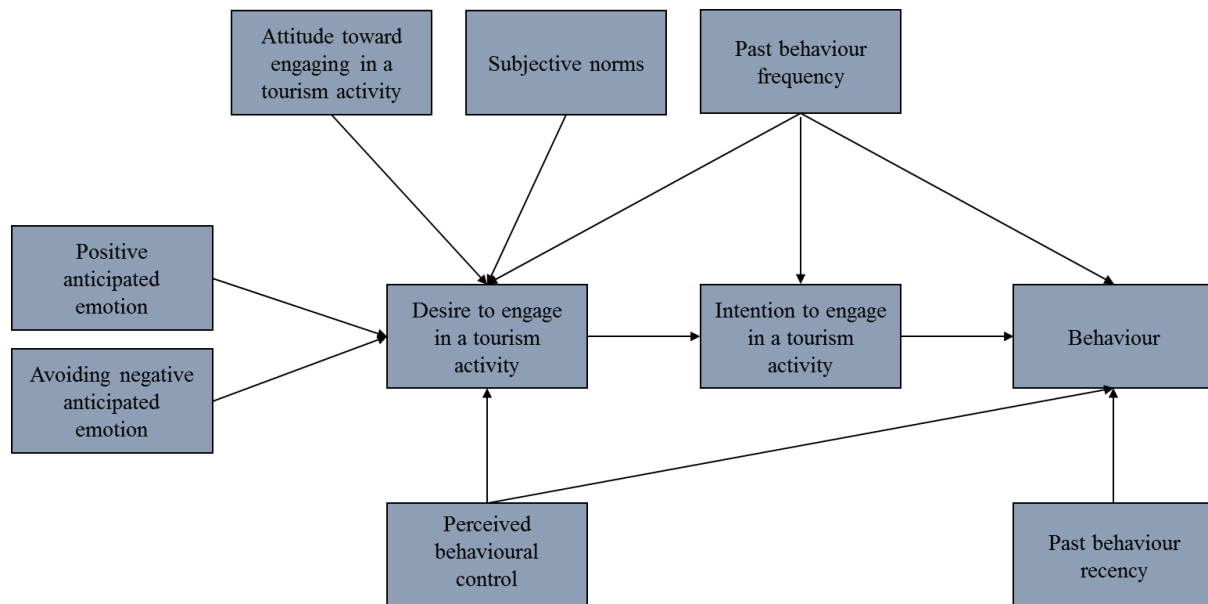
According to the MGB, anticipated emotions take into account the “emotional consequence of

both achieving and not achieving a sought-after goal” (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, 81-82). Lee et al. (2012) elaborated that anticipated emotions are forward-looking emotional responses to future behaviour. Perugini and Bagozzi (2001, 66) described positive anticipated emotion as feeling “excited, delighted, happy, glad, satisfied, proud, self-assured” and negative anticipated emotions as feeling “angry, frustrated, guilty, ashamed, sad, disappointed, depressed, worried, uncomfortable, fearful.” As can be seen in Figure 3.1, these positive and negative anticipated emotions directly impact on desire to act.

Attitude in the MGB is conceptualised as a “psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, 81). This definition contrasts with conventional attitude theory which considers attitude as the individual’s approach toward an object (Eagly and Chaiken 1993) and the TPB which centres on attitude toward the specific act itself (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001). Instead, attitude in the MGB is an attitude toward desire which focuses on the achievement of personal goals (Leone, Perugini and Ercolani 2004; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001). Attitude toward desire directly impacts on desire to act, as can be seen in Figure 3.1.

According to the MGB, subjective norms entail conforming to expectations from others which are mainly based on the need for social approval (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). This definition draws mainly from the TPB which views subjective norms as perceived social pressure to perform the behaviour of interest (Ajzen 1991). Such pressure stems from the expectations of membership groups and creates an obligation to perform the behaviour of interest (Kim et al. 2012). As can be seen in Figure 3.1, subjective norms directly impacts on desire to act.

Figure 3.1. Model of goal-directed behaviour to engage in a tourism activity



Adapted from the model of goal-directed behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001)

Perceived behavioural control in the MGB is conceptualised as the “decision maker’s sense of control over performing the chosen actions in the service of decision enactment” (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003, 279-280). This definition extends primarily from the TPB which views perceived behavioural control as the individual’s “perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour of interest” (Ajzen 1991, 183). Control exerted in performing the behaviour refers to the efficacious use of resources such as time, money and skills (Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015). Perceived behavioural control directly impacts on desire to act and actual behaviour, as can be seen in Figure 3.1.

According to the MGB, past behaviour refers to previous behaviour which encompasses dimensions of frequency and recency (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). Frequency of past behaviour is conceptualised as the amount an individual has expended in a particular behaviour within a set period of time in the past (Lee et al. 2012). Recency is concerned with “performance of a behaviour over a short period of time, typically a few weeks

or days” (Leone, Perugini and Ercolani 2004, 1950). As can be seen in Figure 3.1, past behaviour directly impacts on desire to act, behavioural intention and actual behaviour.

Desire in the MGB is conceptualised as the “motivational impetus of the volitional decision-making process” (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003, 276). This conceptualisation views desire as comparative to a performance-based behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, 80). Desire to act directly impacts on behavioural intention, as can be seen in Figure 3.1.

According to the MGB, behavioural intention is conceptualised as intention to perform a specific behaviour which is principally motivated by desire to perform that behaviour (Kim et al. 2012). This definition draws mainly from the TRA and TPB which views behavioural intention as readiness to plan and execute the behaviour of interest (Ajzen 1991) and is an indication of actual behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). As can be seen in Figure 3.1, behavioural intention directly impacts on actual behaviour.

The MGB has been recurrent in some studies on consumer decision-making (e.g. Carrus, Passafaro and Bonnes 2008; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001) and tourist decision-making (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2014; Song et al. 2012, 2014). Interestingly, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) called for future research to incorporate additional variables to the theory in order to develop its predictability power in consumer behaviour research. This led several scholars to introduce new variables to the MGB. For instance, Richetin et al.’s (2008) MGB-related study of drinking fizzy soft drinks introduced good desire, quantities drunk and self-reported behaviour in their comparisons of the TPB and MGB. Lee et al. (2012) added perceptions of influenza and non-pharmaceutical interventions to the MGB when they explored non-pharmaceutical interventions of influenza on potential tourists. Song et al.’s (2014) MGB-related study incorporated perceptions of a festival and image of the festival site in their research on visitors’ intentions to revisit the festival.

The current study's use of the MGB is justified in three ways. First, the MGB's anticipated emotions encapsulate the sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) and experiential enjoyment (Clarke 2013; Okada 2005; Scarpi 2006) that tap into hedonism. Second, the MGB has the capacity to accommodate other factors to increase its predictability power (e.g. Lee et al. 2012; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Richetin et al. 2008; Song et al. 2014); thus, impulsiveness and compulsiveness in bingeing are incorporated into the model. Finally, the MGB has potential to explain goal-directed bingeing behaviour in the new context of a hedonic luxury vacation since the model has been validated in some consumer behaviour and tourism studies (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2014; Song et al. 2012, 2014).

3.2. Research model

As was identified in Chapter Two, the hedonic bingeing attributes include: (1) positive anticipated emotion; (2) avoiding negative anticipated emotion; (3) impulsiveness; (4) planned impulsiveness; and (5) compulsiveness. The model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs include: (1) anticipated emotions; (2) attitude; (3) subjective norms; (4) perceived behavioural control; (5) past experience; (6) desire; and (7) behavioural intention. The hedonic bingeing attributes are incorporated into the MGB to assess the effect hedonic bingeing has on desire and intention to take an indulgent vacation. The current study's research model and its hypothesised relationships can be seen in Figure 3.2.

3.2.1 *Positive anticipated emotion*

Positive anticipated emotion addresses an expectation of pleasurable sensory stimulation (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982a) which includes feelings of being excited, delighted, happy, glad, satisfied, proud and self-assured (Bagozzi, Dholakia Basuroy 2003). Positive anticipated emotion is underpinned by the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi

2001; Perugini and Conner 2000) as well as secondary theories such as narcissism theory (Freud 1914) and escapism theory (Nowell-Smith and Lemmon 1960).

According to the MGB, positive anticipated emotion has a direct relationship with desire to act (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000), which is also explained by narcissism theory (Freud 1914) and escapism theory (Nowell-Smith and Lemmon 1960). In the goal-directed behaviour of taking an indulgent vacation, tourists will pursue pleasurable experiences with a desire to escape from their routine (Labrecque, Krishen and Grzeskowiak 2011) and experience positive emotion (Scarpi 2006). Thus, tourists are likely to focus on their own self-gratification of this desire (Grinstein, Kronrod and Wathieu 2012). For instance, Hunter's (2006) research on consumers at shopping centres highlighted the significant influence positive anticipated emotion has on desire to visit shopping centres. Similarly, Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow's (2006) study of consumers' loyalty toward their insurance provider concluded that positive anticipated emotion affects desire to remain loyal toward the insurance provider. This suggests that it is critical for tourists to anticipate positive emotion in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H1: Positive anticipated emotion will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.2. Avoiding negative anticipated emotion

Negative anticipated emotion encompasses an expectation of unpleasant sensory stimulation (Sober and Wilson 1998) which includes feelings of being angry, frustrated, guilty, ashamed, sad, disappointed, depressed, worried, uncomfortable and fearful (Bagozzi and Pieters 1998). Negative anticipated emotion is underpinned by the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB)

(Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000) as well as secondary theories such as fear of missing out (FoMO) (Herman 2010).

In the MGB, negative anticipated emotion has an inverse direct relationship with desire to act (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000), which is also clarified by the fear of missing out (FoMO) (Herman 2010). In the goal-directed behaviour of taking an indulgent vacation, tourism will pursue pleasurable experiences and fear missing out on such experiences (Alt 2016; Przybylski et al. 2013). Thus, tourists are likely to avoid the negative emotions they anticipate will arise from missing out on the pleasurable experience (Sober and Wilson 1998). For instance, Carrus, Passafaro and Bonnes' (2008) MGB-related study contended that avoiding negative anticipated emotion is significant in explaining desire to engage in pro-environmental activities such as taking public transport. Likewise, Kim et al.'s (2012) MGB-related study of gender's effect on tourists' overseas travel reported that avoidance of negative anticipated emotion has a significant influence on desire to act. Kim, Njite and Hancer's (2013) research on patrons at environmentally-friendly restaurants observed that negative emotions of anticipated regret about not selecting an environmentally-friendly restaurant increases desire to select such a restaurant. Corroboratively, Song et al. (2012) concluded that visitors' negative anticipated emotion due to fear of not being able to revisit an annual festival, inversely influenced their desire to revisit the following year. This implies that it is imperative for tourists to avoid negative emotions in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H2: Avoiding negative anticipated emotion will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.3. Impulsiveness

Unplanned impulsiveness operates as “spur-of-the-moment” (Chen and Lin 2013, 427), “unplanned,” “minimal deliberation” and “accompanied by heightened emotion” (Wood 1998, 302). ‘Naughty but nice’ impulsiveness is underpinned by present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996) and gratification theory (Maslow 1948).

It can be argued that impulsiveness has a direct relationship with desire to act due to present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996) and gratification theory (Maslow 1948). In the goal-directed behaviour of taking an indulgent vacation which offers temporary rewards (Caruana and Crane 2011), tourists will adopt a fatalistic attitude as they act in the ‘now’ (Passini 2013) to pursue their desire for instant rewards and immediate gratification (Chatman 1991). For instance, Kalla and Arora (2011) observed that impulse buying is motivated by hedonic appeals and in consequence, may cause the consumer to experience desire for a related product. This suggests that it is important for tourists to be able to be impulsive in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H3a: Impulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.4. Planned impulsiveness

Planned impulsiveness is an expectation and intention to behave spontaneously under compelling conditions such as a sale (Adelaar 2003; Han et al. 1991; Stern 1962). ‘Naughty and nice’ planned impulsiveness is also underpinned by present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996) and gratification theory (Maslow 1948).

The direct relationship that planned impulsiveness has with desire to act may also be attributed to present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996) and gratification theory (Maslow

1948). Since taking an indulgent vacation is a short-term state (Caruana and Crane 2011) in goal-directed behaviour, tourists will make prior plans to maximise acting in the ‘now’ (Passini 2013). This advanced planning frees tourists to be impulsive and find gratification from the rewards when a compelling opportunity arises (Chatman 1991) which motivates their desire to act. For instance, Laesser and Dolnicar’s (2012) research on tourists’ information search observed that tourists who take short vacations exhibit planned impulsiveness because they consult travel planning tourism services before they make a decision. This implies that it is essential for tourists to be able to make plans that enable them to be spontaneous in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H3b: Planned impulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.5. Compulsiveness

Compulsiveness operates as a “preoccupation” which is “irresistible, intrusive, and/or senseless” (Muller et al. 2005, 3) undertaken “with greater frequency” (Ridgway et al. 2008, 392) and is addictive (Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham 2011). ‘Dark and destructive’ compulsiveness is underpinned by obsessive compulsive disorder theory (Freud 1909), present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996) and the theory of neuroticism (Goldberg 1992).

It is suggested that compulsiveness has a direct relationship with desire to act due to obsessive compulsive disorder theory (Freud 1909), present-time orientation theory (Davies and Omer 1996) and the theory of neuroticism (Goldberg 1992). Given that the goal-directed behaviour of taking an indulgent vacation is a transient state (Caruana and Crane 2011), tourists with obsessive compulsive personalities may be compelled to seek rewards immediately and

repeatedly (Chung, Song and Koo 2014). This compulsion holds no bounds and is likely to be driven by tourists' neurotic self-evaluation, a salient social environment and desire to escape from this negativity (Passini 2013). For instance, Schweidel and Moe's (2016, 3) study of TV advertising contended that binge viewers are addicted to watching hours of TV "to escape reality" and are annoyed when advertising disrupts this activity. This suggests that it is critical for obsessive tourists to be able to be compulsive in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H4: Compulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.6. Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation

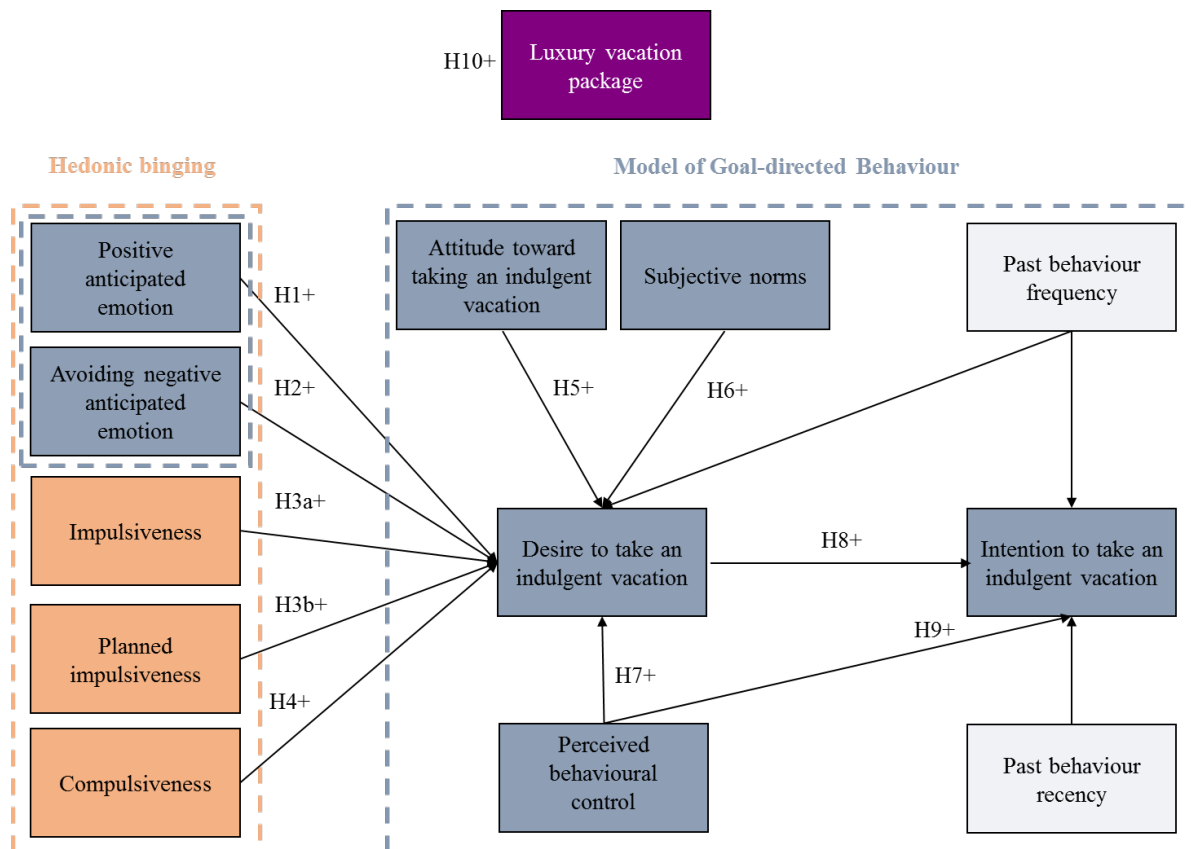
Attitude denotes a "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, 81). Attitude toward a behaviour is underpinned by the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein 1967), theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1991) and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000).

According to the MGB, attitude toward a behaviour has a direct relationship with desire to act (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). For instance, Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow's (2006) research on consumers' loyalty toward their insurance provider noted that hedonic attitude is positively related to desire to remain loyal toward the insurance provider. Corroboratively, Song et al.'s (2012) observance of attendees at a mud festival demonstrated a significant relationship between attitude and desire to revisit the festival. Similarly, Kim et al.'s (2012) gender study of tourists' decision-making found that attitude has significant and direct

effect on desire. This implies that it is imperative for tourists to hold favourable attitude to act in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H5: Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

Figure 3.2: Research model



Adapted from model of goal-directed behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001)

3.2.7. *Subjective norms*

Subjective norms reflects an individual's sensitivity to social pressures or others' beliefs that they should or should not perform the behaviour of interest (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). Subjective norms are underpinned by the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein 1967), theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1991) and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000) as well as secondary theories such as social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979; Trepte, 2006).

In the MGB, subjective norms has a direct relationship with desire to act (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000), which is also explained by social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979; Trepte, 2006). When tourists search for information about taking a vacation, they will consult their membership groups to endorse their self and group identity (Quintal, Lee and Soutar, 2010) prior to their desire to act on an approved choice. For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) investigation of body weight regulation asserted that peer group approval significantly influences individual desire to regulate body weight. Corroboratively, Lee at al.'s (2012) research on the non-use of pharmaceuticals found that the views of social others about non-pharmaceutical intervention for influenza impact on tourists' desire to travel. Likewise, Han and Yoon's (2015) study of tourists' eco-friendly actions toward hotels concluded that subjective norms influences desire to engage in environmentally-responsible behaviour. This suggests that it is important for tourists to seek approval from their social network in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H6: Subjective norms will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.8. *Perceived behavioural control*

Perceived behavioural control is a “decision maker’s sense of control over performing the chosen actions in the service of decision enactment” (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003, 279-280). Perceived behavioural control is underpinned by the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1991) and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000) as well as secondary theories such as self-efficacy theory (Bandura 2010).

According to the MGB, perceived behavioural control has direct relationships with desire to act and behavioural intention (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000), which is also explained by self-efficacy theory (Bandura 2010). Tourists who perceive that they have efficacious control over resources, such as time, money and skills, will be more likely to desire and intend to act. For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi’s (2001) research on individual body weight regulation contended that perceived behavioural control significantly impacts on desire to exercise. This implies that it is essential for tourists to perceive that they have control over their time, money and skills in order to positively influence their desire to act. Therefore:

H7: Perceived behavioural control will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation.

Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow’s (2006) observance of consumers’ loyalty toward their insurance provider reported that perceived difficulty in searching for information about potential insurance providers is positively related to loyalty fortitude intention toward an existing insurance provider. Similarly, travel studies conducted by both Kim et al. (2012) and Song et al. (2012) confirmed that perceived behavioural control impacts on intention to travel.

This suggests that it is critical for tourists to perceive that they have control over their time, money and skills in order to positively influence their behavioural intention. Therefore:

H8: Perceived behavioural control will have a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.9. Past behaviour

Past behaviour refers to the frequency and recency of past behaviour. Frequency of past behaviour relates to the amount an individual has expended in a particular behaviour within a set period of time in the past (Lee et al. 2012). Recency addresses the “performance of a behaviour over a short period of time, typically a few weeks or days” (Leone, Perugini and Ercolani 2004, 1950). Past behaviour is underpinned by the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000).

In the MGB, past behaviour has a direct relationship with desire, behavioural intention and actual behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi’s (2001) investigation of diet and exercise found that frequency of past behaviour is a precursor to desire to act and behavioural intention, whereas recency of past behaviour is a precursor to actual behaviour. Leone, Perugini and Ercolani’s (2004) comparison of the TPB and MGB in predicting intention toward undertaking a statistical software’s training program concluded that both frequency and recency of past behaviour influences actual behaviour.

An objective of the current study was to examine hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context. Therefore, the study’s sampling frame targeted respondents who had previous experience with staying at a luxury hotel/resort. Respondents who did not fulfil this primary criterion were screened out to focus only on those who demonstrated past behaviour in this

context. Consequently, past behaviour acted as a background variable in the research model's adapted MGB.

3.2.10. Desire and intention to take an indulgent vacation

Desire denotes a direct motivation for intention to perform the behaviour of interest (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001). Behavioural intention reflects readiness to plan and execute the behaviour of interest (Ajzen 1991) and is the likelihood to act (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). Desire and intention to take an indulgent vacation are underpinned by the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000).

According to the MGB, desire to act has a direct relationship with behavioural intention (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000). For instance, Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) research on body weight regulation surmised that desire to exercise and diet is a precursor to intention to engage in body weight regulation. Corroboratively, Carrus and Passafaro Bonnes' (2007) MGB-related study on pro-environmental activities found desire to act affects intention to recycle and use public transport. Likewise, Han and Yoon (2015) investigated tourists' pro-environmental actions toward hotels and asserted that desire impacts on intention to visit an environmentally-friendly hotel. Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow's (2006) exploration of customer loyalty also concluded that desire is positively related to intention to remain with the same provider. This implies that it is imperative for tourists to be motivated by desire to act in order to positively influence their behavioural intention. Therefore:

H9: Desire to take an indulgent vacation will have a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation.

3.2.11. Context of the luxury vacation package

Finally, while on vacation, tourists may be more susceptible to luxuries as they seek abundant, pleasurable and emotional stimulation from luxurious products/services (Park and Reisinger 2009). Since consumers fit on an “urge to buy continuum” (D’Astous 1990, 28), the impact hedonic binging has on desire and behavioural intention may vary across contexts (e.g. Clark and Callega 2008; Johnson and Attmann 2008; Kwak, Zinkhan and Roushanzamir 2004). Consequently, the current study considers two contexts manipulated by two transformational advertising stimuli. The first focuses on an all-inclusive luxury vacation package to target the planned impulsive aspect of hedonic binging. The second focuses on an optional luxury vacation package to account for the unplanned impulsive aspect of hedonic binging. Therefore:

H10: The context of the luxury vacation package will have a significant effect on the hypothesised relationships.

A summary of the hypotheses can be seen in Table 3.1.

3.3. Chapter summary

This chapter presents the proposed research model and identifies hypotheses underpinned by relevant theory derived from the literature review in Chapter Two. The five hedonic binging attributes and their causal relationships with the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs are specified. The next chapter outlines the research paradigm, process, methods and analyses used in collecting the qualitative and quantitative data as well as testing the hypotheses in the research model.

Table 3.1. Summary of hypotheses

Hypothesis	
<i>H1</i>	Positive anticipated emotion will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H2</i>	Avoiding negative anticipated emotion will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H3a</i>	Impulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H3b</i>	Planned impulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H4</i>	Compulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H5</i>	Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H6</i>	Subjective norms will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H7</i>	Perceived behavioural control will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H8</i>	Perceived behavioural control will have a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H9</i>	Desire to take an indulgent vacation will have a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation
<i>H10</i>	The context of the luxury vacation package will have a significant effect on the hypothesised relationships

Chapter 4

Methodology

4.0. Introduction

This chapter shapes the research methodology which was adopted for the current study and is organised in three sections. The first section presents the research paradigm and approach. It justifies the pragmatist paradigm's relevance and introduces the mixed-method approach in utilising qualitative and quantitative research. The second section describes the qualitative phase of the research. It explains procedures used to identify, select and adapt scale items representing key constructs in the research model. The final section details the quantitative phase of the research comprising three studies, namely, the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two. It highlights the sampling frame, sampling technique, instrumentation, measures and statistical techniques used in qualifying the study samples and analysing the data collected.

4.1. Research paradigms

A paradigm is defined as “a worldview, together with the various philosophical assumptions associated with that point of view” (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009, 84). In research, two key paradigms exist in ontological and epistemological discussions, namely, interpretivism and positivism. Ontology relates to the nature of reality and fosters questions of the knowledge and expectations researches possess in relation to particular views or how the world operates (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis 2009). Epistemology is concerned with what comprises acceptable knowledge in an area of study or what approach researchers adopt in order to interpret the world around them (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis 2009).

In an interpretive paradigm, reality is relative and is reliant on the systems of meaning (Hudson and Ozanne 1998). This suggests that since meaning can only be derived from reality's complex nature, prior knowledge of any phenomenon under study is inadequate to develop a structured research design (Churchill, Brown and Suter 2010). Consequently, the interpretive paradigm underpins qualitative research.

In a positivist paradigm, also referred to as a constructive paradigm, only one reality for any phenomenon under study exists in the world, notwithstanding the researcher's perspective (Hudson and Ozanne 1998). This suggests that the research adopts a structured approach whereby a topic is identified, a research model with relevant hypotheses proposed that are detached from respondents, and statistical techniques are utilised to uncover the reality behind the research phenomenon (Churchill, Brown and Suter 2010). Consequently, the positivist paradigm underpins quantitative research.

Over the last two decades, a third paradigm, the pragmatist paradigm, has emerged. This paradigm integrates two or more methods in research, resulting in qualitative and quantitative data. This has prompted Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, 7-8) to stipulate that pragmatism is “a deconstructive paradigm that debunks concepts such as ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ and focuses instead on ‘what works’ as the truth regarding the research question under investigation.”

From its beginnings in the late 1980s, the pragmatist paradigm was adopted in research related to management, education and sociology but remains relatively new in business (Creswell 2014). Given that the current study sets out to examine hedonic bingeing for its impact on indulgent travel consumption, the pragmatist paradigm offers an appropriate research methodology. Its mixed-method approach enables the researcher to identify and select scale items, collect and analyse data, integrate the results and make inferences utilising qualitative and quantitative methods in a cohesive program of inquiry (Tashakkori and Creswell 2007).

Consequently, the study's qualitative research comprised a literature review, focus groups and an expert panel to identify and select scale items which tapped into the hedonic bingeing and the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs. The study's quantitative research encompassed a Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two which assessed dimensionality, reliability and validity of the hedonic bingeing construct and its ability to predict desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption.

4.2. Qualitative research

4.2.1. Review of literature

The qualitative phase of the research was initiated with an extensive review of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism. From this review, 32 existing scale items which tapped into hedonism and 50 into bingeing were selected, resulting in 82 scale items for hedonic bingeing. Moreover, four existing scale items which represented attitude, four for subjective norms, five for perceived behavioural control, 14 for past behaviour, two for desire and four for intention to engage in goal-directed behaviour were identified. All these scale items were chosen for their reliability in representing each construct ($\alpha \geq 0.70$) and relevance to the context of indulgent travel consumption.

4.2.2. Focus groups

In the qualitative phase of the research, three focus groups to examined the 82 hedonic bingeing scale items identified from the literature review, for their relevance to the research context. The focus groups were convened at a collaborative discussion room in Curtin University between January and February 2017. The 15 participants in the focus groups comprised working adults, aged between 23 and 60 years old, and there was a fairly even distribution of females and

males. This ensured that an appropriate cross-section of the population was represented. Participants were also selected because their consumer profile fitted with the study's intended target audience (Business Queensland 2016) and their likelihood to engage in indulgent travel consumption.

Participants were asked to rate whether or not each of the 82 scale items identified for the hedonic bingeing construct was 'Most Appropriate' or 'Least Appropriate.' Only scale items which received a majority rating from participants for being 'Most Appropriate' (60%) were retained. Following the focus groups, 18 scale items which tapped into hedonism and 22 into bingeing remained, resulting in 40 scale items for hedonic bingeing.

4.2.3. Expert panel

In the qualitative phase of the research, an expert panel was used to review the 40 hedonic bingeing scale items shortlisted from the three focus groups. The expert panel comprised two academics and two practitioners from the tourism industry who examined the items for their content validity and relevance to the context of indulgent travel consumption. Panel experts were asked to rate whether or not each selected scale item was 'Most Appropriate' or 'Least Appropriate' and only scale items which received a majority rating for 'Most Appropriate' (60%) were retained. Their input confirmed 16 scale items for hedonism and 22 for bingeing, resulting in 38 scale items for hedonic bingeing. This concluded the qualitative phase of the research.

4.3. Quantitative research

4.3.1. Studies

The quantitative phase of the research comprised a Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two. These studies were undertaken in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia between April and June

2017. These countries were selected for being short-haul travel destinations, with a prolific number of luxury hotels/resorts in the Asia-Pacific region, that attract domestic and international indulgent travellers. The research objectives and design for each study are summarised in Table 4.1.

A key objective of the Pilot Study was to explore dimensionality and reliability of the scale items representing hedonic binging. Study One’s main objective was to purify as well as to explore dimensionality and reliability of scale items representing the hedonic binging and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs. Finally, a key objective of Study Two was to refine and confirm dimensionality as well as to establish reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the hedonic binging and MGB constructs.

Table 4.1: Study objectives and design

Studies	Objectives	Survey design
Pilot Study	Construct dimensionality Construct reliability	All-inclusive luxury vacation package
Study One	Scale purification Construct dimensionality Construct reliability	All-inclusive luxury vacation package
Study Two	Scale refinement Construct dimensionality Construct reliability Convergent validity Discriminant validity Predictive validity	Optional luxury vacation package

Each of the three studies included a transformational stimulus which comprised a two-minute audio-visual advertisement. Transformational advertising focuses on the experience that consuming a product/service will provide, and also predicts and defines that experience (Naylor et al. 2008). Consequently, the transformational process induces hedonic and symbolic benefits for the consumer (Naylor et al. 2008). Since the current study sets out to examine hedonic binging for its induced impact on indulgent travel consumption, transformational

advertising offers a relevant stimulus in measuring this relationship. It frames the respondent's experience with consuming an indulgent vacation package and evokes a hedonic state of mind. For the respondent who has previous experience with an indulgent vacation package, the advertising also triggers a memory which reminds them of their last experience and also evokes a hedonic state of mind. This induced hedonic frame of mind prompts respondents to answer the survey questions more accurately and honestly (Naylor et al. 2008).

The Pilot Study and Study One adopted the same survey design which included a transformational advertising stimulus that focused on an all-inclusive luxury vacation package. This design examined hedonic bingeing as a *planned* impulse since it took into account *pre-arranged indulgences* which included seven nights of accommodation for two at a luxury resort, six hours for two at the luxury resort's state-of-the-art health and wellness spa and two nights of fine dining for two at the luxury resort's award-winning restaurant.

Study Two implemented a different survey design which included a transformational advertising stimulus that focused on an optional luxury vacation package. This design examined hedonic bingeing as an *unplanned* impulse since it only took into account pre-arranged seven nights of accommodation for two at a luxury resort but offered *optional indulgences* such as treatments at state-of-the-art health and wellness spas, personalised sessions with fitness gurus and fine dining at award-winning restaurants.

4.3.2. Sampling frame

The sampling frame for the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two included adults, above 21 years of age, who had previously patronised a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation. Consequently, a screening question, '*While on vacation, I have stayed at a luxury hotel/resort*' constituted the first question in the survey. Those who did not fulfil this criterion were screened

out. This ensured that the sample only included respondents who demonstrated prior experience with indulgent travel consumption. This also addressed the tenet of past behaviour in the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB).

In the Pilot Study, the sampling frame included working adults in Singapore and Malaysia who had used a luxury hotel/resort on a vacation before. In total, 146 responses were collected in April 2017 and 125 samples were assessed to be usable surveys, accounting for 86% of the total surveys collected, as can be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Data collection and samples

	Pilot Study	Study One	Study Two
Total number of responses	146	262	610
Total number of responses screened out	12	16	226
Total of responses after screening	134	246	384
Total number of unusable responses	9	13	34
Total number of usable responses	125	233	350
Percentage of usable responses	86%	89%	57%

The sampling frame for Study One targeted working adults in Australia who had also stayed at a luxury hotel/resort on a past vacation. As can be seen in Table 4.2, 262 responses were collected in May 2017, delivering 233 usable responses and 89% of the total surveys collected.

As with Study One, Study Two's sampling frame included working adults in Australia who had previously patronised a luxury hotel/resort while vacationing. Altogether, 610 responses were collected in June 2017, with 350 responses deemed usable, resulting in a 57% of the total surveys collected, as can be seen in Table 4.2.

4.3.3. Sampling technique

Samples for the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two were recruited using a snowballing method of data collection. Snowballing provides the advantage of targeting populations which

are difficult to identify (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis 2009). However, snowballing has a disadvantage in that there is low likelihood of the sample being representative of the population since the method recruits through social networking (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis 2009). It is contended that tourists who engage in indulgent travel consumption constitute a niche tourism segment (Bakker 2005) that is not easily identifiable. Given the merits of the snowballing method in reaching specific and unique segments of the population, the method was justified for the current study. Consequently, respondents were recruited with snowballing through Facebook, LinkedIn and email, and directed to a web survey. Respondents from Study One and Study Two were representative of the Australian general population in terms of their gender, age, working status and income (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016).

4.3.4. Instrumentation

The selected instrumentation for the current study was a self-administered web survey operated on Qualtrics. The web survey offers several advantages. Online surveys gain access to a broader range of respondents, ensures faster capture of data for analysis, reduces the number of unanswered questions and generates better response rates (Dominquez-Alvarez and Rada 2014), resulting in higher cost effectiveness (Alessi and Martin 2010). Further, online surveys provide the guise of anonymity, particularly when the focus is on a confidential topic or a population which is difficult to scope (Alessi and Martin 2010). There is also low likelihood of contamination or interviewer bias as the online survey is conducted in a private venue of the respondent's choice (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis 2009).

On the other hand, web surveys pose some disadvantages. There are lower response rates in web surveys (approximately 10%) as opposed to more traditional methods, such as mail or telephone surveys (Fan and Yan 2010). Further, web surveys are aimed at computer literate individuals which present as an obstacle for non-tech savvy respondents (Saunders, Thornhill

and Lewis 2009). According to Fan and Yan (2010), these challenges may be negated with four suggestions.

The first suggestion is to address the survey design, specifically its length, topic and ordering (Fan and Yan 2010). The study's 12-minute online survey observed clarity, completion time and order to ensure that respondents fully completed it. Fan and Yan's (2010) second suggestion is to consider the sampling method such as its contact delivery modes, reminders, incentives and informed consent. The study's online survey offered comprehensive information about the research, provided assurances of volunteered participation and anonymity, identified the contact details of the researcher and Curtin University as well as introduced a simple link to the survey on its home page. Moreover, its first page asked for informed consent prior to the start of the survey. The third suggestion is to understand respondents' level of computer and web literacy (Fan and Yan 2010). The design of the study's online survey was simple and user-friendly so as to target respondents with basic levels of computer skills. Finally, Fan and Yan's (2010) fourth suggestion is to avoid technical failure (Fan and Yan 2010). The utmost care was taken to ensure the study's online survey was bug-free and maintained for the duration of the data collection. Since the advantages of speed, reduced unanswered questions, broader range of respondents, lower costs, anonymity, access to niche segments and reduced interviewer bias far outweighed the disadvantages of lower response rates and computer literacy needed, the self-administered web survey was justified and implemented for the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two.

The web survey for the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two comprised seven sections. The survey's first section carried a screening question to ensure only the participation of respondents who demonstrated prior experience in taking an indulgent vacation. The second section asked respondents about the frequency and recency of their vacation behaviour and

then, respondents were presented with a transformational advertising stimulus. The survey's third section related to the positive and negative emotions respondents felt when taking an indulgent vacation. The fourth section asked respondents whether they perceived themselves to engage in impulsive, planned impulsive and compulsive behaviours when taking an indulgent travel vacation. The survey's fifth section related to the attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control respondents perceived themselves to demonstrate when taking an indulgent vacation. The sixth section asked respondents about their desire and behavioural intention toward taking an indulgent vacation. Finally, the survey's seventh section related to respondents' demographic data.

Two versions of the self-administered 12-minute web survey were implemented. The first version, utilised in the Pilot Study and Study One, focused on an all-inclusive luxury vacation. In section two of this version, respondents were asked to view a transformational stimulus which comprised a two-minute audio-visual advertisement. The advertisement featured an all-inclusive luxury vacation comprising: (1) seven nights of accommodation for two at a luxury resort; (2) six hours for two at the luxury resort's state-of-the-art health and wellness spa; and (3) two nights of fine dining for two at the luxury resort's award-winning restaurant.

The second version, adopted in Study Two, focused on an optional luxury vacation. In section two of this version, respondents were also asked to view a transformational stimulus which comprised a two-minute audio-visual advertisement. However, the advertisement featured an optional luxury vacation comprising: (1) seven nights of accommodation for two at a luxury resort; with optional luxuries at the resort including: (2) treatments at state-of-the-art health and wellness spas; (3) personalised sessions with fitness gurus; and (4) fine dining at award-winning restaurants.

4.3.5. Measures

A multi-disciplinary review of the psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism literature suggested that hedonic bingeing was a multi-dimensional construct which encompassed positive and negative anticipated emotions, impulsiveness and planned impulsiveness as well as compulsiveness. The literature review, three focus groups and an expert panel identified 10 scale items for positive anticipated emotion, six for negative anticipated emotion, 13 for impulsiveness and planned impulsiveness and nine for compulsiveness, resulting in 38 scale items representing hedonic bingeing. Scale items derived from the literature review can be seen in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Existing scales adapted to measure key constructs

Construct	Author(s)	Scale items	Cronbach alpha
Hedonic bingeing			
Positive anticipated emotions	Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) Leone et al. (2004)	7	0.74-0.88 0.93 0.85
Negative anticipated emotion	Grappi And Montanari (2011) Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) Leone et al. (2004) Grappi and Montanari (2011)	1 5 1	0.89 0.74-0.88 0.92 0.90 0.78
Impulsiveness	Omar and Kent (2001) From Rook and Fisher (1995)	9	0.89 0.88
Planned impulsiveness	Omar and Kent (2001) Han et al. (1991)	4	0.89 0.74
Compulsiveness	Shoham and Brencic (2003) O'Guinn and Faber (1989); Faber and O'Guinn (1992) Edwards (1993)	5 4	0.69 0.75 0.88
Attitude	Richetin et al. (2008)	4	0.89
Subjective norms	Lee at al. (2012)	4	0.96
Perceived behavioural control	Lee et al. (2012) Kim et al. (2012)	5	0.85 0.89
Past behaviour (frequency and recency)	Perugini and Bagozzi (2001)	3	0.74-0.88
Desire	Richetin et al. (2008)	2	0.82-0.94
Behavioural intention	Kim et al. (2012)	4	0.93

The multi-disciplinary review also identified scale items for the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs, as can be seen in Table 4.3. The attitude scale, with four items, was selected from Richetin et al. (2008). Four items from Lee et al.'s (2012) subjective norms scale were adopted. Perceived behavioural control was measured with five scale items from Lee et al. (2012) and Kim et al. (2012). The frequency and recency of past behaviour scale, with 3 items, was identified from Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). Two scale items chosen from Richetin et al. (2008) tapped into desire. Finally, behavioural intention was measured with four scale items from Kim et al. (2012).

As can be seen in Table 4.3, all scale items were chosen for their reliability in representing each construct ($\alpha \geq 0.69-0.96$) and adapted to be relevant to the context of indulgent travel consumption. The complete surveys for the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two can be seen in Appendix 1 and Appendix 2.

4.3.6. *Statistical techniques and analyses*

Data collected from the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two was analysed with two statistical software programs, namely, SPSS 22 and AMOS 22. SPSS 22 was used to conduct descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, exploratory factor analysis, Cronbach alpha and independent groups *t*-tests. AMOS 22 was utilised to establish confirmatory factor analysis, composite reliability, convergent/discriminant validity and structural equation modelling.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is defined by the method which is expended in order to discover the principal structure of variables (Hair et al. 2010). Further, it ascribes a large number of survey items to a smaller arranged set of factors in which alike items compare with each other (Hair et al. 2010). Exploratory factor analysis was run in the Pilot Study and Study One to purify the scale items as well as to explore construct dimensionality and reliability with

Cronbach alpha. Both studies observed the following criteria for exploratory factor analysis as suggested by Hair et al. (2010):

- Factors with eigenvalues equal to or greater than one are significant.
- Items with factor loadings equal to or greater than 0.50 are loaded onto that factor.
- Items which cross-load across several factors are deleted.
- Retained factors collectively account for greater than 60% of the total variance explained.
- Retained items have commonalities that are greater than 0.50.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) can be defined as a multivariate statistical process that is utilised to test how satisfactory the variables measured characterise the number of constructs (Schreiber et al. 2006). Confirmatory factor analysis with one-factor congeneric models was conducted in Study One and Study Two to refine the scale items and confirm construct dimensionality, calculate composite construct reliability and variance extracted as well as establish convergent, discriminant and predictive validity. The following formulae for calculating composite construct reliability and variance extracted with structural modelling procedures is suggested by Hair et al. (2010):

$$\text{Composite construct reliability} = (\sum \lambda)^2 / [(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum (1 - \lambda_j^2)] \quad (1)$$

The numerator is the sum of the standardised parameter estimates (λ) between a latent variable and its indicators, which is then squared. The denominator equals the numerator plus summed measurement error ($1 - \lambda_j^2$). Construct reliability is relatively close to Cronbach alpha and is equal to or greater than 0.70.

$$\text{Variance Extracted} = \sum \lambda^2 / [\sum \lambda^2 + \sum (1 - \lambda_j^2)] \quad (2)$$

The numerator is the sum of the squares of the standardised parameter estimates (λ) between the latent variable and its indicators, while the denominator equals the numerator plus the summed measurement error ($1-\lambda_j^2$). Variance extracted is equal to or greater than 0.50.

Finally, structural equation modelling (SEM) is a general process of statistical analysis which aims to explain the connections between various variables with cross-sectional modelling, comparable to a sequence of multiple regression equations (Hair et al. 2010). Structural equation modelling was run in Study One and Study Two to test the hypothesised relationships in the research model. Both studies observed the following goodness-of-fit indices for structural equation modelling as suggested by Hair et al. (2010):

- The Normed Chi Square, the ratio of the chi square divided by the degrees of freedom (Joreskog, 1970), is equal to or less than three.
- The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) index, measuring discrepancy between an observed and an estimated covariance matrix, given the degrees of freedom in the model (Medsker, Williams, and Holahan, 1994), is equal to or less than 0.08.
- The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), also referred to as the Non-Normal Fit Index (NNFI), comparing a model's fit to a nested baseline or null model, equals to or is greater than 0.90.
- The Comparative Fit Index (CFI), a non-centrality parameter-based index overcoming sample size effects, equals to or is greater than 0.90.
- The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), the squared residuals from prediction compared with the actual data, equals to or is greater than 0.90.

4.3.7. Data storage

The data collected for the purpose of the current study adhered to Curtin University's Information Management protocols and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research. All data files have been stored electronically in durable formats, namely, Word doc, PDFs and in Excel. These have been archived on a password-protected Curtin computer and backed-up by Curtin University's information technology guidelines for a duration of seven years. To ensure access to the data files, they have been labelled according to the name, file and ownership of the data.

4.4. Chapter summary

This chapter introduced the current study's pragmatist paradigm and its mixed-method approach in utilising qualitative and quantitative research. The approach incorporated identifying and selecting scale items, collecting and analysing data, as well as integrating findings and making inferences in a consolidated program of inquiry. The qualitative research comprised a multi-disciplinary literature review, three focus groups and an expert panel. The quantitative research included three studies, namely, a Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two. The next chapter outlines examination of the data and describes the results of the statistical techniques and analyses that were identified in this chapter.

Chapter 5

Results

5.0. Introduction

The current study set out with three research objectives. The first research objective was to clarify understanding of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism (*ROI*). Chapter Two reviewed the multi-disciplinary literature on hedonism and bingeing which suggested that hedonic bingeing could be conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct. The second research objective was to conceptualise and operationalise hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context (*RO2*). Chapter Four described the qualitative research which identified the scale items that operationalised hedonic bingeing. The third research objective was to introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption (*RO3*). Chapter Three justified the hypothesised relationships between the hedonic bingeing and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs. This chapter reports the quantitative research for hedonic bingeing's impact in the MGB and the hypothesised relationships in the research model.

5.1. Studies

As was outlined in Chapter Four, three studies were conducted to address the three research objectives. The Pilot Study and Study One, implemented in Australia, Singapore and Malaysia, included the same transformational advertising stimulus which focused on an all-inclusive luxury vacation package. Study Two, implemented in Australia, included a transformational advertising stimulus which focused on an optional luxury vacation package.

The Pilot Study’s aim was to explore dimensionality and reliability of the scale items representing hedonic bingeing. Study One’s aim was to purify as well as to explore dimensionality and reliability of scale items representing the hedonic bingeing and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs. Study Two’s aim was to refine and confirm dimensionality as well as to establish reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the hedonic bingeing and MGB constructs.

As can be seen in Table 5.1, a total of 1,018 responses were collected across the three studies. Of this, 708 responses (70%) were assessed to be usable. Individually, the Pilot Study had 125 complete responses (86%), Study One, 233 complete responses (89%) and Study Two, 350 complete responses (57%).

Table 5.1: Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two – Response Rates

	Pilot Study	Study One	Study Two	Total
Total number of responses	146	262	610	1,018
Total number of usable responses	125	233	350	708
Percentage of usable responses	86%	89%	57%	70%

5.2. Sample profiles

Descriptive analysis with SPSS 22 was used to examine the profile of respondents from the Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two. The gender, age, marital status, occupation, working status, annual income, home ownership and country of residence of the three samples can be seen in Table 5.2.

There was a fairly equal distribution of female and male respondents, with the Pilot Study having fewer females (50.4%) and Study Two having more females (58.3%). Gender representations in Study One and Study Two were consistent with Australia’s population of 50.3% females and 49.7% males (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016).

The leading age group was in the 21-34 age bracket, with the highest number of younger respondents accounted for in the Pilot Study (56%), followed closely by Study One (55.4%). Since the median age in Australia was 37.3 years (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016), this suggested that the samples were somewhat skewed toward younger Australians. Younger respondents in Study One and Study Two were less representative of Australia's population which accounted for only 21.1% within this age group (Id population 2016). Hedonic bingers may also be characterised by younger adults since their regular income and lower financial commitments may mean that they have more discretionary income to spend on luxury vacations.

Married participants were the majority, accounting for half the respondents in Study Two (49.1%), followed by the Pilot Study (45.6%). Marital status in Study One and Study Two corresponded with Australia's population, with 51% over 18 years being married (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016). It is likely that possessing joint and more disposable incomes may empower couples to take an indulgent vacation.

Managers and professionals represented the highest number of respondents in the Pilot Study (28.8%) and Study One (23.2%). Clerical support identified as the second highest occupation in the Pilot Study (26.4%) and Study One (20.6%). More respondents in Study Two were also involved in clerical support roles (19.1%). The majority worked full-time in the Pilot Study (78.4%), Study One (63.9%) and Study Two (48%). Full-time work reported in Study One and Study Two was consistent with the Australian work force whose full-time employees make up 60.3% of all workers (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016).

Table 5.2: Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two – Demographic profiles

Sample Characteristics	Pilot Study (N=125) %	Study One (N=233) %	Study Two (N=350) %
Gender			
Female	50.4	54.1	58.3
Male	49.6	45.5	41.7
Age			
21 – 34 years	56.0	55.4	33.4
35 – 44 years	19.2	12.0	21.7
45 – 54 years	17.6	22.7	19.4
55 – 64 years	7.3	9.0	15.1
65 years and above	0	0.9	10.3
Marital Status			
Single	31.2	29.2	32.0
In a relationship	23.2	27.0	7.1
De Facto	0	5.2	11.7
Married	45.6	38.6	49.1
Occupation			
Manager/professional	28.8	23.2	14.5
Technician/associate professional	0	1.3	3.1
Skilled agricultural/forestry/fishery worker	2.4	0.9	16.0
Clerical support worker	26.4	20.6	19.1
Service and sales worker	1.6	5.6	8.6
Plant/machinery operator and assembler	0	0.9	2.0
Craft/ related trade worker	8.0	15.9	18.6
Student	4.0	3.4	4.0
Retired	12.8	10.3	7.4
Others	16.0	18.0	6.6
Working status			
Full-time	78.4	63.9	48.0
Part-time	4.0	19.7	17.7
Casual	7.2	9.0	6.3
Not working	10.4	7.3	28.0
Income (Annual)			
Under AUD 44, 999	50.4	31.3	40.5
AUD 45,000 – AUD 89,999	24.8	37.8	36.8
AUD 90,000 – AUD 149, 999	16.0	17.4	15.2
AUD 150, 000 and above	10.4	13.5	7.5
Home ownership			
Living with parents	32.8	19.7	7.7
Renting	14.4	26.2	30.3
Mortgage	4.8	25.8	30.9
100% home ownership	45.6	27.5	29.7
House sitting	2.4	0.8	1.5

Table 5.2: Pilot Study, Study One and Study Two – Demographic profiles (continued)

Sample Characteristics	Pilot Study (N=125) %	Study One (N=233) %	Study Two (N=350) %
Country of residency			
Australia	2.4	82.4	97.1
Malaysia	51.2	5.1	0
Singapore	33.6	1.7	0
China	0.8	3.9	1.2
Other	12.0	6.9	2.1

Fairly equal numbers of respondents fell within the under A\$44,999 and A\$45,000-A\$89,999 income brackets. About a third of respondents in Study One (31.3%) and Study Two (40.5%) earned average individual incomes under A\$44,999. It is likely that a portion of respondents in this income bracket constituted the baby boomer segment of luxury travellers who are retired with savings and pensions (Park, Reisinger and Noh 2010). More than a third of respondents in Study One (37.8%) and Study Two (36.8%) earned average individual incomes of A\$45,000-A\$89,999. Income representations of A\$45,000-A\$89,999 in Study One and Study Two followed the average Australian wage of AUD 79,721.3 per annum (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016). This suggests that both retirees and full-time workers who possess higher disposable income may be motivated by a desire to reward themselves by taking an indulgent vacation.

The highest number of respondents in the Pilot Study owned their homes outright (45.6%). On the other hand, respondents in Study One had a relatively even distribution for renting (26.2%), owning a mortgaged home (25.8%) and outright home ownership (27.5%). Similar to Study One, respondents in Study Two had a relatively even distribution for renting (30.3%), owning a mortgaged home (30.9%) and outright home ownership (29.7%). With almost a third in each sample owning their home outright, this implies that consumers may have some discretionary income to take an indulgent vacation.

Finally, most respondents in the Pilot Study resided in Malaysia (51.2%) and Singapore (33.6%). The majority of respondents in Study One (82.4%) and Study Two (97.1%) resided in Australia. The three samples addressed the sampling frame which targeted adults who resided in or within close proximity to short-haul travel destinations which offer luxury hotels/resorts to domestic and international travellers.

5.3. Pilot Study

The current study's second research objective was to conceptualise and operationalise hedonic binging in a decision-making tourism context (*RO2*). Consequently, the Pilot Study set out to explore dimensionality and reliability of the hedonic binging construct. The sampling frame included 125 adults, mainly in Singapore and Malaysia, who had stayed at a luxury hotel/resort on a previous vacation.

The sample was administered an online survey which included a transformational advertising stimulus that focused on an all-inclusive luxury vacation package. This took into account *pre-arranged indulgences* which included seven nights of accommodation for two at a luxury resort, six hours for two at the luxury resort's state-of-the-art health and wellness spa and two nights of fine dining for two at the luxury resort's award-winning restaurant.

5.3.1. Exploratory factor analysis

Chapter Four outlined the multi-disciplinary review, three focus groups and an expert panel which identified the hedonic binging scale items. Input from this qualitative research confirmed 16 scale items for hedonism (i.e. 10 for positive anticipated emotion and six for negative anticipated emotion) and 22 for binging (i.e. 13 for impulsiveness and planned impulsiveness and nine for compulsiveness), resulting in 38 scale items for hedonic binging.

The 38 hedonic bingeing scale items were subjected to exploratory factor analysis and a VARIMAX rotation with SPSS 22. The initial five-factor solution identified 29 items which explained 66.82% of variance extracted with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.84 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity of 2477.77 ($p \leq 0.001$). Subsequently, items with eigenvalues less than 1.0, which did not correlate above 0.50 and loaded below 0.30 were iteratively removed to purify the measure (Hair et al. 2010). In this iterative process, the compulsive aspect of bingeing was deleted due to cross loading with mainly the impulsive scale items.

Table 5.3: Pilot Study – Exploratory factor analyses for hedonic bingeing

Factors and Items	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach Alpha
Factor 1: Impulsiveness		5.43	21.73	0.91
I often splurge without thinking	0.79			
"I see it, I spend" describes me	0.79			
"Spend now, think about it later" describes how I treat myself	0.79			
"Just do it" describes the way I spend on life's niceties	0.78			
I usually do not think before spending on little luxuries	0.77			
Sometimes I am a bit reckless about spending on luxurious treats	0.76			
I often spend spontaneously	0.76			
I pamper myself according to how I feel at the moment	0.73			
Occasionally, I indulge in spur-of-the-moment spending	0.61			
Factor 2: Positive anticipated emotion		4.52	18.09	0.93
Happy	0.92			
Delighted	0.90			
Excited	0.88			
Satisfied	0.87			
Glad	0.86			
Proud	0.70			
Factor 3: Avoiding negative anticipated emotion		4.43	17.70	0.93
Frustrated	0.89			
Disappointed	0.86			
Sad	0.86			
Angry	0.83			
Annoyed	0.81			
Worried	0.75			
Factor 4: Planned impulsiveness		2.23	8.90	0.69
I decide to spend only after looking around at different options	0.77			
I tend to decide what to indulge in while looking at different options	0.71			
I already identify in advance something I want to pamper myself with	0.69			
I carefully plan most of my spending on little luxuries	0.67			

Note: Extraction method: Principal components analysis

Rotation method: Varimax rotation

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy: 0.84

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 2115.19; $p \leq 0.001$

As can be seen in Table 5.3, the final four-factor solution identified 25 scale items which accounted for 66.4% of variance extracted with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.84

and Bartlett's test of Sphericity of 2115.19 ($p \leq 0.001$). The first factor, with nine items, tapped into spontaneous propensity and was labelled impulsiveness ($\alpha \leq 0.91$). The second factor, with six items, referred to affirming feelings and was named positive anticipated emotion ($\alpha = 0.93$). The third factor, with six items, described escaping adverse feelings and was labelled avoiding negative emotion ($\alpha = 0.93$). Finally, the fourth factor, with four items, identified deliberated spontaneous propensity and was named planned impulsiveness ($\alpha = 0.69$).

Cronbach alphas for all four factors were above 0.60 (≥ 0.69), demonstrating acceptable reliability (Nunnally 1978), as can be seen in Table 5.3. Further, no higher reliability values were achieved when items in each factor were removed, suggesting the factors were reliable (Hair et al. 2010).

In summary, the Pilot Study identified 25 items which tapped into four dimensions of hedonic bingeing that demonstrated reliability. This suggested that hedonic bingeing could be conceptualised and operationalised as a multi-dimensional construct. Subsequently, it was appropriate to proceed to Study One and consolidate findings from the Pilot Study.

5.4. Study One

Addressing the current study's second research objective to conceptualise and operationalise hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context (*RO2*), Study One set out to purify as well as to explore dimensionality and reliability of scale items representing the hedonic bingeing and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs. This time, the sampling frame included 233 adults in Australia who had stayed at a luxury hotel/resort on a previous vacation.

The sample was administered the same online survey as with the Pilot Study. This included the transformational advertising stimulus that focused on an all-inclusive luxury vacation package. Again, this took into account *pre-arranged indulgences* which included seven nights of

accommodation for two at a luxury resort, six hours for two at the luxury resort's state-of-the-art health and wellness spa and two nights of fine dining for two at the luxury resort's award-winning restaurant.

The sample of 233 respondents was randomly split in two. The first half of the sample comprised 116 respondents and was used in exploratory factor analysis to assess dimensionality and reliability of the scale items. The second half of the sample comprised 117 respondents and was used in confirmatory factor analysis to purify the scale items. Finally, the full sample comprising all 233 respondents was used in structural equation modelling to test the hypothesised relationships in the research model.

5.4.1. Exploratory factor analysis

The 38 hedonic bingeing scale items, derived from the multi-disciplinary review, three focus groups and an expert panel, were again subjected to exploratory factor analysis and a VARIMAX rotation with SPSS 22. This was conducted with Study One's first half of the split sample which included 116 respondents. The initial five-factor solution identified 29 items which explained 66.67% of variance extracted with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.79 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity of 2343.38 ($p \leq 0.001$). Subsequently, items with eigenvalues less than 1.0, which did not correlate above 0.50 and loaded below 0.30 were iteratively removed to purify the measure (Hair et al. 2010). As with the Pilot Study, the iterative process eliminated the compulsive aspect of bingeing due to cross loading with mainly the impulsive scale items.

As can be seen in Table 5.4, the final four-factor solution identified 25 scale items which accounted for 64.9% of variance extracted with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.79 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity of 1989.13 ($p \leq 0.001$). The first factor, with eight items, tapped

into impulsiveness ($\alpha=0.91$). The second factor, with seven items, referred to positive anticipated emotion ($\alpha=0.91$). The third factor, with six items, described avoiding negative emotion ($\alpha=0.89$). Finally, the fourth factor, with four items, identified planned impulsiveness ($\alpha=0.75$).

As can be seen in Table 5.4, Cronbach alphas for all four factors were above 0.70 (≥ 0.75), demonstrating acceptable reliability (Nunnally 1978). Further, no higher reliability values were achieved when items in each factor were removed, suggesting the factors were reliable (Hair et al. 2010).

Table 5.4: Study One – Exploratory factor analyses for hedonic bingeing

Factors and Items	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach Alpha
Factor 1: Impulsiveness		4.97	19.89	0.91
I often splurge without thinking	0.88			
“Just do it” describes the way I spend on life’s niceties	0.83			
“I see it, I spend” describes me*	0.79			
Sometimes I am a bit reckless about spending on luxurious treats*	0.78			
“Spend now, think about it later” describes how I treat myself*	0.73			
I usually do not think before spending on little luxuries	0.72			
I often spend spontaneously	0.66			
I pamper myself according to how I feel at the moment*	0.65			
Factor 2: Positive anticipated emotion		4.83	19.31	0.91
Glad	0.90			
Happy	0.89			
Delighted	0.87			
Excited	0.83			
Satisfied*	0.83			
Proud*	0.67			
Self-assured*	0.67			
Factor 3: Avoiding negative anticipated emotion		4.04	16.14	0.89
Frustrated	0.87			
Angry	0.81			
Disappointed*	0.79			
Sad	0.76			
Annoyed	0.74			
Worried*	0.69			
Factor 4: Planned impulsiveness		2.41	9.64	0.75
I decide to spend only after looking around at different options	0.79			
I tend to decide what to indulge in while looking at different options	0.79			
I carefully plan most of my spending on little luxuries*	0.76			
I already identify in advance something I want to pamper myself with	0.57			

Note: Extraction method: Principal components analysis

Rotation method: Varimax rotation

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy: 0.79

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 1989.13; $p \leq 0.001$

Items denoted with * were eliminated in the final confirmatory factor analysis

In summary, Study One, utilising the first half of the split sample, identified 25 scale items which loaded on four hedonic bingeing factors. These four factors demonstrated distinct structures with high factor loadings (≥ 0.57) and communalities (≥ 0.38) as well as acceptable reliability (≥ 0.75). Subsequently, it was appropriate to proceed to the next stage of the study which incorporated confirmatory factor analysis and the full measurement model.

5.4.2. *Confirmatory factor analysis*

The 25 scale items for hedonic bingeing from the exploratory factor analysis as well as 17 scale items for the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis and one-factor congeneric models with AMOS 22. This was conducted with Study One's second half of the split sample which included 117 respondents. The results of the one-factor congeneric models for each factor can be seen in Figures 5.1 to Figures 5.8.

As with the Pilot Study, hedonic bingeing included: (1) positive anticipated emotion; (2) avoiding negative anticipated emotion; (3) impulsiveness; and (4) planned impulsiveness. The MGB constructs included: (1) attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation; (2) subjective norms; (3) perceived behavioural control; (4) desire to take an indulgent vacation; and (5) intention to take an indulgent vacation. Only the desire construct was not subjected to confirmatory factor analysis since it was represented by two scale items.

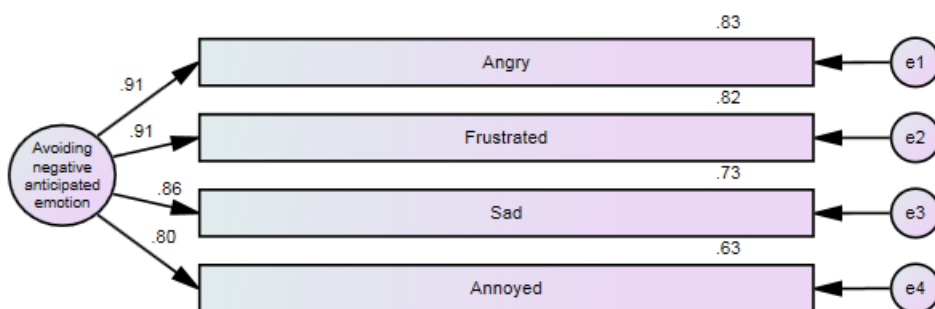
Figure 5.1: Positive anticipated emotion – One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.40$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

The seven-item model for the positive anticipated emotion construct had an unacceptable fit. After consulting the modification indices for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999), three items, namely, “*Satisfied*,” “*Proud*” and “*Self-assured*” were removed iteratively due to cross-loading. Subsequently, as can be seen in Figure 5.1, the goodness-of-fit indices for the four-item model was deemed acceptable ($\chi^2=0.40$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99).

Figure 5.2: Avoiding negative anticipated emotion – One-factor congeneric model

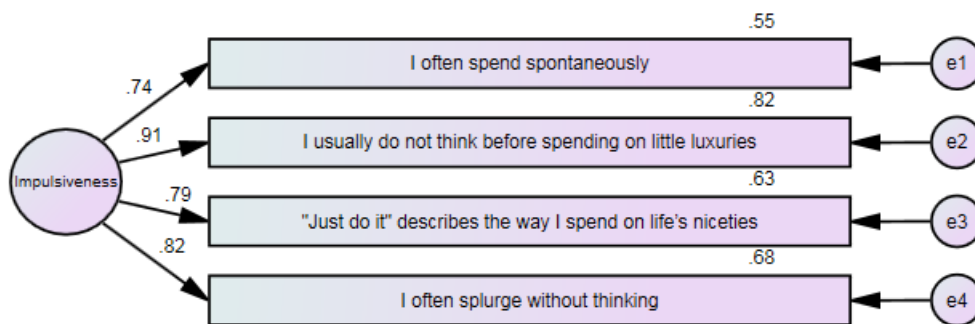


Model fit: $\chi^2=0.56$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the six-item model for avoiding negative anticipated emotion had an unacceptable fit. Therefore, the modification indices were accessed to see if any possible improvements could

be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Two items, namely, “*Disappointed*” and “*Worried*” were omitted due to cross loading. This rendered the four-item model and its goodness-of-fit indices acceptable ($\chi^2=0.56$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99), as can be seen in Figure 5.2.

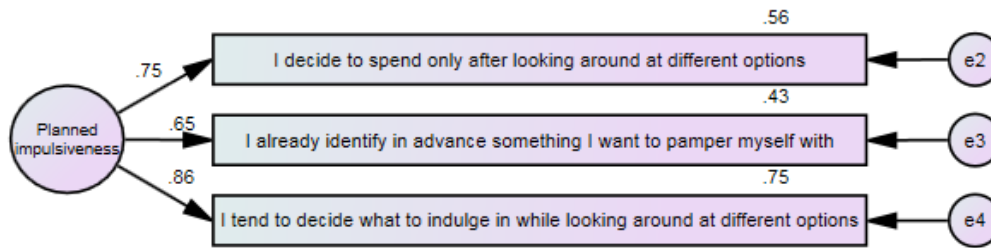
Figure 5.3: Impulsiveness – One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=1.60$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Since the eight-item impulsiveness model had an unacceptable fit, the modification indices were inspected for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Four items, specifically, “*Sometimes I am a bit reckless about spending on luxurious treats,*” “*I pamper myself according to how I feel at the moment,*” “*I see it, I spend describes me*” and “*Spend now, think about it later describes how I treat myself*” were deleted due to cross loading. As can be seen in Figure 5.3, the goodness-of-fit indices for the four-item model was acceptable ($\chi^2=1.60$, $df=2$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99).

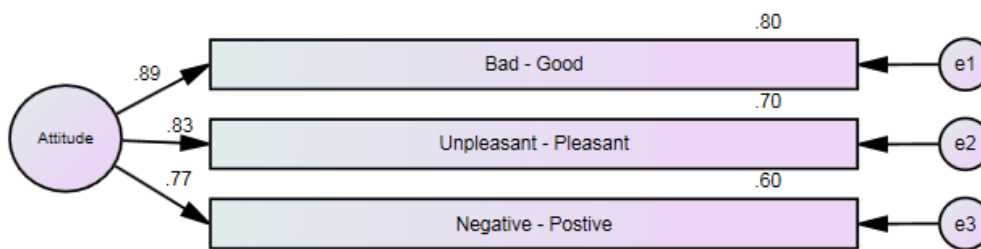
Figure 5.4: Planned impulsiveness – One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.01$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

The four-item model for planned impulsiveness had an unacceptable fit. After consulting the modification indices for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999), one item, namely, “*I carefully plan most of my spending on little luxuries*” was removed due to cross-loading. Subsequently, as can be seen in Figure 5.4, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item model was deemed acceptable ($\chi^2=0.01$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99).

Figure 5.5: Attitude – One-factor congeneric model

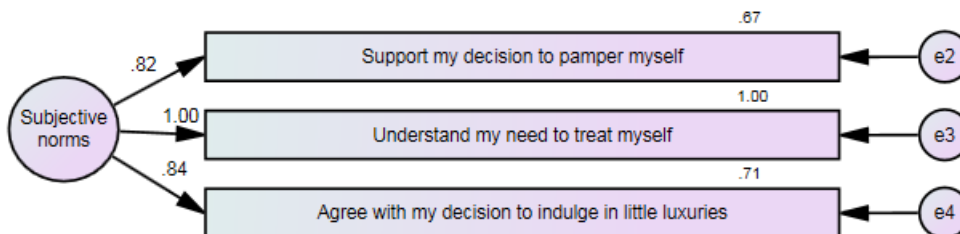


Model fit: $\chi^2=2.67$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the four-item model for attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation had an unacceptable fit. Therefore, the modification indices were accessed to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). One item, namely, “*Unsatisfied – Satisfied*” was omitted due to cross loading. This rendered the three-item model and its

goodness-of-fit indices acceptable ($\chi^2=2.67$, $df=1$, $RMSEA=0.01$, $GFI=0.99$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.99$), as can be seen in Figure 5.5.

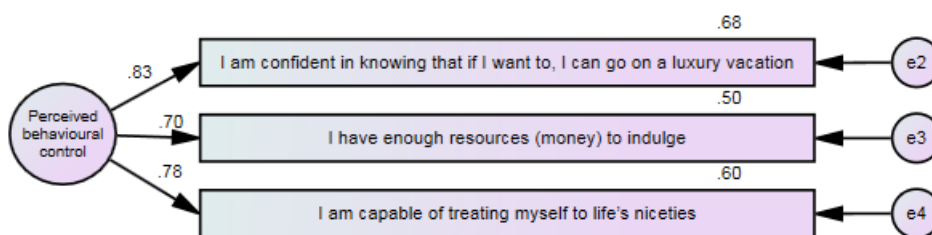
Figure 5.6: Subjective norms – One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=1.40$, $df=1$, $RMSEA=0.06$, $GFI=0.99$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.99$

Since the four-item subjective norms model had an unacceptable fit, the modification indices were inspected for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999). One item, specifically, “*I think it’s okay for me to enjoy life’s niceties*” was deleted due to cross loading. As can be seen in Figure 5.6, the goodness-of-fit indices for the three-item model was acceptable ($\chi^2=1.40$, $df=1$, $RMSEA=0.06$, $GFI=0.99$, $CFI=0.99$, $NFI=0.99$) and was accepted.

Figure 5.7: Perceived behavioural control – One-factor congeneric model

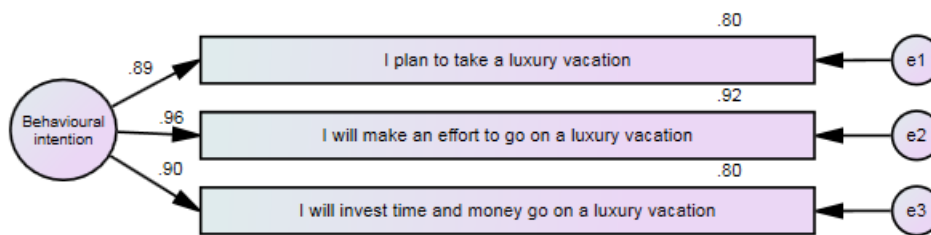


Model fit: $\chi^2=4.70$, $df=1$, $RMSEA=0.18$, $GFI=0.97$, $CFI=0.97$, $NFI=0.96$

The five-item model for the perceived behavioural control construct had an unacceptable fit. After consulting the modification indices for possible solutions (Garver and Mentzer 1999), two items, namely, “*It is completely up to me*” and “*I have enough time to enjoy little luxuries*”

were removed iteratively due to cross-loading. As can be seen in Figure 5.7, the RMSEA exceeded the critical level for the index (0.08). However, since the other goodness-of-fit indices addressed critical levels ($\chi^2=4.70$, $df=1$, GFI=0.97, CFI=0.97, NFI=0.96), the three-item model was deemed acceptable.

Figure 5.8: Behavioural intention – One-factor congeneric model



Model fit: $\chi^2=0.81$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99

Initially, the four-item model for intention to take an indulgent vacation had an unacceptable fit. Therefore, the modification indices were accessed to see if any possible improvements could be made (Garver and Mentzer 1999). One item, namely, “*I intend to take an indulgent vacation*” was omitted due to cross-loading. This rendered the three-item model and its goodness-of-fit indices acceptable ($\chi^2=0.81$, $df=1$, RMSEA=0.01, GFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, NFI=0.99), as can be seen in Figure 5.8.

5.4.3. Full measurement model

The resultant 29 scale items representing the nine hedonic bingeing and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs were introduced into a full measurement model and subjected to structural equation modelling with AMOS 22. The process ensured that no further improvement to the model was required and there was no significant misfit (Jöreskog 1971). This was conducted with Study One’s second half of the split sample which included 117

respondents. The full measurement model addressed all goodness-of-fit requirements and was deemed acceptable ($\chi^2=428.40$, $df=341$, $RMSEA=0.05$, $GFI=0.81$, $CFI=0.96$, $NFI=0.84$).

5.4.4. Reliability and validity

As was described in Chapter Four, composite reliabilities and average variance extracted scores were calculated using structural equation modelling procedures with AMOS 22. This was conducted with Study One's second half of the split sample which included 117 respondents. As can be seen in Table 5.5, all composite reliabilities exceeded 0.70 (≥ 0.80), suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010).

Table 5.5: Study One – Composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Attribute	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	PAE	NAE	IMP	pIMP	ATT	SN	PBC	DI	BI
PAE	4	6.06	1.14	0.93	0.77	1								
aNAE	3	3.79	1.54	0.92	0.75	0.13 (0.02)	1							
IMP	4	4.10	1.43	0.89	0.67	0.16 (0.03)	0.41 (0.16)	1						
pIMP	3	5.00	1.15	0.80	0.57	0.18 (0.03)	0.06 (0.01)	-0.26 (0.07)	1					
ATT	3	6.31	0.93	0.87	0.69	0.09 (0.01)	0.08 (0.01)	0.18 (0.03)	0.01 (0.01)	1				
SN	3	5.39	1.06	0.92	0.79	0.12 (0.01)	0.05 (0.01)	0.14 (0.02)	0.05 (0.01)	0.22 (0.05)	1			
PBC	3	5.25	1.18	0.81	0.60	0.08 (0.01)	0.10 (0.01)	0.39 (0.15)	-0.24 (0.06)	0.27 (0.07)	0.32 (0.19)	1		
DI	2	5.30	1.29	0.81	0.67	-0.01 (0.01)	0.28 (0.07)	0.35 (0.12)	0.04 (0.01)	0.43 (0.18)	0.22 (0.05)	0.27 (0.07)	1	
BI	3	5.35	1.41	0.94	0.84	0.26 (0.07)	0.28 (0.07)	0.21 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.44 (0.19)	0.25 (0.06)	0.41 (0.16)	0.37 (0.14)	1

Note: PAE=Positive anticipated emotion, aNAE= Avoiding negative anticipated emotion, IMP= Impulsiveness, pIMP= Planned impulsiveness, ATT= Attitude, SN= Subjective norms, PBC= Perceived behavioural control, DI= Desire, BI=Behavioural intention
M = Mean, SD = Standard deviation, CR = construct reliability, AVE = average variance extracted, Squared correlations in parentheses

Convergent validity for the nine constructs was assessed in two ways. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor congeneric models were inspected. As can be seen from Figure 5.1 to Figure 5.8, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of the parameter estimates for each construct were above 0.65, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting

convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 5.5, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores (0.57-0.84) were equal to or greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), indicating convergent validity.

Discriminant validity for the nine constructs was examined in three ways. First, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. The AVE scores for the nine constructs (0.57-0.84) exceeded the squared correlations between any two constructs (0.01-0.19), demonstrating discriminant validity. Second, as can be seen in Table 5.5, correlations between the constructs (0.01-0.44) were below 0.80 which is deemed the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1996; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations between all the nine constructs were examined to establish whether their confidence intervals were less than 1.0 (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Since the highest correlation of 0.44 between attitude and behavioural intention had a confidence interval of 0.99 (0.53-0.88), the greater end of the highest confidence interval was less than 1.0, implying discriminant validity.

In summary, Study One, utilising the second half of the split sample, identified 29 scale items which loaded on nine hedonic bingeing and MGB constructs. These nine constructs demonstrated distinct factor structures with satisfactory parameter estimates (≥ 0.65) and high composite reliability (≥ 0.80) as well as convergent and discriminant validity. Subsequently, it was appropriate to proceed to test *H1* to *H9* in Study One.

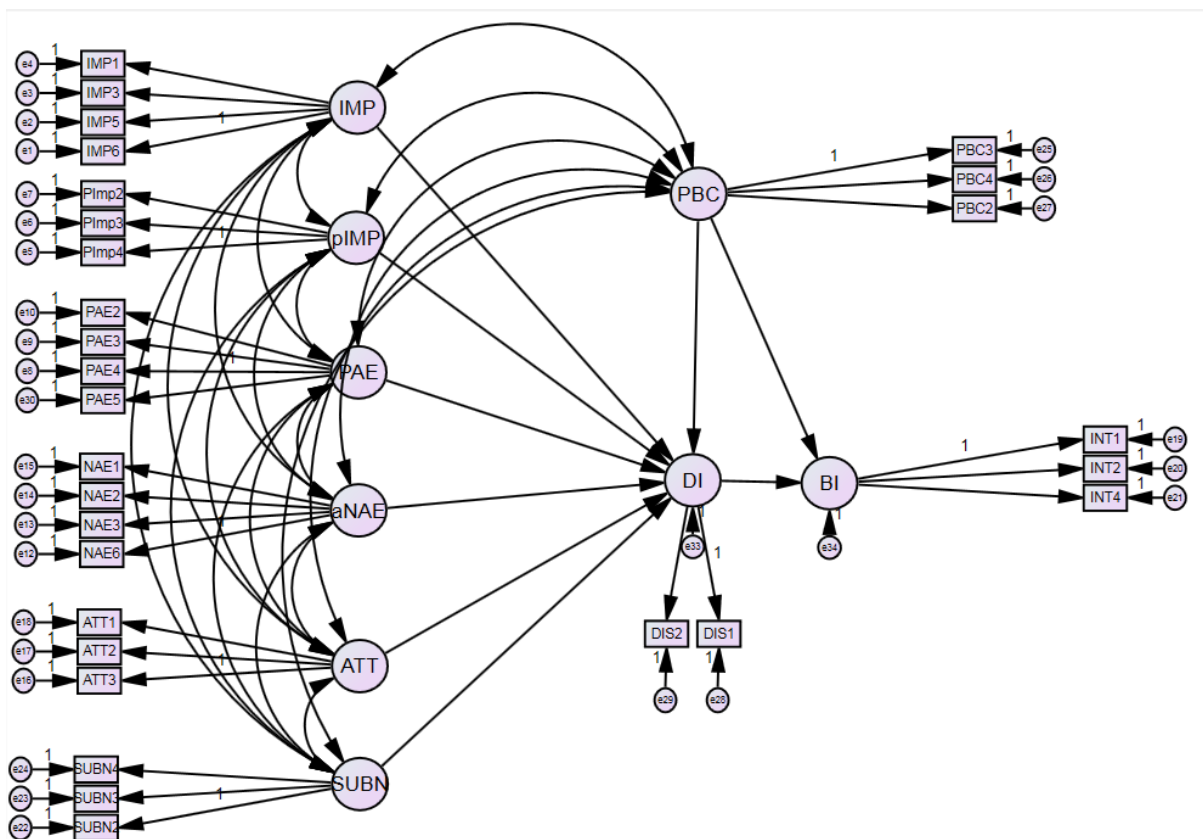
5.4.5. Testing *H1* to *H9*

The third research objective was to introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption

(RO3). To achieve this, hedonic bingeing was introduced to the empirically-tested model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB). This was conducted with Study One’s full sample which included all 223 respondents.

Study One’s research model, which incorporated the all-inclusive luxury vacation package stimulus, was subjected to structural equation modelling and path analysis with AMOS 22. Model fit was assessed using the goodness-of-fit criteria (Hair et al. 2010). Subsequently, the standardised regression weights and their corresponding significance levels were examined to determine if *H1* to *H9* was supported.

Figure 5.9: Study One – Structural model in hypothesis testing



Model fit: $\chi^2=522.66$, $df=347$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.87, CFI=0.96, NFI=0.86

Note: PAE=Positive anticipated emotion, aNAE= Avoiding negative anticipated emotion, IMP= Impulsiveness, pIMP= Planned impulsiveness, ATT= Attitude, SUBN= Subjective norms, PBC= Perceived behavioural control, DI= Desire, BI=Behavioural intention

As can be seen in Figure 5.9, the resultant structural model had an acceptable fit ($\chi^2=522.66$, $df=347$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.87, CFI=0.96, NFI=0.86). Results of the hypothesised relationships in the structural model can be seen in Table 5.6.

H1: Positive anticipated emotion on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Positive anticipated emotion did not have a significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation, which did not support *H1*. This result does not affirm consumer behaviour studies which identify positive anticipated emotion as a significant predictor of desire to participate in indulgent activity (e.g. Hunter 2006; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

H2: Avoiding negative anticipated emotion on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Avoiding negative anticipated emotion produced a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.20$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H2*. The finding is consistent with tourism and leisure literature which suggests a significant relationship exists between negative anticipated emotion and desire to indulge in tourism products/services (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Kim, Njite and Hancer 2013; Song et al. 2012).

H3a: Impulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Impulsiveness had a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.29$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H3a*. The significant relationship is reiterated in consumer behaviour and tourism research (e.g. Chatman 1991; Kalla and Arora 2011).

H3b: Planned impulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Planned impulsiveness produced a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.10$, $p\leq 0.01$), supporting *H3b*. The result adds to consumer behaviour and tourism

studies which propose that planned impulsiveness significantly impacts on the need to act indulgently (e.g. Adelaar 2003; Han et al. 1991; Laesser and Dolnicar 2012).

Table 5.6: Study One – Standardised path coefficients and model fit

Hypotheses	Standardised path coefficients	Outcomes
H1: PAE → DI	-0.04	Not supported
H2: aNAE → DI	0.20***	Supported
H3a: IMP → DI	0.29***	Supported
H3b: pIMP → DI	0.10**	Supported
H4: COMP → DI	na	na
H5: ATT → DI	0.43***	Supported
H6: SN → DI	0.10**	Supported
H7: PBC → DI	0.01	Not supported
H8: PBC → BI	0.28***	Supported
H9: DI → BI	0.52***	Supported
Model fit statistics		
χ^2	522.66	
<i>Df</i>	347	
RMSEA	0.05	
GFI	0.89	
CFI	0.96	
NFI	0.89	

Note: PAE=Positive anticipated emotion, aNAE= Avoiding negative anticipated emotion, IMP= Impulsiveness, pIMP= Planned impulsiveness, COMP= Compulsiveness, ATT= Attitude, SN= Subjective norms, PBC= Perceived behavioural control, DI= Desire, BI=Behavioural intention

χ^2 =chi-square, *df*=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$

H4: Compulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Compulsiveness was omitted in the initial stages of the exploratory factor analysis due to cross loading. For this reason, *H4* was not tested in the research model.

H5: Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation had a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.43$, $p \leq 0.001$), supporting *H5*. The finding is aligned with consumer behaviour and tourism literature which conclude that a significant relationship exists

between attitude and desire to indulge in leisure products/services (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

H6: Subjective norms on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Subjective norms produced a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.10$, $p\leq 0.01$), supporting *H6*. The result concurs with the consumer psychology and tourism research which contends that subjective norms is a key antecedent of desire to act indulgently (e.g. Han and Yoon 2015; Lee et al. 2012; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001).

H7: Perceived behavioural control on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Perceived behavioural control did not have a significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation, which did not support *H7*. This finding is also observed by a small body of consumer psychology and tourism studies which highlights the lack of a significant relationship between perceived behavioural control and desire to act (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012, 2014).

H8: Perceived behavioural control on intention to take an indulgent vacation

Perceived behavioural control produced a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.28$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H8*. The significant relationship is acknowledged in consumer behaviour and tourism literature (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

H9: Desire to take an indulgent vacation on intention to take an indulgent vacation

Finally, desire to take an indulgent vacation had a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.52$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H9*. The finding corroborates consumer psychology and tourism research which reports that desire significantly impacts on

intention to engage in indulgent behaviour (e.g. Carrus and Passafaro Bonnes 2007; Han and Yoon 2015; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

In summary, Study One examined the research model's hypothesised relationships in the context of the all-inclusive luxury vacation package. The majority of the hypothesised relationships, namely, *H2*, *H3a*, *H3b*, *H5*, *H6*, *H8* and *H9* identified in the research model were supported.

5.5. Study Two

Still addressing the current study's second research objective to conceptualise and operationalise hedonic binging in a decision-making tourism context (*RO2*), Study Two set out to refine and confirm dimensionality as well as to establish reliability, convergent, discriminant and predictive validity of the hedonic binging and MGB constructs. The sampling frame included 350 adults in Australia who had stayed at a luxury hotel/resort on a previous vacation.

The sample was administered an online survey. This time, the survey included a transformational advertising stimulus that focused on an optional luxury vacation package. This took into account pre-arranged seven nights of accommodation for two at a luxury resort but offered *optional indulgences* such as treatments at state-of-the-art health and wellness spas, personalised sessions with fitness gurus and fine dining at award-winning restaurants.

5.5.1. Confirmatory factor analysis

The 15 scale items for hedonic binging as well as 14 scale items for the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs, identified in Study One, were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis and one-factor congeneric models with AMOS 22.

Table 5.7: Study Two – One-factor congeneric models

Construct	Parameter Estimates	χ^2	df	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI
Positive anticipated emotion (PAE)		5.30	2	0.07	0.99	0.99	0.99
Excited	0.86						
Delighted	0.96						
Happy	0.90						
Glad	0.87						
Avoiding negative anticipated emotion (aNAE)		3.41	2	0.05	0.99	0.99	0.99
Angry	0.91						
Frustrated	0.95						
Sad	0.88						
Annoyed	0.90						
Impulsiveness (IMP)		1.81	2	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
I often spend spontaneously	0.77						
I usually do not think before spending on little luxuries	0.83						
“Just do it” describes the way I spend on life’s niceties	0.85						
I often splurge without thinking	0.88						
Planned impulsiveness (pIMP)		0.07	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
I decide to spend only after looking around at different options	0.68						
I already identify in advance something I want to pamper myself with	0.80						
I tend to decide what to indulge in while looking at different options	0.76						
Attitude (ATT)		1.84	1	0.05	0.99	0.99	0.99
Bad – Good	0.90						
Unpleasant – Pleasant	0.89						
Unsatisfied – Satisfied	0.82						
Subjective norms (SN)		1.50	1	0.04	0.99	0.99	0.99
Support my decision to pamper myself	0.90						
Understand my need to treat myself	0.92						
Agree with my decision to indulge in little luxuries	0.90						
Perceived behavioural control (PBC)		11.06	1	0.17	0.98	0.98	0.98
It is completely up to me	0.92						
I have enough resources (money) to indulge	0.84						
I am capable of treating myself to life’s niceties	0.70						
Behavioural intention (BI)		0.55	1	0.01	0.99	0.99	0.99
I plan to take a luxury vacation	0.94						
I will make an effort to go on a luxury vacation	0.94						
I will invest time and money go on a luxury vacation	0.91						

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices

As with Study One, hedonic bingeing included: (1) positive anticipated emotion; (2) avoiding negative anticipated emotion; (3) impulsiveness; and (4) planned impulsiveness. The MGB constructs included: (1) attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation; (2) subjective norms; (3) perceived behavioural control; (4) desire to take an indulgent vacation; and (5) intention to take an indulgent vacation. Only the desire construct was not subjected to confirmatory factor analysis since it was represented by two scale items.

As can be seen in Table 5.7, all the constructs had satisfactory goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2/df \leq 3.0$, $RMSEA \leq 0.08$, $GFI \geq 0.90$, $CFI \geq 0.90$, $NFI \geq 0.90$) as suggested by Baumgartner and

Homburg (1996). Consequently, the constructs were not further refined. However, as with Study One, the only exception was for perceived behavioural control where the RMSEA exceeded the critical level for the index (0.08). However, the construct was deemed acceptable since the other goodness-of-fit indices met critical levels as suggested by Hair et al. (2010).

5.5.2. Full measurement model

The resultant 29 scale items representing the nine hedonic bingeing and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs were introduced into a full measurement model and subjected to structural equation modelling with AMOS 22. The full measurement model addressed all goodness-of-fit requirements and was deemed acceptable ($\chi^2=613.07$, $df=341$, RMSEA=0.05, GFI=0.89, CFI=0.97, NFI=0.93).

5.5.3. Reliability and validity

As can be seen in Table 5.8, all composite reliabilities exceeded 0.70 (≥ 0.79), suggesting acceptable reliability (Hair et al. 2010). Convergent validity for the nine constructs was assessed in two ways. First, parameter estimates from the one-factor congeneric models were inspected. As can be seen in Table 5.7, the magnitude, direction and statistical significance of the parameter estimates for each construct were above 0.68, positive and theoretically consistent, suggesting convergent validity (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). Second, as can be seen in Table 5.8, the average variance extracted (AVE) scores (0.56-0.86) were equal to or greater than 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker 1981), indicating convergent validity.

Table 5.8: Study Two – Composite reliabilities, average variance extracted scores and correlations

Attribute	Items	M	SD	CR	AVE	PAE	NAE	IMP	pIMP	ATT	SN	PBC	DI	BI
PAE	4	5.96	0.99	0.94	0.81	1								
aNAE	4	3.38	1.71	0.95	0.83	0.20 (0.04)	1							
IMP	4	4.14	1.48	0.90	0.69	0.24 (0.06)	0.30 (0.09)	1						
pIMP	3	5.05	1.04	0.79	0.56	0.31 (0.10)	0.12 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	1					
ATT	3	6.04	1.04	0.90	0.76	0.55 (0.30)	0.07 (0.01)	0.27 (0.07)	0.24 (0.06)	1				
SN	3	5.32	1.10	0.93	0.82	0.38 (0.14)	0.13 (0.02)	0.37 (0.14)	0.36 (0.13)	0.53 (0.28)	1			
PBC	3	5.22	1.25	0.86	0.68	0.31 (0.10)	0.07 (0.01)	0.37 (0.14)	0.29 (0.08)	0.43 (0.18)	0.57 (0.32)	1		
DI	2	5.09	1.42	0.88	0.79	0.47 (0.22)	0.41 (0.17)	0.46 (0.21)	0.20 (0.04)	0.51 (0.26)	0.42 (0.18)	0.31 (0.10)	1	
BI	3	5.07	1.54	0.95	0.86	0.42 (0.18)	0.29 (0.08)	0.44 (0.19)	0.29 (0.08)	0.52 (0.27)	0.53 (0.28)	0.55 (0.33)	0.66 (0.44)	1

Note: PAE=Positive anticipated emotion, aNAE= Avoiding negative anticipated emotion, IMP= Impulsiveness, pIMP= Planned impulsiveness, ATT= Attitude, SN= Subjective norms, PBC= Perceived behavioural control, DI= Desire, BI=Behavioural intention
M = Mean, SD = Standard deviation, CR = construct reliability, AVE = average variance extracted, Squared correlations in parentheses

Discriminant validity for the nine constructs was examined in three ways. First, Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) test compared AVE scores with the squared structural path coefficient between two constructs. The AVE scores for the nine constructs (0.56-0.86) exceeded the squared correlations between any two constructs (0.01-0.44), demonstrating discriminant validity. Second, as seen in Table 5.8, correlations between the constructs (0.02-0.66) were below 0.80 which is deemed the level where discriminant validity issues may become problematic (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994; Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz 1997; Lings and Greenley 2005). Third, correlations between all the nine constructs were examined to establish whether their confidence intervals were less than 1.0 (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Since the highest correlation of 0.66 between desire and behavioural intention had a confidence interval of 0.99 (0.54-0.76), the greater end of the highest confidence interval was less than 1.0, implying discriminant validity.

In summary, Study Two confirmed 29 scale items which loaded on nine hedonic bingeing and MGB constructs. These nine constructs demonstrated distinct factor structures with satisfactory parameter estimates (≥ 0.68) and high composite reliability (≥ 0.79) as well as convergent and discriminant validity. Subsequently, it was appropriate to proceed to test *H1* to *H9* in Study Two.

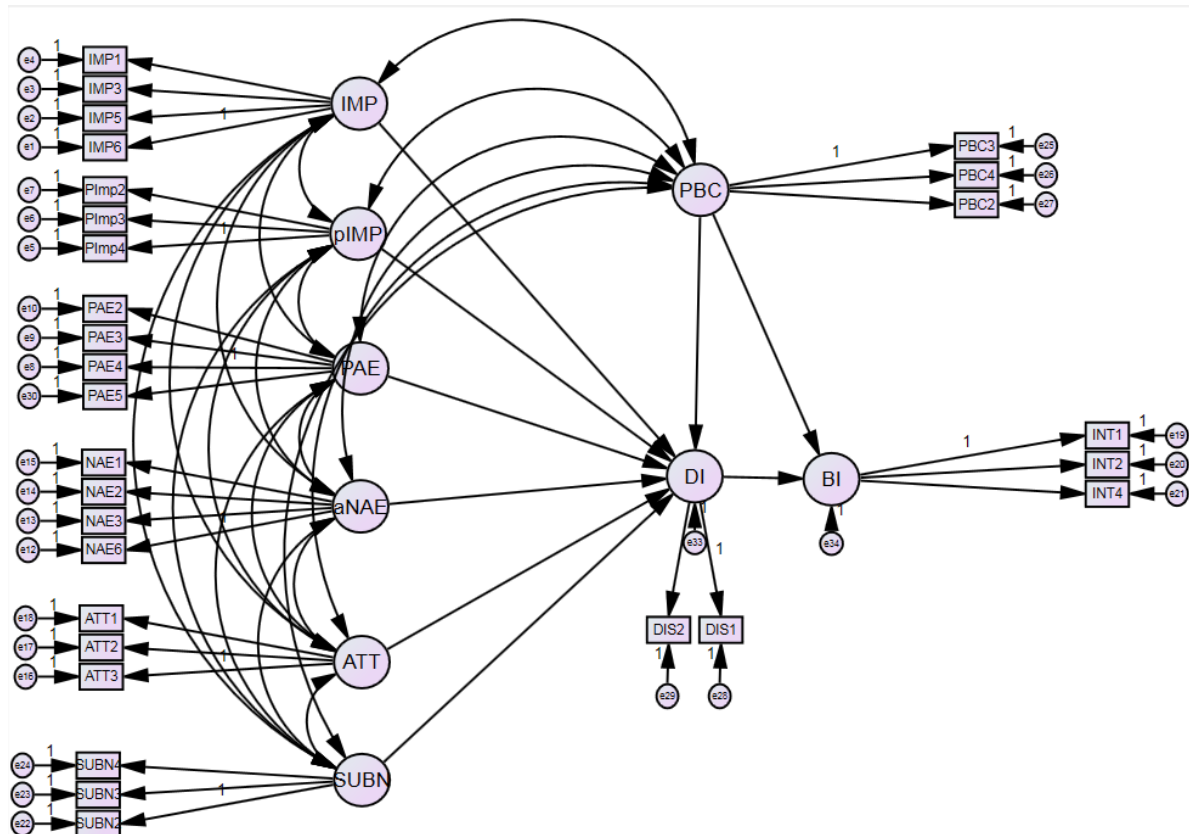
5.5.4. Testing *H1* to *H9*

The third research objective was to introduce hedonic bingeing into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption (*RO3*). To achieve this, hedonic bingeing was introduced to the empirically-tested model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB). This was conducted with Study Two's full sample which included all 350 respondents.

Study Two's research model, which incorporated the optional luxury vacation package stimulus, was subjected to structural equation modelling and path analysis with AMOS 22. Model fit was assessed using the goodness-of-fit criteria (Hair et al. 2010). Subsequently, the standardised regression weights and their corresponding significance levels were examined to determine if *H1* to *H9* was supported.

As can be seen in Figure 5.10, the resultant structural model had an acceptable fit ($\chi^2=619.31$, $df=347$, $RMSEA=0.05$, $GFI=0.89$, $CFI=0.97$, $NFI=0.93$). Results of the hypothesised relationships in the structural model can be seen in Table 5.9.

Figure 5.10. Study Two – Structural model in hypothesis testing



Model fit: $\chi^2=619.31$, $df=347$, $RMSEA=0.05$, $GFI=0.89$, $CFI=0.97$, $NFI=0.93$

Note: PAE=Positive anticipated emotion, aNAE= Avoiding negative anticipated emotion, IMP= Impulsiveness, pIMP= Planned impulsiveness, ATT= Attitude, SUBN= Subjective norms, PBC= Perceived behavioural control, DI= Desire, BI=Behavioural intention

H1: Positive anticipated emotion on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As with Study One, positive anticipated emotion did not have a significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation, which did not support *H1*. Again, this result does not affirm consumer behaviour studies which identify positive anticipated emotion as a significant predictor of desire to participate in indulgent activity (e.g. Hunter 2006; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

H2: Avoiding negative anticipated emotion on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Avoiding negative anticipated emotion produced a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.29$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H2*. The finding is consistent with tourism and leisure literature which suggests a significant relationship exists between negative anticipated emotion and desire to indulge in tourism products/services (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Kim, Njite and Hancer 2013; Song et al. 2012).

H3a: Impulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Impulsiveness had a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.27$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H3a*. The significant relationship is reiterated in consumer behaviour and tourism research (Chatman 1991; Kalla and Arora 2011). The result is highly pertinent for Study Two, given its optional luxury vacation package stimulus which encourages spontaneous desire and choice.

H3b: Planned impulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Contrary to Study One, planned impulsiveness did not produce a significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation, which did not support *H3b*. The finding does not add to consumer behaviour and tourism studies which propose that planned impulsiveness significantly impacts on the need to act indulgently (e.g. Adelaar 2003; Han et al. 1991; Laesser and Dolnicar 2012). However, upon consideration, the finding is not unexpected given Study Two's context. Since the optional luxury vacation package stimulus encourages spontaneous desire and choice, it is likely that planned impulsiveness would not play a significant role on desire in this context.

H4: Compulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As with Study One, it was not possible to assess the effects of compulsiveness since the construct was deleted in the early stages of the exploratory factor analysis due to cross loading. Consequently, *H4* was not tested in the research model.

Table 5.9: Study Two – Standardised path coefficients and model fit

Hypotheses	Standardised path coefficients	Outcomes
H1: PAE → DI	0.14	Not supported
H2: aNAE → DI	0.29***	Supported
H3a: IMP → DI	0.27***	Supported
H3b: pIMP → DI	0.04	Not Supported
H4: COMP → DI	na	na
H5: ATT → DI	0.38***	Supported
H6: SN → DI	0.06	Not supported
H7: PBC → DI	-0.06	Not supported
H8: PBC → BI	0.39***	Supported
H9: DI → BI	0.60***	Supported
Model fit statistics		
χ^2	619.31	
<i>df</i>	347	
RMSEA	0.05	
GFI	0.90	
CFI	0.97	
NFI	0.93	

Note: PAE=Positive anticipated emotion, aNAE= Avoiding negative anticipated emotion, IMP= Impulsiveness, pIMP= Planned impulsiveness, COMP= Compulsiveness, ATT= Attitude, SN= Subjective norms, PBC= Perceived behavioural control, DI= Desire, BI=Behavioural intention

*χ^2 =chi-square, *df*=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices*

** $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$*

H5: Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation had a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.38$, $p \leq 0.001$), supporting *H5*. The finding is aligned with consumer behaviour and tourism literature which conclude that a significant relationship exists between attitude and desire to indulge in leisure products/services (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

H6: Subjective norms on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Contrary to Study One, subjective norms did not produce a significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation, which did not support *H6*. The result does not concur with the consumer psychology and tourism research which contends that subjective norms is a key antecedent of desire to act indulgently (e.g. Han and Yoon 2015; Lee et al. 2012; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001).

H7: Perceived behavioural control on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As with Study One, perceived behavioural control did not have a significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation, which did not support *H7*. This finding is also observed by a small pool of consumer psychology and tourism studies which highlights the lack of a significant relationship between perceived behavioural control and desire to act (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012, 2014).

H8: Perceived behavioural control on intention to take an indulgent vacation

Perceived behavioural control produced a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.39$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H8*. The significant relationship is acknowledged in consumer behaviour and tourism literature (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

H9: Desire to take an indulgent vacation on intention to take an indulgent vacation

Finally, desire to take an indulgent vacation had a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation ($\beta=0.60$, $p\leq 0.001$), supporting *H9*. The finding corroborates consumer psychology and tourism research which reports that desire significantly impacts on intention to engage in indulgent behaviour (e.g. Carrus and Passafaro Bonnes 2007; Han and Yoon 2015; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006).

In summary, Study Two examined the research model's hypothesised relationships in the context of the optional luxury vacation package. The majority of the hypothesised relationships, namely, *H2*, *H3a*, *H5*, *H8* and *H9* identified in the research model were supported.

5.6. Study One and Study Two

The difference in responses to Study One's all-inclusive luxury vacation package and Study Two's optional luxury vacation package were examined. First, independent groups *t*-test compared both studies for significant differences in the mean scores of the nine key constructs. Then, structural equation modelling and multi-group analysis with AMOS 22 assessed both studies for significant differences in their hypothesised effects. This was conducted with the full samples from Study One and Study Two, respectively comprising the 233 and 350 adults in Australia who had stayed at a luxury hotel/resort on a previous vacation.

5.6.1. Independent groups *t*-test

As can be seen in Table 5.10 from the independent groups *t*-test, the majority of constructs in Study One and Study Two had mean scores which were higher than the mid-point of 4 on the Likert scale. These included positive anticipated emotion, planned impulsiveness, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, desire and intention to take an indulgent vacation. Only two constructs, namely, avoiding negative anticipated emotion and impulsiveness had mean scores that hovered or were below the mid-point of 4 on the scale.

Positive anticipated emotion was similarly high for Study One ($t=6.09$) and Study Two ($t=5.96$), with no significant difference between the two studies. Planned impulsiveness was lower but the same for Study One ($t=4.99$) and Study Two ($t=5.05$), with no significant difference between the two studies. Although attitude was high in both studies, it was

significantly higher ($p \leq 0.01$) in Study One ($t=6.28$) compared with Study Two ($t=6.04$). Subjective norms was similarly high for Study One ($t=5.42$) and Study Two ($t=5.32$), with no significant difference between the two studies. Perceived behavioural control was high and the same for both studies ($t=5.42$). Likewise, desire was similarly high for Study One ($t=5.31$) and Study Two ($t=5.09$), with no significant difference between the two studies. Although intention to take an indulgent vacation was high in both studies, it was significantly higher ($p \leq 0.01$) in Study One ($t=5.42$) compared with Study Two ($t=5.07$). This suggested that respondents had significantly more favourable attitude and intention toward the all-inclusive luxury vacation package since it offered the assurances of *pre-arranged indulgences* on their vacation.

Table 5.10: Study One and Study Two – Independent groups *t*-test

	Study One (N=233)	Study Two (N=350)	T-value	p-value (Sig. 2 tailed)
Positive anticipated emotion	6.09 ^a	5.96 ^a	1.56	0.12
Avoiding negative anticipated emotion	3.64 ^a	3.38 ^a	1.88	0.06
Impulsiveness	4.15 ^a	4.14 ^a	0.08	0.93
Planned impulsiveness	4.99 ^a	5.05 ^a	-0.64	0.52
Attitude	6.28 ^a	6.04 ^b	2.89	0.01
Subjective norms	5.42 ^a	5.32 ^a	1.09	0.27
Perceived behavioural control	5.42 ^a	5.42 ^a	1.96	0.05
Desire	5.31 ^a	5.09 ^a	1.90	0.58
Behavioural intention	5.42 ^a	5.07 ^b	2.93	0.01

Note: Means that share the same subscript letter are not significantly different from one another ($p \leq 0.05$)

Avoiding negative anticipated emotion was similarly lowest for Study One ($t=3.64$) and Study Two ($t=3.38$), with no significant difference between the two studies. Planned impulsiveness was low and the same for Study One ($t=4.15$) and Study Two ($t=4.14$).

5.6.2. Testing H10

The nine constructs were specified in structural models using multi-group analysis with AMOS 22. Initially, fully unconstrained models (M1) were examined for the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. The goodness-of-fit indices were deemed acceptable ($\chi^2=1194.28$,

$df=723$, $RMSEA=0.03$, $CFI=0.97$, $NFI=0.92$). Then, each coefficient path was independently constrained (M2-M9) and a chi-square difference test was conducted to determine whether there was significant difference in the standardised regression weights (Holmbeck 1997; MacKinnon, Lockwood and Hoffman 2002) between the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. A significant chi-square difference score shows there is between-group variance for the constrained relationship (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1996).

H1: Positive anticipated emotion on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As can be seen in Table 5.11, constraining the path between positive anticipated emotion and desire to take an indulgent vacation had a significant chi-square difference ($p \leq 0.05$). Although the positive anticipated emotion-desire relationship was not supported, an inspection of the standardised regression weights suggested a relatively stronger relationship for the all-inclusive luxury package as opposed to the optional luxury package. It is likely that the tourist will have more positive anticipated emotion toward a desirous vacation when luxuries are booked in advance and the tourist is able to anticipate them.

H2: Avoiding negative emotion on desire to take an indulgent vacation

The constrained path between avoiding negative anticipated emotion and desire to take an indulgent vacation did not produce a significant chi-square difference, as can be seen in Table 5.11. This implied the significant avoiding negative anticipated emotion-desire relationship was consistent for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages ($\beta=0.21$, $p \leq 0.001$). Clearly, the tourist's avoidance of negative anticipated emotion in their desire to take a vacation applies in both luxury contexts.

H3a: Impulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As can be seen in Table 5.11, constraining the path between impulsiveness and desire to take an indulgent vacation did not have a significant chi-square difference. This suggested the significant impulsiveness-desire relationship was similar for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages ($\beta=0.23$, $p\leq 0.001$). It would appear that the tourist's impulsiveness has propensity to stir up their spontaneous desire to reward themselves in either luxury vacation context.

H3b: Planned impulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

The constrained path between planned impulsiveness and desire to take an indulgent vacation did not produce a significant chi-square difference, as can be seen in Table 5.11. Further, the planned impulsiveness-desire relationship was not supported for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. It is likely that planned impulsiveness may instead, be directly influencing intention as suggested by some studies (e.g. Churchill, Jessop and Sparks 2008; Konrath and Moore 2015).

H4: Compulsiveness on desire to take an indulgent vacation

Again, compulsiveness was omitted in the initial stages of the exploratory factor analysis due to cross loading. For this reason, *H10* with respect to *H4* was not tested in the research model.

H5: Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As can be seen in Table 5.11, constraining the path between attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation and desire to take an indulgent vacation did not have a significant chi-square difference. This implied the significant attitude-desire relationship was consistent for both the

all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages ($\beta=0.54, p\leq 0.001$). Evidently, the tourist's attitude about a vacation package will affect their desire to engage in both luxury contexts.

H6: Subjective norms on desire to take an indulgent vacation

The constrained path between subjective norms and desire to take an indulgent vacation did not produce a significant chi-square difference, as can be seen in Table 5.11. Further, the subjective norms-desire relationship was not supported for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. It would seem that tourists are not greatly affected by their social groups when it comes to their desire to treat themselves in either luxury vacation context.

Table 5.11: Study One and Study Two – Chi-square difference

Model Specification	χ^2	df	Models Compared	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	χ^2/df	p-value	RMSEA	CFI	NFI
Fully unconstrained (M1)	1194.28	723	na	N/A	N/A	1.65	na	0.03	0.97	0.92
H1: PAE → DI constrained (M2)	1146.88	695	M2 vs. M1	47.4	28	1.69	0.05	0.03	0.98	0.92
H2: aNAE → DI constrained (M3)	1142.52	695	M3 vs. M1	51.8	28	1.85	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H3a: IMP → DI constrained (M4)	1142.08	695	M4 vs. M1	52.2	28	1.86	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H3b: pIMP → DI constrained (M5)	1142.43	695	M5 vs. M1	51.9	28	1.85	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H4: COMP → DI constrained (M6)	na	na	na	na	na	na	ns	na	na	na
H5: ATT → DI constrained (M7)	1142.81	695	M7 vs. M1	51.5	28	1.84	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H6: SN → DI constrained (M8)	1142.23	695	M8 vs. M1	52.1	28	1.86	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H7: PBC → DI constrained (M9)	1142.35	695	M9 vs. M1	51.9	28	1.85	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H8: PBC → BI constrained (M10)	1144.45	695	M10 vs. M1	49.8	28	1.78	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92
H9: DI → BI constrained (M11)	1145.55	695	M11 vs. M1	48.7	28	1.74	ns	0.03	0.97	0.92

Note: χ^2 =chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation, GFI=goodness of fit indices, CFI=comparative fit indices, NFI=normative fit indices
 * $p\leq 0.05$, ** $p\leq 0.01$, *** $p\leq 0.001$

H7: Perceived behavioural control on desire to take an indulgent vacation

As can be seen in Table 5.11, constraining the path between perceived behavioural control and desire to take an indulgent vacation did not have a significant chi-square difference. Further, the perceived behavioural control-desire relationship was not supported for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. It is possible that perceived behavioural control may instead, be directly influencing intention as suggested by some studies (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012, 2014).

H8: Perceived behavioural control on intention to take an indulgent vacation

The constrained path between perceived behavioural control and intention to take an indulgent vacation did not produce a significant chi-square difference, as can be seen in Table 5.11. This suggested the significant perceived behavioural control-behavioural intention relationship was similar for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages ($\beta=0.41$, $p\leq 0.001$). It may well be that a tourist's self-perception of their own competencies will influence their intention to indulge themselves in both luxury vacation contexts.

H9: Desire to take an indulgent vacation on intention to take an indulgent vacation

Finally, as can be seen in Table 5.19, constraining the path between desire and intention to take an indulgent vacation did not have a significant chi-square difference. This implied the significant desire-behavioural intention relationship was consistent for both the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages ($\beta=0.64$, $p\leq 0.001$). Clearly, the tourist's desire to indulge while on vacation will drive their intention to take that vacation in either luxury context.

In summary, the difference in hypothesised effects between Study One's all-inclusive luxury vacation package and Study Two's optional luxury vacation package were examined. Only *H1*

demonstrated a significant chi-square difference between the two luxury vacation packages. No significant chi-square differences were reported for *H2*, *H3a*, *H3b*, *H5*, *H6*, *H7*, *H8* and *H9* between the two luxury vacation packages. This suggested that except for the positive anticipated emotion-desire relationship which was stronger in the all-inclusive luxury vacation package, *H10* was not supported.

A summary of the chapter's findings can be seen in Table 5.12.

5.7. Chapter summary

This chapter reports the results of the qualitative and quantitative research conducted in the current study. Initially, the Pilot Study and the first half of Study One's split sample identified 25 scale items which tapped into four dimensions of hedonic bingeing. These demonstrated acceptable reliability. Then, the second half of Study One's split sample and Study Two identified 29 scale items which loaded on nine hedonic bingeing and model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) constructs. These demonstrated high reliability as well as convergent and discriminant validity. Next, Study One reported that the majority of the hypothesised relationships for its all-inclusive luxury vacation package was supported (i.e. *H2*, *H3a*, *H3b*, *H5*, *H6*, *H8* and *H9*). Similarly, Study Two noted that the majority of the hypothesised relationships for its optional luxury vacation package was supported (i.e. *H2*, *H3a*, *H5*, *H8* and *H9*). Finally, *H10* was not supported with the exception of the positive anticipated emotion-desire relationship which was stronger in the all-inclusive luxury vacation package.

Table 5.12: Summary of H1 to H10 findings

Hypothesis	Outcome
<i>H1</i> Positive anticipated emotion will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Not supported
<i>H2</i> Avoiding negative anticipated emotion will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Supported
<i>H3a</i> Impulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Supported
<i>H3b</i> Planned impulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Partially supported
<i>H4</i> Compulsiveness will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	na
<i>H5</i> Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Supported
<i>H6</i> Subjective norms will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Partially supported
<i>H7</i> Perceived behavioural control will have a positive and significant effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation	Not supported
<i>H8</i> Perceived behavioural control will have a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation	Supported
<i>H9</i> Desire to take an indulgent vacation will have a positive and significant effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation	Supported
<i>H10</i> The context of the luxury vacation package will have a significant effect on the hypothesised relationships	Partially supported

Chapter 6

Discussion

6.0. Introduction

Chapter Five reported the current study's findings for integrating hedonic binging into the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) and testing the hypothesised relationships in the model. This chapter examines the research findings and discusses their implications. The chapter begins with an overview of the research objectives and its outcomes. The research findings provide a prologue to the theoretical and managerial contributions in the research area. Finally, the study's limitations are identified and future directions for the research area are explored.

6.1. Overview of study

Table 6.1: Summary of research objectives and outcomes

Research objectives	Research outcomes
RO1: Clarify understanding of the hedonism and binging constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature relating to psychology, sociology, marketing and tourism.	A multi-disciplinary literature review conceptualised hedonic binging to include five dimensions, namely, positive anticipated emotion, avoiding negative anticipated emotion, impulsiveness, unplanned impulsiveness and compulsiveness.
RO2: Conceptualise and operationalise hedonic binging in a decision-making tourism context.	A pragmatist paradigm incorporated qualitative and quantitative approaches. These included an extensive literature review, three focus groups (N=15), an expert panel (N=4), a Pilot Study (N=125), Study One (N=233) and Study Two (N=350). A total of 15 scale items operationalised four dimensions of hedonic binging, namely, positive anticipated emotion, avoiding negative anticipated emotion, impulsiveness and planned impulsiveness.
RO3: Introduce hedonic binging into a decision-making framework to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption.	Hedonic binging's 15 scale items were introduced to the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB). A total of 14 scale items operationalised the MGB constructs, namely, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, desire and behavioural intention. For both Study One and Study Two, <i>H2</i> , <i>H3a</i> , <i>H5</i> , <i>H8</i> and <i>H9</i> were supported, whereas <i>H1</i> and <i>H7</i> were not supported. However, <i>H3b</i> and <i>H6</i> were only supported for Study One. <i>H10</i> suggested different effects between Study One and Study Two in only <i>H1</i> . <i>H4</i> remained untested because compulsiveness was not identified in quantitative analysis.

As can be seen in Table 6.1, the research objectives are reaffirmed and a summary of the research outcomes is presented.

6.2. Hypothesised relationships

Two main studies were implemented to test the hypothesised relationships in the research model. Study One took introduced an all-inclusive vacation package with *pre-arranged indulgences*, whereas Study Two incorporated a flexible vacation package with *optional indulgences*. For both Study One and Study Two, *H2*, *H3a*, *H5*, *H8* and *H9* were supported. However, no chi-square differences for these hypothesised relationships existed between the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages, which did not support *H10*.

Avoiding negative anticipated emotion produced a significant positive effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation for both Study One and Study Two, supporting *H2* and tourism and leisure studies (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Kim, Njite and Hancer 2013; Song et al. 2012). It is likely that the fear of missing out (FoMO) (Herman 2010) on both pre-arranged and optional indulgences, and the anticipation of negative emotions from this potential loss, drove respondents' goal to avoid these negative emotions (Przybylski et al. 2013).

Impulsiveness was a significant positive predictor of desire to take an indulgent vacation for both Study One and Study Two, corroborating *H3a* as well as consumer behaviour and tourism literature (e.g. e.g. Chatman 1991; Kalla and Arora 2011). Regardless whether the vacation package had pre-arranged or optional indulgences, respondents appeared to adopt present-time orientation (Davies and Omer 1996) and act in the 'now' (Passini 2013). This pursuit for immediate rewards was emotionally heightened Wood (1998), given the limited time that respondents had to spoil themselves with travel indulgences that they would not experience at home (Caruana and Crane 2011).

Attitude toward taking an indulgent vacation had a significant positive effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation for both Study One and Study Two, reiterating *H5* as well as consumer behaviour and tourism research (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006). The result is explained by the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Conner 2000). In this instance, respondents' attitude toward achieving personal goals, such as enjoying both pre-arranged and optional travel indulgences, drove their desire to take an indulgent vacation.

Perceived behavioural control instigated a significant positive effect on intention to take an indulgent vacation for both Study One and Study Two, supporting *H8* as well as consumer behaviour and tourism studies (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006). It is likely that self-efficacy theory which takes into account self-perceived control over resources, such as time, money and skills, is in play here (Bandura 2010). In this context, increased levels of self-perceived control in making decisions (Quintal, Thomas and Phau 2015) about both pre-arranged and optional indulgences gave respondents higher intention to indulge while on vacation.

Desire to take an indulgent vacation was a significant positive antecedent of intention to take an indulgent vacation for both Study One and Study Two, corroborating *H9* as well as consumer psychology and tourism literature (e.g. Carrus and Passafaro Bonnes 2007; Han and Yoon 2015; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006). In doing so, respondents appeared to adopt goal-directed behaviour (Perugini and Conner 2000) since their desire to achieve personal goals, such as enjoying both pre-arranged and optional travel indulgences, drove their intention to take an indulgent vacation.

For both Study One and Study Two, *H1* and *H7* were not supported. Positive anticipated emotion did not impact on desire to take an indulgent vacation. The result for *H11* is somewhat

unexpected and veers away from consumer behaviour research (e.g. Hunter 2006; Taylor, Hunter and Longfellow 2006). Evidently, hedonism's escapism (Nowell-Smith and Lemmon 1960), narcissistic (Freud 1914) preoccupation with fantasies of success (Naderi and Paswan 2016, 377) and self-gratification (Clarke and Mortimer 2013; Passini 2013) are not conspicuous here. Interestingly, rather than focus on pursuing the experience of positive emotions, respondents appeared to be more intent on preventing the experience of negative emotions when deciding on an indulgent vacation. Moreover, a chi-square difference for this hypothesised relationship existed between the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages, supporting *H10*. In this instance, respondents were more inclined to demonstrate positive anticipated emotion for the all-inclusive vacation package which enabled them to anticipate its *pre-arranged indulgences*.

The finding for *H7* is not entirely unexpected. Perceived behavioural control did not impact on desire to take an indulgent vacation. Some consumer psychology and tourism studies have also reported that perceived behavioural control does not play a significant role in affecting desire (e.g. Kim et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2012; Song et al. 2012, 2014). Instead, perceived behavioural control appears to act directly on intention, a finding which is observed in both Study One and Study Two and discussed earlier.

For Study One, *H3b* and *H6* were supported but not for Study Two. Planned impulsiveness was a significant positive predictor of desire to take an indulgent vacation for Study One, reiterating *H3b* as well as consumer behaviour and tourism literature (e.g. Adelaar 2003; Han et al. 1991; Laesser and Dolnicar 2012). Given that Study One's context focused on *pre-arranged indulgences*, whereas Study Two focused on *optional indulgences*, the significant impact of planned impulsiveness in Study One's pre-arranged context is plausible.

Subjective norms had a significant positive effect on desire to take an indulgent vacation for Study One, supporting *H6* as well as consumer psychology and tourism research (e.g. Han and Yoon 2015; Lee et al. 2012; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001). This is also explained by social identity theory which argues that an individual's sense of who they are is based on their membership and standing in social groups (Tajfel, 1979; Trepte, 2006). Since decisions about an all-inclusive vacation package with *pre-arranged indulgences* are likely to take place in advance and at home, respondents would be more inclined to consult social groups for their advice and approval.

6.3. Contributions

6.3.1. Theoretical contributions

The current study's adoption of the pragmatist paradigm and its integrative qualitative and quantitative methods makes an overall theoretical contribution to business research. Until now, the pragmatist paradigm has been embraced by management, education and sociology disciplines but remains somewhat new to the business discipline (Creswell 2014). Consequently, the study pushes the boundaries of the pragmatist paradigm to the frontiers of tourism marketing.

The study's first research objective set out to clarify understanding of the hedonism and bingeing constructs from the multi-disciplinary literature. This paved the path for the study's second research objective which was to establish conceptual and operational definitions of hedonic bingeing in a decision-making tourism context. As a result of the qualitative research, five dimensions representing hedonic bingeing were identified and underpinned by theory.

Hedonism's two dimensions, namely, positive anticipated emotion and avoiding negative anticipated emotion were conceptualised with four underpinning theories from the model of

goal-directed behaviour (MGB) (Perugini and Bagozzi 2001; Perugini and Conner 2000), narcissism theory (Freud 1914), escapism theory (Nowell-Smith and Lemmon 1960) and fear of missing out (FoMO) (Herman 2010). These theories helped to operationalise emotion as an affective process, addressing the first research gap identified in the research area, and theoretically contributing to the hedonism literature in the tourism context.

Binging's three dimensions, namely, impulsiveness, planned impulsiveness and compulsiveness were conceptualised with four underpinning theories from present-time orientation (Davies and Omer 1996), gratification theory (Maslow 1948), obsessive compulsive disorder (Freud 1909) and neuroticism (Goldberg 1992). These theories helped to operationalise the impulsive, planned impulsive and compulsive aspects of binging on the impulsive-compulsive continuum, responding to the third research gap highlighted in the research area, and theoretically building on the binging literature in the context of tourism.

The study's third research objective was to introduce hedonic binging into the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB) to explain tourists' desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. The acceptable goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2/df \leq 3.0$, $RMSEA \leq 0.08$, $GFI \geq 0.90$, $CFI \geq 0.90$, $NFI \geq 0.90$) and the high R^2 s, which respectively explained desire (0.45; 0.59) and intention (0.42; 0.67) for Study One and Study Two, suggested that hedonic binging's integration into the MGB was successful. This addressed the second and fourth research gaps identified in the research area, and theoretically extends the hedonic binging literature by offering a decision-making framework that may be applied in the tourism context.

6.3.2. Managerial contributions

The decision-making framework proposed in the current study has potential to help practitioners in luxury tourism establishments to understand and identify key drivers of desire

and intention. Clearly, avoiding negative anticipated emotion, impulsiveness and attitude are indicators of desire to engage in indulgent travel consumption. This suggests that it is imperative for managers and marketers to assure potential tourists that they need not anticipate emotions of fear in missing out and regret in making impulsive decisions that could result in loss. The provision of timely, relevant and credible information can help to reduce negative anticipation and instead, enhance positive anticipation (Laesser and Dolnicar 2012; Quintal, Lee and Soutar 2010). When utilising online information sources and social media platforms, such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and Pinterest as online information sources, priority should be given to the usability and quality of such sites (Bai, Law Wen 2008; Quintal and Phau 2016). For example, Star Wood Hotels and Resorts which oversee W Hotels, use Facebook and Twitter to respond to guests' complaints (Entrepreneur 2017). This ensures complaints are addressed in a public forum and demonstrates the hotel chain's commitment to resolve potential negative experiences. Further, W Hotels Worldwide's Instagram account (www.instagram.com/whotels/) promotes itself through high quality, luxurious vacation-style photographs and event information (Social media delivered 2015). Its social media following of over 229,000 members (Social media delivered 2015) taps into the positive anticipated emotions of guests who feel validated by their membership in this large online community.

The decision-making framework enables practitioners to identify segments of tourists who sit on the impulsive-compulsive continuum. These could include the *'Naughty and Nice' Planned Impulsive*; the *'Naughty but Nice' Impulsive* or the *'Dark and Destructive' Compulsive* tourist segments. In addressing the *Naughty but Nice' Impulsive* segment, luxury resorts would need to introduce products/services which gratify immediate needs. For instance, Four Seasons Hualalai, a luxury resort located in Hawaii, provides exclusive promotional offers on their accommodation, dining menus and spa packages during the off-peak season to attract guests to make spontaneous bookings of their facilities, services and treatments (Four Seasons 2017).

This gives such luxury resorts opportunity to showcase their premium offerings and guests to sample them *in situ*. These spontaneous positive encounters stimulate desire to further indulge in such premium offerings, resulting in extended vacation stays and increased patronage. In addressing the '*Naughty and Nice*' *Planned Impulsive* segment, luxury resorts would do well to develop unique all-inclusive vacation packages which promise stress-free execution. For instance, Constance Moofushi, a luxury resort located in Maldives, promotes its all-inclusive packages with the slogan, "Where everything is taken care of..." (Constance Hotels and Resorts 2017). Such packages help to allay any negative anticipation of fear in missing out or regret in participating; instead, instigating positive anticipation of pleasure and peace-of-mind.

It is also evident that perceived behavioural control and desire are indicators of intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. Luxury tourism operators would be best served by identifying and targeting segments of the population who possess self-perceived control over resources, such as time, money and skills. For instance, LuxuryEscapes, a luxury tourism operator, extends exclusive short-term offers which have been personally reviewed and approved by an expert travel team (www.luxuryescapes.com/). By using demographic and lifestyle segmentation to identify their niche market, such luxury tourism operators will be able to craft communication programs that cater to segments with the inclination, discretionary funds and competence to engage in luxury travel consumption.

In developing the niche market of indulgent travel consumption, the tourism industry should be mindful about the sustainability of local environments and communities (Robertson 2017) in supporting demands for hedonic binging. Therefore, it is imperative that the industry moves to establish public policy that champions responsible tourism. Some practitioners have already put into place environmentally-conscious practices. For instance, luxury tour operator, Six Senses (www.sixsenses.com/) contributes to sustainability in its spas, hotels and resorts by

using a portion of their profits to support the local community and execute environmentally-friendly initiatives such as bottling water onsite and operating a turtle sanctuary (Fitzsimmons 2017). Six Senses promotes its ingenuity through social media and through offering sustainability tours in each of its hotels and resorts for curious guests (Shankman 2017). However, there is dire need for tourism's public and private sectors to come together to establish a common policy that communicates responsible tourism for sustainability.

6.4. Limitations and future directions

6.4.1. Limitations

There are three key limitations identified in the current study. Each limitation is reviewed and the opportunity for future research is discussed. This is followed by other recommendations for the research area in going forward.

First, the current study is limited by its sampling frame. The two main studies comprising 583 respondents drew mainly from an Australian sample. The sample size was relatively small and limited generalisability to the Australian population. However, since the research was exploratory in operationalising hedonic bingeing in the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB), the two main studies achieved their purpose. In subsequent studies, it is of importance to increase the sample size and broaden the sampling frame in Australia to verify that the decision-making framework is applicable to the Australian indulgence-seeking market. Further, replicating the study in other developed countries would validate the framework and its applicability to a global indulgence-seeking market.

A second limitation is the research focus on luxury hotels/resorts with two transformational advertising stimuli, namely, the all-inclusive and optional luxury vacation packages. This constrained the research context to hotels/resorts with only two offerings. However, since the

research set out to explore the impulsive and planned impulsive aspects of bingeing, its focus addressed its aim. Future studies would do well to introduce different tourism and leisure contexts where hedonic bingeing may exist, namely, personalised designer tours (Bakker 2005), luxury cruises, premium health and wellness programs, casinos and medical tourism.

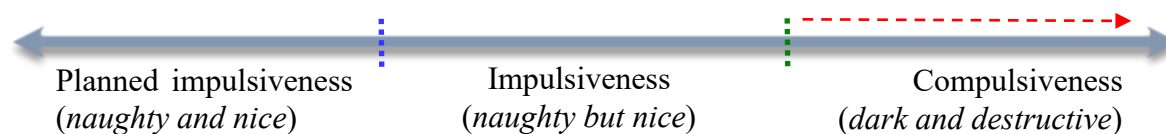
Third, the hedonic bingeing construct is limited operationally as it has not undergone scale development procedures as suggested by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (2003). This suggests that the 15 scale items which tap into hedonic bingeing require further testing for their psychometric properties. Although the research was exploratory in nature, its next phase will necessitate developing such a scale. It is intended that the newly-developed hedonic bingeing scale be empirically tested for its applicability across various goal-directed hedonic behaviours associated with health, social and financial risks. Such behaviours include binge eating, binge drinking, binge viewing, binge shopping and binge gaming.

6.4.2. *Future directions*

In the current study, the tenet of avoiding negative anticipated emotion in hedonistic goal-directed behaviour was validated, whereas the tenet of pursuing positive anticipated emotion in hedonistic goal-directed was not validated. It could be that the high costs incurred in purchasing either an all-inclusive or optional luxury vacation package raises more concerns for avoiding a potential loss, and the anticipated negative emotions associated with such a loss. A study conducted by Carrus, Passafaro and Bonnes (2007) appears to support this, with significant impact on desire observed for negative anticipated emotion but not for positive anticipated emotion. Further studies may find it opportune to examine the premise that in luxury contexts which dictate higher financial costs and potential loss, the strength of the avoiding negative anticipated emotion-desire relationship might significantly over-ride the positive anticipated emotion-desire relationship.

Impulsiveness and planned impulsiveness played a significant role in the indulgent travel context of the study. Clearly, both ‘naughty but nice’ impulsiveness as well as ‘naughty and nice’ planned impulsiveness appear to be perceived as “normatively neutral, or even positively sanctioned behaviour” (Rook and Fisher 1995, 305). This suggests that the impulsive and planned impulsive aspects of bingeing have a place on the impulsive-compulsive continuum as can be seen in Figure 6.1. However, the ‘dark and destructive’ compulsive aspect of hedonic bingeing was screened out during exploratory factor analysis in the initial stages of the research, and did not manifest in this context. Consequently, this did not afford the opportunity to examine hedonic bingeing across the full extent of the impulsive-compulsive continuum as indicated by the dotted red line in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Impulsive-compulsive continuum - final



Adapted from the continuum of compulsive behaviour theory (D’Astous 1990)

It is likely that the compulsive aspect of bingeing may manifest in other leisure behavioural contexts which are more addictive and hold greater risk, such as binge viewing (e.g. Jenner 2016), binge shopping (e.g. Chen and Lin 2013) and online gaming (e.g. Van Rooij et al. 2010). Future studies across such contexts will be required to verify where the compulsive aspect of bingeing is placed on the impulsive-compulsive continuum.

In moving forward, it is also imperative to consider other factors, not identified in the current study, which impact on tourists’ desire and intention to engage in indulgent travel consumption. Clearly, one such factor is guilt which is associated with impulsive-compulsive luxury purchasing behaviour (Jeong et al. 2015). Whether guilt forms part of the subset for negative

anticipated emotions that tap into hedonism or whether guilt is a post-dissonance emotional experience after the purchasing behavior needs consideration in future MGB-related studies.

6.5. Final summary

This chapter discusses significant findings for *H2*, *H3a*, *H5*, *H8* and *H9* (Study One and Study Two) and *H3b* and *H6* (Study One) from the perspective of relevant underpinning theory and studies in the research area. The current study extends theory by conceptualising and operationalising a four-dimensional hedonic binging construct in the context of tourism. The successful introduction of hedonic binging to the model of goal-directed behaviour (MGB), and its applicability as a decision-making framework, makes a theoretical contribution to the hedonic binging literature related to tourism. The findings make managerial contributions in highlighting key drivers of desire and intention as well as suggesting niche market segments of indulgence-seeking tourists on the impulsive-compulsive continuum. This paves the way for implementing relevant positioning, communication and product development to gratify both spontaneous and enduring hedonic needs.

References

- Adelaar, Thomas, Susan Chang, Karen M. Lancendorfer, Byoungkwan Lee, and Mariko Morimoto. 2003. "Effects of media formats on emotions and impulse buying intent." *Journal of Information Technology* 18 (4): 247-266.
- Ajzen, Icek, and Martin Fishbein. 1969. "The prediction of behavioral intentions in a choice situation." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 5 (4): 400-416.
- Ajzen, Icek, Martin Fishbein 1977. "Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research." *Psychological bulletin* 84: 888-91A
Ajzen, Icek. 1991. "The theory of planned behavior." *Organizational behavior and human decision processes* 50 (2): 179-211.
- Ajzen, Icek. 2002 "Constructing a TPB questionnaire: Conceptual and methodological considerations." 2013.
- Alessi, Edward J., and James I. Martin. 2010. "Conducting an internet-based survey: Benefits, pitfalls, and lessons learned." *Social Work Research* 34 (2): 122-128.
- Alt, Dorit. 2015. "College students' academic motivation, media engagement and fear of missing out." *Computers in Human Behavior* 49: 111-119.
- American Psychiatric Association. 1994. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders. American Psychiatric Association. *Washington, DC*.
- Anderson, G., and R. I. F. Brown. 1987. "Some applications of reversal theory to the explanation of gambling and gambling addictions." *Journal of Gambling Studies* 3 (3): 179-189.
- Apter, Michael J. 1982 "Fawlty Towers: A reversal theory analysis of a popular television comedy series." *The Journal of Popular Culture* 16 (3): 128-138.
- Armitage, Christopher J., and Mark Conner. 2001. "Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review." *British Journal of Social Psychology* 40 (4): 471-499.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. 2016. Population by Age and Sex, Regions of Australia. Cat. No. 3235.0. Canberra, A.C.T.: ABS.
<http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/0/151AA7593B394934CA2573210018DA4A?Opendocument>
- Bagozzi, Richard P., and Rik Pieters. 1998. "Goal-directed emotions." *Cognition & Emotion* 12 (1): 1-26.
- Bagozzi, Richard P., and Todd F. Heatherton. 1994. "A general approach to representing multifaceted personality constructs: Application to state self-esteem." *Structural Equation Modelling* 1 (1): 35-67.

- Bagozzi, Richard P., Hans Baumgartner, and Youjae Yi. 1992. "State versus action orientation and the theory of reasoned action: An application to coupon usage." *Journal of Consumer Research* 18 (4): 505-518.
- Bagozzi, Richard P., Nancy Wong, Shuzo Abe, and Massimo Bergami. 2000. "Cultural and situational contingencies and the theory of reasoned action: Application to fast food restaurant consumption." *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 9 (2): 97-106.
- Bagozzi, Richard P., Utpal M. Dholakia, and Suman Basuroy. 2003. "How effortful decisions get enacted: The motivating role of decision processes, desires, and anticipated emotions." *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making* 16 (4): 273-295.
- Bai, Billy, Rob Law, and Ivan Wen. 2008. "The impact of website quality on customer satisfaction and purchase intentions: Evidence from Chinese online visitors." *International journal of hospitality management* 27 (3): 391-402.
- Bakker, Martine. 2005. "Luxury and tailor-made holidays." *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 20: 1-47.
- Bandura, Albert. 2010. Self-efficacy Corsini Encyclopedia of Psychology. *New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.*
- Baumgartner, Hans, and Christian Homburg. 1996. "Applications of structural equation modeling in marketing and consumer research: A review." *International journal of Research in Marketing* 13 (2): 139-161.
- Bay, Darlene, and Harold Daniel. 2003. "The theory of trying and goal-directed behavior: The effect of moving up the hierarchy of goals." *Psychology & Marketing* 20 (8): 669-684.
- Beatty, Sharon E., and M. Elizabeth Ferrell. 1998. "Impulse buying: modeling its precursors." *Journal of Retailing* 74 (2): 169-91.
- Bigne, Enrique J., Isabel Sanchez, and Luisa Andreu. 2009. "The role of variety seeking in short and long run revisit intentions in holiday destinations." *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research* 3 (2): 103-115.
- Brencic, Maja Makovec, and Aviv Shoham. 2003. "Compulsive buying behavior." *The Journal of Consumer Marketing* 20 (2): 127-138.
- Buckley, Ralf, and Alexa C. Mossaz. 2016. "Decision making by specialist luxury travel agents." *Tourism Management* 55: 133-138.
- Business Queensland. 2016. Surveys, focus groups and interviews. Queensland Government. Accessed June 27, <https://www.business.qld.gov.au/starting-business/planning/market-customer-research/researching-customers/surveys-focus-groups>
- Campbell, Colin. 1994. "Consuming goods and the good of consuming." *Critical Review* 8 (4): 503-520.

- Campbell, Richmond. 1972. "Pleasure and Desire: The case for hedonism reviewed." 116-119.
- Carrus, Giuseppe, Paola Passafaro, and Mirilia Bonnes. 2008. "Emotions, habits and rational choices in ecological behaviours: The case of recycling and use of public transportation." *Journal of environmental psychology* 28 (1): 51-62.
- Caruana, Robert, and Andrew Crane. 2011. "Getting away from it all: Exploring freedom in tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 38 (4): 1495-1515.
- Cavaliere, Christina T., James ES. Higham, and Scott A. Cohen. 2011. "Binge flying: behavioural addiction and climate change." *Annals of Tourism Research* 38 (3): 1070-1089.
- Chang, Jui-Chi. 2014. "Selling strategies and shopping behavior—an example of Taiwanese guided package tourists to mainland China destinations." *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism* 15 (2): 190-212.
- Chapman, Loren J., Jean P. Chapman, and Michael L. Raulin. 1976. "Scales for physical and social anhedonia." *Journal of abnormal psychology* 85 (4): 374.
- Chatman, Elfreda A. 1991. "Life in a small world: Applicability of gratification theory to information-seeking behavior." *Journal of the American Society for information science* 42 (6): 438.
- Chaudhry, Peggy E., and Stephen A. Stumpf. 2011. "Consumer complicity with counterfeit products" *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 28 (2) 139-151.
- Chen, Ching-Fu, and Yi-Hsin Lin. 2013. "Passengers' shopping motivations and commercial activities at airports—the moderating effects of time pressure and impulse buying tendency." *Tourism Management* 36: 426-434
- Chung, Namho, Hyo Geun Song, and Chulmo Koo. 2014. "A Theoretical Model of Impulsive Buying Behaviour in Tourism Social Commerce."
- Churchill, Gilbert A., Tom J. Brown, and Tracy A. 2010. Basic marketing research. 7th ed. South-Western, Mason, Ohio.
- Churchill, Gilbert A. 1979. "A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs." *Journal of marketing research*: 64-73.
- Churchill, Sue, Donna Jessop, and Paul Sparks. 2008. "Impulsive and/or planned behaviour: Can impulsivity contribute to the predictive utility of the theory of planned behaviour?" *British Journal of Social Psychology* 47 (4): 631-646.
- Clark, Marilyn, and Kirsten Calleja. 2008. "Shopping addiction: A preliminary investigation among Maltese university students." *Addiction Research & Theory* 16 (6): 633-649.
- Clarke, Jackie. 2013. "Experiential aspects of tourism gift consumption." *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 19: 75-87.

- Clarke, Peter David, and Gary Mortimer. 2013. "Self-gifting guilt: an examination of self-gifting motivations and post-purchase regret." *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 30 (6): 472-483.
- Clausing, Jeri. 2015. Young travellers are an emerging force in luxury spending. Accessed January 20 <http://www.travelweekly.com/ConsumerSurvey2015/Younger-travelers-an-emerging-force-in-luxury-spending>
- Constance Hotels and Resorts. 2017. Constance Hotels and Resorts: Constance Moofushi Maldives. Accessed July 1 <https://www.constancehotels.com/en/hotels-resorts/maldives/moofushi/>
- Creswell, John W. 2014. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, C.A. Sage.
- Creswell, John W. 2014. *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Sage Publications.
- D'Astous, Alain. 1990. "An inquiry into the compulsive side of normal consumers." *Journal of Consumer Policy* 13: 15-30.
- Dabholkar, Pratibha A., Dayle I. Thorpe, and Joseph O. Rentz. 1996. "A measure of service quality for stores." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 24 (2): 3-16.
- Davies, Gary, and Omer Omer. 1996. "Time allocation and marketing." *Time & Society* 5: 253–268.
- Deci, Edward L., and Richard Ryan. 2001. "On happiness and human potentials: A review on research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being." *Annual Review of Psychology* 52: 141-166.
- DeVellis, Robert F. 2003. *Scale development*. Thousand Oaks, C.A. Sage.
- Dholakia, Utpal M., Richard P. Bagozzi, and Lisa Klein Pearo. 2004. "A social influence model of consumer participation in network-and small-group-based virtual communities." *International journal of research in marketing* 21(3): 241-263.
- Dittmar, Helga. 2007. "The costs of consumer culture and the 'cage within': The impact of the material 'good life' and 'body perfect' ideals on individuals' identity and well-being." *Psychological Inquiry* 18 (1): 23–31.
- Dominquez-Alvarez, Juan Antonio, and Vidal Diaz de Rada. 2014. "Response quality of self-administered questionnaires: A comparison between paper and web questionnaires." *Social Science Computer Review* 32 (2): 256-269.
- Eagly, Alice H., and Shelly Chaiken. 1993. *The psychology of attitudes*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- Edwards, Elizabeth A. 1993. "Development of a new scale for measuring compulsive buying behavior." *Financial counseling and planning* 4 (1): 67-84.

- Entrepreneur. 2017. Hotels That Rock at Social Media. Accessed August 5 <https://www.entrepreneur.com/article/220645>
- Evans, Andrew. 2001. *This virtual life: escapism and simulation in our media world*. Fusion Press.
- Faber, Ronald J., and Thomas C. O'Guinn. 1992. "A clinical screener for compulsive buying." *Journal of consumer Research* 19 (3). 459-469.
- Faber, Ronald J., Gary A. Christenson, Martina De Zwaan, and James Mitchell. 1995. "Two forms of compulsive consumption: Comorbidity of compulsive buying and binge eating." *Journal of Consumer research* 22 (3): 296-304.
- Fan, Weimiao, and Zheng Yan. 2010. "Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review." *Computers in human behavior* 26 (2): 132-139.
- Ferriter, Caitlin, and Lara Ray. 2011. "Binge eating and binge drinking: An integrative review." *Eating Behaviors* 12: 99-107.
- Fesenmaier, Daniel R., and Iis P. Tussyadiah. 2009. "Mediating tourist experiences: Access to places via shared videos." *Annals of Tourism Research* 36 (1): 24-40.
- Finfgeld, Deborah L., Suporn Wongvatunyu, Vicki S. Conn, Victoria T. Grando, and Cynthia L. Russell. 2003. "Health belief model and reversal theory: A comparative analysis." *Journal of advanced nursing* 43 (3): 288-297.
- Fiore, Anne Marie, Jihye Park and Kun Song. 2007. "Telepresence and fantasy in online apparel shopping experience." *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management* 11 (4): 553-570.
- Fishbein, Martin, and Icek Ajzen. 1975. *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. M.A. Addison-Wesley.
- Fishbein, Martin. 1967. "Attitude and the prediction of behavior." *Readings in attitude theory and measurement* 477-492.
- Fitzsimmons, Annie. 2017. Sustainable luxe: 5 hotels doing it right. Accessed October 27 <https://www.nationalgeographic.com/travel/top-10/five-luxury-hotels-sustainable-ecotourism/>
- Flight, Richard L., Melissa Markley Rountree, and Sharon E. Beatty. 2012. "Feeling the urge: Affect in impulsive and compulsive buying." *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice* 20 (4): 453-466.
- Fornell, Claes, and David F. Larcker. 1981. "Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics." *Journal of Marketing Research* 18 (3): 382- 388.
- Four Seasons Hualalai. 2017. Accessed August 8 <http://www.fourseasons.com/hualalai/>

- French, David P., and Matthew Hankins. 2003. "The expectancy-value muddle in the theory of planned behaviour-and some proposed solutions." *British Journal of Health Psychology* 8 (1): 37-55.
- Freud, Sigmund. 1909. "Notes upon a case of obsessional neurosis." *Standard edition* 10, (151): 320.
- Freud, Sigmund. 2014. "On narcissism." 30.
- Garver, Michael S., and John T. Mentzer. 1999. "Logistics research methods: employing structural equation modelling to test for construct validity." *Journal of Business Logistics* 20 (1): 33-57.
- Gatfield, Terry, and Ching-huei Chen. 2006. "Measuring student choice criteria using the theory of planned behaviour: The case of Taiwan, Australia, UK, and USA." *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education* 16 (1): 77-95.
- Goh, Edmund, Brent Ritchie, and Jie Wang. 2017. "Non-compliance in national parks: An extension of the theory of planned behaviour model with pro-environmental values." *Tourism Management* 59: 123-127.
- Goh, Edmund. 2011. "Predicting parental intentions behind public school selection using the theory of planned behaviour." *International Review of Public Nonprofit Marketing* 8 (2): 97-110.
- Gohary, Ali, and Kambiz Heidarzadeh Hanzaee. 2014. "Personality traits as predictors of shopping motivations and behaviors: a canonical correlation analysis." *Arab Economic and Business Journal* 9 (2): 166-174.
- Gold, Mark S., Kimberly Frost-Pineda, and William S. Jacobs. 2003. "Overeating, binge eating, and eating disorders as addictions." *Psychiatric Annals* 33 (2): 117-22.
- Goldberg, Lewis R. 1992. "The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure." *Psychological assessment* 4 (1): 26.
- Grant, Jon E., Liana RN Schreiber, and Brian L. Odlaug. 2013. "Phenomenology and treatment of behavioural addictions." *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry* 58 (5): 252.
- Grappi, Silvia, and Fabrizio Montanari. 2011. "The role of social identification and hedonism in affecting tourist re-patronizing behaviours: The case of an Italian festival." *Tourism Management* 32 (5): 1128-1140.
- Grinstein, Amir, Ann Kronrod, and Luc Wathieu. 2012. "Enjoy! Hedonic consumption and compliance with assertive messages." *Journal of Consumer Research* 39 (1): 51-61.
- Hair, Joseph F, William C. Black, Barry J. Babin, and Rolph E. Anderson. 2010. *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective*. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

- Han, Heesup, and Hae Jin Yoon. 2015. "Hotel customers' environmentally responsible behavioral intention: Impact of key constructs on decision in green consumerism." *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 45: 22-33.
- Han, Yu K., George A. Morgan, Antigone Kotsiopulos, and Jikyeong Kang-Park. 1991 "Impulse buying behavior of apparel purchasers." *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal* 9 (3): 15-21.
- Harmancioglu, Nukhet, R. Zachary Finney, and Mathew Joseph. 2009. "Impulse purchases of new products: an empirical analysis." *Journal of Product & Brand Management* 18 (1): 27-37.
- Harsh, Anurag. 2017. Is Social Media Binging the New Junk Food? Huffington Post. Accessed August 1 http://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/is-social-media-binging-the-new-junk-food_us_5988c60de4b0f25bdfb31ed9
- Hausman, Angela. 2000. "A multi-method investigation of consumer motivations in impulse buying behavior." *Journal of consumer marketing* 17 (5): 403-426.
- Herabadi, Astrid G., Bas Verplanken, and Ad Van Knippenberg. 2009. "Consumption experience of impulse buying in Indonesia: Emotional arousal and hedonistic considerations." *Asian Journal of Social Psychology* 12 (1): 20-31.
- Herman, Dan. 2010. The Fear of Missing Out (FOMO). Accessed July 1 [http://www.danherman.com/The-Fear-of-Missing-Out-\(FOMO\)-by-Dan-Herman.html](http://www.danherman.com/The-Fear-of-Missing-Out-(FOMO)-by-Dan-Herman.html)
- Hirschman, Elizabeth C., and Morris B. Holbrook. 1982a. "Hedonic Consumption: Emerging Concepts, Methods and Propositions." *Journal of Marketing* 46: 92-101.
- Hirschman, Elizabeth C., and Morris B. Holbrook. 1982b. "The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun." *Journal of Consumer Research* 9 (2): 132-140.
- Holmbeck, Grayson N. 1997. "Toward terminological, conceptual, and statistical clarity in the study of mediators and moderators: examples from the child-clinical and pediatric psychology literatures." *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 65 (4): 599-610.
- Hopkinson, Gillian, and Davashish Pujari. 1999. "A factor analytic study of the sources of meaning in hedonic consumption." *European Journal of Marketing* 33 (3/4): 273-294.
- Horváth, Csilla, and Marcel van Birgelen. 2015. "The role of brands in the behavior and purchase decisions of compulsive versus noncompulsive buyers." *European Journal of Marketing* 49 (1/2): 2-21.
- Hsu, Cathy HC, and Songshan Huang. 2012. "An extension of the theory of planned behavior model for tourists." *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 36 (3): 390-417.

- Hudson, Laurel Anderson, and Julie L. Ozanne. (1988). "Alternative ways of seeking knowledge in consumer research." *Journal of Consumer Research* 14 (4): 508-521.
- Huisman, Sipke, and Shalom H. Schwartz. 1995. "Value priorities and religiosity in four western religions." *Social Psychology Quarterly* 58 (2): 88-107.
- Hunter, Gary L. 2006 "The role of anticipated emotion, desire, and intention in the relationship between image and shopping center visits." *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management* 34 (10): 709-721.
- Id community. 2016. Australia Community profile: Five year age groups. <http://profile.id.com.au/australia/five-year-age-groups?BMID=50>
- Instagram 2017. whotels. Accessed August 1 <https://www.instagram.com/whotels/?hl=en>
- ITB Berlin. 2015. Strong growth for luxury travel. http://www.itb-berlin.de/de/Presse/Pressemitteilungen/News_10245.html
- Jenner, Mareike. 2016. "Is this TVIV? On Netflix, TVIII and binge-watching." *new media & society* 18 (2): 257-273.
- Jeong, Hyo-Jin, Hyo-Jin Jeong, Dong-Mo Koo, and Dong-Mo Koo. 2015. "Volunteering as a mechanism to reduce guilt over purchasing luxury items." *Journal of Product & Brand Management* 24 (7): 758-769.
- Johnson, Tricia, and Julianne Attmann. 2009. "Compulsive buying in a product specific context: clothing." *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal* 13 (3): 394-405.
- Johnson, William G., and David G. Schlundt. 1990. *Eating Disorders: Assessment and Treatment*. Needham Heights, M.A. US: Allyn & Bacon.
- Jones, Michael A., Kristy E. Reynolds, and Mark J. Arnold. 2006 "Hedonic and utilitarian shopping value: Investigating differential effects on retail outcomes." *Journal of Business Research* 59 (9): 974-981.
- Joo Park, Eun, Eun Young Kim, and Judith Cardona Forney. 2006. "A structural model of fashion-oriented impulse buying behavior." *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal* 10 (4): 433-446.
- Jöreskog, Karl G., and Dag Sörbom. 1996. "PRELIS 2 user's reference guide: A program for multivariate data screening and data summarization: A preprocessor for LISREL." *Scientific Software International*.
- Jöreskog, Karl G. 1970. "A general model for estimating a linear structural equation system." In, Goldberger, A. S., Duncan, O. D. (Eds.), *Structural Equation Models in the Social Sciences*, Seminar Press: New York.
- Kalla, Supriya M., and A. P. Arora. 2011. "Impulse buying: A literature review." *Global Business Review* 12 (1): 145-157.

- Kashdan, Todd B., Robert Biswas-Diener, and Laura A. King. 2008. "Reconsidering happiness: The costs of distinguishing between hedonics and eudaimonia." *The Journal of Positive Psychology* 3 (4): 219-233.
- Kellett, Stephen, and Jessica V. Bolton. 2009. "Compulsive Buying: A Cognitive-Behavioural Model." *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy* 16 (2): 83-99.
- Kilbourne, J. 2006. "Jesus is a brand of jeans: How advertising affects the way we think and feel." *New Internationalist* 393: 10-12.
- Kim, Myung-Ja, Myong Jae Lee, Choong-Ki Lee, and Hak-Jun Song. 2012 "Does gender affect Korean tourists' overseas travel? Applying the model of goal-directed behavior." *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research* 17 (5): 509-533.
- Kim, Yong Joong, David Njite, and Murat Hancer. 2013. "Anticipated emotion in consumers' intentions to select eco-friendly restaurants: Augmenting the theory of planned behavior." *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 34: 255-262.
- Kollat, David T., and Ronald P. Willett. 1969. "Is impulse purchasing really a useful concept for marketing decisions?." *The Journal of Marketing* 79-83.
- Konrath, Sara, and David J. Moore. 2015. "I can almost taste it": why people with strong positive emotions experience higher levels of food craving, salivation and eating intentions." *Journal of Consumer Psychology* 1 (25): 42-59.
- Koob, George F. 1996. "Drug addiction: the yin and yang of hedonic homeostasis." *Neuron* 16 (5): 893-896.
- Kuikka, Anna, and Tommi Laukkanen. 2012. "Brand loyalty and the role of hedonic value." *Journal of Product & Brand Management* 21 (7): 529-537.
- Kwak, Hyokjin, George M. Zinkhan, and Elizabeth P. Lester Roushanzamir. 2004. "Compulsive comorbidity and its psychological antecedents: a cross-cultural comparison between the US and South Korea." *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 21 (5): 418-434.
- Labrecque, Lauren I., Anjala S. Krishen, and Stephan Grzeskowiak. 2011. "Exploring social motivations for brand loyalty: Conformity versus escapism." *The Journal of Brand Management* 18 (7): 457-472.
- Laesser, Christian, and Sara Dolnicar. 2012. "Impulse purchasing in tourism—learnings from a study in a matured market." *Anatolia* 23 (2): 268-286.
- Laros, Fleur J.M., and Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp. 2005. "Emotions in consumer behavior: A hierarchical approach." *Journal of Business Research* 58: 1437-1445.
- Lee, Choong-Ki, Hak-Jun Song, Lawrence J. Bendle, Myung-Ja Kim, and Heesup Han. 2012. "The impact of non-pharmaceutical interventions for 2009 H1N1 influenza on travel intentions: A model of goal-directed behavior." *Tourism Management* 33 (1): 89-99.

- Leone, Luigi, Marco Perugini, and Anna Paola Ercolani. 2004. "Studying, practicing, and mastering: A test of the model of goal-directed behavior (MGB) in the software learning domain." *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 34 (9): 1945–1973.
- Lings, Ian N., and Gordon E. Greenley. 2005. "Measuring internal market orientation." *Journal of Service Research* 7(3): 290-305.
- Loewenstein, George, and Jennifer S. Lerner. 2003. "The role of affect in decision making." *Handbook of affective science* 619 (642): 3.
- MacKinnon, David P., Chondra M. Lockwood, Jeanne M. Hoffman, Stephen G. West, and Virgil Sheets. 2002. "A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects." *Psychological methods* 7(1): 83-104.
- Madden, Thomas J., Pamela Scholder Ellen, and Icek Ajzen. 1992. "A comparison of the theory of planned behavior and the theory of reasoned action." *Personality and social psychology Bulletin* 18 (1): 3-9.
- Malhotra, Naresh K. 2005. "Attitude and affect: new frontiers of research in the 21st century." *Journal of Business Research* 58 (4): 477-482.
- Malone, Sheila, Andrew P. Smith, and Scott McCabe. 2014. "The Role of Hedonism in Ethical Tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 44: 241-254.
- Manasse, Stephanie M., Hallie M. Espel, Evan M. Forman, Anthony C. Ruocco, Adrienne S. Juarascio, Meghan L. Butryn, Fengqing Zhang, and Michael R. Lowe. 2015. "The independent and interacting effects of hedonic hunger and executive function on binge eating." *Appetite* 89: 16-21.
- Maslow, Abraham H. 1948. "Some theoretical consequences of basic need-gratification." *Journal of Personality* 16 (4): 402-416.
- Medsker, Gina J., Larry J. Williams, and Patricia J. Holahan. 1994. "A review of current practices for evaluating causal models in organizational behavior and human resources management research." *Journal of management* 20 (2): 439-464.
- Mill, John Stuart. 1863. *Utilitarianism*. London: Parker, Son and Bourn.
- Muller, A., Hans Reinecker, Corinna Jacobi, Lucia Reisch, and Martina de Zwaan. 2005. "Pathological buying – a literature review." *Psychiatrische Praxis* 32 (1) 3-12.
- Naderi, Iman, and Audhesh K. Paswan. 2016 "Narcissistic consumers in retail settings." *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 33 (5): 376-386.
- Naylor, Gillian, Susan Bardi Kleiser, Julie Baker, and Eric Yorkston. 2008. "Using transformational appeals to enhance the retail experience." *Journal of Retailing* 84 (1): 49-57.
- Nowell-Smith, P. H., and E. J. Lemmon. 1960. "Escapism: the logical basis of ethics." *Mind* 69 (275): 289-300.

- Nunnally, J. C. 1978. "Psychometric theory." Mc Graw-Hill Publ Co. New York.
- O'Guinn, Thomas C., and Ronald J. Faber. 1989. "Compulsive buying: A phenomenological exploration." *Journal of Consumer Research*: 147-157.
- Okada, Erica Mina. 2005. "Justification Effects on Consumer Choice of Hedonic and Utilitarian Goods." *Journal of Marketing Research* 42 (1): 43-53.
- Omar, Ogenyi, and Anthony Kent. 2001. "International airport influences on impulsive shopping: trait and normative approach." *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management* 29 (5): 226-235.
- O'Shaughnessy, John, and Nicholas Jackson O'Shaughnessy. 2002. "Marketing, the consumer society and hedonism." *European Journal of Marketing* 36 (5/6): 524-547.
- Osman, Jamie L., and Jeffery Sobal. 2006. "Chocolate cravings in American and Spanish individuals: Biological and cultural influences." *Appetite* 47 (3): 290-301.
- Park, Kwang-Soo, and Yvette Reisinger. 2009. "Cultural differences in shopping for luxury goods: Western, Asian, and Hispanic tourists." *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 26 (8): 762-777.
- Park, Kwang-Soo, Yvette Reisinger, and Eun-Hee Noh. 2010. "Luxury shopping in tourism." *International Journal of Tourism Research* 12 (2): 164-178.
- Passini, Stefano. 2013. "A binge-consuming culture: The effect of consumerism on social interactions in western societies." *Culture & Psychology* 19 (3): 369-390.
- Perugini, Marco, and Mark Conner. 2000. "Predicting and understanding behavioral volitions: The interplay between goals and behaviors." *European Journal of Social Psychology* 30 (5): 705-731.
- Perugini, Marco, and Richard P. Bagozzi. 2001. "The role of desires and anticipated emotions in goal-directed behaviours: Broadening and deepening the theory of planned behaviour." *British Journal of Social Psychology* 40 (1): 79-98.
- Przybylski, Andrew K., Kou Murayama, Cody R. DeHaan, and Valerie Gladwell. 2013. "Motivational, emotional, and behavioral correlates of fear of missing out." *Computers in Human Behavior* 29 (4): 1841-1848.
- Quintal, Vanessa and Ian Phau. (2016). "A dual mediation model approach to evaluating the persuasiveness of wine destination websites." *Tourism Analysis* (accepted)
- Quintal, Vanessa Ann, Ben Thomas, and Ian Phau. 2015. "Incorporating the winescape into the theory of planned behaviour: Examining 'new world' wineries." *Tourism Management* 46: 596-609.
- Quintal, Vanessa Ann, Julie Anne Lee, and Geoffrey N. Soutar. 2010. "Tourists' information search: the differential impact of risk and uncertainty avoidance." *International Journal of Tourism Research* 12 (4): 321-333.

- Richetin, Juliette, Marco Perugini, Iqbal Adjali, and Robert Hurling. 2008. "Comparing leading theoretical models of behavioral predictions and post-behavior evaluations." *Psychology & Marketing* 25 (12): 1131–1150.
- Richins, Marsha L. 1997. "Measuring emotions in the consumption experience." *Journal of Consumer Research* 24 (2): 127-47.
- Ridgway, Nancy M., Monika Kukar-Kinney, and Kent B. Monroe. 2008 "An expanded conceptualization and a new measure of compulsive buying." *Journal of Consumer Research* 35 (4): 622-639.
- Ridgway, Nancy M., Kukar-Kinney, Monika, Monroe, Kent B., and Chamberlin, Emily. 2008. "Does excessive buying for self relate to spending on pets." *Journal of Business Research* 61: 392-396.
- Robertson, Edward. 2017. Luxury travel doing more environmental damage than mass tourism. Accessed October 27 <http://www.routesonline.com/news/29/breaking-news/274970/luxury-travel-doing-more-environmental-damage-than-mass-tourism/>
- Rojek, Chris. 1993. *Ways of escape: Modern transformations in leisure and travel*. Springer.
- Rook, Dennis W. 1987. "The buying impulse." *Journal of Consumer Research* 14 (2), 189–99.
- Rook, Dennis W., and Robert J. Fisher. 1995. "Normative influences on impulsive buying behavior." *Journal of consumer research* 22 (3): 305-313.
- Ruth, Julie A. 1996. "It's the feeling that counts: Toward a framework for understanding emotion and its influence on gift-exchange processes." *Gift-giving: An interdisciplinary anthology* 195-214.
- Ruth, Julie A., Frédéric F. Brunel, and Cele C. Otnes. 2004. "An investigation of the power of emotions in relationship realignment: The gift recipient's perspective." *Psychology & Marketing* 21 (1): 29-52.
- Ryu, Kisang, and SooCheong Jang. 2006. "Intention to experience local cuisine in a travel destination: The modified theory of reasoned action." *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research* 30 (4): 507-516.
- Ryu, Kisang, and Heesup Han. 2010. "Predicting tourists' intention to try local cuisine using a modified theory of reasoned action: The case of New Orleans" *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 27 (5): 491-506.
- Saunders, Mark, Adrian Thornhill, and Philip Lewis. 2009. *Research Methods for Business Students*. United Kingdom: Pearson Education.
- Scarpi, Daniele. 2006. "Fashion stores between fun and usefulness." *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal* 10 (1): 7-24.
- Scarpi, Daniele. 2012. "Work and fun on the internet: the effects of utilitarianism and hedonism online." *Journal of Interactive Marketing* 26 (1): 53-67.

- Schreiber, James B., Amaury Nora, Frances K. Stage, Elizabeth A. Barlow, and Jamie King. 2006. "Reporting structural equation modeling and confirmatory factor analysis results: A review." *The Journal of educational research* 99 (6): 323-338.
- Schweidel, David A., and Wendy W. Moe. 2016. "Binge watching and advertising." *Journal of Marketing* 80 (5): 1-19.
- Seligman, Martin EP, and Ed Royzman. 2003. "Happiness: The three traditional theories." *Authentic Happiness Newsletter*.
- Shankman, Samantha. 2017. Environmental sustainability is the next frontier in luxury travel. Accessed October 27 <https://skift.com/2017/07/18/environmental-sustainability-is-the-next-frontier-in-luxury-travel/>
- Shaw, Ian, and Alan Aldridge. 2003. "Consumerism, health and social order." *Social policy and society* 2 (1): 35-43.
- Shukla, Paurav. 2012. "The influence of value perceptions on luxury purchase intentions in developed and emerging markets." *International Marketing Review* 29 (6): 574-596.
- Sniehotta, Falko F., Justin Presseau, and Vera Araújo-Soares. 2014. "Time to retire the theory of planned behaviour." *Health Psychology Review*: 1-7.
- Sober, Elliott and David Sloan Wilson. 1998. "Multilevel selection and the return of Group-level functionalism." *Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 21 (2): 305-306.
- Social media delivered. 2015. Top 10 Best Hotels on Instagram. Accessed August 8 <https://www.socialmediadelivered.com/blog/2015/04/30/top-10-best-hotels-on-instagram>
- Song, Hak Jun, Choong-Ki Lee, Soo K. Kang, and Sug-jin Boo. 2012. "The effect of environmentally friendly perceptions on festival visitors' decision-making process using an extended model of goal-directed behavior." *Tourism Management* 33 (6): 1417-1428.
- Song, HakJun, Geun-Jun You, Yvette Reisinger, Choong-Ki Lee, and Seung-Kon Lee. 2014. "Behavioral intention of visitors to an Oriental medicine festival: An extended model of goal-directed behavior." *Tourism Management* 42: 101-113.
- Sonmez, Sevil, Yorghos Apostolopoulos, Chong Ho Yu, Shiyi Yang, Anna Mattila, and C. Yu Lucy. 2006. "Binge drinking and casual sex on spring break." *Annals of Tourism Research* 33 (4): 895-917.
- Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict EM and Hans CM Van Trijp. 1991. "The use of LISREL in validating marketing constructs." *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 8(4): 283-299.
- Stern, Hawkins. 1962. "The significance of impulse buying today" *Journal of Marketing* 26 (2): 59-62.

- Tajfel, Henri. 1979. "Individuals and groups in social psychology." *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology* 18 (2): 183-190.
- Tashakkori, Abbas, and John W. Creswell. 2007. "The new era of mixed methods." 3-7.
- Taylor, Steven A., Gary L. Hunter, and Timothy A. Longfellow. 2006. "Testing an expanded attitude model of goal-directed behavior in a loyalty context." *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior* 19: 18.
- Teddle, Charles, and Abbas Tashakkori. 2009. *Foundations of Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, C.A. Sage Publications.
- Trafimow, David, and Krystina A. Finlay. 1996. "The importance of subjective norms for a minority of people: between-subjects and within-subjects analyses." *Personality and Social Psychology* 22 (8): 820-828.
- Trepte, Sabine. 2006. "Social identity theory." In J. Bryant, and P. Vorderer (Eds.), *Psychology of entertainment*. New York: Routledge
- Tuan, Yi-Fu. 2000. *Escapism*. JHU Press.
- Tversky, Amos, and Daniel Kahneman. 1975. "Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases." In *Utility, probability, and human decision making*. Springer Netherlands 141-162.
- Van Rooij, Antonius J., Tim M. Schoenmakers, Regina JJM Van de Eijnden, and Dike Van de Mheen. 2010. "Compulsive internet use: the role of online gaming and other internet applications." *Journal of Adolescent Health* 47 (1): 51-57.
- Witt, Ashley A., and Michael R. Lowe. 2014. "Hedonic hunger and binge eating among women with eating disorders." *International Journal of Eating Disorders* 47 (3): 273-280.
- Wood, Michael. 1998. "Socio-economic status, delay of gratification, and impulse buying." *Journal of economic psychology* 19 (3): 295-320.
- Xiao Lu, Pierre, and Bernard Pras. 2011. "Profiling mass affluent luxury goods consumers in China: A psychographic approach." *Thunderbird International Business Review* 53 (4): 435-455.
- Yeon Kim, Hee, and Jae-Eun Chung. 2011. "Consumer purchase intention for organic personal care products." *Journal of consumer Marketing* 28 (1): 40-47.
- Zeithaml, Valarie A. 1988. "Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence." *The Journal of marketing* 2-22.

Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged.

Appendix

Survey instrument: All-inclusive luxury vacation package

Hedonic binging in the context of indulgent travel consumption

Dear Respondent

This study sets out to assess consumers who take a break from their daily routine and reward themselves with a luxury vacation. Findings from the research will help tourism practitioners to understand the decision-making behaviour of tourists who enjoy luxury vacations.

Attached is a survey questionnaire, which should take approximately 12 minutes to complete. You are under no obligation to participate in the survey questionnaire and your participation is strictly voluntary. Should you wish to exit from the survey questionnaire at any time, you are not required to provide an explanation and have the right to withdraw any time without penalty and prejudice. If you do choose to participate, your responses to the survey questionnaire will remain completely confidential and your anonymity is assured.

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HRE2017-013). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on +61 08 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on 61 8 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could participate in the survey questionnaire. Thank you for your kind participation.

Researcher

Zorana Soldat

School of Marketing, Curtin University

Supervisor

Assoc Prof. Vanessa Quintal

(08) 9266 7588

vanessa.quintal@cbs.curtin.edu.au

School of Marketing, Curtin University

Curtin University Ethics Committee

(08)9266 2784

hrec@curtin.edu.au

C/- Office of Research and Development

Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845

SECTION A

These statements relate to your PREVIOUS EXPERIENCES while on vacation. Please answer the following questions by circling one number for each question.

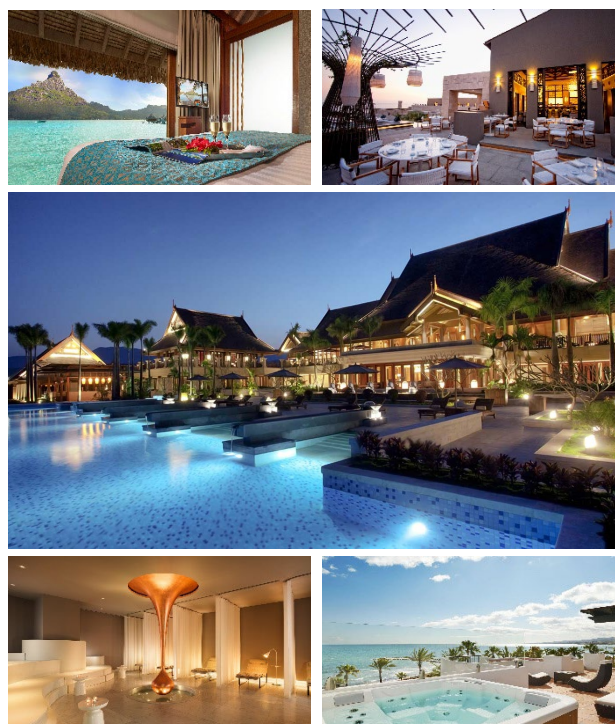
A1	While on vacation, I have stayed at a luxury hotel/resort:			
	[1]	Yes	[2]	No

A2	I have stayed at a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation:							
	[1]	Once	[2]	Twice	[3]	3 times	[4]	Over 4 times

A3	The last time I stayed at a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation was:							
	[1]	Less than 11 months ago	[2]	1-2 years ago	[3]	3 years ago	[4]	Over 4 years ago

A4	I stay at a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation every:							
	[1]	1-11 months	[2]	1 year	[3]	2 years	[4]	3 years and more

[Video] Imagine taking a luxury vacation for two in a tropical paradise, and that your luxury vacation includes: (1) 7 nights of accommodation at a luxury resort; (2) Six hours at the luxury resort’s state-of-the-art health and wellness spa; and (3) Two nights of fine dining at the luxury resort’s award-winning restaurant.



Then, thinking of this luxury vacation, answer the following questions.

SECTION B

These statements relate to your **POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EMOTIONS** while you are on such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = **Totally Disagree**, 2 = **Disagree**, 3 = **Somewhat Disagree**, 4 = **Neutral**, 5 = **Somewhat Agree**, 6 = **Agree**, 7 = **Totally Agree**.

B1	If I succeed in taking such a luxury vacation in the next two years, I will FEEL :	Totally Disagree				Totally Agree		
1	Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Delighted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Glad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Self-assured	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B2	Taking such a luxury vacation within the next two years will FEEL like:	Totally Disagree				Totally Agree		
1	An escape	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	A fantasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	A dream-like experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B3	If I do not succeed in indulging myself during such a luxury vacation, I will FEEL :	Totally Disagree				Totally Agree		
1	Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Worried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

These statements relate to your own PERCEPTIONS while you are on such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = Totally Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Totally Agree.

C1	When I take such a luxury vacation:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>			<i>Totally Agree</i>			
1	I often spend spontaneously	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Occasionally, I indulge in spur-of-the-moment spending	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I usually do not think before spending on little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I pamper myself according to how I feel at the moment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	"Just do it" describes the way I spend on life's niceties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I often splurge without thinking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	"I see it, I spend" describes me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	"Spend now, think about it later" describes how I treat myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Sometimes I am a bit reckless about spending on luxurious treats	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2	When I go on such a luxury vacation:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>			<i>Totally Agree</i>			
1	I carefully plan most of my spending on little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I decide to spend only after looking around at different options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I already identify in advance something I want to pamper myself with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I tend to decide what to indulge in while looking around at different options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C3	When I take such a luxury vacation:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>			<i>Totally Agree</i>			
1	I spend in order to give myself a luxurious treat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I spend on little luxuries and I am not sure why I have done so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I just want to indulge and I do not mind what I spend on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I splurge on life's niceties which are outside of my original budget	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	If I have any money left over to spend at the end of my vacation, I just have to spend it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I worry about splurging but still go out and do it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Sometimes, I feel compelled to spend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I felt anxious on days I do not get to pamper myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I feel anxious after I go on a buying spree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D

These statements relate to your **ATTITUDE** toward taking such a luxury vacation. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

D1	My ATTITUDE towards taking such a luxury vacation is:						
1	Bad						Good
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
2	Unpleasant						Pleasant
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
3	Negative						Positive
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
4	Unsatisfied						Satisfied
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

These statements relate to your **REFERENCE GROUPS** and the **CONTROL** you exercise when deciding to take such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = **Totally Disagree**, 2 = **Disagree**, 3 = **Somewhat Disagree**, 4 = **Neutral**, 5 = **Somewhat Agree**, 6 = **Agree**, 7 = **Totally Agree**.

D2	When deciding on taking such a luxury vacation, most PEOPLE IMPORTANT TO ME:	Totally Disagree			Totally Agree			
1	Think it is okay for me to enjoy life's niceties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Support my decision to pamper myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Understand my need to treat myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Agree with my decision to indulge in little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D3	When deciding on taking a luxury vacation, the CONTROL I have over my decision is that:	Totally Disagree			Totally Agree			
1	It is completely up to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am capable of treating myself to life's niceties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am confident in knowing that if I want to, I can go on a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I have enough resources (money) to indulge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I have enough time to enjoy little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E

These statements relate to your **DESIRE** to take such a luxury vacation. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

E1	How strongly would you characterise your DESIRE to treat yourself to a luxury vacation?						
1	Very weak desire						Very strong desire
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

E2	The INTENSITY OF MY DESIRE to take an indulgent vacation is:						
1	Very weak intensity						Very strong intensity
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

SECTION F

These statements relate to your **INTENTION** to take such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = Totally Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Totally Agree.

E3	These statements relate to your INTENTION to take a luxury vacation, in the next two years:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>				<i>Totally Agree</i>		
1	I plan to take a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I will make an effort to go on a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I intend to take an indulgent vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I will invest time and money go on a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F

The following section contains **DEMOGRAPHIC** questions that are used to help classify information. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

F1	What is your gender?					
	[1]	Female	[2]	Male	[3]	Other

F2	What is your age group?					
	[1]	Under 20 years	[2]	21 - 34 years	[3]	35 - 44 years
	[4]	45 - 54 years	[5]	55 - 64 years	[6]	65 years and above

F3	What country do you reside in? <i>Specify</i> _____
-----------	--

F4	What is your marital status?							
	[1]	Single	[2]	In a relationship	[3]	De Facto	[4]	Married

F5	What is your field of occupation <i>(Please choose one only)</i>					
	[1]	Manager	[2]	Professional	[3]	Technician or Associate Professionals
	[4]	Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	[5]	Clerical Support Workers	[6]	Service and Sales Worker
	[7]	Plant and Machinery Operator and Assemblers	[8]	Craft and Related Trade Workers	[9]	Student
	[10]	Retired	[11]	Other <i>(Specify)</i> _____		

F6	What is your current home ownership status?					
	[1]	Living with parents	[2]	Renting	[3]	Mortgage
	[4]	100% home ownership	[5]	House sitting	[6]	Other <i>(Specify)</i> _____

F7	What is your working status?							
	[1]	Full time	[2]	Part time	[3]	Casual	[4]	Not working

F8	What is your personal annual income?							
	[1]	Under AUD 44,999	[2]	AUD 45,000 – AUD 89,999	[3]	AUD 90,000 – AUD 149,999	[4]	AUD 150,000 and above

THANK YOU

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey 😊

Appendix

Survey instrument: Optional luxury vacation package

Hedonic binging in the context of indulgent travel consumption

Dear Respondent

This study sets out to assess consumers who take a break from their daily routine and reward themselves with a luxury vacation. Findings from the research will help tourism practitioners to understand the decision-making behaviour of tourists who enjoy luxury vacations.

Attached is a survey questionnaire, which should take approximately 12 minutes to complete. You are under no obligation to participate in the survey questionnaire and your participation is strictly voluntary. Should you wish to exit from the survey questionnaire at any time, you are not required to provide an explanation and have the right to withdraw any time without penalty and prejudice. If you do choose to participate, your responses to the survey questionnaire will remain completely confidential and your anonymity is assured.

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HRE2017-013). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on +61 08 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on 61 8 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could participate in the survey questionnaire. Thank you for your kind participation.

Researcher

Zorana Soldat

School of Marketing, Curtin University

Supervisor

Assoc Prof. Vanessa Quintal

(08) 9266 7588

vanessa.quintal@cbs.curtin.edu.au

School of Marketing, Curtin University

Curtin University Ethics Committee

(08)9266 2784

hrec@curtin.edu.au

C/- Office of Research and Development

Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth WA 6845

SECTION A

These statements relate to your PREVIOUS EXPERIENCES while on vacation. Please answer the following questions by circling one number for each question.

A1	While on vacation, I have stayed at a luxury hotel/resort:			
	[1]	Yes	[2]	No

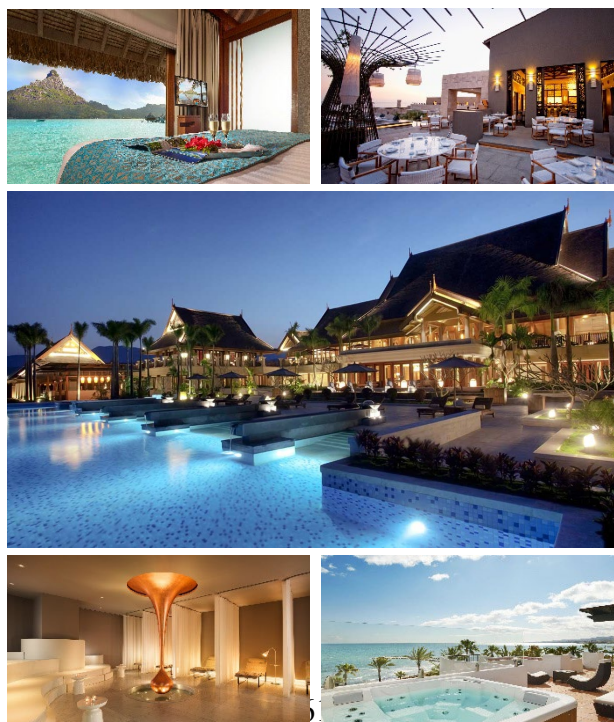
A2	I have stayed at a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation:							
	[1]	Once	[2]	Twice	[3]	3 times	[4]	Over 4 times

A3	The last time I stayed at a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation was:							
	[1]	Less than 11 months ago	[2]	1-2 years ago	[3]	3 years ago	[4]	Over 4 years ago

A4	I stay at a luxury hotel/resort while on vacation every:							
	[1]	1-11 months	[2]	1 year	[3]	2 years	[4]	3 years and more

[Video] Imagine taking a luxury vacation for two in a tropical paradise, and that your luxury vacation includes: (1) 7 nights of accommodation at a luxury resort;

Other optional luxuries in your paradise include: (2) Treatments at the state-of-the-art health and wellness spa; (3) Personalized sessions with fitness gurus; and (4) Fine dining at an award-winning restaurant.



Then, thinking of this luxury vacation, answer the following questions.

SECTION B

These statements relate to your **POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EMOTIONS** while you are on such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = **Totally Disagree**, 2 = **Disagree**, 3 = **Somewhat Disagree**, 4 = **Neutral**, 5 = **Somewhat Agree**, 6 = **Agree**, 7 = **Totally Agree**.

B1	If I succeed in taking such a luxury vacation in the next two years, I will FEEL :	Totally Disagree				Totally Agree		
1	Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Delighted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Glad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Self-assured	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B2	Taking such a luxury vacation within the next two years will FEEL like:	Totally Disagree				Totally Agree		
1	An escape	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	A fantasy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	A dream-like experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B3	If I do not succeed in indulging myself during such a luxury vacation, I will FEEL :	Totally Disagree				Totally Agree		
1	Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Worried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C

These statements relate to your own PERCEPTIONS while you are on such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = Totally Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Totally Agree.

C1	When I take such a luxury vacation:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>			<i>Totally Agree</i>			
1	I often spend spontaneously	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Occasionally, I indulge in spur-of-the-moment spending	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I usually do not think before spending on little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I pamper myself according to how I feel at the moment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	"Just do it" describes the way I spend on life's niceties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I often splurge without thinking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	"I see it, I spend" describes me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	"Spend now, think about it later" describes how I treat myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Sometimes I am a bit reckless about spending on luxurious treats	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C2	When I go on such a luxury vacation:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>			<i>Totally Agree</i>			
1	I carefully plan most of my spending on little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I decide to spend only after looking around at different options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I already identify in advance something I want to pamper myself with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I tend to decide what to indulge in while looking around at different options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C3	When I take such a luxury vacation:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>			<i>Totally Agree</i>			
1	I spend in order to give myself a luxurious treat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I spend on little luxuries and I am not sure why I have done so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I just want to indulge and I do not mind what I spend on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I splurge on life's niceties which are outside of my original budget	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	If I have any money left over to spend at the end of my vacation, I just have to spend it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I worry about splurging but still go out and do it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Sometimes, I feel compelled to spend	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I felt anxious on days I do not get to pamper myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I feel anxious after I go on a buying spree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D

These statements relate to your **ATTITUDE** toward taking such a luxury vacation. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

D1	My ATTITUDE towards taking such a luxury vacation is:						
1	Bad						Good
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
2	Unpleasant						Pleasant
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
3	Negative						Positive
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
4	Unsatisfied						Satisfied
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

These statements relate to your **REFERENCE GROUPS** and the **CONTROL** you exercise when deciding to take such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = **Totally Disagree**, 2 = **Disagree**, 3 = **Somewhat Disagree**, 4 = **Neutral**, 5 = **Somewhat Agree**, 6 = **Agree**, 7 = **Totally Agree**.

D2	When deciding on taking such a luxury vacation, most PEOPLE IMPORTANT TO ME:	Totally Disagree			Totally Agree			
1	Think it is okay for me to enjoy life's niceties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Support my decision to pamper myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Understand my need to treat myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Agree with my decision to indulge in little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D3	When deciding on taking a luxury vacation, the CONTROL I have over my decision is that:	Totally Disagree			Totally Agree			
1	It is completely up to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am capable of treating myself to life's niceties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am confident in knowing that if I want to, I can go on a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I have enough resources (money) to indulge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I have enough time to enjoy little luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E

These statements relate to your **DESIRE** to take such a luxury vacation. For each of the following statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your views.

E1	How strongly would you characterise your DESIRE to treat yourself to a luxury vacation?						
1	Very weak desire						Very strong desire
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

E2	The INTENSITY OF MY DESIRE to take an indulgent vacation is:						
1	Very weak intensity						Very strong intensity
	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

SECTION F

These statements relate to your **INTENTION** to take such a luxury vacation. For each of the statements, please circle the value that most closely represents your view. 1 = Totally Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Neutral, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, 7 = Totally Agree.

E3	These statements relate to your INTENTION to take a luxury vacation, in the next two years:	<i>Totally Disagree</i>				<i>Totally Agree</i>		
1	I plan to take a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I will make an effort to go on a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I intend to take an indulgent vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I will invest time and money go on a luxury vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F

The following section contains **DEMOGRAPHIC** questions that are used to help classify information. Please answer all questions by circling one number for each question.

F1	What is your gender?					
	[1]	Female	[2]	Male	[3]	Other

F2	What is your age group?					
	[1]	Under 20 years	[2]	21 - 34 years	[3]	35 - 44 years
	[4]	45 - 54 years	[5]	55 - 64 years	[6]	65 years and above

F3	What country do you reside in? <i>Specify</i> _____
-----------	--

F4	What is your marital status?							
	[1]	Single	[2]	In a relationship	[3]	De Facto	[4]	Married

F5	What is your field of occupation <i>(Please choose one only)</i>					
	[1]	Manager	[2]	Professional	[3]	Technician or Associate Professionals
	[4]	Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	[5]	Clerical Support Workers	[6]	Service and Sales Worker
	[7]	Plant and Machinery Operator and Assemblers	[8]	Craft and Related Trade Workers	[9]	Student
	[10]	Retired	[11]	Other <i>(Specify)</i> _____		

F6	What is your current home ownership status?					
	[1]	Living with parents	[2]	Renting	[3]	Mortgage
	[4]	100% home ownership	[5]	House sitting	[6]	Other <i>(Specify)</i> _____

F7	What is your working status?							
	[1]	Full time	[2]	Part time	[3]	Casual	[4]	Not working

F8	What is your personal annual income?							
	[1]	Under AUD 44,999	[2]	AUD 45,000 – AUD 89,999	[3]	AUD 90,000 – AUD 149,999	[4]	AUD 150,000 and above

THANK YOU

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey 😊