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Author

Sparks, Beverley

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Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioural intentions.

Abstract

A large cross-sectional survey was undertaken within Australia to investigate potential wine tourists' intentions to take a wine-based vacation. Three wine tourism attitudinal dimensions were identified and confirmed using exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Structural equation modelling was employed to test a model, based on Theory of Planned Behaviour, predicting tourist intentions. In particular, perceived control, together with past attitude predicted intentions to take a vacation to a wine region. Wine/food involvement, normative influences and three wine expectancy-value (attitudinal) dimensions also contribute to intention to take a vacation to a wine region. The findings have implications for predicting and promoting future wine tourism.

Keywords: Wine tourism; Theory of Planned Behaviour; involvement; attitude; control influences; normative influences

1. Introduction

The area of wine tourism is growing as a form of special interest tourism (see, for example, Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; Getz & Brown, 2006). Understanding what it is about wine tourism that is valued by consumers is important for national and regional tourism authorities as well as for owners of cellar doors. Moreover, understanding how valued attributes of wine tourism translate into intentions to engage in consumptive behaviours is vital. In mapping out the behavioural intentions of wine tourists, it is helpful to draw upon established theoretical paradigms from attitudinal research (e.g. Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). This paper identifies a range of wine tourism consumer values based on product attributes, and uses these, together with other data, to test a model of behavioural intention specifically applied to wine tourism. First, a background review of wine tourism product attributes is undertaken and this is incorporated into an attitudinal model of behavioural intentions. Second, using data collected from a large Australian cross-sectional survey, core wine tourism attribute themes are identified and the proposed model is tested. The results, using factor analysis and structural equation modeling, provide specific information about the wine tourism attribute factors as well as evidence for the utility of the attitude model. Discussion addresses theoretical issues as well as practical implications for tourism authorities and cellar door operators in wine regions.

2. Literature review

For the purpose of this paper, wine tourism is defined as visits to a wine region for recreational purposes. As some (e.g. Hall, Sharples, Cambourne & Macionis, 2000) have pointed out, wine tourism is still emerging as a concept or product. As the field of wine tourism continues to develop (see Mitchell & Hall, 2006 for a comprehensive review), the need for a better understanding of consumer behaviours is paramount, especially in respect of likelihood of visiting wine regions. Getz and Brown (2006) point out that much of the

research into the wine tourist has originated from studying consumers at the cellar door. While obtaining information from “at the door” consumers is useful, it is also necessary to obtain data from broader samples. Furthermore, it is important to develop an understanding of the fundamental drivers of the desire to engage in wine tourism (see also, Brown & Getz, 2005; Mitchell & Hall, 2006). This section first reviews the literature relating to what it is that attracts tourists to wine regions and, second, incorporates these factors into a broader model for predicting wine tourism behavioural intentions.

2.1 Attributes of the wine tourism product.

Tourism researchers have demonstrated a strong interest in destination image analysis (see Pike, 2002 for a review). It is recognised that the image of a destination is multi-faceted and often difficult to measure (Gartner, 1993). Many studies take a multi-attribute approach to the measurement of perceptions of a destination (see Beerli & Martin, 2004; Pike, 2002).

Similarly, in order to understand a tourist’s intention to visit a wine region it is important to determine the key attributes of the wine tourism experience that drives the behaviour. Some research (see, for example, Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; Getz & Brown, 2006) has investigated the attributes that are important to consumers in the domain of wine tourism.

However, this has seldom been researched using broad samples and extensive statistical testing of potential dimensions. Getz (1999) argues that attributes of a wine region, such as the scenery and open spaces, also provide an incentive to visit the region. Likewise, Hall et al. (2000) have asserted that visitation to a wine region is frequently motivated by ‘the attributes of a grape wine region’ (p. 4), referred to as the winescape (see, Peters, 1997).

Winescapes are characterised by three main elements: the presence of vineyards, the winemaking activity and the wineries where the wine is produced and stored (Telfer 2001). Hall and Mitchell (2002) discuss the concept of *tourist terroir*, which they define in terms of the “unique combination of the physical, cultural and natural environment (that) gives each

region its distinctive tourist appeal” (p. 69). Thus, this concept expands the notion of winescapes to encompass more of the feeling of region, which is a culmination of all of its physical and cultural parts.

Importantly, and not unrelated to the *tourist terroir*, for some tourists, it is the ‘experience of the visit’ that can be an important factor when considering visitation to a wine region. For others, who might be more serious wine tourists, purchasing wine is of utmost importance (Dodd & Bigotte, 1997). It is argued that the demand for wine tourism is driven by a desire to purchase wine, an interest in learning more about wine, opportunities for social interaction, and, possibly, health reasons (see for example, Hall et al. 2000; Mitchell, Hall & McIntosh, 2000). A report released by the Australian Cooperative Research Centre for Sustainable Tourism (Sparks, Roberts, Deery, Davies & Brown, 2005) highlighted that wine tourists were motivated by factors such as the surrounding destination, a quest for self development, the overall hedonic experience, and novelty. Similarly, Getz and Brown (2006) suggest critical features of wine tourism experiences for consumers include three core dimensions, which they label the ‘core wine product’, ‘core destination appeal’, and ‘the cultural product’. While the past research makes a useful contribution to the identification of what is important to potential consumers, it is, for the most part descriptive and exploratory, such that relevant factors are not brought together in an integrated, predictive model. The application of a model to better understand what factors might give rise to a wine tourism vacation assists researchers and practitioners by demonstrating which relationships appear to be important determinants of visitation.

As discussed, it is vital to have a detailed appreciation of the attributes consumers associate with the wine tourism product. It is assumed that a potential consumer will have a set of beliefs about what attributes make up the likely tourism experience within a wine region. This

set of beliefs might be derived from various sources including past experience, word of mouth from others and advertising. As indicated by previous research (see for example, Getz & Brown, 2006; Sparks et al., 2005) there is a large number of attributes that can be associated with wine tourism. In order to make these attributes more meaningful for understanding the wine tourist in general, data reduction techniques are often used to provide a smaller set of salient themes or dimensions. In addition to understanding the salient beliefs people hold about what wine tourism offers, it is important to determine the extent to which these belief attributes are valued by consumers (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In doing so it is acknowledged that there is link between what wine tourism might offer a consumer and the value placed on the benefits received from that offering. This dual focus on beliefs and values, which has had wide recognition in consumer behaviour research, is referred to as an expectancy-value approach (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Expectancy-value components may be thought of as valenced belief clusters that collectively contribute to schematic or categorical representations in a consumer's mind (Dabholkar, 1994). Based on previous research, it is argued that beliefs about wine tourism, as a product will be multi-dimensional. Exactly what dimensions exist is not necessarily clear but it seems that core wine experience, destination attractiveness, cultural experience or self-development might well emerge as important (e.g. Getz & Brown, 2006). Importantly, taking an expectancy-value approach in the research also accommodates the idea that destination/product image is often intertwined with the tourist's desired benefits from that destination/product (Baloglu & Mc Cleary, 1999). Indeed, they conclude that destination perceptions together with motivations result in the formation of affective evaluation toward a tourist destination. Similarly, understanding the salient evaluative criteria used by potential consumers provides important information that might be influential in the formation of an overall attitude toward the wine tourism product.

2.3 Theory of Planned Behaviour

A systematic, theoretically driven approach to developing and testing the likelihood of visiting a wine region for tourists is needed. One approach that has demonstrated robustness across various consumer and other domains is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). In brief, the TPB proposes that three key constructs, in particular, will drive behaviour: attitude, subjective norms and perceived control. An attitude is the overall evaluation of the behaviour; a subjective norm is the influence of others about whether to engage in the behaviour; and control is the perceived ability to engage in the behaviour. The attitude construct, in turn, comprises two elements: beliefs about the likely outcome of behaviour, and values attached to these outcomes.

In line with the TPB, it is fundamental to have an understanding of the evaluation consumers place on attributes of a product. Thus, within the context of wine tourism, it is vital to obtain a better understanding of how consumers might value the myriad of experiences available within wine tourism. Similarly, as consumers form beliefs about wine tourism and what it means to them, they will develop attitudinal judgment toward the object. In general terms, consumers are likely to develop an attitude toward particular behaviour based upon their individual belief-value(s) about the behaviour.

Extensive research (see, Ajzen, 2001 for a review) has demonstrated the utility of the TPB to predict intentions, which in turn has been useful in predicting actual behaviour. Other related wine tourism research (see Mitchell & Hall, 2004), provides some preliminary evidence of *intended* behaviour and *actual* post wine visitation purchase behaviour. Applying TPB to a wine tourism context, it can be expected that consumers are more likely to develop an intention to take a wine vacation if they: (1) value attributes of what the experience has to offer and believe engaging in the behaviour will satisfy those values and, hence, (2) hold

positive attitudes about the behaviour, (3) expect family and friends to approve of the behaviour and (4) believe they have the resources (e.g. time or money) to undertake the behaviour. Furthermore, it is postulated in this paper that two further constructs - involvement in wine-related activities and past experiential attitude - are also likely to influence wine tourism future intentions. These constructs are reviewed after the core constructs of TPB.

Attitude toward taking a wine oriented vacation is likely to be a key influence on intentions to take such a vacation. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) define attitude toward an object as an individual's positive or negative feelings (evaluation) about the target behaviour. As wine tourism is a fairly hedonic consumption experience, the evaluation is likely to be linked to an emotional foundation, ideally invoking positive emotions. Other consumer research (Kempf, 1999) found hedonic products are primarily evaluated on emotional dimensions. In particular, two dimensions of consumption affect have been investigated: pleasantness and arousal (Mano & Oliver, 1993). Tourism researchers (see for example, Beerli & Martin, 2004) acknowledge the importance of including more affective or hedonic measures when investigating destination image. Wine tourism research (Mitchell et al., 2000) has also recognised the importance of experiential elements of consumer behaviour. Rather than a cognitive information processing approach, what is often needed is a more experiential emotional approach to engaging with, or evaluating, wine tourism. Thus, in evaluating the overall wine tourism product, pleasantness and arousal are likely to be central. In line with the expectancy-value approach it is assumed that the attitudes toward taking a wine-related vacation will be determined by the key dimensions of wine tourism (key wine tourism features). As indicated in the earlier discussion on wine tourism attributes, there are likely to be some key dimensions of the tourism experience that will drive behaviour. The belief expectations, together with a value placed on these dimensions, will influence an overall

evaluation. Thus, attitude will be influenced by the evaluation of key wine tourism features (expectancy-value dimensions) and will, in turn, influence intention to engage in such behaviour.

Hypothesis 1: Expectancy-value dimensions of wine tourism will be associated with the overall emotional attitude toward wine tourism

Hypothesis 2: The attitude toward wine tourism will mediate between the expectancy-value dimensions and intention to visit a wine region

Theory of Planned Behaviour predicts that, as part of the decision making process, two further factors influence a consumer's intentions to participate in a given activity. These two factors are subjective norms (what others think or do) and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms are those beliefs held about what important others think you should or should not do (Ajzen 1991). Thus, intentions to participate in wine tourism might well be influenced by what others, who form a reference group for the consumer, think or do in regard to the target behaviour. TPB predicts that when a subjective norm is favourable then so is intention to engage in the behaviour. Lam and Hsu (2006) found subjective norms to be an important factor in influencing Taiwanese tourists' intentions to visit Hong Kong. Similarly, Hsu, Kang & Lam (2006) demonstrate support for the importance of reference group influences in travel behaviour. Other tourism research (e.g. Beerli & Martin, 2004) has provided evidence that word of mouth derived from sources such as friends or family can be influential in the formation of some components of image perceptions of a destination. Furthermore, there is some evidence of the relevance of reference groups to wine tourism consumption (see Mitchell & Hall, 2006). Thus, it can be expected that a tourist's reference group will influence intentions to engage in wine tourism activities.

The TPB also predicts that perceived control over the target behaviour is likely to be important. Ajzen (1991) has pointed out that control beliefs can impede or facilitate a particular behaviour. A consumer's perceptions of having or not having the resources (e.g. time or money) to engage in wine tourism will be vital to determining likelihood of taking a wine-related vacation in the near future. Past research (see, Lam & Hsu, 2006; Lam & Hsu, 2004) has confirmed that perceived control is an important construct for predicting intention to visit a tourist destination. Correspondingly, leisure research (Crawford, Jackson & Godbey, 1991) has identified structural barriers such as time, financial resources, season, climate or family life cycle that can inhibit participation in certain activities.

Hypothesis 3: Subjective norms will have direct effects on a tourist's intention to visit a wine region

Hypothesis 4: Perceived behavioural control will have direct effects on a tourist's intention to visit a wine region

The TPB has been widely applied and is considered a parsimonious model for predicting behaviour. However, others (e.g. Lam & Hsu, 2004; Nysveen, Pedersen & Thorbjornsen, 2005) have suggested that the model fails to explain enough of the variance in intended behaviour and that additional predictors are required to explain practically significant proportions of the variance. Thus, in addition to the core TPB model, it is proposed that the inclusion of two further variables, attitude to the past behaviour and involvement with wine activities, will be useful in predicting intentions. Recent tourism research (Lam & Hsu, 2006) found past behaviour to be a good predictor of behavioural intention. This is because consumers form an attitude based on past experience, which will influence future intentions. As Hall et al (2000) have noted in their model of the wine tourism system, perceptions and choice of destinations will be influenced by past experiences. Thus, in modelling intentions to

visit a wine region, it is argued that the inclusion of a measure of attitude toward past behaviour will improve predictive power. That is, past behaviour will give rise to an attitudinal judgment about that experience which in turn will impact the intention to engage in the behaviour again.

Hypothesis 5: Attitude toward past wine tourism experiences will have a direct effect on intention to visit a wine region in the future

Involvement with food and wine activities in general is likely to influence intentions to participate in a specific wine tourism vacation. Involvement can be defined and measured in many ways, however, one way that involvement can be conceptualised is the extent to which a person associates him or herself with an activity or product (see, for example, Zaichkowsky, 1985). Such a definition focuses upon the personal relevance of a product to a person and is based on needs, interests or values. Other researchers (see for example, d'Hauteville, 2003; Lockshin & Spawton, 2001) have also reported on the importance of the involvement concept in wine tourism. As Getz and Brown (2006) propose, the centrality of wine to an individual's leisure pursuits is likely to be a predictor of wine tourism. Similarly, Gross and Brown (2006) argue for the importance of involvement in tourism experiences. Furthermore, there has been some interest in the inclusion of involvement within a model of the TPB (Ajzen, 2001). Involvement might have an impact on the emotional attitude formed about wine tourism and/or might directly impact behavioural intentions to undertake a wine tourism vacation (see Figure 1 for the model).

Hypothesis 6: General involvement with wine and food activities will predict (a) emotional attitude and (b) intention to visit a wine region

2.4 The present study

As the review of the extant literature demonstrates there is a growing interest in wine tourism. However, as others (see Mitchell and Hall, 2006) note, much of the early work has been limited by small sample sizes, collection at the cellar door and often collected from unique geographic regions. Furthermore, while there has been considerable research into the consumer (Mitchell & Hall, 2006), a recent paper by Getz and Brown (2006) notes that wine tourism research can benefit from further theoretical orientation when investigating consumer behaviour. The present study adds to the development of theory in this field through in the conceptualization of motivational and attitudinal factors in predicting wine tourism intentions. First, it contributes by generating and confirming three key wine factors based on consumer expectancy-value attributes about wine tourism using a random sample. Second, the study makes a theoretical contribution through the extension of the TPB, and its application to the field of wine tourism. Finally, the present study uses a broader sample than respondents from the cellar door.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

Respondents were obtained using a stratified random sample of 3,500 people from a marketing list company. A total of 1,372 of those sampled responded. Another 105 questionnaires were returned to sender as undeliverable. Seventy-eight respondents were excluded due to incomplete data. This left 1,294 in the final sample, representing a response rate of 38%. For the analysis conducted in this paper only those respondents who had visited a wine region were included resulting in a sample of 1,089. The reason for this inclusion (or exclusion) was that the model to be tested in this paper incorporated a measure of attitude to past wine tourism experiences, thus excluding anyone who had never visited a wine region.

A profile of the respondents (N = 1,089) is shown in Table 1.

3.2 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire contained several sections designed to cover a range of consumer behaviour and attitudinal issues, most of which were specific to wine tourism. The questionnaire was developed based upon focus groups, as well as previous wine tourism research (for example, Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; Hall et al., 2000; Williams, 2001). Attitudinal research (Ajzen, 1991; 2001; Kempf, 1999) was also used in the development of the questionnaire. The model to be tested comprised nine constructs, all of which are proposed to be useful in the prediction of wine tourism behaviour. Demographic and wine behavioural measures were also collected.

Expectancy-value items

Values and beliefs were each measured using 30 items pertaining to visiting a wine region. The items were generated through a process involving focus groups and pilot tests. For the value scale, respondents were instructed to rate how much they would *value* each of the attribute items in a wine region holiday, on a one to seven scale, where one meant “No value to me” and seven meant “Great value to me”. The belief scale consisted of the same 30 items as the value scale, however, it asked respondents to rate how likely they believed it was that the wine region would offer the attribute. In this scale, each item was measured on a one to seven scale, where one meant “zero probability” and seven meant “completely certain”. Examples of attributes of the wine holiday included: “An unusual or undiscovered destination”; “Talking with the winemaker and wine staff”; “Opportunities to feel inspired”; and “Indulgent experiences”. Each pair of corresponding value and belief items was averaged, and these 30 mean scores were used as input for the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Mean scores rather than the more conventional product scores were used because

the latter were highly skewed and thus would have violated the normality assumptions upon which factor analytic extraction procedures (e.g. maximum likelihood) depend.

Emotional Attitude

As wine tourism tends to be a very experiential activity, information was sought about the emotional attitude toward wine tourism. The measure of emotional attitude was based on a six item sub-set of the Pleasure, Arousal & Dominance (PAD) scale (see, Mano & Oliver, 1993; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Respondents were asked to indicate how they expected to feel when visiting a wine region. Using a seven point semantic differential scale, each item was anchored by a pair of emotional statements such as “unexcited” vs “excited” and “unaroused” vs “aroused”.

Subjective norm influences

Subjective norms (family or reference group) relevant to taking a wine holiday were also assessed (Ajzen, 2001). The four items used in this section were measured on a Likert type scale from 1 strongly disagree through to 7 strongly agree. Sample items include: “I would like to visit a wine region that has been recommended by friends and/or associates” or “I would like to take a wine holiday that is popular among my friends and/or associates”.

Control influences

Personal behavioural control in relation to taking a wine tourism holiday was measured using a three-item Likert type scale from 1 strongly disagree through to 7 strongly agree. Sample items included: “I feel I have enough money to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months” or “I feel I have enough time to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months”.

Past experience with taking a wine holiday

Another measure used in this study was a three-item measure of attitude toward the past experience (Kempf, 1999) using a semantic differential scale (1 to 7) “bad to good”,

“unfavourable to favourable” “dislike to like”. Respondents who had indicated taking a previous wine holiday were asked to think about that last wine holiday and rate it on each of the three items. Thus, this measure represented attitude toward past wine tourism experiences.

Food and wine involvement

A series of nine questions sought to measure respondents' level of general involvement with food and wine activities. These questions were based on previous research (Zaichkowsky, 1985) and adapted for the present study. The format adopted used a seven point semantic differential scale with a stem of “To me, food and wine activities: ...” with each item anchored by descriptors such as “Are not interesting” (1) through to (7) “Are interesting”.

Behavioural Intention

A behavioural intention to visit a wine region, the dependent variable, was measured using one item that required responses on a five-point scale (1 = very unlikely and 5 = very likely). The item was worded as follows: “How likely would you be to take a holiday based around wine activities in the next 12 months?”

3.3 Procedure

The questionnaire was mailed out to all members of the sample using a mailing list bought from a mail list company. The list is derived from an opt-in database and is fully privacy compliant, meeting ethical considerations. The return of questionnaires was by reply paid post. Respondents were asked not to place any identifying information on the questionnaire, making the process completely anonymous.

The full sample (3,500) was evenly divided between four states of Australia (South Australia, Victoria, New South Wales and Queensland). Within each state there were even splits for people aged 20-35, 36-50 and 51+ years, and an even split for gender. In May 2004, each respondent was mailed a package that contained an introduction letter, project information

sheet, a questionnaire and prize entry details. The prize draw comprised an opportunity to win one \$300 gift voucher or one of three \$100 gift vouchers. The draw was offered as an incentive to encourage responses, with most respondents entering the draw.

4. Results

4.1 Demographic Profile

The obtained sample (those who had visited a wine region) represented a diversity of age groups, occupations, educational and economic backgrounds. As shown in Table 1, 19.3% of respondents have a certificate or diploma, 12.4% have a trade qualification and one-third (34.2%) is university educated. Occupations are equally diverse, with respondents working in professional, trades, administrative and sales roles. Respondents tend to be married and aged 35 and older (77.6%). One-fifth (29.1%) are mature couples without dependent children, and more than one-third (37.3%) are families with children living with them.

Insert Table 1 about here

Most respondents stayed in wine regions for only one day (36.9%), although overnight (16.1%) and two-day trips (23.3%) were also common. Most respondents travelled to wine regions with their partner, friends or both (73.2%). A smaller number travelled with their family (19.8%).

When visiting a wine region, over 60% of respondents report purchasing wine and local food products. The average amount spent on wine when visiting a wine region was \$171. Range of spending was from zero to over \$500. Respondents reported participating in a number of other

activities apart from attending wineries when visiting a wine region. The majority of visitors reported that they would eat in either a restaurant (72.7%) or café (59.2%).

4.2 Measurement and structural modelling

The central aims of this paper were twofold: (1) to identify specific consumer wine tourism dimensions based on beliefs and values; and (2) to test a model derived from Theory of Planned Behaviour that predicts intentions to visit a wine region. This section first reports on the development of the measurement model and then describes the use of structural equation modelling to test the proposed TPB model. This approach to the data analysis is in line with recommendations of Anderson and Gerbing (1988).

4.2.1 Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis

First, using only cases with complete data across all variables, the sample was split randomly into approximately equal sized derivation and validation samples. Due to the structural model being tested, only respondents who have experienced wine tourism sometime in the past were used for analysis (N = 1089). A random selection of approximately half the sample (n = 427) was undertaken for use in deriving the exploratory factor structure. The number of respondents is slightly lower than half of the total sample due to cases being deleted if any data were missing across any of the variables. Using this derivation sample, Principal Axis Factoring was performed on the full set of items intended to measure value /belief, norms, control, past attitude, wine and food involvement and emotional attitude items (total variables = 55). Principal Axis Factoring was used as it is recommended for consumer or behavioural research (see Iacobucci, 2001) and is the most appropriate approach for use when developing factors for structural equation modelling (Garson, 2006). Any item not correlated at $>.30$ on any other item was removed. As the factors to be extracted were expected to correlate with one another, an oblique rotation was performed, and only factors with an eigenvalue of one were considered. Scree plots were also examined. Items were retained if they loaded at $.4$ or more on a factor and did not load at more than $.3$ on any other factor. Bartlett's test of

sphericity was significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .935, which is well above the recommended level. The final solution retained 35 variables across eight factors (three wine tourism factors, emotional attitude, norms, control, past attitude, wine and food involvement). The total variance explained by the final solution was 75.82%.

Second, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8.53 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) with maximum likelihood estimation was run on the covariance matrix of the responses of the validation sample ($n = 447$). The CFA sought to test the fit of the model previously obtained in the derivation sample. All factors were permitted to correlate with all other factors, and the variance of the factors was fixed to unity to permit scaling. Indices used to test the overall fit of the model were: (a) the Satorra-Bentler chi-square (χ^2), (b) the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), (c) the non-normed fit index (NNFI) and (d) the comparative fit index (CFI). In respect of the fit of a model there are various opinions but RMSEA values below .05 are considered to indicate a good fit, and values between .05 and .08 are considered fair (Kaplan, 2000). For the NNFI and CFI, values over .90 are acceptable and over .95 are indicative of a good fit (Kaplan, 2000). The χ^2 should not be significant, however, this statistic is the most misleading as it is sensitive to sample size and multivariate normality. The Satorra-Bentler scaled χ^2 adjusts for non-normality as outlined by Kline (2005) (see also Chou & Bentler, 1995). A χ^2/df ratio of less than 2.0 is considered indicative of a good fit, and one between 2 and 5 is indicative of a satisfactory fit. An initial analysis resulted in the deletion of two of the original 35 items (both from the value/belief wine items) based upon the modification indices. The fit of this reduced model was satisfactory, Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (467) = 1376.28 ($p = .0$), $\chi^2/df = 2.95$, CFI = .97, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .055.

Finally, a CFA with maximum likelihood estimation was conducted using the total sample ($N = 882$). The final model, with eight correlated factors, and 33 items each loading on a single

factor and all other error covariance set to zero, is reported in Table 2. The fit of this model was satisfactory, Satorra Bentler χ^2 (467) = 1964.94 ($p = .0$), $\chi^2/df = 4.21$, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .05. This solution formed the measurement model for the final structural model - see Table 2 for items and factor loadings. Also reported in Table 2 are the average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR) statistics. Taken together, the size of the factor loadings (above .7), AVE measures (above .5) and construct reliability scores (above .7) lend evidence to the convergent validity for each scale (Hair et al., 2006). Of particular note is the presence amongst these eight factors of three wine tourism attitudinal factors. These were labelled: destination experience; personal development; and, core wine experience (see Table 2 for details). Destination experience is reflective of potential feelings that arise as a result of interacting with the destination. Personal development is a dimension of the wine tourism experience that provides an opportunity for growth. The core wine experience reflects the opportunity to engage with wine tasting or purchasing itself.

Insert Table 2 about here

4.2.2 Structural model

Next, having established the measurement model, the fit of the hypothesized structural model was tested. Structural equation modelling using LISREL 8.53 with maximum likelihood estimation was run and the fit between the data and structural model was evaluated using the same indices as above. The total sample of 882 was used. The model proposed direct effects of emotional attitude, perceived control, subjective norms, attitude toward past wine tourism and general food/wine involvement on the criterion measure of intention. In addition, the model included direct effects of four variables: the three wine factors and general food/wine involvement on emotional attitude as well as the indirect effects of these four variables on intention (see Figure 1). The fit of this structural model was satisfactory, Satorra-Bentler χ^2

(498) = 2130.93 ($p < .001$), $\chi^2/df = 4.28$, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .05. The model accounts for 44% of the variance in intention to take a wine tourism trip within the next 12 months and 50% of the variance in emotional attitude. As illustrated in Figure 1, the standardized direct effects on intentions were .04 for food and wine involvement, .40 for control influences, .04 for normative influences, and .05 for past attitude to wine tourism. Emotional attitude was not a significant predictor of intention in this model¹. The standardized direct effects on emotional attitude were .12 for food and wine involvement, .08 for core wine experience, .29 for destination attractiveness, and .17 for personal development.

Insert Figure 1 about here

As emotional attitude failed to predict intentions, the model was respecified without this variable or the mediating pathway. The fit of this structural model was satisfactory, Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (407) = 1753.20 ($p = .0$), $\chi^2/df = 4.31$, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .051. The revised model accounts for 46% of the variance in intention to take a wine tourism trip within the next 12 months. The standardized direct effects on intentions were .39 for perceived control influences, .05 for past attitude to wine tourism, -.14 for destination attractiveness, .05 for personal development and .05 for core wine experience. Food and wine involvement and norms were not significant predictors in this model.

Thus, in comparing the two models, very little improvement in the explained variance in intention is gained by the direct model. The wine factors are better predictors of emotional attitude than of intention. However, the revised model does represent a more parsimonious model and is worthy of further testing in future research. Finally, it should be noted that even

¹ A comparative model using frequency of visits to wine regions (low or high) was conducted to investigate if frequency of visits moderated the attitude to intention pathway. No significant difference between these two groups was found for the pathway.

though the standardized direct effect for destination attractiveness shows a negative sign, the relationship is actually a positive one. An inspection of the correlation matrix confirms this association (see Table 3). This was further evidenced by respecifying the structural model with the other two wine factors and norms excluded: in this simpler model the effect of destination attractiveness on intention was both significant and positive.

Insert Table 3 about here

5. Discussion

This study has contributed to the body of research into wine tourism in two ways. First, the results demonstrated the existence of three key wine tourism factors based upon expectancy-value beliefs. These three factors represent important aspects of the potential wine tourism experience. Second, a model based on TPB was tested in a wine tourism context and was shown to have utility in predicting wine related vacations. Table 4 presents a summary of the outcomes for each hypothesis.

Insert Table 4 about here

Three unique dimensions of wine tourism were found to exist, namely destination experience, core wine experience and personal development. The core wine experience dimension bears some similarity to Getz and Brown's (2006) exploratory work. They also found a core wine factor, although it is not identical to the one found in the present study. The destination attractiveness dimension in the present study is similar to what Getz and Brown refer to as cultural product. The addition of personal development is unique to the present study and further supports findings from past segmentation studies. For example, Charters & Ali-Knight (2002) found that wine lovers had a high desire to seek education about wine. The current

research suggests this is an important factor in terms of feeling some personal development and a sense of inspiration about the wine tourism experience. This finding can also be linked to research that proposes the importance of task or ego involvement as a motivator (Jagacinski & Strickland, 2000). These researchers propose that when a person is ego-involved they are concerned with self-development for reasons of demonstrating superior competence over others. In contrast, those who are more task-involved are said to be intrinsically motivated and achievements are self referenced. Thus, it is plausible that the desire for personal development dimension uncovered in the current research could be for these reasons. However, the personal development dimension as measured in the present wine tourism research is more suggestive of an intrinsic task oriented motivation. Future researchers could look further into the underlying mechanisms that might drive the desire for personal development within the wine tourist context. In general, the results of the present study provide some convergent evidence of the core functions fulfilled by wine tourism.

The three wine factors can also be considered within the push and pull motivational framework (see for example, Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). It would appear that one of the factors, personal self-development, is related more to an internal or push motivator, whereas, destination experience and the core wine experience are pull factors. These three factors were good predictors of the emotional attitude to wine tourism, explaining 50% of the variance in emotional attitude. In a recent study (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), it was argued that push and pull factors are important for predicting satisfaction and destination loyalty. Although Yoon & Uysal's (2005) study used only a small number of indicators to represent push or pull factors, their results suggest an important link between motivators and future behaviour. Similarly, in the present study there is evidence to suggest the push and pull wine tourism beliefs are related to attitude formation and to future intention to partake in wine tourism.

Turning to the extended TPB model tested (Figure 1) in this research, no relationship between emotional attitude and intentions was found. Interestingly, Lam and Hsu (2006) also found that attitude was not a significant predictor of intentions to visit a tourist destination (in this case, Hong Kong). The major predictor of intentions to take a wine holiday within the next 12 months was the perceived control a respondent felt. Past attitude, normative influences and general food and wine involvement each had small effects on intentions. These relationships are consistent with TPB. However, norms and involvement were not significant when the wine value/belief factors were allowed to directly predict intentions. In comparing the two models, very little improvement in explanatory power for the variance in intention was gained by the direct model. Although the wine factors did have some direct effect it was not substantial, indicating other factors might be at play in determining the intent to take a wine holiday. The wine factors were better predictors of emotional attitude than of intention.

It is possible that had the study used measures that demonstrated a greater degree of correspondence between the constructs, the results would have shown a better fitting model and more significant pathways. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) suggest using measures that are highly specific and closely corresponding. For example, asking “what is your attitude to taking a wine vacation in the next 12 months?” and “How likely are you to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months?”. This approach, however, is not without its critics. Indeed, Ogden (2003) has argued that the TPB is not falsifiable partly due to the high correspondence. Whilst Ajzen and Fishbein (2004) refute this criticism, it does raise the issue of what is an appropriate degree of correspondence. The present study attempted to use a broader set of measures for predicting intention to engage in wine tourism. Even without the high degree of correspondence, partial evidence was found for the TPB.

Like other tourism studies (see Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006), the present study demonstrated the important role perceived control plays in predicting behavioural intention. The control variable indexed the amount of personal control a respondent felt they had over taking a wine related holiday. It comprised items that measured both money and time control. While the notion of perceived control may not be unique to wine tourism (that is, other tourists may feel similar constraints), it does highlight the importance of need to overcome perceived barriers of time and cost for many potential wine tourists. In future research it may be useful to determine if separate constructs could be developed for each of money and time, thus providing more practical information for destination marketers. Similarly, further investigation of other forms of control would also be useful. For instance, in related research domains (see Kim & Chalip, 2004; Smith, 1987), barriers or constraints to travel have included financial (lack of money), knowledge (lack of full understanding), health (personal state), distance needed to travel to the destination, and risk (health and safety). The extant literature on leisure constraints (see for example, Crawford et al. 1991; Jackson & Rucks, 1993) offers a promising foundation for the investigation of the important area of control and constraints. This research identifies structural barriers (e.g. family life-cycle, season, work schedule, or financial resources), intrapersonal barriers (e.g. stress, religiosity, reference group attitudes or subjective evaluation of the appropriateness of an activity), and interpersonal barriers (e.g. resulting from the interaction with significant others such as a spouse). The present research using TPB tended to focus on the structural category of constraints, however, it is quite plausible that both intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints could intervene to influence behavioural intentions. An additional contribution of the leisure constraint literature is the focus on constraint negotiation (Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993), which suggests that people can negotiate through constraints on their leisure in order to overcome obstacles. This finding is important to the present research, as it may be that potential wine tourists can be encouraged to find ways to overcome barriers.

The subjective norms measure, not unrelated to interpersonal barriers (see Crawford et al. 1991), was also a significant predictor of intentions in the mediated structural model. This suggests that reference groups are influential in whether someone might travel to a wine region for tourism purposes. Other research (Hsu, Kang & Lam, 2006) has also demonstrated the importance of reference groups in travel behaviour. Limited research seems to exist as to the role of reference groups in determining wine tourism behaviour and this is an area worthy of further investigation. In particular, developing a wider range of measures for primary (e.g. family or friends) and secondary groups (e.g. travel agents) (see Hsu et al., 2006) may provide important insights to the travel decision process. It seems there is a need to better understand the role of subjective norms as there has been mixed support for its influence on behavioural intention in tourism studies (see, Lam and Hsu, 2004, 2006). This is likely to be of particular importance as related destination image studies (e.g. Beerli & Martin, 2004) have demonstrated that word of mouth (derived from other tourists) is an especially important communication channel, which in turn influences a consumer's cognitive image of destinations.

5.2 Practical implications

In addition to the overall testing of a model of TPB, the research has practical implications for industry. The practical implications are best gained through the focus on components of the model. First, national and regional tourism organizations attempting to attract wine tourists can incorporate references to the three core wine tourism features of the experience into promotions since all three predicted intentions in the direct effects model. In particular, value may be gained by emphasising the personal development opportunities that are available to tourists. Similarly, at the cellar door level, there is likely to be more opportunities to target personal development. Providing activities that tap the personal development dimension could

provide an opportunity to enhance the experience of wine tourists. Making potential tourists aware of the opportunity for personal development can assist in nurturing tourists' intrinsic or push motivation toward wine tourism. Advertising images that pick up on the destination experience may also be of value to tourism authorities. Advertising that emphasises the uniqueness of the region and the landscape together with images that evoke indulgence and a sense of the novel or undiscovered could help promote visitation. This would enable regions to tap into the destination experience factor as a way to attract (pull) tourists to the wine region. Focussing on the core wine experience through emphasising the distinctive wine tasting opportunities (including those unique to the region) and the opportunities to meet wine makers should further "pull" tourists to the region.

Second, the research suggests that developing strategies to assist people overcome control issues might be needed. In particular, an attempt to deal with perceptions of time restrictions would be useful. Creating wine experiences that can be taken in a shorter period might entice some consumers. In addition, advertising messages could be developed with specific verbal persuasion along the lines of "You can make time for yourself to enjoy a short break at the x wine region".

As reference groups appear to play a role in influencing tourists in deciding to travel to a wine region, it is important for wineries or tourist authorities to understand, and attempt to influence, the word of mouth (WOM) reputation likely to be spread. By actively seeking feedback from tourists on a regular basis via comment card or more formalized market research, tourism providers can gauge the sort of WOM activity that is generated through visitation and possibly avert or monitor any negative WOM (Cheng, Lam & Hsu, 2006). Other wine tourism research (Mitchell & Hall, 2004) further emphasises the role of positive word of mouth after a visiting a wine region. Importantly, most of Mitchell and Hall's (2004)

respondents mentioned making recommendations based on factors like ‘the setting’ ‘staff and service’ ‘value for money’ and ‘food’; many of these were picked up in the present study. Similarly, the attitude to past wine tourism experiences is important in predicting future engagement with wine tourism. Thus, having quality experiences when visiting a wine region is an important factor. A focus on enhancing the experiences associated with the wine tourism dimensions is likely to be essential.

Finally, the development of an attitudinal model presents managers with a more complete picture of the factors influencing behavioural intention, thus getting closer to understanding the complexity of consumer decision making. Managers need to be cognisant of the multi-faceted nature of consumer choice for wine tourism. Furthermore, in addition to each component of the model discussed above, this research provides insight to the relative weighting of each part of the model. Thus, focussing effort on overcoming control issues, as well as ensuring customer satisfaction, seems warranted.

6. Conclusion, future research and limitations

This study provided useful insights into a consumer behavioural intention model. In doing so evidence of three key dimensions of wine tourism expectancy-values were identified and confirmed. The model based on TPB was shown to have relatively good predictive validity. It is acknowledged that greater correspondence between measures would, most probably, increase the effectiveness of the model. The construct of perceived behavioural control strongly predicted intention and is an area worthy of further research. A greater understanding of the multiple facets of control is required since this is clearly an important construct governing possible participation in wine tourism. Similarly, the construct of involvement can be conceptualised in various ways and investigating this in respect of ‘branded’ regions might

be fruitful (see Lochshin, Spawton & Macintosh, 1997). Like many tourism destination studies, this research adopted a multi-attribute approach to consumer behaviour (see Pike, 2002). Whilst this is consistent with Theory of Planned Behaviour, it may be useful to look at alternative models in future research given the complexity of tourist destinations.

Like all studies, this one had limitations. First, a single item measure of intention was used in this study. It would be desirable to have a more robust multiple-item scale measuring this construct. In addition, the timeframe used for the intention measure was the next 12 months and it is possible that this was too short a period for most respondents. Although this study used a large, random sample, the analyses are based on data collected in a cross-sectional, one shot study and are thus subject to criticism of common method variance. Other studies have started to investigate wine tourism from a longitudinal perspective (see Mitchell & Hall, 2004). Similarly, to determine causality it would be useful to undertake further research of a longitudinal and/or experimental nature. The present study tested the model on those respondents who had some past wine region visitation. Although sample size did not allow for tests of two groups (previous wine visit and no wine visit), it would be useful to compare the model with respondents who have never visited a wine region in future research. Finally, this study asked respondents to imagine a holiday in a wine region but it must be acknowledged that this may not represent a purely wine-motivated vacation.

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Table 1 Demographic Profile – full sample

Sample Characteristic	%	Sample Characteristic	%
Employment Status (n=1,050)		Current/Last occupation (n=983)	
Full-time	39.0	Professional	
Part-time	11.5	Semi-professional	32.9
Casual	8.0	Trades/labourer/unskilled	11.6
Not employed	5.2	Admin/Clerk/Supervisor	19.3
Retired	19.0	Sales/retail/customer service	16.1
Self-employed	7.9	Community/personal services	10.0
Other	9.2	Home duties	6.2
		Farmer	1.6
		Not enough information	0.8
		Missing	1.5
Age (n=1,066)		Gender (n=1,070)	
15-24	3.6		
25-34	18.9	Male	56.2
35-44	23.1	Female	43.8
45-64	42.0		
64+	12.5		
Education (n=1,075)		Household Inc. AUD (n=1,031)	
Completed Yr 10 or less	13.6	Less than \$20,000	13.4
Completed Yr 11 or Yr 12	19.2	\$20,001-\$30,000	12.3
Certificate or Diploma	19.3	\$30,001-\$40,000	11.3
Trade Qualification	12.4	\$40,001-\$50,000	13.4
Undergraduate Degree	23.3	\$50,001-\$70,000	19.9
Postgraduate Degree	10.9	\$70,001-\$100,000	16.5
Other	1.3	Greater than \$100,000	13.3
Life Stage (n=1,068)		Relationship Status (n=1,073)	
Young person (under 35) living alone or sharing	7.1	Single, never married	12.5
Young person (under 35) living with parents	1.2	Married	54.5
Young couple (under 35) no children	6.0	Couple/De facto	12.1
Family – with children at home, avg age <15 years	27.3	Separated/Divorced/Widowed	19.9
Family – with children at home, avg age >15 years	10.0	Other	0.9
Mature person (age 35+), single	20.2		
Mature couple (age 35+) children left home or no children	29.1		

Table 2 Factor loadings for measurement model

Items	Factor loading ^a	Variance Extracted ^b	Reliability ^c
<i>Destination experience M = 5.81 (.91)</i>		62.1%	.94
Real/genuine experience	.87		
Beautiful surroundings	.79		
Opportunities for me to escape from routine/stress of daily life	.79		
Indulgent experiences	.78		
Regional produce unique to destination	.76		
An unusual/undiscovered destination	.73		
<i>Personal development M = 4.87(1.27)</i>		76.4%	.91
Opportunity to feel enlightened	.91		
An experience that allows me to develop as a person	.84		
Opportunity to feel inspired	.87		
<i>Core wine experience M = 5.30 (1.22)</i>		65.8%	.88
Excellent wine-tasting opportunities	.88		
Talking with winemaker and wine staff	.82		
Opportunities to purchase rare and expensive wines not elsewhere available	.68		
Opportunities to purchase wine at a reasonable price	.85		
<i>Food and wine involvement M = 5.24 (1.45)</i>		84%	.98
F&W activities are desirable	.95		
F&W activities are appealing	.94		
F&W activities are stimulating	.94		
F&W activities are wanted	.93		

F&W activities are interesting	.92		
F&W activities are exciting	.91		
F&W activities are valuable	.87		
F&W activities mean a lot	.85		
<i>Emotional attitude M = 5.56 (1.16)</i>		66%	.85
Expect to feel: excited	.89		
Expect to feel: satisfied	.79		
Expect to feel: aroused	.75		
<i>Normative influence M= 5.44 (1.23)</i>		80.6%	.93
Would like to visit a wine region that I have heard about from friends/family	.95		
Would like to take a wine holiday that is popular among my friends/family	.89		
Would like to visit wine region that has been recommended by friends/family	.85		
<i>Control influence M= 4.54 (1.73)</i>		70.4%	.88
I have enough money to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months	.92		
Nothing prevents me from taking a holiday to a wine region if I want to	.83		
I have enough time to take a wine holiday in the next 12 months	.76		
<i>Past attitude to wine holiday M = 6.04 (1.05)</i>		85.2%	.95
Ratings of last wine holiday: favourable	.93		
Ratings of last wine holiday: good	.92		
Ratings of last wine holiday: liked	.92		

^a Based on the completely standardised loadings from LISREL

^b The average variance extracted was computed (see Hair et al., 2006 for the formula) as an indicator of convergent validity

^c Construct reliability was computed using the formula recommended by Hair et al., 2006

Table 3 Correlations and reliabilities for each scale

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Personal development	1								
2. Core wine experience	.62	1							
3. Destination experience	.75	.68	1						
4. Food and wine involvement	.39	.48	.43	1					
5. Emotional attitude	.52	.49	.53	.39	1				
6. Normative influences	.48	.52	.56	.41	.41	1			
7. Perceived control	.25	.32	.27	.29	.26	.38	1		
8. Attitude toward past wine holiday	.38	.46	.49	.34	.46	.44	.23	1	
9. Intention to take wine trip in 12 mth	.29	.38	.28	.32	.26	.35	.58	.27	1

Table 4 Summary outcomes for hypotheses

Hypothesis	Outcome
Hypothesis 1: Expectancy-value dimensions of wine tourism will be associated with the overall emotional attitude toward wine tourism	Supported
Hypothesis 2: The emotional attitude toward wine tourism will mediate between the expectancy-value dimensions and intention to visit a wine region	Not supported
Hypothesis 3: Subjective norms will have direct effects on a tourist's intention to visit a wine region	Partially supported
Hypothesis 4: Perceived behavioural control will have direct effects on a tourist's intention to visit a wine region	Supported
Hypothesis 5: Attitude toward past wine tourism experiences will have a direct effect on intention to visit a wine region in the future	Supported
Hypothesis 6: General involvement with wine and food activities will have direct effects on (a) emotional attitude and (b) intention to visit a wine region	Partially supported

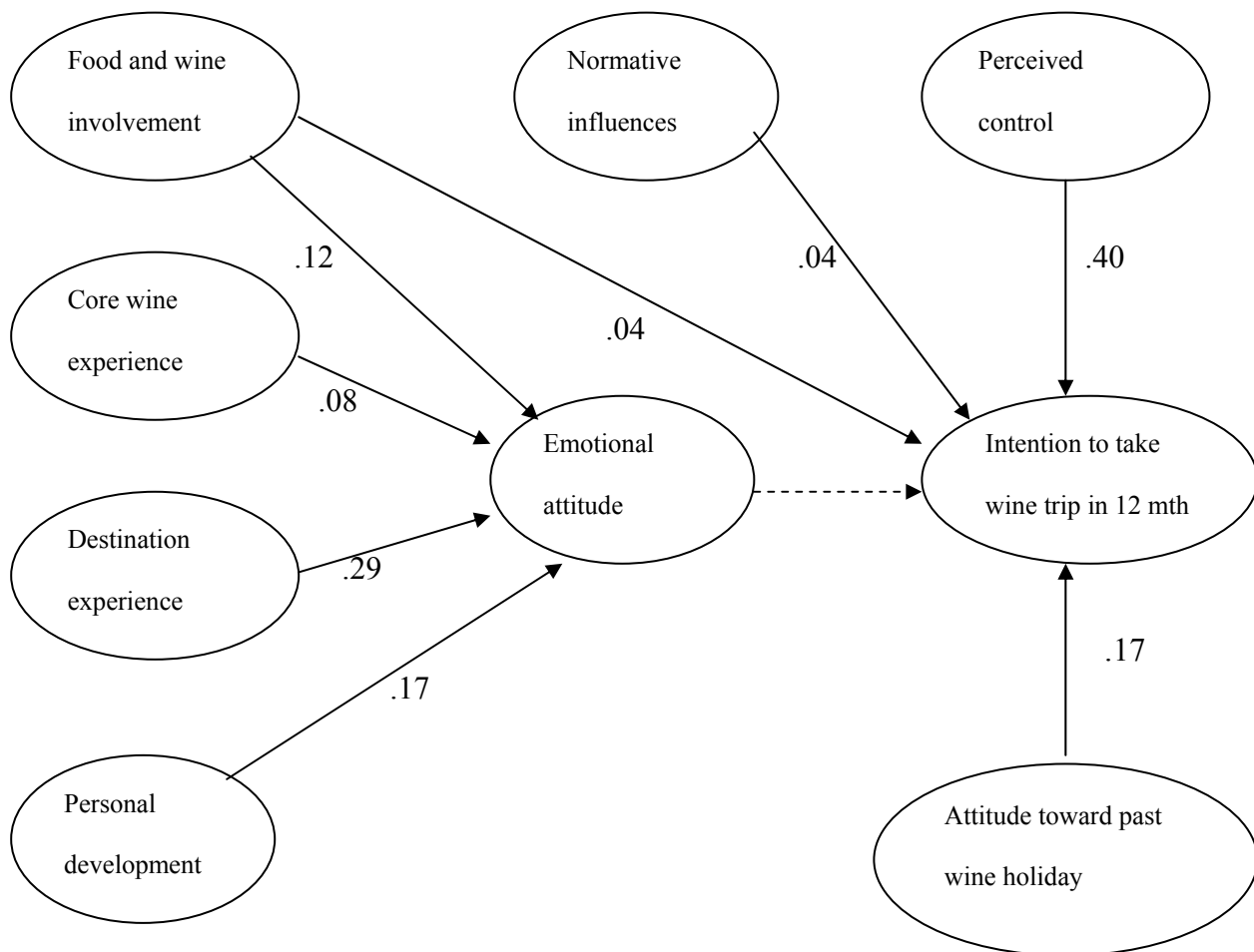


Figure 1 Structural model of wine tourism intention