

THE SEQUENTIAL MEDIATING EFFECT OF WELLNESS MOTIVATION AND WELLNESS SATISFACTION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICE ENCOUNTER EXPECTATIONS AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourists nowadays not just spend on staycation holidays but also demand for chronic and stress care management. Eating healthily, exercising regularly and monitoring one's health have become a lifestyle choice (Weinswig, 2017). Maintaining health and well-being became one of the important reasons for travel. More tourists are likely to spend more on wellness travelling plans. According to Koncul (2012), some modes of tourism, globally, due to the economic downturn, have declined, however, the tourism industry still performed well during the last two-three years by promoting the new model i.e. facility generally called *Wellness*. Thus, paved the way for the development of a niche market in wellness tourism.

Several authors (Georgiv & Vasileva, 2010; Global Spa Summit, 2011; Dimitrovski & Todorovic, 2015; Han, Kiatkawsin, Jung & Kim, 2017) affirmed that research in wellness tourism is not that pervasive. There is scarcity of study in the overall performance and competitiveness of wellness industry in general, thus lack of statistical indicators (Han, Kiatkawsin, Jung & Kim, 2017). While wellness tourism research is still new (Pesonen & Tuohino, 2017) and is increasing in demand and popularity, constant evaluation of services is imperative (Snoj & Mumel, 2002), and to continue meeting the varying demands and needs of wellness tourists, the need for market research is suggested (Koncul, 2012; Global Wellness Institute, 2014; ASEAN, 2015).

The study was conducted in Region XI, Philippines or commonly known as the Davao Region. Davao Region is situated in the southeastern part of Mindanao. Davao region is composed of

five provinces namely: Davao de Oro (formerly Compostela Valley), Davao del Norte, Davao Oriental, Davao del Sur and Davao Occidental. Its regional center is Davao City. The region has 19,671.8 square kilometers land area (Republic of the Philippines Department of Trade and Industry, 2018) and is blessed with a uniform distribution of rainfall all throughout the year, abundant forest land and fertile fields. Predominantly, the region is more on agriculture and is developing into agro-industrial, trade and tourism sector. Tourism is an important source of employment in the region where it boasts its many resorts, nature-based and eco-tourism sites. Tourism is one of the sectors that are growing in the Davao region. In fact, data from the Department of Tourism shows an escalating tourist influx in Region XI from 2010 to 2015. Arrivals in Davao region in 2010 only accounted for 847,281 tourists which consist of domestic, foreign tourists and *Balikbayans/Overseas*. It increased by more than 65% in 2015 were it boosted to more than 2.5 million. Domestic tourism is robust in the region as there were more local people coming from different municipalities in Region XI travelled and visited other municipalities as compared to foreign travelers. This can also be observed in 2016-2018 distribution of tourists which shows that there were more domestic guests visiting the region as compared to foreign and overseas or *Balikbayan* guests. Domestic tourist arrivals in Davao Region from 2016 to 2017 rose up to 7.1% and 18.1% in 2018. While foreign visitor arrivals had a -5.1% from 2016 to 2017 but moved up by 25.2% in 2018. The biggest distribution share of domestic tourists per region in 2018 alone is in Davao City (2,150,185), followed by Davao del Sur (808,895), Compostela Valley (563,241), Davao

Oriental (146,804), Davao Occidental (34,321) and Davao del Norte (13,100) respectively. More foreign tourists also flocked Davao City in 2018 (198,014). This is followed by Davao del Sur, Davao Occidental, Davao Oriental, Compostela Valley and Davao del Norte (raw data from Department of Tourism XI).

Notwithstanding the proliferation of spa and other wellness tourism attractions in Davao Region, Philippines, there is still lacking evidence of the regions' competitiveness in terms of overall wellness tourism. The region may have the potential to compete with other ASEAN or Asia-Pacific countries with its vast and varied tourism core resources, but there is still much to be explored and scrutinized in terms of tourists' perceptions and motivations in order to establish competitive strategies. Particularly, there are not much statistical reports showing the behavior of wellness tourists in Davao Region.

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to address this dearth in wellness tourism studies by examining the mediating role of wellness motivations and satisfaction in the relationship between service encounter expectations and behavioral intentions. Through examining wellness tourists' motivations and satisfaction, tourism operators and planners in the region will have a better understanding on how to develop tourism products that will match market needs and demands. They will also be in a better position to formulate marketing strategies for the wellness tourist market and to achieve destination competitiveness. Such that, this will further help increase the region's tourism market share in either domestic or international tourism, particularly in wellness sector.

METHOD

A survey questionnaire was developed to answer objectives of the study which were to determine the service encounter expectations of the wellness tourists, the factors that influence their decision to visit, their satisfaction on wellness tourism services as well as their post visit behavioral intentions. The questionnaire was divided into three (5) parts: first part was their demographic profile; second part determined the service encounter expectations; third part is the key motivational

drivers of wellness tourism visits; fourth section identified the wellness satisfaction and lastly, the behavioral intentions.

Frequency and descriptive statistics were used to analyzed demographic characteristics of wellness tourists. Regression was utilized to determine the relationship among the variables and further, sequential mediation was used to determine if wellness motivation and satisfaction mediates the association of service encounter expectation to behavioral intention.

FINDINGS

Demographic Profile of the Wellness Tourists. Results show that from the respondents surveyed, majority are female wellness tourists (69.7%), who belong to the 18 – 22 years old age group (25.5%), followed by respondents who are from 33 to 37 years old and 28 to 32 years old respectively. Most of the respondents are single (59.2%), this is followed by those who are married with children (28.9%). Wellness consumers in Davao Region have attained college degrees (61.1%) and are currently working (59.5%). There is a large number of domestic wellness tourists (97.4%) than foreign wellness tourists (2.6%).

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analyses. Results show that all correlations were in the predicted direction. The service encounter expectations ($r = 0.4828$; $p < 0.001$); wellness motivation ($r = 0.5501$; $p < 0.001$) and wellness satisfaction ($r = 0.6999$; $p < 0.001$) have significant association with behavioral intention. There is a significant association between wellness motivation ($r = 0.5674$; $p < 0.001$) and wellness satisfaction ($r = 0.5146$; $p < 0.001$) with service encounter expectations. Also, a significant association exit between wellness satisfaction ($r = 0.5564$; $p < 0.001$) and wellness motivation.

The Mediating Role of Wellness Motivation and Satisfaction.

To determine the mediation effect of wellness motivation and satisfaction to the relationship between service encounter expectation and behavioral intention, sequential mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986) was utilized. Baron and Kenny proposed the four-step technique in measuring the

mediating effect. Thus, results show that the mediation of wellness motivation between service encounter expectation and wellness satisfaction was significant, $B = 0.53$, $t=13.39$, $p < 0.001$. Step 2 showed that the mediation of wellness satisfaction between wellness motivation and behavioral intention was significant, $B = 0.6112$, $t = 13.01$, $p < 0.001$. Step 3 on mediation of wellness motivation and satisfaction between service encounter and behavioral intention was significant, $B = 0.751$, $t = 19.05$, $p < 0.001$. Step 4 on mediation of satisfaction between service encounter expectation and behavioral intention was significant, $B = 0.531$, $t = 11.67$, $p < 0.001$. lastly, Step 5 showed that mediation of wellness motivation between service encounter expectation and behavioral intention was significant, $B = 0.6492$, $t = 12.80$, $p < 0.001$.

Furthermore, Sobel (1982) suggested that establishing the mediating effect of a variable should meet the following two conditions: (1) the predictor (service encounter expectations) had a significant direct effect on the mediator (wellness motivation and satisfaction); (2) the mediator variables (wellness motivation and satisfaction) had a significant direct effect on the outcome variable, which in this study is the behavioral intention. Hence, a Sobel test was conducted and found full mediation in the model ($z = 15.93$, $p < 0.001$). It was found that wellness motivation and satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between service encounter expectations and behavioral intention.

IMPLICATIONS and CONCLUSION

This study addresses the gap in wellness tourism research specifically on the mediating roles of motivation and satisfaction with the association of service encounter expectations to behavioral intention. The results of this study present that relationship between service encounter expectations and behavioral intention is sequentially mediated by wellness motivation and satisfaction. Findings of the study conclude that when a wellness tourism destination can provide opportunities for diversified wellness service experiences, it will have an impact to the likelihood of the wellness tourist to revisit and recommend the destination to others. In light of the findings, enhancing the marketing and management of differentiated and specialized wellness products, particularly those which are based on the region's unique core tourism resources is crucial. Wellness service providers need to recognize customers' needs and demands that can be fulfilled through their resources (Peris-Ortiz & Alvarez-Garcia, 2015, as cited in Talebi, 2017). Collaboration among accommodation providers, tour operators, and wellness practitioners is also critical to encourage the development and competitiveness of wellness products (Voigt & Pforr, 2013). Continuous innovation in tourism is required since development is very rapid. Tourists' needs, demands, and expectations are increasingly changing, and they seek for more new tourism products, new destinations, new experiences, and adventures (Milicevic & Petrovic, 2017).

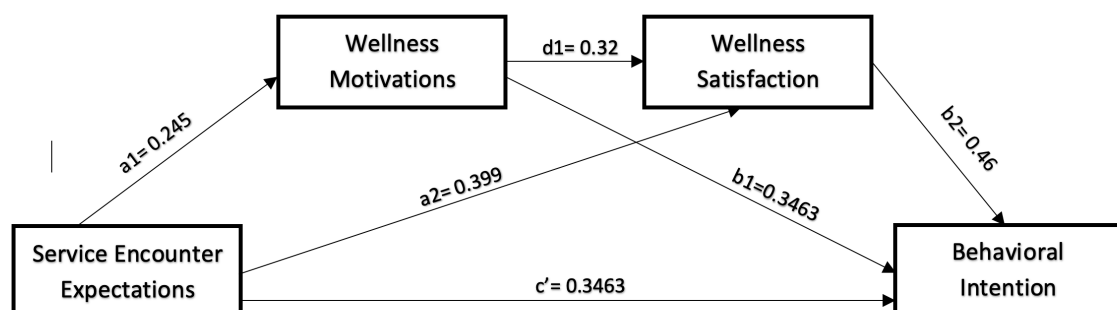


Figure 1. Diagram of the Sequential Mediation Model of the Study

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THE DARK SIDE OF TRAVELLING ABROAD: HOW BROAD FOREIGN TOUR EXPERIENCES INCREASE DEVIANT TOURIST BEHAVIORS?

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the accelerating pace of globalization, travelling abroad experiences (TAEs) are increasingly common and valued. Past research has explored the bright side of TAEs, including, but not limited to, sense of well-being (e.g., Moal-Ulvoas, 2017), learning (e.g., Falk et al., 2012), and creativity (e.g., Maddux and Galinsky, 2009). In contrast, this research reveals a hidden dark side of TAEs: increased deviant tourist behaviors.

TAEs can promote cognitive flexibility—“the ability to break ordinary patterns of thought, to overcome functional fixedness and to avoid a reliance on conventional ideas or solutions” (de Bloom et al., 2014, p.165). The core logic is that TAEs provide diverse experiences such as learning a foreign language, tasting exotic food, witnessing different natural surroundings and unfamiliar cultural habits and as such may break well-established mental schemas and broaden cognitive scope. We argue that TAEs not only enable tourists to immerse in foreign cultures in a mentally flexible way, but also lead them to think and act in a morally flexible manner. That is, although TAEs help tourists to break mental rules, TAEs may also stimulate them to bend moral rules, thereby inducing their immoral or deviant tourist behaviors.

As tourists have broad TAEs by experiencing different foreign cultures, they may learn to appreciate that different cultures have different standards on the same moral issues, and thus, to construe moral rules and practices as culturally relative rather than absolute. In other words, when tourists are exposed to more sets of moral codes

by visiting a broad range of countries, they are more likely to develop a generalized and flexible view of moral relativism—the view that “describes morality as subjective and culturally-historically contingent” (Rai and Holyoak, 2013, p.995). As Rai and Holyoak (2013) pointed out, moral relativism involves more relaxed moral standards and weakens moral commitment, and subsequently makes individuals more likely to engage in immoral behaviors. Accordingly, we predict that the enhanced moral relativism conferred by broad TAEs can make tourists to engage in immoral or deviant tourist behaviors (e.g., littering, graffiti and jaywalking, see Li and Chen, 2017).

Over the past decades, most studies have almost exclusively focused on the positive outcomes of TAEs (e.g., enhanced intercultural awareness, better mental health, higher life satisfaction). This research, conversely, reveals an important dark side of TAEs that lurk within by showing that broad TAEs can facilitate moral relativism and thus increase deviant tourist behaviors. Figure 1 shows our conceptual model.

METHODOLOGY

To test our model, eight hundred and five U.S. respondents (33.70% female; 82.61% aged at 21-50 years old) were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) online panel participated in this study, in exchange for monetary reward. Respondents indicated the countries that they had travelled from a list of the 50 most visited countries (based on the number of international inbound tourists) compiled by World Tourism Organization (2018) (available at: <http://world-statistics.org/index-res.php?code=ST.I>

NT.ARVL?name=International%20tourism,%20number%20of%20arrivals).

We followed prior study (Cao et al., 2014) to measure the breadth of TAEs via the number of foreign countries that respondents had travelled ($M = 4.28$, $SD = 4.85$). moral relativism was measured by a six-item, seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) adapted from Forsyth (1980): “Moral rules are relative rather than absolute”, “Lying is not always wrong”, “What one person judges as “moral” may be judged as “immoral” by another person”, “Moral rules should not be followed absolutely”, “Whether a behavioral is moral or immoral depends on the situation”, “What is moral varies from one society to another” ($\alpha = 0.86$).

Respondents rated the frequency of deviant tourist behaviors in their past foreign trip experiences on a twelve-item, 7-point scale (1 = never to 7 = very frequently) adopted from Li and Chen (2017): “littering on a tour”, “graffiti”, “trampling on lawns”, “climbing sculptures or trees to take a photo”, “making a racket in public”, “taking a photo without waiting in line”, “urinating in public”, “not flushing the toilet”, “smoking in a non-smoking area”, “jaywalking”, “feeding animals at the zoo”, and “not turning off their phone on a plane” ($\alpha = 0.97$). Age, gender, income, socioeconomic status, travel frequency and travel spending were included as control variables. Table 1 present the demographic characteristics of the sample.

FINDINGS

We test the conceptual model by using Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation analysis. Results revealed that independently, both the breadth of TAEs ($\beta = 0.08$; $p = .006$) and moral relativism ($\beta = 0.24$; $p = .000$) have positive and significant regression coefficients with deviant tourist behaviors. However, when included within the same model, the relationship between the breadth of TAEs and deviant tourist behaviors became insignificant ($\beta = .05$; $p = .057$) while the relationship between moral relativism and deviant tourist behaviors remained ($\beta = 0.24$; $p = .000$) with a positive and significant relationship between the breadth of TAEs and moral relativism emerging ($\beta = 0.11$; $p = .001$).

These results indicate that moral relativism mediates the relationship between the breadth of TAEs and deviant tourist behaviors and that the breadth of TAEs is an important antecedent to moral relativism.

In addition, we employed an SPSS macro developed by Hayes (2013) to test our model. This approach allows for assessing the significance of indirect effect with a boot-strapping technique (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Specifically, our research employed Model 4 with 5000 bootstrapped samples to carry out the mediation analyses. The results showed that the indirect effect of breadth of TAEs on deviant tourist behaviors was qualified by significant mediations, with a point estimate of 0.01 (Boot S.E. = 0.003; 95% CI: [.0052, .0179]) for moral relativism. The direct effect of breadth of TAEs is not significant for deviant tourist behaviors. Thus, we conclude that moral relativism fully mediates the relationship between the breadth of TAEs and deviant tourist behaviors.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Despite the growing popularity of TAEs, this study is among the first to pinpoints a potential downside of TAEs: deviant tourist behaviors. Previous research disproportionately emphasizes the positive aspects deriving from travelling abroad, such as stress relief (de Bloom et al., 2014), lifelong learning (Falk et al., 2012), and generalized trust (Cao et al., 2014). Our research, however, provides empirical evidence that broad experiences of travelling abroad can promote moral relativism and thus increase deviant tourist behaviors. Thus, we shed new insights on TAEs by offering a more balanced and objective view of such experiences.

THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This research timely responds to the call for future research on deviant tourist behaviors, by Li and Chen (2019). As a deliberate or unconscious practice undertaken by tourists, deviant tourist behavior is quite common in worldwide tourism. Deviant tourist behaviors are not only destructive to tourism resources but also detrimental to others’ tourism experience and possibly incur losses to tour operators and travel agents. Nevertheless, the existing literature on deviant tourist behaviors is

very limited with emphasis on describing deviant tourist behaviors or identifying negative impacts of deviant tourist behaviors (Li and Chen, 2017), and the mechanisms of what drives deviant tourist behaviors need to be explored. The present study adds to the still incipient literature on deviant tourist behaviors by uncovering a new and profound antecedent of it, namely, the breadth of TAEs. More specifically (and intriguingly), our findings show that the more countries you travel to, the more deviant tourist behaviors you are likely to engage in.

This research also contributes to research on moral issue by identifying one important root of moral relativism. While recent research has focused on the consequences of moral relativism (e.g., Rai and Holyoak, 2013), we propose and demonstrate one important antecedent of it from the tourism area: breadth of TAEs. As such, the present study enriches the understanding of moral relativism by connecting the fields of tourism and moral psychology. In addition, we present empirical evidence to validate Rai and Holyoak (2013)'s study by showing that moral relativism can promote tourism-related immoral behaviors (i.e., deviant tourist behaviors).

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

This research provides practical guidelines to prevent and manage deviant tourist behaviors. Our findings show that tourists with rich TAEs are likely to engage in deviant tourist behaviors. Accordingly, we suggest travel agencies or tour guides to pay attention to these tourists with broad experiences of foreign vacation, since these tourists may have high level of moral relativism and thereby increasing the intention to conduct deviant tourist behaviors. In addition, government or policy makers should proactively anticipate and minimize the potential toll of deviant tourist behaviors induced by moral relativism. For example, they can provide visitors advance warning of deviant tourist behaviors with severe penalties or punishment.

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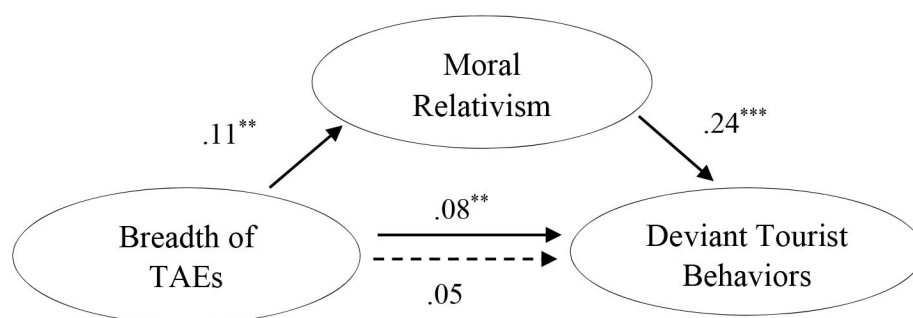
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Table 1. *Demographic Profile of the Sample (N = 805)*

Demographic traits		Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	66.3%
	Female	33.7%
Age	≤20	1.0%
	21–30	35.4%
	31–40	29.4%
	41–50	17.8%
	51–60	11.3%
	>60	5.1%
Income level	USD\$0-\$9,999	4.5%
	USD\$10,000-\$19,999	5.3%
	USD\$20,000-\$29,999	11.1%
	USD\$30,000-\$39,999	9.8%
	USD\$40,000-\$49,999	14.7%
	USD\$50,000-\$59,999	14.2%
	USD\$60,000-\$69,999	11.1%
	USD\$70,000-\$79,999	9.2%
	USD\$80,000-\$89,999	5.0%
	USD\$90,000-\$99,999	6.5%
Travel frequency per year	USD\$100,000 or More	8.8%
	1-2 times	47.2%
	3-5 times	43.0%
	More than 5 times	9.8%
Travel spending per year	Less than USD\$1000	12.8%
	USD\$1000 to \$1999	22.5%
	USD\$2000 to \$4999	36.3%
	USD\$5000 to \$9999	15.7%
	USD\$1,0000 to \$1,9999	6.1%
	USD\$2,0000 or More	6.7%

Figure 1. *Conceptual Model.*

Dotted line represents the lack of a relationship between TAEs and deviant tourist behaviors when moral relativism is included in the model.

SUNK COSTS AND TOURISTS' INTENTIONS TO VISIT A DESTINATION: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF DESTINATION TRUST

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism consumption differs from daily consumption in terms of its characteristics such as mobility, intangibility, and variability, therefore, potential tourists often bear higher risks in relation to tourism consumption (Su, Lian, Huang, 2020). For example, unexpected situations such as the of COVID-19 pandemic suddenly occur, cause tourists to cancel or change their bookings (Huang & Min, 2002; Zenker & Kock, 2020). In such cases, the resulting unrecoverable invested time and possible cancellation fees easily generate sunk costs (Park & Jang, 2014), defined as costs that have been incurred and cannot be recovered (Arkes & Blumer, 1985). A number of studies have demonstrated the significant impact of sunk costs on individuals' behavior in relation to decision-making (Emich & Pyone, 2018; Sweis et al., 2018). However, existing tourism studies have rarely explored the impact of sunk cost on tourists' behavioral intentions (Park & Jang, 2014).

Drawing on cognitive dissonance theory, prospect theory, and signal theory, this study developed and verified a conceptual model that examines how temporal sunk costs (high vs. low) and monetary sunk costs (presence vs. absence), respectively, impact tourists' trust and visit intentions. Specifically, the mediation effect of destination trust between sunk costs and visit intentions was investigated. The findings of this study shed new lights on understanding the impacts of sunk costs in tourists' decision-making process.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Arkes and Blumer (1985) defined sunk costs as costs have been incurred and cannot be recovered, which can be either monetary or nonmonetary. The commonly known phrase "Time is money" implies that time is a scarce resource (Bornemann & Homburg, 2011) and time may affect consumer behavior (Soman, 2001). In the tourism context, because of the spatial and temporal separation between purchasing and experiencing, the waiting time before travelling may translate into temporal sunk costs due to unexpected situations (Park & Jang, 2014). Existing studies have shown the impact of temporal sunk cost on behavioral intention (Sweis et al., 2018; Park & Jang, 2014). In this study, we defines temporal sunk costs as the temporal gap between purchasing and unwilling cancellation, which is caused by force majeure such as weather conditions and the COVID-19 pandemic.

According to cognitive dissonance theory, cognitive dissonance takes places when a result is inconsistent with the expected result. The more sacrifice a person given, the greater cognitive dissonance he or she may experience (Aronson & Mill, 1959). Given the intangibility and variability characteristics of tourism activities, the results of tourism consumption may differ from tourists' expectations (Park & Jang, 2014). Trust can help tourists to decrease perceived risk in order to increase intention to purchase (Agag & El-Masry, 2016; Artigas et al., 2017). Hence, in this situation, the longer the waiting period before traveling, the more temporal sunk costs that tourists incur, the greater cognitive dissonance they feel, the higher the recognition of the destination for which they have waited, and the higher the accumulation of

trust towards this destination. Thus, we propose,

- **H1a.** High (vs. low) temporal sunk cost will have a stronger positive effect on potential tourists' destination trust.
- **H1b.** The high (vs. low) temporal sunk cost will have a stronger positive effect on potential tourists' intentions to visit a destination.

Monetary sunk cost is defined as the amount of monetary cost imposed by tourism product suppliers for potential cancellations or changes in tourism consumption (Park & Jang, 2014). Existing literature confirms that monetary sunk costs influence customers' trust (De Reuver et al., 2015), cancellation intention (Park & Jang, 2014), and decision-making (Soster, Gershoff, & Bearden, 2014). According to prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), individuals tend to compare outcomes with reference points instead of evaluating outcomes in absolute measures. Moreover, prospect theory proposed that the impact due to a loss is greater than the corresponding impact due to a gain (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Loss aversion had been proven in tourism: Viglia, Mauri, and Carricano (2016) showed that people are more sensitive to loss (spending more) than gain (spending less). Hence, when tourists compare prices (cancellation fee and original price) with a reference price (original price), judge the cancellation fee as losses, and magnify loss under the loss aversion, the magnified travel costs may therefore decrease their trust and willingness to travel. In contrast, if there is no charge for potential tourists to cancel their orders, then there is no loss and they maintain destination trust and travel intention. Thus, we propose:

- **H2a.** The presence (vs. absence) of monetary sunk cost will have a stronger negative effect on potential tourists' destination trust.
- **H2b.** The presence (vs. absence) of monetary sunk costs will have a stronger negative effect on potential tourists' intentions to visit a destination.

Trust could help tourists to decrease perceived risk and to increase intention to purchase (Agag & El-Masry, 2016; Artigas et al., 2017). According to cognitive dissonance theory, the more effort you put into anticipation, the stronger dissonance arises when the hopes fail (Aronson & Mill, 1959). Because the effort is difficult to ignore or change

(Festinger, 1957), individuals usually choose to raise their evaluation of the result to weaken the dissonance (Aronson & Mill, 1959). Therefore, the longer waiting time before the trip, potential tourists may feel a greater degree of dissonance when the trip is interrupted by unexpected circumstances. So as to eliminate dissonance, they may trust destination more to explain the temporal sunk cost spent, thereby generating a higher intention to visit the destination (Su et al., 2020). When the waiting time is short, tourists may form less trust towards the destination and therefore have less intention to visit. Thus, we propose:

- **H3.** Destination trust mediates the relationship between temporal sunk costs and tourists' intentions to visit a destination.
- **H4.** Destination trust mediates the relationship between monetary sunk costs and tourists' intentions to visit a destination.

Study 1

Study 1a investigated how the tourists respond to high (vs. low) temporal sunk costs differently and the mediating role of tourists' trust towards a destination, testing H1a, 1b, and H3. A one-factor between-subjects design (high vs. low temporal sunk cost) was conducted. 80 participants (female 58.8%, male 41.2%) were randomly assigned to one of two different scenarios: high temporal sunk cost or low temporal sunk cost. Experiment manipulation check questions and measurements for key constructs were adapted from previous studies (Su et al., 2020; Meertens & Lion, 2008).

Independent-sample t-tests were used to test H1a and H1b. Findings show that the high temporal sunk cost group's destination trust ($M_{\text{high}} = 5.08$, $SD = 1.11$) was significantly higher ($t = 2.30$, $p = .024$) than that of the low temporal sunk cost group ($M_{\text{low}} = 4.54$, $SD = 0.99$). H1a was supported. Also, the high temporal sunk cost group's intention to visit ($M_{\text{high}} = 5.01$, $SD = 1.27$) was significantly higher ($t = 2.05$, $p = .044$) than that of the low temporal sunk cost group ($M_{\text{low}} = 4.46$, $SD = 1.16$). H1b was supported. Then, bootstrapping mediation tests with 5000 replications and a 95% confidence interval were conducted (Hayes, 2013). Destination trust as the mediator between temporal sunk cost and intention to visit ($b = 0.49$, $SE = 0.23$; 95% CI: 0.07 to 0.98). The direct effect of temporal sunk

cost on intention to visit was not found to be significant ($b = 0.06$, $SE = 0.17$; 95% CI: -0.28 to 0.40). Findings suggest that destination trust fully mediates the main effect of temporal sunk cost on intention to visit. H3 was supported.

Study 2

Study 2 examined how the tourists respond to presence (vs. absence) of monetary sunk costs and the mediating role of tourists' trust towards a destination, testing H2a, H2b, and H4. A one-factor between-subjects design (presence vs. absence monetary sunk cost) was conducted with 80 participants (female, 62.5%; male 47.5%). Participants were randomly assigned to one of two different scenarios: presence or absence of monetary sunk cost. The experiment procedure and construct measurements are similar to Study 1.

H2a and H2b were verified by independent-sample t-tests. Findings show that the presence (vs. absence) of monetary sunk cost group's destination trust was significantly lower ($M_{\text{presence}} = 4.23$, $SD = 1.72$; $M_{\text{absence}} = 5.13$, $SD = 1.38$; $t = -2.56$, $p = .013$; see Fig. 4). H2a was supported. And when intention to visit acting as dependent variables, results suggest that the presence (vs. absence) of monetary sunk cost group's intention to visit was also significantly lower ($M_{\text{presence}} = 4.15$, $SD = 1.68$; $M_{\text{absence}} = 4.95$, $SD = 1.33$; $t = -2.36$, $p = .021$). H2b was supported. Bootstrapping mediation tests was also used with 5000 replications and a 95% confidence interval (Hayes, 2013). When destination trust as the mediator between monetary sunk cost and intention to visit ($b = -0.84$, $SE = 0.32$; 95% CI: -1.50 to -0.24), the direct effect of monetary sunk cost on intention to visit was not significant ($b = 0.03$, $SE = 0.18$; 95% CI: -0.33 to 0.40). Hence, destination trust fully mediates the main effect of monetary sunk cost on intention to visit. H4 was supported.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The finding of Study 1 supported the notion that when tourists invested more in temporal sunk cost, they would incline to develop higher destination trust and visit intentions. Study 2 showed that the presence (vs. absence) of monetary sunk cost would significantly reduce their trust and visit

intentions towards a destination. Furthermore, Study 1 and Study 2 contributes to the body of knowledge by revealing the mediating role of destination trust between sunk costs and tourists' intention to visit a destination.

Research findings indicate the importance for destination management organizations (DMOs) to understand tourists' sunk costs before travelling. On the one hand, high (vs. low) temporal sunk cost appears to be a predictor of a higher trust and greater likelihood of visiting the destination later. Hence, DMOs could encourage potential tourists to invest more time to make detailed travel plans and interact with tour service providers before the trip. On the other hand, the findings indicate that charging a cancellation fee (monetary sunk cost) will greatly reduce tourists' intention to visit when compared to not charging it. As far as possible, DMOs need to consider not charging cancellation fees when tourists cancel the reservation, especially when the cancellation is caused by force majeure. Also, DMOs are encouraged to eliminate the negative impact of sunk cost on trust. When there is monetary sunk cost, DMOs can explain to tourists for the charges to reduce the negative impact, potential visitors may understand and help out for the disaster (Mair et al., 2014).

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