DESTINATION BRAND EXPERIENCES OF LAKE MALAWI: SCALE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION

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DESTINATION BRAND EXPERIENCES OF LAKE MALAWI: SCALE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION.

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it reproduces no material previously published or written, nor material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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ABSTRACT

Tourism destinations compete for the attention of the same tourist pool using similar tourism products such as beautiful scenery, friendly people, and quality accommodation, among others. Unfortunately, due to the absence of branded destination experiences, distinguishing destination experiences becomes a difficult task for tourists to settle down on a destination in their decision making. Destination brand experiences (DBE) are thus vital to the uniqueness of a destination as they provide stronger stimuli and reduce substitutability in the minds of tourists or the target market by creating superior experiences. Branded destination experiences refer to a way destinations communicate their unique identity that aims at differentiating the destination from that of competitors. Destination brand experiences serve to identify and differentiate a destination from other destinations by evoking certain subjective internal responses of tourists to brand-related stimuli such as experience design, packaging, and the environment and communication messages. Destination branding use marketing activities such as the creation of logos, names, signs and symbols aimed at differentiating a destination while at the same time conveying an expectation of memorable travel experience.

For lake destinations, having branded experiences can attract tourists who pursue water and beach-based experiences such as scuba diving, beach parties, yoga, and snorkelling, among others. At the same time, cognizant that tourist behaviours are influenced and dependent on the experiences they have as they interact with brands, lake destinations need to control tourists' adverse effects to the lacustrine environment by promoting positive environmental behaviours. Thus, the implementation of pro-environmental behaviours (PEB) among tourists is paramount to curbing negative environmental effects while at the same time safeguarding the destinations brand experiences. Yet, there are no destination-specific scales to measure destination brand experiences

(DBEs) as well as test the relationship between DBEs and pro-environmental behaviours. This gap limits our understanding and application of branding in a tourism destination context.

To fill this gap, the present study developed and validated a destination brand experiences scale, with Lake Malawi as a caste study, to measure the role of DBES in promoting destination sustainability through pro-environmental behaviours among tourists. The study was guided by five objectives: a) to conceptualise and validate a destination brand experience scale, b) to evaluate the association between DBE and tourist satisfaction, c) to investigate the relationship between DBE and tourist PEB, d) to examine the mediating power of tourist satisfaction on the association between DBE and tourist PEB, and e) to explore the moderating role of domestic or international tourists' status on their evaluation of DBE, tourist satisfaction and PEB.

Following a rigorous scale development process by Churchill (1979), a questionnaire that mirrored the objectives of the study was developed. The questionnaire consisted of items covering the proposed six DBE domains namely sensory, cognitive, affective, behavioural, relational and spiritual, from both literature and in-depth interviews. The sensory DBE is about tourists' use of their multi-senses when interacting with the destination experiences whereas the cognitive DBE represents tourists' use of their productive reasoning power and curiosity as they engage with the destination brand. The emotional DBE dimension entails tourist emotions, feelings and sentiments which are induced as they consume the destination brand experiences. The behavioural DBE is concerned with tourists' physical actions and behaviours upon interacting with the destination brand whereas social DBE deals with tourists' experiences as they interact with other tourists, service providers as well as the local communities in the destination during consumption of products and services. The spiritual/psychic DBE domain relates to tourist desire to escape to quiet places to recollect and unwind as they connect with nature or the destination in general.

Furthermore, items on satisfaction and PEB were included in the questionnaire alongside a question on tourist's nationality, under the bio-data section. Data for the study was collected in a field survey over four months in 2019 and a total of 670 usable questionnaires comprising both domestic and international tourists samples to Lake Malawi in the South-East African country of Malawi, were collected. Data were split into two and one half was used for exploratory factor analysis using principal components with varimax rotation to scrutinise the principal DBE scale dimensions. Consequently, six dimensions were extracted: relational/social DBE, spiritual/psychic DBE, expressive/emotional DBE, bodily/sensory DBE, action/behavioural DBE and perceptive/cognitive DBE. A confirmatory factor analysis was then performed on the other half, and the six extracted factors were confirmed and had reliable goodness of fit indices. Modelling was conducted to test the stated hypotheses of the study.

Results show that relational/social DBE is the most sought after DBE at Lake Malawi, followed by spiritual/psychic DBE. Regarding DBEs and satisfaction relationship, only three DBEs were positively related to satisfaction (relational/social, expressive/emotional and bodily/sensory) whereas on the relationship between DBEs and PEB, only relational/social and bodily/sensory were significant. Overall, satisfaction fully mediated the relationships between expressive/emotional DBE and PEB and between relational/social DBE and PEB. For bodily/sensory DBE and PEB, partial mediation was observed whereas, for the relationships between perceptive/cognitive DBE and PEB, action/behavioural DBE and PEB and spiritual/psychic DBE and PEB, no mediation effect was found.

Using domestic or international tourist status in a measurement invariance test, important differences were observed in the association between DBEs and PEB such that relational/social and bodily/sensory DBEs were found to be important factors for pro-environmental behaviours

among domestic tourists while for the international tourists, no DBE led to pro-environmental behavioural intentions. Some similarities were observed in the relationships between DBEs and satisfaction such that for the domestic market, relational/social, expressive/emotional, bodily/sensory, and perceptive/cognitive (negative relationship) DBEs were found to be important and led to satisfaction. For the international market, relational/social, bodily/sensory, perceptive/cognitive were important factors that led to satisfaction.

Furthermore, using independent samples t-tests, significant differences were observed between domestic and international tourists across four of the six DBE dimensions; relational/social, bodily/sensory, expressive/emotional and perceptive/cognitive DBE. Negative but insignificant t-values were observed under action/behavioural evidenced by international tourists having higher scores than their domestic counterparts.

This study contributes to both knowledge and practice. Firstly, the thesis pioneers the generation of a DBE scale with six dimensions that test its predictive power on tourist satisfaction and PEB. Secondly, the thesis introduces a new factor (spiritual/psychic DBE) and demonstrates how it relates to other DBE factors and with other dependent variables such as satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. Noting its importance in tourists' DBE at Lake Malawi, the study illustrates the need to investigate more ways of nurturing this brand experience dimension for meaningful and memorable experiences. Thirdly, the study underscores the importance of the relational/social DBE component, a component whose importance has not been established in previous studies. These results show differences between destination and product brand experiences.

Practically, the study highlights important elements that would help destinations to develop and market their DBEs to give them a competitive advantage. Given the importance of

relational/social DBE to both domestic and international tourists, destination managers need to design activities and experiences that promote friendships among tourists to maximise this experience. Furthermore, for the Malawian destination, Lake Malawi could be strategically marketed as a place where people meet and make lasting friendships. Finally, to promote sustainable tourism destinations, the study submits that destinations should actively engage tourists in transformative learning or on-site knowledge about sustainability for long- term impacts as research suggests that most nature-based tourism experiences fall short in delivering convincing conservation messages. To achieve this, there is a need for Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) to use technology for lasting mental imagery and cognitive experiences.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to myself for the taking this PhD challenge head-on. It was not a mean feat to work on this thesis at SHTM given the academic pressure of excellence and quality: but I survived. Kudos to me.

Being a believer, I also thank God for the strength.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

"As goods and services become commoditized, the customer experiences that companies create

will matter most" (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, p.97)

1.1 Introduction

Experiences are at the centre of tourism production (Sternberg, 1997) and they provide tourists with various benefits as they seek entertainment, socialisation, fantasies, feelings, fun and learning at a destination (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001) to transform their lives as they construct reality (Carù & Cova, 2003) and create memorable experiences. Spanning customer experience, product experience, service experience, brand equity, experiential consumption, experiential marketing and experience economy (Aaker, 1991; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Schmitt, 1999a, 1999b) among others, tourism experiences help distinguish destinations as they promote distinctiveness. As opined by Schmitt (1999a), tourists desire extraordinary experiences and memorable experiences that "dazzle their senses, touch their hearts, and stimulate their minds" (p.57). Therefore, following the introduction of the notion of experience economy by Pine and Gilmore in 1998, most tourism destinations have positioned themselves as experience-based attractions (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007) intending to enable tourists to experience new things first hand.

Experiences are regarded as individual and experiential phenomena and are directly related to the attributes and appeal of a destination. Most authors contend that tourism is about experiences (Gill, Packer & Ballantyne, 2019; Barnes, Mattsson, & Sørensen, 2014; Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998) - and these experiences are continuously changing with the times, societies and space (Packer & Ballantyne, 2016). Tourism experiences engage tourists' senses as they partake

in the activities at the destination. Hence, sensory tourist experiences are memorable (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Customer brand experience is an extension of customer value manifesting beyond measuring product attributes and benefits, as customers no longer buy the physical product or service but the experience it offers (Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010). Experiences create value for the destination more than logos, names and symbols (Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998), hence the need for destinations to move from the product and service environment to the experience-led industry (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) which emphasizes personal engagement.

Against this backdrop, destinations strive to brand their experiences to outdo competition on the market and to create a unique destination appeal. Tourism experience branding (hereafter brand experience (BE)), continues to engage the attention of both academics and practitioners. BE is the engagement that consumers have with the brand and the resultant perception and evaluation of the brand experience. Brand experience is an amalgam of consumer interactions with the product or service personality and helps to develop a relationship with the brand. Thus, as a marketing tool, tourism destinations use branding to create meanings and experiences that appeal to tourists as one way of differentiating themselves from the competition while at the same time communication the destination experience value (Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott, 2003).

Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello (2009, p.52) define BE as "…sensations, feeling, cognition and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications and environments." Brand experiences are consumer reactions to brand stimuli and they are very subjective. They connect the brand and the company to the customers' lifestyle and include sensations such as cognitions, feelings, and behavioural reactions to brand experience stimuli. Hence some brand experiences offer stronger stimuli than others and reduce substitutability by focusing on unique tourist experiences (Brakus

et al., 2009; Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). A destination brand symbolizes unique experiences in consumers' mindset and constitutes logos, symbols, trademark and identity (Prasad & Dev, 2000). Place or destination branding, although done on a smaller scale like a city, could also be done on a bigger scale such as a country or regional brand (Hall, 2008).

Schmitt (2009) posits that brand experience is much more important than other brand concepts as customers are more concerned with brands that provide them with desired and pleasurable experiences (Chattopadhyay & Laborie, 2005; Schmitt, 1999a, 199b). Brand experiences offer customers a chance to relate either positively or negatively to the branded product or service for better relationships. Brand experiences can be sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural according to Brakus et al.'s (2009). They are also a function of a destination's tangible attributes like infrastructure and landscape (Cai, 2002). Destination brand experience adds value to the tourism products at a destination and it is an important precursor to tourist experience consequences, such as satisfaction, recommendation and destination revisit intentions (Barnes et al., 2014).

For destinations with experiences that meet tourists' needs and motivations, the prone to damaging environmental consequences from tourists is undebatable (Luo, Tang, Jiang & Su, 2020; Su, Huang, & Pearce, 2018). Tourists act a seed of prosperity to destinations through their spending while at the same time sow seeds of destruction (Jimura, 2019). Thus, as destinations plan and deliver DBEs, there is need to put in place measures that control or reduce negative environmental impacts from tourists (Su, Huang, & Huang, 2018). This can be achieved by engaging and sensitising tourists on pro- environmental behaviours (Luo et al., 2020).

1.2. Study background

Malawi is predominantly an agro-based economy that has tobacco as the country's main export (over 50% export earnings and contributing 25% of the total African tobacco production). This is followed by sugar (9% export earnings) and tea (8% export earnings) which comes only second after Kenya in Africa (FAOSTAT, 2014). The above notwithstanding, tourism in Malawi has undergone various stages of development, although still in its infancy. Currently, tourism is considered as an alternative foreign currency earner due to the low prices of tobacco on the market (Armstrong, 2012). To this effect, the government isolated tourism as one of the potential alternative solutions in some of its policy documents (World Bank, 2006; World Bank, 2012).

Malawi is made up of various destination products such as Lake Malawi, Mulanje Mountain and the 11 wildlife reserves, offering an integrated experience (Buhalis, 2000). Also, Malawi and indeed Lake Malawi have won many international recognitions for its well-preserved beauty and is considered a must-visit bucket list destination (see Table 2.2 below). Lake Malawi, similar to Lake Tanganyika, has abundant tourism potential due to the availability of beautiful beaches, scenery, clear blue waters, and colourful and diverse range of both flora and fauna (Weyl, Ribbink & Tweddle, 2010). Furthermore, the availability of diverse and local culture, fishing villages and abundant wildlife is of interest to foreign tourists (Weyl et al., 2010). Tourism in Malawi is centred on Lake Malawi - also called the Calendar Lake owing to its dimensions (365 miles long and 52 miles wide). Its clear blue waters make water sporting such as skiing, snorkelling and angling a fantasy (Weyl et al., 2010). The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2018), states that tourism numbers have been growing steadily in the country, with tourism contributing about 3.5% (i.e. US$ 221.5 million) to Malawi's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) whereas the total contributions were at US$481.5 million representing 7.7% of the GDP. Currently, Malawi is

projected to be 66th of the 185 countries as far as long-term growth in tourism between 2018 and 2028 is concerned (WTTC, 2018).

Although Malawi has several tourist attractions, tourists' selection of a destination is not random. Tourists select destinations with attributes that are important to them. Tourist destination selection depends on various factors such as type of activities available at the destination (Huybers, 2003), image (Pike, 2009) and other destination attractions and attributes that let them improve their competencies and fulfil their dreams (Kim, 2014; Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011). Hence, Malawi has to compete with other destinations within the Sub-Saharan and indeed the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region for the 30% of tourists projected to travel to developing countries worldwide (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). To achieve this, various measures have been put in place such as the introduction of tourism and hospitality studies at tertiary level, destination branding as well as the marketing of the country at international tourism markets such as ITB Berlin (Internationale Tourismus-Börse Berlin) and the World Travel Market (WTM) in London and South Africa. To complement these actions and to attract more visitors and to retain them, Malawi needs to clearly define her destination brand experiences. As argued by Iversen and Hem (2008), destination brands have a strong impact in attracting visitors to the destination as they form strong images in their mind-set. MGDS

1.3 Lake Malawi as a destination brand

Pike (2005) defines destination branding as measures put in place by a destination in a bid to be competitive and distinctive. A destination brand can be perceived as the aura of a region, place, an activity or a country as a whole that draws tourists to the place (Beckman, Kumar, & Kim, 2013; Hankinson, 2005). Some authors contend that destination branding not only draws

leisure tourists and inward investments to an area but also new residents, business tourists and employees (Hankinson, 2005) or simply for the place's growth (Zenker & Martin, 2011).

Due to the different conceptualizations of a destination brand (Aaker, 1991; Anholt, 2004; Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005; Pike, 2005, Pike, 2009), a destination brand could be a logo, a slogan, a name, a wordmark, trademark, etc. that is used to differentiate one destination from the rest. A destination brand, according to Blain et al. (2005), communicates memorable experience expectation messages, reduces tourists search costs and risks and connects the visitor and the destination. A destination brand is, thus, a distinguishing characteristic that promises visitors some experiences and after interacting with it, visitors get an impression of the place and decide whether to return or not depending on their experiences (Beckman et al., 2013; Hanna & Rowley, 2011; Lindstedt, 2011).

Destination Malawi is marketed as "The Warm Heart of Africa." This slogan is often accompanied by Lake Malawi, the sun and heart graphic images. The destination is associated with the lake and its friendly people. To this effect, the lake has also been branded as Lake of Stars and Calendar Lake (see www.visitmalawi.mw/index.php/en/). Lake Malawi is ranked the 5th largest freshwater body in the world by water volume at 6140km^3 (Beeton, 2002) and provides a valuable resource for tourism, agriculture and fisheries. Despite a part of the lake gaining a World Heritage Site status in 1984, the lake has not been damaged by tourism activities (Sinclair, 2000), making it a good destination for relaxation (Ekinci, 2003).

Currently, tourism operators (both public and private) market the lake individually with uncoordinated messages due to the absence of agreed brand identity and experiences (Armstrong, 2002; Buhalis, 2000). However, in the face of rising global competition with substitutable products and services (including destinations), destination branding plays a huge role in making a

destination stand out (Hankinson, 2012; Morgan et al., 2003). Currently, about 70% of the global tourist traffic only visits the top ten destinations, most of which are in Europe, and the remaining 30% tourists' traffic is shared among the rest of the world (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). This makes it necessary for rising destinations such as Malawi to compete effectively for the remaining 30% 'tourist cake' by assessing and communicating their unique destination experiences (Hankinson, 2012). For example, Malawi needs to move beyond the slogan "The Warm Heart of Africa" or "The Lake of Stars" and offer experiences that tourists can identify with and which satisfy their emotional and basic needs (Ekinci, 2003), as a place name is not enough differentiation (Pike, 2005).

1.4 Problem statement

11 years ago, Brakus et al. developed and tested a four-dimensional scale to measure brand experiences for product and service brands. Brakus et al. (2009) indicated that BE can be measured using sensory, cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions. They could not establish support for the fifth dimension: relational. Given a tourism destination where tourists are always in contact with other tourists, local communities and service providers (Iglesias, Markovic, & Rialp, 2019; Zhang, Meng & So, 2020), this study perceived BE as a phenomenon that is socially constructed by tourists, local communities and service providers (Andreini, Pedeliento, Zarantonello, & Solerio, 2018). Thus a gap arises to explore DBEs and the importance of the relational BE construct in a destination setup, which varies greatly from products and services. From an academic perspective, opportunities to develop scales for tourism destination brand experiences have been lost as most scholars have adopted the scale wholesomely without destination considerations despite experiences evolving overtime. Such a wholesale application of marketing and branding strategies to tourism destinations pose a great challenge given the complexity of different

destinations (Cai, 2002). What is more, researchers agree that adopting conceptualisation and measurement approaches developed and tested for product brands without theoretical consideration of the construct dimensionality does not always work in a destination context due to the characteristics of tourism as a service industry (Aaker, 1991; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2010).

Second, applying Brakus et al. (2009) BE scale, Barnes et al. (2014), found that sensory experiences were of superior importance than affective BE and the other two domains in predicting customer loyalty and satisfaction whereas literature stresses the importance of cognitive and emotional aspects of the brand (Bigné Andreu & Gnoth, 2005). Furthermore, Barnes et al. (2014) results suggest that behavioural and intellectual BE were not significant domains. Additionally, results do not account for affective experiences which are equally important in tourism as they determine future relationships with the destination (Larsen & Jenssen, 2004; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Thus, a gap exists to further explore the BE constructs to enhance their validity and application in a tourism destination setup which differs significantly from consumer products (Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2010; Zhang et al., 2020).

The third gap is in the relationship between BE and other marketing constructs. Although other studies have worked on BEs, they maintained the marketing line of thought by applying the BE to concepts such as trust, loyalty, and brand personality (Nysveen et al., 2013), intention to revisit and to recommend (Beckman et al., 2013). From these studies, differences have been found in the association between BE and satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013). Whereas literature indicates that experience leads to satisfaction, these studies found varying results. Brakus et al (2009) found that there was a positive association between BE and tourist satisfaction, a negative link was established by Nysveen et al. (2013) whereas Barnes et al, (2013) found partial

support for the relationship in all their three studies. The apparent differences in these results highlight the importance for researchers to revisit this relationship to provide destinations with clear findings on this important relationship. This is because the provision of satisfying DBEs has been linked to tourist loyalty (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Zhang et al., 2020). Furthermore, all of the research on BEs, none of these studies considered destination-specific attributes such as pro-environmental behaviours which can also be affected by the outcome of the tourist destination experience. Of more importance, pro-environmental behavioural intentions among tourists need to be promoted for sustainable use of the environment which can be damaged by the same tourists in the course of consuming destination experiences. Stamboulis and Skayannis (2003) and Cutler & Carmichael (2010) observe that on-site tourist experiences are an interface between destination attractions and tourists where the destinations are the site of the experience and tourists are the actors of the experience. As such, this interaction could result in undesired effects on the destination environment. For the lake destination under study, there is a need to manage, monitor and control tourists' adverse effects on the lacustrine environment by promoting positive environmental behaviours. Currently, no literature has empirically assessed the relationship between tourist DBE and PEB. Therefore, the thesis fills the gap in understanding the possible relationship to advance our understanding and application of branding in a tourism destination context and demonstrate how DBEs could be used to foster pro-environmental behaviours.

Fourth, although some studies have applied the BE scale in various contexts, only a few studies have used it in tourism – for example, Barnes et al. (2014), Beckman et al. (2013) and Lin (2015) – albeit these studies neither focused on lake destinations nor settings in the developing world. Consequently, Khan and Rahman (2015) decry the unavailability of research in developing countries. Their systematic analysis established that although there has been an influx of studies

on brand experience, the majority of them have been conducted in the US, Australia and China. They also noted that there is a lack of research in service industries such as tourism, hospitality and banks, among others. Noting that consumer tastes and preferences vary among nationalities and culture (Khan & Rahman, 2015), a call for more brand experience research in developing countries to facilitate comparative studies are made. Carpenter (2008, p.27) also writes that "scholars should never assume the rigour of published scales." Therefore, there are calls for the development of destination-specific BE dimensions as different destination attributes attract different tourists (Kim, 2014; Nysveen et al., 2013).

Thus, appreciating the different nature of tourism experiences that vary according to place and the types of tourists involved (Barnes et al., 2014; O'Dell, 2007), there are currently no scales to measure destination brand experiences let alone lake destination brand experiences. As stated above, the current scales are either useful for generic experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999), physical products (Brakus et al., 2009) or MTEs which are a fusion of generic experiences and physical products (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Furthermore, noting that the outcomes of these studies might have been influenced by student respondents, it can be argued that the characteristics of tourists (such as age, budget, prior experience, nationality, travel party and gender) influence the outcome of the DBE as they act as moderators in the evaluation of the experience encountered (Kim & Crompton, 2002). Therefore, if destinations such as Malawi aim to attract more tourists by being distinctive, it is imperative to examine tourists' DBE evaluation of Lake Malawi, the country's main tourist attraction site (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001).

1.5 Study aims

The thesis intends to assess the destination brand experiences with Lake Malawi as a case study. The study develops and empirically validates a destination brand experience measurement

scale. Furthermore, the study investigates the predictive power of the DBE scale on variables such as satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. The study assumes that knowledge on the destination experiences and their impact on satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours would help in the design of promotional materials that would project Malawi as an experiential, satisfying as well as an environmentally friendly tourism destination (Crompton, 1979; Tasci & Kozak, 2006).

1.5.1 Research questions

The core question of thesis is:

1. What are the destination brand experiences of Lake Malawi?'

As the study also examines the consequences of DBE by measuring its impact on satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours, the second research question is:

2. What is the association among DBE, tourist satisfaction and PEB?

1.5.2 Thesis objectives

Mirroring the aim of the study, the objectives are as follows:

a) To conceptualise and validate a destination brand experience scale,

b) To evaluate the association between DBE and tourist satisfaction,

c) To investigate the relationship between DBE and tourist PEB,

d) To examine the mediating power of tourist satisfaction on the association between DBE and tourist PEB, and

e) To explore the moderating role of domestic or international tourists' status on their evaluation of DBE, tourist satisfaction and PEB.

1.6 Significance of the thesis

The thesis' contribution is two-fold: academic and practical.

1.6.1 Contribution to knowledge and scholarship

The understanding of the destination brand experience and its measurement is crucial in the creation of memorable experiences for the tourists, which is one of the greatest benefits derived from a tourist visit. Currently, little research has addressed this area on lake destinations (Hall & Härkönen, 2006). Indeed, as far as tourists' view of destination branding excellence is concerned, the provision of a brand name, logo or symbol is not important if it does not offer promised experiences. Hence, to create a distinctive destination, destinations should strive to provide travel experiences that are exciting and memorable, and this should be at the heart of all stakeholders' tourism product offerings (Frost, 2004). This study makes at least three academic contributions.

1. DBE measurement scale development

The study contributes to the knowledge bank on DBEs by developing and validating a scale that measures destination brand experiences using Lake Malawi as a case study. The study provides six constructs that measure the DBEs of a lake destination, and this is envisaged to enrich the understanding of tourists' brand experiences at destinations. It is projected that the scale is holistic enough and applicable to destinations with similar attributes like that of Lake Malawi and, thus, contributes to the overall understanding of DBEs in conjunction with studies done in other tourism sectors.

Different from previous studies where utilitarian products were used and scales were conceptualised in the western society (Pearce, 2004), this study uses actual tourists and measures their evaluation of DBE in a real destination context. This addresses Barnes et al. (2014) acknowledgement that DBEs vary from one destination to another and their conceptualisation would affect tourists' review of DBEs. Indeed, as indicated by Lehmann, Keller, & Farley (2008) and Saari and Mäkinen (2017), brand experiences vary from one country to another.

2. DBE scale validation and linkage to pro-environmental behaviours

The study furthers the understanding of destination brand experiences concerning pro-environmental behaviours unlike previous studies that only focused satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009) or recommendation intentions (Barnes et al., 2014). This thesis also furthers our understanding of the measurement of brand experiences by applying it to a lake destination especially by linking DBEs to pro-environmental behaviours which have yet to be tested in any destination. In doing this, the study fills in the gap by providing answers on the role of DBEs in promoting sustainable environmental behaviours among tourists.

3. Enrich literature on lake destinations

Despite a growing number of studies in tourism, few have focussed attention on lake tourism (see Gössling & Hall, 2006; Hall & Härkönen, 2006; Jennings, 2001; Rodrigues, Correia, Kozak & Tuohino 2015a; Rodrigues, Rodrigues & Peroff, 2015b) and lake activities in particular (Furgała-Selezniow et al., 2016). Notably, Hall and Härkönen's (2006) edited volume, Jennings' (2001) book and studies by Rodrigues, Correia, and Kozak (2013) are the notable few studies that have attempted to address the lack of studies on lakes and tourism. Other studies that have been conducted have focused on general lake limnology, the impact of lakes on tourism and restoration

and management of lakes and reservoirs (see Cooke, Welch, Peterson, & Nichols, 2005). Furthermore, despite the growing number of research on tourism experiences, only a few have focused on water experiences (see Jennings, 2007) while none has examined DBEs at lake destinations, let alone in developing countries (Gössling & Hall, 2006). In fact, in their book, Gössling and Hall (2006, p. 4), noted that the focus of the book was "primarily on the developed world, given that that is where the majority of the world's tourism occurs, although that is not to ignore the role that lakes play in the tourism industries of many developing countries including the Alpine lakes …the Great Rift Valley Lakes of Africa…"

Given the limited amount of empirical research on brand experiences at lake destinations, results from this thesis add to the body of knowledge on tourism brand experiences, particularly at lake destinations, which are under-researched. By clearly articulating the destination attributes that are vital in the creation of experiences, the study helps the DMOs and researchers alike to have a renewed view of tourism experiences.

1.6.2 Contribution to practice and management

The study offers DMOs, the Department of Tourism in Malawi in particular, a broader understanding of tourists' DBEs of Lake Malawi. The findings will, thus, help tourism practitioners to identify the kind of attractions, activities and indeed DBEs that tourists are looking for and associate with Lake Malawi. This has a bearing on the evaluation of the brand offering, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours, among others.

Secondly, the results provide insights that could help DMOs to allocate their resources properly as they understand their target market, the needs of this market and how to satisfy them. By applying this scale to lake destinations, it is hoped that the needs of tourists to lake attractions

could be met if destinations knew the DBEs different tourist segments are looking for and communicate this in their marketing campaigns (Kim, 2014; Morgan et al., 2003). What is more, the understanding of the brand experiences of Lake Malawi (and similar destinations), as well as the evaluations from tourists, would enable the DMOs to develop tourist experiences that are pleasurable, authentic and appealing to the tourists (Tung & Ritchie, 2011) and at the same time enforce pro-environmental behaviours.

As an exploratory study in Malawi, the research contributes to an understanding of how the private sector and local communities could be integrated into the development and promotion of lake experiences alongside the government. As stated by Morgan et al. (2003) it is imperative for stakeholders in any destination to work together for the destination to realize tourism growth.

1.7 Definition of thesis' key terms

1.7.1 Tourism destination

Tourism destinations are spatial brands with political and legislative boundaries, which combine goods, services and experiences, offered at a local scale, for the enjoyment of vacation travellers (Barnes et al., 2014; Buhalis, 2000; McKercher & Guillet, 2011).

1.7.2 Tourism Experience

For this thesis, tourism experience is conceptualised as 'the emotional state, feeling of fun' (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) which are subjective (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999; O'Dell, 2007), bound by time (Packer & Ballantyne, 2016), affects all the senses (Sundbo & Sørensen, 2013), after undergoing a situation (Schmitt, 1999a) or an external stimulus (Sundbo & Sørensen, 2013) and interrupts them from their lives… and are incredibly involving (Ray, 2008).

1.7.3 Destination branding

Destination branding refers to a set of marketing activities including the creation of logos, names, signs and symbols aimed at differentiating a destination an expectation of memorable experience (Kotler, 2000).

1.7.4 Satisfaction

Satisfaction connotes the cognitive appraisal or evaluation a consumer makes about how good an experience was based on the perceived difference between what was expected and the perceived performance after consumption (Hunt, 1977; Oliver, 1980; Williams, 1989).

1.7.5 Pro-environmental behaviours

Pro-environmental behaviours also known as environmentally responsible behaviours (ERB) are concerned with tourists' environmental concern, knowledge, responsible consumption and commitment in an attempt to preserve and protect the sanctity of the destination (Cottrell & Graefe, 1997; Gupta & Agrawal, 2018). ERB are tourists' behaviours aimed at reducing negative impacts on both the natural or cultural environment in a destination (Miller, Merrilees, & Coghlan, 2015).

1.8 Summary

Tourism experiences, like all other experiences, are psychological phenomena whose interpretation differs from one person to another, rendering them a complicated psychological issue (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Kanagasapapathy, 2017). Tourism is a complex industry and system where various facets of the destination play vital roles in supplying the traveller with what is missing in their life through destination experiences. Destination experiences spice up tourists' consumption of the place. To survive market competition (Morgan et al., 2003), destinations need

to continuously assess their brand experiences and communicate the brand promise to tourists. For lake destinations such as Lake Malawi, the need for a brand experience assessment is long overdue given its importance in projecting Malawi as an international brand. As observed by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000), tourists are growing in their experiences and venturesomeness, and the ability for destinations to conform to tourists' expectations leads to the attainment of their trip goals. Therefore, this study explores develops validates a Lake Malawi destination brand experience measurement scale.

1.9 Outline of the thesis

Guided by the research aim, objectives and research questions, this study comprises seven chapters. This segment gives a synopsis of the thesis chapters.

The introduction chapter introduced the overall research study. It has presented the study's background, problem statement and the study's justification. The chapter also illustrates how the thesis questions, aims and objectives, and the academic and practical contributions of the study.

Chapter 2 explores the relevant literature that constitutes a theoretical thrust for the study. The chapter explores tourism experiences, an overview of tourism brand experience, place branding, lake destinations and the Lake Malawi destination. The definitions and explanations of the core research constructs such as satisfaction, pro-environmental behaviours, and brand experience are also discussed.

Chapter 3 presents the conceptual framework and the various hypothesised relationships that governed the study. The chapter presents the literature discussion in support of the proposed hypotheses. The conceptual framework and hypotheses centre on DBEs, tourist satisfaction and PEB.

Chapter 4 discusses the methodological procedures of the study. It outlines the research design, sampling, variables measurement, questionnaire design and data collection procedures and data analyses and justification for using the survey method. It also explains how survey items were collected using a literature review and qualitative interviews.

Chapter 5 presents the research findings. It employs statistical analyses such as exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and modelling to understand the data. Furthermore, the chapter presents results of moderation and mediation analyses.

Chapter 6 provides a discussion on the research findings. It relates the findings to the extant literature.

Finally, chapter 7 is the conclusion of the study. It wraps up the study by giving out a review of the seven chapters of the study. The academic and practical contributions of the results are also proffered. The thesis limitations are proffered followed by suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

"It is useful to remember occasionally that life unfolds as a chain of subjective experiences…the

quality of these experiences determines whether and to what extent life was worth living"

(Csikszentmihalyi, 2014)

2.1 Introduction

Deriving largely from hedonic consumptions, tourism experience is diverse (Kim, 2014; Uriely, 2005) and it takes people away from their daily lives in search of interesting activities (Zátori, Michalkó, Nagy, Kulcsár, & Balizs, 2017). Tourism experiences at a destination have engaged the attention of academics in various disciplines, including marketing, sociology, tourism and hospitality (Brakus et al., 2009, Cohen, 1979; Jorgenson et al., 2018; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Given the nature of tourism services and products, it is unsurprising that the focus has moved from retail shopping and experiential consumption to the creation and provision of activity-based experiences. These studies have helped to shape and define the understanding of tourism experiences, their paradigms as well as their importance in destination management and marketing. This chapter situates the present study within the literature on destination branding, destination brand experiences, tourism experiences, lake tourism, Lake Malawi, satisfaction, pro-environmental behaviours and tourism stakeholders.

2.2 Destination branding

For a long time, scholars have discussed and researched on place branding, also referred to as destination branding (Pike, 2009). As a concept borrowed from marketing, its applicability has dwelt on the need for destinations to develop unique propositions, identities and personalities that differentiate them from the competition (Cai, 2002). Destination branding, according to Cai (2002), is a deliberate selection of a consistent brand element mix (price, place, product, promotion), which helps to differentiate a destination from others. According to Cai (2002), a destination brand name is fixed to an actual geographical name of a place.

Drawing on insights from urban planning, Hankinson (2004) argues that a destination brand can focus on three issues: 1) a place's products nature, 2) its historical development and 3) its distinctive features 'marketing implications (also see Van den Berg, & Braun, 1999). From the tourism and vacation marketing perspective, he argues that a destination brand is mostly seen as a perceptual entity. Hankinson (2004) posits that four functions of destination brands: brand as a communication, perceptual or image entity building, value enhancement and relationship building.

In tourism, destination branding has become extremely important given the ever-increasing competitive nature of the tourism market as many destinations offer almost similar and substitutable experiences (Pike, 2005). In this regard, Morgan and Pritchard (2002, p. 11) observe that "branding is perhaps the most powerful marketing weapon available to contemporary destination marketers." To this end, certain places and destinations have applied this concept to make them stand out among their competitors (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2009; Iversen & Hem, 2008). Place branding is thus seen as "the practice of applying brand strategy and other marketing techniques and disciplines to the economic, political and cultural development of cities, regions and countries" (Govers & Cull, n.d.). Since place branding and brand experiences have a

significant effect on the destination, it is critical for destinations to engage, stimulate and entertain visitors beyond just 'being there'. Tsiotsou and Goldsmith (2012) state that interactions between tourists and various elements of the 'servicescape' coupled with cognitive and emotional reactions of the tourists are vital in the creation of destination experience.

Tourism destinations are considered brands to be consumed (Boo, Busser, & Baloglu, 2009) and brands are understood from both the company's and consumers' perspective (Stern, 2006). Defining place branding, Zenker and Baun (2010, p. 5) state that it is "a network of associations in the consumers' mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design." As a proxy for positioning (Gilmore & Pine, 2002) as well as destination competitiveness (Kumar & Nayak, 2018), destination branding can be used to increase their competitive advantage. Furthermore, some destinations have applied destination saliency, which refers to the building of an emotional relationship with the tourist. Destination saliency focuses on providing destination attractions and services that appeal to the tourists' emotional needs (Ekinci, 2003).

In addition to conveying brand expectations or promises to travellers, branding should strive to provide memorable experiences (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003) by making the brand promises a reality (Hankinson, 2009). As noted by Hanna and Rowley (2011), a destination brand experience results from tourist experience of a branded place where they attain an enjoyable experience after which they attach emotional meaning to it (Lindstedt, 2011). Discussions on the meanings of a place, for example, Relph (1976) identify three aspects of a place from a geographical perspective: the physical setting, activities therein and meanings. Canter (1977a), a psychologist, also puts

forward a three-part model of a place, which derives from the relationship between actions, physical attributes and conceptions.

Pike (2009) notes that the benefits of destination branding accrue to both the destination and the consumer. Branded places convey promises of memorable and enjoyable destination experiences to the tourists and reduce searching costs (Aaker, 1991; Beckman et al., 2013; Blain et al., 2005; Cai, 2002;) and perceived risks (Berthon, Hulbert, & Pitt, 1999) while at the same time creating impressions or beliefs about the destination (Erdem, 1998; Kotler & Gertner, 2002) and consolidating and reinforcing the emotional bonds between the tourist and the destination. This may lead to a positive destination image (Blain et al., 2005) and loyalty (Pike, 2009). Place branding, like product branding, facilitates tourist's positive attitudes towards the destination brand when their needs are met; hence, successful destination brands need to merge promised brand values that are both symbolic and functional (Hankinson & Cowking, 1993) with actual lived tourist experiences (Copeland, 2001; Kavaratzis, 2005) or what Hankinson (2004) calls 'potential experiential attributes'.

For most developing destinations, for example, Africa, destinations are associated with negative or stereotype brand identities such as diseases, poverty and sometimes war (see Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Tasci & Kozak, 2006). Given that tourists' perceptions are an important element of destination choice (Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Iversen & Hem, 2008) as well as tourists' experiences at a destination (Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2012), destination branding is critical in the creation and communication of destination identity (Anholt, 2007; Cai, 2002). Destination branding has also been linked to new and enjoyable experiences owing to the image it creates (Beckman et al., 2013) – this can attract premium prices (Buncle, 2009). What is more, Blain et al. (2005) posit the need for visitor experiences to be considered in destination branding

as the DBE has a positive effect on their experiences. For destination Malawi and indeed Lake Malawi, the unique characteristics are its natural assets such as clear and fresh blue waters, landscape, heritage, history of the Rift Valley Lake, fish species and cultural attractions.

2.3 Brand experiences

With its origin in marketing where it is linked to shopping and service experience, product experience and consumption experience among others (Hoch, 2002; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Hui & Bateson, 1991), brand experience refers to the 'sensory, affective and cognitive' (Schmitt, 1999b, p.57) associations or stimuli that a product or service conveys to the consumer. These associations could be derived from innumerable settings such as service, product, place and corporate brands (Skinner, 2008). BE is also derived from customer experience concept (Meyer & Schwager, 2007), which hinges on a consumer's encounter with brand marketing communication, product packaging or product design and it is at the core of company strategies as one way of delivering memorable and unique consumer experience (Schmitt, 1999a). Brand experience is further conceptualised as the degree to which an individual is familiar with a brand as a result of brand exposure (Ha & Perks, 2005).

Brand experience is also defined as a set of internal subjective experiences that affect consumers' behavioural outcomes (Khan & Rahman, 2015). The customer-brand relationship has an important effect on consumers' attitude and evaluation of the brand and this informs repurchase intention and brand loyalty among others (Aggarwal, 2004; Brakus et al., 2009). BE entail the cognitive, goal-oriented and rational responses of consumers to a brand (Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013), they are often private, unique, seductive and intriguing (Hoch, 2002) and have been linked to business success. Brand experiences can differ in strength and intensity (Skard, Nysveen, & Pedersen, 2011). In tourism studies, brand experiences have been linked to 'scapes'

or experience-scapes, referring to physical environments that tourists experience (Hall, 2008) and which are strategically planned and designed.

In a study that can be termed as a pioneer of applied BE research, Brakus et al. (2009) analysed various categories of experiences such as, products, shopping, service and consumer experiences, and later developed a scale of brand experience. In this paper, Brakus et al. (2009) carried out six studies to ascertain what brand experiences are, how they are measured and how they affect consumer satisfaction and loyalty. The study delimited aspects that constitute brand experiences. The authors state that brand experiences are internal subjective experiences to consumer brand consumption. They also argue that BE is different from evaluative, affective and associative constructs such as brand involvement, brand attachment, customer delights, and brand personality even though the concepts are related. They further state that BE is different from motivational and affective brand constructs like involvement, attachment and delight. Brakus et al. (2009) put forward five dimensions of brand experiences: (affective, intellectual, sensory, behavioural and social) which were later reduced to four (sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural) as they could not find evidence for the relational dimension. The subsequent sections discuss Brakus et al.'s (2009) BE scale.

2.3.1 Sensory brand experience

Sensory experiences are peoples' perception of goods and services in a service setup in the form of an image that challenges their mind (Hultén, 2011) through their sense of sight, hearing, feeling, smell and taste (Barnes et al., 2014). These human senses are also referred to as 'sensescapes' (Agapito, Valle, & Mendes, 2013). According to Agapito et al. (2013), sensescapes constitute the five human senses of smell, sight, hearing, taste and feel. They proposed the need to not only focus on the western view of experiences that highlight ocular sense but rather take a

holistic approach to sensescapes (Agapito et al., 2013; Dann & Jacobsen, 2003). Brakus et al. (2009) postulate that people engage in sensory experiences to evade pain. Indeed, Rodaway (1994) stated that human senses are mediators in geographical experiences. In other words, humans depend on their senses to experience a destination. Thus, in a destination or geographical setting, the five senses are also termed soundscapes, smellscapes, tastescapes and geographies of touch (Agapito et al., 2013; Porteous, 1985; Urry, 2002). Agapito et al. (2013) further argue that human sense-the sensescapes- are an important element to an individual's perception of the world where sensory stimuli affect their behaviours in a destination which is multisensory.

Several studies have demonstrated the role of various senses in consumers' perception of brands. For example, the sense of sight enables tourists to experience places in what Urry (1990, 2002) terms the tourist gaze. The visual sense is crucial in observing commercial environmental changes and differences, and it aids in the creation of a perception of goods and services (Agapito et al., 2013) whose evaluations can be affected by colour, design and light (Crowley, 1993; Summers & Herbert, 2001; Orth & Malkewitz, 2008).

Other studies have focused on the sense of taste, indicating how the consumption of foreign, strange or 'scary' foods are seen as one way of experiencing and connecting with the places visited. To some travellers, this is part of their travel motivations whereas to others this forms part of their travel experience (Mkono, 2011). Studies have found that tourists experience the places or 'taste the area' they visit by consuming local food and drinks such as wines and milk (Everett, 2008). For food lovers and those willing to try new things- i.e. *neophilia*- and this becomes the 'wow' experience whereas, for other travellers, this may be scary, risky or bizarre (Mkono, 2011; Molz, 2007). Krishna (2012) writes that the sense of taste is manipulated by

external factors such as brand name, advertisement, product information and physical attributes such as food colour.

Research has shown that the sense of touch has a positive impact on consumers' attitudes and behaviour when they are allowed to touch a product before buying it (Peck & Wiggins, 2006) as this reduces their frustration and increases their confidence in the product. That is, consumers can evaluate products and create information about the product through touching (McCabe & Nowlis, 2003) to establish their texture, hardness and weight (Hultén, 2012). Krishna and Morrin (2007) found a correlation between the sense of touch and taste that suggests that consumers prefer shops that allow them to touch a product before purchasing.

Concerning the sense of hearing/sound, music, for instance, has been found to affect shopping experience (Yalch & Spangenberg, 2000) and infomercials have been found to have a direct impact on consumer experience (Singh, Balasubramanian, & Chakrabotry, 2000). Studies have also been done on the sense of smell (Dann & Jacobsen, 2003; Lwin, Morrin, & Krishna, 2010; Spangenberg, Crowley, & Henderson, 1996) and scent has a positive impact on consumers' intention to visit a store again and to buy (Spangenberg et al., 1996).

Since brand experience involves the interplay of several senses, some studies have analysed the impact of multi-senses on brand experience, for example for high-tech products (Agapito et al., 2013) and the influence on buying behaviour (Hultén, 2011, 2015). These studies recommend that destinations ought to consider multisensory stimuli (Dann & Jacobsen, 2002; Krishna, 2012) when designing tourism experiences in the countryside (Agapito et al., 2013) to create memorable experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) as one sense can affect other senses when consumers evaluate a brand (Agapito et al., 2013).

For water-based destinations such as Lake Malawi, the interplay of tourist senses as they consume the destination need not be accentuated (Agapito et al., 2013; Rodaway, 1994). As tourists experience the destination, experiences that captivate the sense of sight can be stimulated as in the tourist gaze (Urry, 1990, 2002), the smell from the lake and nearby fishing villages, sense of hearing from fellow tourists' noise, noise from the villages as well as wildlife. For tourists who like to shake their *neophilia,* tasting local foods could lead to further sensory experiences among others (Porteous, 1985). Thus, this study stresses the importance of these sensescapes in a destination context.

2.3.2 Affective brand experience

Affective brand experiences have been acknowledged to be important in understanding consumer emotional attachments with the brand as well as their evaluation of product quality. For example, various studies have examined affective brand experiences such as emotion (Brakus et al., 2009; Khan & Rahman, 2017; Schmitt, 1999a), attachment (Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005, mood and emotions (Schmitt, 1999a) and brand love (Pawle & Cooper, 2006) and they have been found to affect consumers' behavioural intention such as loyalty (Iglesias, Singh, & Batista-Foguet., 2011). Thomson et al. (2005) summarise brand emotions into affection, connection and passion. They report that consumers can develop strong emotions ties with brands and the ties can foretell the nature of consumers' interface with the brand or object. Consumers' emotional attachment to a brand might also lead to their commitment to the brand through loyalty or their willingness to pay premium prices (Thomson et al., 2005).

Brakus et al. (2009) define affective brand experience as sentiments, feeling or emotions that people develop when consuming a product or service whereas Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) state that affective brand dimension encompasses psychologically defined emotions of awe,

anxiety, elation, love, pride, ecstasy, hate, shame, joy, fear, disgust, sympathy, boredom, greed, sadness, and guilt evoked by a brand. Furthermore, affective brand experiences could be positive or negative moods or a combination of the two (Andrade & Cohen, 2007). Affective brand experience denotes the strength of the connection between the brand and the consumer and can have an impact on a company's profitability (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010). In general, studies have shown that emotions developed with humans are more intense than those developed with an object (So, Parsons, & Yap, 2013). It has also been established that consumers' brand relationship is influenced by emotional factors (Pawle & Cooper, 2006; Thonson et al., 2005).

2.3.3 Behavioural brand experience

Behavioural experiences refer to those experiences or choice processes that involve the body as a whole such as physical actions (e.g. dancing, or purchase action). Behavioural experience, through stimulation of the consumer's behaviours or intentions, appeals to the consumer's physical experiences, lifestyles as well as interactions with the brand or other people. Evidence in the literature shows that customers' encounter with brand experience affects their commitment and relationship with the brand in future (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Gentile et al., 2007) and this can result in satisfaction.

Behavioural experiences, in integrated resorts, for example, should encourage customers to learn or practise new skills so that users can exercise and release stress (Ahn & Back, 2018). In a visitor behaviour study at Taipei zoo, Tsaur, Chiu, and Wang (2007) found that emotion had a positive effect on visitors' behavioural intention as a result of their satisfaction with the zoo. When presented with a brand experience, consumers exhibit changes in their lifestyles and behaviours (Schmitt, 1999b). Also, brand consumption in groups or with other customers has been found to

have a positive impact on behavioural BE (Nysveen et al., 2013). Hence, Brakus et al. (2009) report that satisfaction and brand loyalty are the bye-products of brand experience, which Klaus and Maklan (2012) later described as a service experience.

2.3.4 Intellectual brand experience

According to Barnes et al. (2014, p.124), intellectual actions entail "the thought, stimulation of curiosity and problem solving" activities resulting from neural events pairing in the brand experience (Howard & Sheth, as cited in Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) submit that cognitive experiential consumption is a subconscious and private process that enables a customer to moderate their fatigue or boredom (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). Some studies (e.g. Ahn & Back, 2018) argue that intellectual or cognitive perception of a brand leads to a customer-brand relationship as an end product of the memory, attention and information processing stages and is critical in consumers' BE assessment. On the other hand, Nysveen et al. (2013) illustrate that a brand experience that requires customers to do a lot of thinking and problem solving affects their cognitive or intellectual experience of consumers negatively because this makes the problem-solving process less exciting. Although most studies on brand experiences acknowledge the importance of sensory brand experiences, some propose that cognitive experiences are vital in the conceptualisation and interpretation of other experiences (Lazarus, 1991). For example, Bustamante & Rubio (2017) and Han, Lee, Song, Lee, and Chua (2019) posit that cognitive experiences affect customer evaluation of a service or product. That is, consumers first perceive the product's benefits before they can deem it to be good or bad.

2.3.5 Relational brand experience

Relational brand experience, also known as social brand experience, refers to customer experiences that involve the person, their social context, the ideal self as well as other people (Gentile et al., 2007). This experience is derived from connecting with other consumers such that common passion leads to the creation of a community, social identity and a sense of belonging (Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999b). The relational brand experience is concerned with the social experiences of people with their reference group (Schmitt, 1999a). In festival events, relational experiences are reported through attendees' shared experiences, social interactions and parties, among others (Geus, Richards, & Toepoel, 2016; Nordvall, Petterson, Svensson, & Brown, 2014).

Writing on the multi-perspective view of brand experience, Andreini et al. (2018) contend that relational brand experiences are a critical component of brand experience as consumers, through experiences, partake in brand meaning creation. They assert that brands are socially constructed phenomena and they "connect individuals, activating subject-to-subject(s), subject(s)-to brand and subject(s)-to-stakeholder(s) relationships." In sum, Andreini et al. (2018) assert that through interactions, relational brand experiences enable consumers and other actors (service providers, community, and other customers) to experience psychological cultural, social, and market swings. These sentiments are also shared by Iglesias et al. (2019) who argued that employees are an important aspect of customer brand experience creation through service delivery interactions.

2.3.6 Summary of the brand experiences

Generally, several studies have examined brand experiences in various sectors, including corporate brand experience (Hamza, Alwai, & Othman, 2014), online brand experience (Hamza et al., 2014; Lee & Jeong, 2014), brand experiences of global high-tech products (Saari & Mäkinen, 2017) and brand experiences in service organisations (Nysveen et al., 2013). Some research has

also concentrated on BE in multi-sensory marketing (Hultén, 2011), brand experience in airlines (Lin, 2015), brand experience for downtown success (Beckman et al., 2013), brand experience in hotels (Khan & Rahman, 2015) and retail brand experience (Khan & Rahman, 2015). However, to date, only a few studies have investigated destination brand experiences (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et al., 2009).

Despite their effect on customer evaluation of a service or product (Bustamante & Rubio, 2017; Han et al., 2019) research by Barnes et al. (2014) and Brakus et al. (2009) found that intellectual experiences were difficult to achieve in a destination. This is because cognitive experiences demand consumers to make mental calculations as they interact with a product. Indeed, Schmitt (2013, p. 251) refers to cognitive BE as having "both convergent/ analytical and divergent/ imaginative' thinking about the brand. That's in marketing literature, cognitive experiences have been found to precede consumers' satisfaction with a service or product through mental processes, positive thoughts and memory which result from product or service encounter (Bustamante & Rubio, 2017; Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999a).

Regarding affective BE, studies attribute the affective component of DBE to the important element of memorable experiences (Kim, 2014; Larsen & Jenssen, 2004). Since tourism largely concerns hedonic experiences (Kim, 2014; Uriely, 2005), behavioural and affective experiences need to be measured as they determine a trip's evaluation based on how sociable, happy, pleasant or irritating the trip elements were (Larsen & Jenssen, 2004; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Schmitt, 1999a). Additionally, Andreini et al. (2018) highlight the importance of social brand experiences, a variable many studies have either overlooked or have failed to "provide any criticism or further elaboration [on]" (p. 123). Therefore, there is a need to develop a scale that can account for all possible aspects of a brand experience as far as a destination is concerned. Indeed writing from a

psychological perspective Schmitt (2013) submits that all the BEs: affective, cognitive, behavioural and sensory BE are responsible for consumers long term customer-brand relationship equity. He argued that the four BEs either entice/annoy, enable/disable or enrich/impoverish the self, resulting in brand self-distance or brand prominence (Schmitt, 2013).

In the context of this study, all five brand experiences i.e. social, behavioural, affective, cognitive and sensory, as espoused by Brakus et al. (2009) and Nysveen et al. (2013) are used to measure the holistic experiences a destination could offer to tourists. Realising the interactions between service providers and tourists, tourists and fellow tourists as well as between tourists and the host community (Lin, Zhang, Gursoy, & Fu, 2019; Pine & Gilmore, 2009; Sharpley, 2014), the study most importantly explores the social dimension to ascertain the extent to which it applies to a tourist destination. As alluded to by Lin et al. (2019) and Sharpley (2014), social interactions are an important element in tourist experiences and are created through tourists' interaction with people and places they visit during their vacation. Social dimension has an impact on tourist destination experience and can also induce their future behaviours as tourists spend more time interacting with other tourists, the local community and service providers (Crompton, 1979; Lin et al., 2019; Torres, 2016). An introspective examination of the proposed DBEs at Lake Malawi is provided for in section 2.7.5.

2.4 Tourism experiences

Tourism is concerned with the creation and selling of experiences; it also focuses on helping tourists to construct stories and collect memories (Oh et al., 2007; Ooi, 2005). Tourists seek experiences that create unforgettable images and stimulate their minds (Sternberg, 1997). These experiences emanate from activities and their social meanings and from the physical

environment (O'Dell 2007; Packer & Ballantyne, 2016), and they are key to an innovative, successful and competitive destination (Cai, 2002; Kotler, 2000).

Seminal studies by Cohen (1979), Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), Urry (1990, 2002), Csikszentmihalyi (1996) set the pace for research into tourism experiences. Indeed, from rethinking the sociology of tourism (Cohen, 1979) to the psychological nature of leisure and tourism (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987) and then to the tourist gaze (Urry, 1990, 2002), studies on tourism experience have moved to the experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999), and memorable tourism experiences (Kim, 2010). Some of these studies have discussed festival event experiences and others have explored outdoor sports experiences. A common theme in these studies is that travellers engage their sensory interactions with the tourism purchase (Schmitt, 1999a) or people (environment) (Adhikari & Bhattacharya, 2016

In the early tourism literature, authors focused on the hard elements of the destination such as the sea, sun and sand (triple S) – these were the typical characteristics of a beautiful destination. Later, the focus shifted to service and service quality as determinants of a competitive destination. For example, Cohen's (1979) study holds that people travel to different destinations in search of experiences, which are a multifaceted phenomenon undertaken during leisure time and involves entertainment or learning or both (Ryan, 1997) as they interact with the tourism system and people in that system (Larsen, 2007). Thus, tourists' consumption of goods and services in a destination to satisfy their needs has overtime changed focus from physical goods to experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

2.4.1 Defining tourism experiences

Although different authors have different viewpoints on what experiences and services are and how they differ from each other (Jorgenson et al., 2018), one thing is certain: experiences are part and parcel of services and vice versa. Schmitt (1999, p.25) defines experiences as:

"...the result of encountering, undergoing, or living through situations. They are triggered stimulations to the senses, the heart, and the mind. Experiences also connect the company and the brand to the customer's lifestyle and place individual customer actions and the purchase occasion in a broader social context. In sum, experiences provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioural and relational values that replace functional values".

On their part, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) conceptualise customer experience as the sensory, fantasy and emotional consumer expressions of product use. It is the enjoyment, the immersion and the reactions consumers express when they interact with a product or a brand. (Gentile et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Experiences can be real or virtual and are purely individual or shared (Schmitt, 1999a, 1999b) in response to a stimulus. Lorentzen (2009) observes that experiences can be place-based (festivals), services (galleries) and activities (handicraft). This view is also held by Cai (2002) and Baker (2007) who state that experiences are a function of the place's tangible attributes such as infrastructure and landscape. Experiences are built into services to be able to satisfy the consumer's need whereas services have an embedded experience in them as the consumer enjoys their consumption of the same (Agapito et al., 2013; Pine & Gilmore, 1998).

Tourism experiences are manifested through the creation, production and customization of tourist's product and services in a meaningful way, aimed at giving tourism firms and destinations competitive advantage by reducing substitutability (Chang & Horng, 2010) while focusing on

pleasurable brand experiences. They offer tourists alternative experiences during their free time or when they are free from the constraints of daily life (Wang, 2000). Consequently, destination marketers appreciate the need to offer unique characteristics of tourism experiences while recognising that such experiences are subjective (Aho, 2001; Otto & Ritchie, 1996), highly personal, intangible and always changing (O'Dell, 2007) as they are products of psychological processes (Brakus et al., 2009). Currently, tourism scholars have combined products and services to capture the concept of tourists' experience.

Chang and Horng (2010) state that an experience is an impression that consumers create and take away with them after interacting with a brand. Larsen (2007, p. 9) makes a distinction between two German words *Erlebnis* and *Erfahrung* which are directly related to experience. *Erlebnis* means 'the immediate participate or consciousness related to specific situations' whereas as *Erfahrung* 'connotes the accumulated experiences in the course of a period or even the entity's life span.' He concludes that tourism experiences are a combination of both *Erlebnis* and *Erfahrung* as travellers participate in activities at a destination and at the same time accumulate memories of the place.

Due to the different nature of tourism experiences, scholars contend that experiences should be studied from different perspectives such as psychology and feminism (Wearing & Foley, 2017), among others. For example, social psychology holds that there are three scopes of experience namely conative, cognitive and affective (Mannel & Kleiber, 1997). Conative experiences describe the things that people do or their actual behaviour, cognitive experiences deal with mental perceptions, memory, understanding experiences as well as how the tourist evaluates the experience encountered and affective experiences refer to feelings, emotions and preferences

that travellers develop after encountering a tourism experience (Kanagasapapathy, 2017; Mannel & Kleiber, 1997).

2.4.2 Types and elements of tourism experiences

The tourism industry largely focuses on the creation of experiences that help guests to participate, relate to and enjoy a destination. Several scholars have studied this experience phenomenon (Cohen, 1979; MacCannell, 1973) and different conclusions have been made (see Ritchie, Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In their attempt to understand factors that affect customers' experiences, Gentile et al. (2007) worked on a six experience dimensions that influence customers' perception of an experience: pragmatic, cognitive, emotional, lifestyle, sensorial, and relational dimensions. From the literature reviewed above, sensorial, emotional and cognitive experiences are related to what was proposed by Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) and Schmitt (1999a). They explained the sensorial experience as an experience that involves the stimulation of the senses of taste, hearing, sight, tactile, and olfactory which eventually lead to aesthetic pleasure with the product. Emotional experiences border on one's feelings and perception and they are linked to the affective system. Cognitive experiences are linked to the brain and mental processes of an individual and they help an individual to be creative and solve problems. Pragmatic experiences refer to the tourists' actions taken as they enjoy the product that is the involvement of the customer in doing the task. Lifestyle experience denotes the adoption of a certain lifestyle, values and beliefs by the tourists and relational experiences reflect the way a tourist relates with others and with their ideal selves. O'Dell (2005) corroborating Pine and Gilmore (1998), posit that experiences are random phenomena in people's minds, hence their evaluation is subjective.

Cohen (1979) describes the nature of tourist experience as a derivative of a tourist's total worldview, dependent on the 'centre' and the location of the 'centre'. He puts forward five modes

of touristic experiences – diversionary, existential, recreational, experimental, and experiential – that satisfy the tourist. A recreational mode is a form of entertainment intended to restore the physical or mental well-being of tourists by releasing everyday pressure; the diversionary mode emphasises getting rid of boredom in one's daily routine; the experiential mode highlights travel in search of an authentic experience in other societies; the experimental mode underscores travelling to engage in alternative ways of life to satisfy one's desires and needs and the existential mode, characterises travelling to switch worlds and embrace a new life and culture.

Hall and McArthur (1996) provide five stages of tourist experience based on forest tourists in Tasmania, Australia. These stages describe the process that a traveller goes through from an initial idea to travel, to the travel phase through to the journey back home. These stages have different accompanying experiences. The stages include decision-making and anticipation, travel to the destination, on-site behaviour, and return travel and recollection. Similar to Hall and McArthur's (1996) experience stages, Weaver (2007) proposes an eight-stage tourist experience model, depicting tourists' processes before and during the destination visit: Invitation, Welcome, Orientation, Comfort, Communication, Sensation, Common sense and Finale. On the other hand, Packer and Ballantyne (2016) have developed a ten-stage process of the visitor experience, which they claim can be applied to different tourism and leisure activities. Akin to Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick, (2012), Packer and Ballantyne (2016) synthesize evidence in the literature and submit that experiences consist of physical, hedonic, emotional, relational, spiritual, cognitive, transformative, restorative, introspective and sensory experiences. Their work is closely related to Pine and Gilmore's (1998, 1999) model of tourism experiences but for the integration of certain aspects. For instance, they consider introspective experiences as the imagination or reflection of tourists, relational experiences as social interactions or friendliness and the transformative

experiences as the inspiration that tourists get after encountering an experience. In their work, Kim et al. (2012) summarise various attributes of tourism experience from the literature and identify 19 attributes namely social interaction, involvement, challenge, personal relevance, meaningfulness, timelessness, refreshment, hedonism, stimulation, relaxation, sense of separation, spontaneity, knowledge, adventure, novelty, escaping pressure, and intellectual cultivation.

In general, the value a destination offers in terms of experiences has a direct impact on tourists' perceptions and can affect their revisit and recommendation. Hence, Chon (1990) asserts than negative destination image can be corrected by offering visitors a positive experience confirming that destination brand experience goes beyond having a good image. Therefore, destinations need to create a series of leisure activities that would engage tourists physically, emotionally and cognitively, which would subsequently make them enjoy their tourism experience (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

2.4.3 The experience economy

Pine and Gilmore (2011) argue that goods and services are not enough to keep tourists motivated, hence the shift to experiences as an exceptional economic offer. They also postulate that in the modern era, it is very difficult to encounter a product that is truly new given that modifications and product enhancement are the core differentiating features. Hence time is the currency for experiences where consumers are admitted at a fee (Pine & Gilmore, 2011). According to the experience economy concept, travel experiences are 'staged in a theatre' to satisfy tourists' desire to participate in experiences during their vacation, making destination image, destination ambience and narratives extremely important in this process. Experiences in any given scenario can be categorized into four aspects: entertainment, education, escapist and aesthetic divisions. This means that each time DMOs present and engage tourists in activities, they should

be able to offer them these mental journeys to ensure unique and memorable tourism experiences (Kim, 2010; Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999).

Williams (2006) offers a different approach to the understanding of the experience economy and the level of immersion and activity. He observes that in essence, education experience involves learning, the entertainment aspect involves sensing, aesthetic experiences involve being there and escapist experiences involve active participation. Pine and Gilmore's (1998, 1999) work mirrors Cohen's (1979) five modes of tourist experiences mentioned above: experiential mode, experimental mode, recreation mode, diversionary and existential mode. Furthermore, the work of Hirschman (1984) can be seen in the experience economy. Hirschman (1984) asserts that there are three stages of experience seeking: novelty, cognitive and sensation.

Nilsen and Dale (2013) differentiate the nomenclature of experience economy from experience industries. They argue that the experience economy is a bigger set in the economy where the integration of various experiences create value for different kinds of goods and services therein and it represents a secondary experience sector whereas experience industries refer to economic activities where experiences are the main product. Nilsen and Dale (2013) disagree with Pine and Gilmore's (1998) assertion that economists view experiences just as they do with services despite 'experiences' being different from services. They propose that services, goods and experiences share some similarities, making it difficult to define experience industries. They add that there is no consensus on the scope of experience industries.

Of importance to the definition of service is the proposal that service consists of a relationship between providers and consumers where there are simultaneous production and consumption with both the producer and the consumer being present (Nilsen & Dale, 2013). This concept further stipulates that the consumer needs to actively participate in the consumption of the

service experience but distinctions are now made on the human element of the producer, which is now often replaced by technology and robots. Summing up, they state that experience consumption, as with services, requires participation or attendance by the consumer and the consumer can be a co-producer of the experience. This is what Toffler (as cited in Nilsen & Dale, 2013) terms as 'prosumer' in leisure consumption. According to Sundbo (2009), experiences as products, are innovative despite not being unique. However, they should be able to surprise the consumer. This view suggests that depending on people's feelings and reactions when presented with a product (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987) – for example, food in a restaurant – that could constitute an experience if the consumer sees a 'wow effect' in the food presentation or taste. Hence, DMOs influence on the brand experience is limited as they do not have direct control over the contact points of many tourist brand experiences (Baker, 2007).

Testing Pine and Gilmore's Experience economy concept, Kao, Huang, and Wu (2008) defined immersion as consumers' involvement in the creation of the experience they are consuming which consequently leads to them forgetting about time spent in the process. Surprise refers to the awesomeness of the experience being encountered, participation refers to tourists' interaction with the tourist product or service and fun is defined as the joy that emanates from the consumption of the experience.

It can be deduced from the above that the tourism experience economy is concerned with making experiences or memorable events out of the trivial (mundane) things to extract market value (Lorentzen, 2009). Hence Lorentzen (2009) concludes that experiences are 'individual' as they stem from the interaction and relationship of one person and the staged event at hand. In light of the above, tourism destinations have positioned themselves as 'experiences' to leverage the

situation (Oh et al., 2007) as they provide platforms for tourists to engage with the sensory, cognitive, affective and behavioural brand experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999).

2.4.4 Memorable tourism experiences

Tourists typically seek appealing, unique and memorable experiences. They purchase holidays or visit destinations for various reasons, including the search for an escape, authenticity and identity (Cohen, 1979). Several factors have been considered as drivers of MTEs such as past experiences, motivation, perceptions and behaviours among others (Loureiro, 2014; Mossberg, 2007). In tourism, various studies have examined tourists' memory to understand their future behavioural intentions (Kozak, 2001; Kim et al., 2012). Memory, according to Hoch and Deighton (as cited in Kim et al., 2012), aids tourists to be highly motivated and involved. Owing to information drawn from their past experiences, tourists deem past experiences as highly credible and these experiences influence their future behaviour. This notwithstanding, Kim (2014) observes that tourists can make biased destination choices based on past experiences.

In his 2010 editorial note, Pizam noted that tourists would remember the experience quality and not the quantity. In other words, memorable tourism experiences are a result of the quality of the experience regardless of the situation or location of the tourist (Loureiro, 2014). Tung and Ritchie (2011) established that four factors are vital for tourists to remember their trips: expectations, affect, recollection and consequentiality. For Kim et al. (2012), tourists engage in tourism for hedonics, involvement, local culture, refreshment, to do something meaningful with their life, knowledge and in search of novelty. These constitute the seven constructs of their memorable tourism experiences scale. In a later study, however, Kim (2014) criticised Kim et al.'s (2012) memorable tourism experiences scale, stating that it failed to account for the negative aspects of emotional experience. They proposed a 10-construct MTE scale.

A study by Oh et al. (2007), found that tourists' quest for a unique and memorable experience was mainly found in the escapist and aesthetic components of the experience economy. They note that these are the underlying reasons why people travel in search of staged concrete experiences to satisfy their abstract intrinsic needs. Oh et al. (2007) observe that escapist experience demands more immersion and active participation in the activity as compared to education and entertainment experiences. Furthermore, they argue that the escapist experience has not been extensively studied concerning its role in attracting tourists. They posit that escapist experiences are responsible for tourists' motivation to leave their daily activities and to escape to the destination region (pull). The next section considers tourism stakeholders who are part and parcel of the production and provision of DBEs at a destination.

2.4.5 DBEs and stakeholders

With its origin in the business field, stakeholders have been found to have a keen interest in the operations of an organisation. For example, Clarkson (1995, p. 2) defines stakeholders as "people or interests that have a stake, something to gain or lose as a result of [a corporation's] activities." Similarly, Carroll (1996, p.74) defines stakeholders as "any individual or groups of people who can or affected by the actions, decisions, policies, practices or goal of the organisation." Concerning tourism festivals and events, stakeholders are people or groups of people who have a legitimate interest (Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris, & McDonnell, 2006) or those that have a stake in an activity or event and its outcome (Getz, 1991). It is deducible from the definitions that a stakeholder could be virtually anybody and anything and these stakeholders could be in the present or the future.

Acknowledging that a destination brand exists in the eyes of the beholder, Buncle (2009) postulates that it is imperative that the brand is credible and goes beyond the logo, symbols and

slogans. In this wake, the involvement of different stakeholders is vital for the production of varying and pleasant destination experiences (Fyall, 2011; Fyall, Garrod, & Y. Wang, 2012). Furthermore, creating a country or a place brand is not simple and the central government seldom has total control (Buhalis, 2000); on the contrary, there are multiple stakeholders, with some having competing interests (Frost, 2004; Iversen & Hem, 2008) as well as defining their roles differently within a community (von Friedrichs Grangsjo, 2001). Indeed, Hankinson (2004) acknowledges the collective nature of destination branding which according to Morgan et al., 2003), is a complex politicized activity. Thus, the involvement of stakeholders in branding is vital for successful outcomes.

Apart from financial shareholders, there is a broad scope for the people or things that constitute stakeholders (Gibson, 2000). Hence, the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) helps to delimit these broad stakeholder inclusions so that the organisation efficiently carries out its moral and corporate responsibility while pursuing its core business. Freeman (1984) posits that different groups of people come into play and they can either affect or be affected by an organisation's activities, depending on their legitimacy (Suchman, 1995), power and urgency (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). Drawing on the work of Gibson (2000) and Mitchell et al. (1997) who posit that stakeholders should be viewed from a power standpoint which – this being beneficial or detrimental to an organisation – Saito and Ruhanen (2017) discovered that there are four types of stakeholder power at a destination: coercive, induced, competent and legitimate. This differs from the earlier work of Mitchell et al. (1997) who wrote about coercive, utilitarian and normative stakeholder powers. It is believed that stakeholders' power can influence their voice, actions, as well as their position and this, can have a direct impact on various relationships (Beritelli & Laesser, 2011).

Furthermore, Freeman (2004) agrees with Gibson (2000) on the need to delimit who an organisations' stakeholders are either implicitly or explicitly. Consequently, Kaler (2002, 2004) proposed '*contributing principle*' as one guiding principle an organisation can use to determine who its stakeholders are. It is, therefore, important that any destination singles out who its key stakeholders are in the provision of tourism experience because without doing so, there will be no limit to who and the number of stakeholders an organisation has. Stakeholders' involvement has been linked to responsive and sustainable tourism development. Byrd (2007) propose that stakeholders' involvement must begin with the DMO identifying and recognising them and then giving them a chance to make informed decisions and recommendations about the destination.

Several stakeholders have been identified in different sectors of tourism: events (Getz, Andersson, & Larson, 2007; Presenza & Iocca, 2012; Bowdin et al., 2006), destination marketing (Bornhosrt, Ritchie, & Sheehan, 2010; Line & Wang, 2017), tourism planning (Ladkin & Bertramini, 2002; Ross, 1993), sustainable tourism development (Byrd, 2007), destination branding (Morgan et al., 2003), destination competitiveness (Dwyer, Mellor, & Livaic 2004), tourism services (Chen & Chen, 2016) and heritage management (Aas, Ladkin, & Fletcher, 2005), among others. From these studies, stakeholders can be summarised into five categories as expressed by Hall and Page (1999) and Hardy (2005); government departments, the local community, visitor, the private sector and the public sector. In the current study, stakeholders include educators, the public sector, hoteliers, tour operators, travel agents, tour guides, local community, domestic and international tourists.

Table 2. 1 Stakeholders' roles in Destination Brand Experience

Stakeholder	Relevance to DBE	Source
Government departments/ public sector	➢ Policymaking ➢ Coordination of public and private sector interests ➢ Facilitation of an environment for tourism development ➢ Provision of experiences to tourists while benefiting the locals. ➢ Investments and subsidies	Bornhorst et al., (2010); Ritchie & Crouch (2003); Sharpley (2002); Tung & Ritchie (2011)
Educators	➢ Research that feeds into the national tourism policy ➢ Training workforce for the tourism industry ➢ Deliver tourism education in line with national tourism policy	Amoah & Baum (1997)
Hoteliers/ entrepreneurs	➢ As entrepreneurial service providers, they help in destination development by investing in tourism experiences and providing innovation, attractions and marketing them among others.	Koh & Hatten (2002): Ritchie & Crouch (2003)
Tour operators/Travel agents/tour guides	➢ Information providers/gatekeepers who help the tourist to develop a destination image as well as enjoy their experience through interpretation.	Reisinger & Steiner (2006);Tung & Ritchie (2011)
Local community	➢ Resource providers and support tourism (experiences) if they benefit from it. They can also affect tourism growth if negative impacts occur.	Bornhorst et al. (2010)
Tourists	➢ They engage with various tourism products and evaluate the experience quality based on their expectation and perceptions.	Bornhorst et al. (2010); Walls, Okumus, Wang, & Kwun (2011)

2.4.6 Tourist nationality and tourism experiences

Tourists are an important aspect of tourism as the destination's products and services are produced for their consumption. In tourism literature, tourists are classed as either domestic or international (Ponsignon, Lunardo, & Michrafy, 2020). Domestic tourism refers to tourists' travel within their national borders whereas international tourism refers to travel to and staying in places away from the usual environment of the tourists'' country of residence (Ponsignon et al., 2020). For many countries, attracting foreign tourists signify the epitome of their marketing campaigns. In the Sub-Saharan African region, the number of international tourists attracted to its protected wildlife parks significantly surpasses that of domestic tourists (Melubo, 2020) this is despite domestic tourism is a leading form of tourism in most countries of the region such as in Kenya and Tanzania (Melubo, 2020). For other countries like Fiji, tourism is predominantly international (Folkersen, Fleming, & Hasan, 2018). Among the South Pacific islands, tourism plays an important role in its economy as evidenced by its contribution to the GDP which stands at 14% (Folkersen et al., (2018).

Through tourist categorization as either domestic or international, researchers have noted numerous differences between the two tourist markets in their selection, consumption, and evaluation of destination experiences. For example, Mechinda, Seriat, and Gulid (2009), Ponsignon et al. (2020), Simpson, Siguaw, and Sheng (2016) established that international tourists were easily satisfied with a destination than domestic tourists. Ponsignon et al. (2020 attributed several factors such as hedonic value, psychic distance, and escapism to this incidence. Consumption and experience evaluation differences have also been noted between international and domestic tourists elsewhere (Beckman et al., 2013; Huang, Huang, & Wu, 1996; Kozak, 2001) and between people of different nationalities (Ballantyne et al., 2011b; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995).

Working on pro-environmental behaviours, Li and Wu (2019) argued that the behaviours of local and international tourists differ in a destination due to differences in the reason for destination choice. They explain that domestic tourists choose natural environments "habitually, and their experience is often more strongly related to hedonic goals such as relaxation, pleasure, and enjoyment" (p. 133). On the other hand, they opined that international tourists choose a destination purposefully and as such, their observance of PEBs relates to their intrinsic motivations.

Studying tourists' behaviours in a destination, Carr (2002) discovered that young and single British domestic visitors displayed different behaviours compared to international tourists, the latter being more hedonistic and passive. In Thailand, Mechinda et al. (2009) demonstrated that domestic and international tourists varied significantly in their contentment with the place and emotional attachment. The study revealed that domestic visitors were more emotionally attached and contented with the destination. Similarly, a study in the US by Bonn, Joseph-Mathews, and Dai (2005) discovered that international tourists had a lower evaluation of the service image experience than domestic tourists. This is, however, in sharp contrast to McDowall and Ma (2010) and Ponsignon et al. (2020) studies that established that international tourists' evaluation of the destination experiences was more favourable than locals. Based on the foregoing studies, this study expects that international and domestic tourists would evaluate DBE, satisfaction, and PEB differently.

2.5 Tourist satisfaction

Satisfaction is considered as an antecedent of consumer behavioural intentions (Chiu, Lee, & Chen, 2014; Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Petrick & Backman, 2002) having both direct and

indirect effects on brand experience behavioural intention while others consider it as a dependent variable (Hosany & Prayag, 2013; Yeh, 2013). Its definition and conceptualisation vary widely among scholars. To some, satisfaction is the perceived variation between actual performance and expectation; a performance that beats expectation leading to satisfaction whereas below expectation performance leading to dissatisfaction (Oliver, 1980; Rust & Oliver, 1994). This concept emanated from Oliver (1980) who proposed that consumers are satisfied with an experience when they compare it to their expectations; that is if the service/product performance is higher than expectations, it results into satisfaction (positive confirmation) and vice versa.

Hunt (1977) describes satisfaction as the evaluation a consumer makes about how good an experience was, and not how pleasurable the experience was, rending it to be evaluated subjectively (Petrick & Backman, 2002). Similarly, Williams (1989) perceive consumer satisfaction as the cognitive appraisal humans make about a product or service's performance relative to its subjective standard. Other scholars contend that satisfaction is an overall feeling that customers have about a product and can be satisfied with it despite its poor performance (Fornell, 1992). This line of thought concurs with Barsky (1992) who criticises the disconfirmation of expectation paradigm by stating that there is no conclusive evidence that expectations are correlated to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The disconfirmation paradigm holds that consumers have prior standards about how a product or service should perform and this acts as a reference point to gauge their satisfaction with the product or service (Williams, 1989). This is also known as contrast theory (Oliver, 1980).

Other scholars have proposed the use of both affective and cognitive elements to understand consumers experience and satisfaction with a service or product. For example, Westbrook (1987) posits that emotional elements of satisfaction help service providers to meet the

consumers' demands. These sentiments are also shared by Hunt (1977) who stated that satisfaction comprises elements of affect or feeling- and this can be a subjective evaluation of a product's outcome and experiences, but not necessarily the pressure derived from using the product.

Service quality (SERVIQUAL) is the most applied scale in measuring satisfaction in the tourism and hospitality industry. It measures the perceived service quality at a given point without taking into consideration the process (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994). However, there are still arguments on whether researchers should measure customer experience or service quality to determine satisfaction. Anderson, Fornell, and Lehmann (1994) argue that customers will rate their satisfaction after experiencing a product unlike quality, which can be perceived even before customers consume the product (Oliver, 1993). Given these debates, the current study measures tourist satisfaction after they consume destination brand experiences.

Having satisfied customers has several advantages for organisations. For instance, it can lead to reduced expenses on drawing new customers (Fornell, 1992) and reduced transaction expenses in future (Anderson et al., 1994), positive word of mouth (Anderson, 1998), increased profit due to reduced failure costs (Anderson et al., 1994), and good firm reputation (Anderson et al., 1994), loyalty (Cronin & Taylor, 1992), among others. Although more studies have focussed on the positive consequences of satisfaction, other studies have established that unsatisfied customers may express negative comments about the destination to friends. Chen & Chen (2010) found that experience quality did not affect behavioural intentions. In Mittal and Lassar's (1998) study titled "why do customers switch", satisfaction with a product or service did not translate into loyalty as a behavioural intention. They discovered that despite being satisfied, customers would still switch products in search of better performance.

2.6 Pro-environmental behaviours

Despite tourism experience being an intangible element, it relies upon space and destination materials for tourists to engage in self-development activities, build their identity, improve their competencies and connect with other tourists and locals (Campos, Mendes, Valle & Scott, 2018; Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011; O'Dell, 2005; Rodaway, 1994). Also, most destinations depend on their physical attractiveness to attract tourists (Ramkissoon, Smith & Weiler, 2013a, 2013c; Ramkissoon, Weiler & Smith, 2013b). Consequently, the need to encourage tourists to act responsibly in a destination is essential to the development of sustainable tourism (Buonincontri, Marasco, & Ramkissoon, 2017). This is especially important given the increased number of people making tourism trips every year, worldwide. Tourists can engage in detrimental behaviours such as waste generation, overcrowding, collection of flora and fauna, damage of facilities, pollution, and depletion of wildlife (Chiu et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2018). Moreover, in most destinations, it is often assumed that it is the responsibility of the destination or the supply side to ensure the sustainability of the attractions (López-Sánchez & Pulido-Fernandez, 2016). Therefore, it is necessary to involve tourists in positive environmental behaviours, especially in natural attraction sites such as Lake Malawi.

Pro-environmental behaviours, also known as environmental responsible behaviours (ERB), are concerned with tourists' environmental concern, knowledge and commitment to the protection of the environment (Cottrell & Graefe, 1997). Miller et al. (2015) define ERB as tourist behaviour aimed at reducing negative impacts on both the natural or cultural environment of a destination. Additionally, Gupta and Agrawal (2018) define ERB as responsible consumption that is rational and efficient in the use of resources mindful of both global and the human population. ERB aims at contributing to the conservation of nature and the promotion of a sustainable natural

environment as a response to climate change (Han, Lee, & Hwang, 2016). The proposition is that when tourists are exposed to information about an environmental issue or when they appreciate the effect of their actions on the environment they are visiting, they can engage in sustainable behaviours such as education, community activism, energy management, green consumption, and waste recycling, among others (Hines, Hungerford, & Tomera, 1987; Iwata, 2001; Puhakka, 2011; Thapa, 2010). To scholars like Stern (2000), PEB can manifest through various practices such as private-sphere, non-activist behaviours in the public sphere and environmentalism environmental activism. These actions stem from environmental knowledge of issues, locus of control for the individual, knowledge of action strategies, sense of responsibility and verbal commitment (Hines et al., 1987). Hence, PEBs by tourists' is considered as advocacy for environmental protection besides being an effective way for addressing the balance between sustainability and profitability in the tourism industry (Li & Wu, 2019; Moeller, Dolnicar, & Leisch, 2011). For nature-based destinations such as Lake Malawi, they are marked with undeveloped and/or undisturbed natural areas which raise the need for conservation of such pristine areas (Lee, Jan, & Yang, 2013).

In light of the negative environmental concerns such as global warming, climate change and some consequences emanating from tourist activities, calls have been made for environmental protection as well as ecology maintenance to prevent or reduce the adverse effects of these changes. As observed by Grosjean (as cited in Butler, 1990), every tourist can be damaging to the environment. Tourists' actions at attractions such as lakes can result in waste generation, overcrowding, pollution, and damage of facilities, collection of flora and fauna, and depletion of wildlife (Chang, 2010; Chen, 2011; Zhao et al., 2018). Thus, cognizant that the natural environment, landscapes, flora and fauna are a core component of tourists' experiences in such destinations, the adoption of sustainable behaviours also known as pro-environmental behaviours

by the tourists themselves is relevant for the preservation of such places, which are generally prone to negative environmental impacts. The involvement of tourists has been lacking due to the common belief that it is the responsibility of supply-side stakeholders to ensure the sustainability of tourist attractions. However, tourists are also important stakeholders; hence, the promotion of environmentally responsible behaviours among tourists is vital. Furthermore, DMOs can lobby the participation of the general public and /or tourists in environmental conservation. For lake tourism, which is regarded as rural tourism and often happens in natural areas, the emphasis on environmental conservation is even more crucial (Bjork, 2000).

Other studies state that tourists' pro-environmental behaviours are different at home and during vacations when they seem not to care much about the environment (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008). This has been attributed to tourist's fear that engaging in PEB could affect their enjoyment while on vacation or lead to a sacrifice their lifestyles (Fairweather, Maslin, & Simmons, 2005). Thus, tourist values and attitudes of the environment (Andereck, 2009; Wu, Font & Liu, 2020) have a significant effect on their pro-environmental behaviours at a destination.

Kang and Moscardo (2006) assert that pro-environmental behaviours can be seen in tourists' attitudes towards the environment. Furthermore, levels of environmental responsibility vary according to travel motivation, personal experience and participation in the environment (Kerstetter, Hou, & Lin, 2004; Hungerford & Volk, 1990). Research suggests that tourist motivation, destination image, tourist satisfaction and their attitude towards the destination are predictors of behavioural intentions such as environmental attitudes (Lee, 2009; Luo & Deng, 2008; Orams 1995). Thus, several factors have been attributed to drivers of tourists' PEB. Precisely, these drivers have been grouped into two: external in-situ factors and internal psychological factors (Juvan & Dolnicar, 2017; Luo et al., 2020). Regarding internal psychological

factors, several factors have been identified such as social responsibility awareness (Luo et al., 2020), local destination attachment (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Ramkissoon, Weiler, & Smith, 2012), tourists' knowledge on the environment (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011), perceived benefits (Chiu et al., 2014; Luo et al., 2020; Wan, Shen, & Yu, 2015), satisfaction (Chiu et al., 2014) and environmental attitude (Kil et al., 2014; Thapa, 2010; Wan et al. 2015), among others. For some like Wan et al. (2015), these psychological factors are grouped into five namely: social/external influences, past behaviour, perceived benefits, perceived policy effectiveness and attitudes. For external in-situ factors, the destinations regulations and policies (Luo et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2015), quality of the environment (Chiu et al., 2014), environmental education as well as interpretation (Ballantyne, Packer, & Hughes, 2009; Ballantyne & Packer, 2011), are some of the convincing reasons for tourist to engage in PEB.

In the case of Lake Malawi, the ambition the by Malawi government to drill oil in the lake has been a cause of concern to environmentalists, tourism business and local communities. Calls have been made for the government to halt its intended action to preserve the lake, especially the UNESCO protected cichlid fishes (see section 2.7.3 below). Furthermore, wanton cutting down of trees to support the ever-increasing human population and the fishing and tourism industries pose a threat of siltation to the lake, which could impact on tourism experiences. This study, therefore, explores tourists' commitment to and support for environmental conservation by identifying tourist actions that can help reduce negative impacts. The next section discusses tourism experiences at lake destinations, which is the focus of this thesis.

2.7 Lakes and tourism

From the perspective of both local and international tourists, lakes and seaside resorts are some of the most preferred tourist attractions and destinations in the world, (Łukasik & Perzyński,

2013). Lakes can be a core recreation and tourism development resource for leisure purposes and they offer lake destinations economic benefits apart from the traditional fishing industry. Hall and Härkönen (2006, p. 3) observe that lakes are a "vital part of recreation and tourism as both location and for leisure activities, as well as an attraction in their own right." For some countries such as Finland and Malawi, lakes provide the most unique tourism resource with an emphasis placed on the sense of the lake, sense of place and the spirit of the lake (Tuohino, 2006). Lake environments, like other water bodies such as rivers and seas, contribute to tourists' experience than their characteristics (Guyer & Pollard, 1997; Mosley, 1989) as the water environment exerts positive vibes on tourists' well-being (Ulrich, 1981). For example, the Great Lakes in North America are a popular destination for both tourism and recreation and have over 6 million registered boats as well as 1, 413 marinas (Thorp & Stone, 2000). Lake landscapes provide bodily or sensory experiences through boating, swimming, among others (Tuohino, 2006).

The lake experience space entails shores, trees and forests and it is expressed through memories, feelings and activities (Tuohino, 2006, p.103). Lake landscapes, according to Tuohino (2006), consists of personal experience as well as the social and cultural interpretation of these experiences. Lake tourism is credited with the development of national identity and cultural independent senses during the Romanticism period through the indigenous expressions of nature by artists (Hall & Härkönen, 2006), which consequently led to the development and growth of tourism in the lake environments. Lake tourism, despite being viewed as a rural activity, helps destinations to depend on the quality of their pristine waters as a valuable asset for their tourism activities (Cooper, 2006).

As described by Hall and Härkönen (2006), lakes are important assets for recreation purposes and this is truer for natural lakes than artificial lakes as the later oftentimes has use

conflicts (Cooper, 2006). Lakes, like national parks and other tourism attractions, are used to create visitor experiences through tourists' interaction with the environment (Vaske, Donnelly, & Whittaker, 2000). Water bodies have created a demand for tourist services along with them hence the proliferation of lake destinations with all the supporting services to ensure travellers have maximum water-based experiences.

Lakes are resource-based tourism attractions that generate visits to the area but demand sound management and coordination between the users (Cooper, 2006). Indeed, lakes are a significant tourism component offering tourists with transient experiences during their free time. There are several types of lakes throughout the world, the common division being permanent freshwater lakes like Lake Malawi and Lake Baikal in Russia or permanent saline lakes like Lake Turkana, Lake Nakuru and Lake Bogoria in Kenya. Furthermore, lakes can be man-made like Lake Kariba (Zambia and Zimbabwe) or natural like Lake Victoria.

Lakes and their catchment areas such as wetlands are also important recreational destinations for tourists interested in angling, hunting and bird watching (Jones, Scott, & Gössling, 2006). For countries like Canada, bird watching in freshwater lakes such as in Point Pelee National Park generates 60, 000 tourists annually and contributes US$4 million to the local economy (American Birding Association as cited in Jones et al., 2006). Likewise, Lake Malawi and its catchment area pride in over 678 bird species some of which are endemic to Malawi and is the largest bird concentration in the world concerning the country size (see https://www.lonelyplanet.com/malawi/wildlife/birds).

Other lakes are glacial lakes and they mainly attract tourists interested in skiing, ice fishing and winter vacations in general. Scott et al. (2002) report that Lake Simcoe in Southern Ontario receives more visitors in winter who are attracted by the ice fishing season than in summer. The

importance of ice cover on lake reservoirs is also appreciated in Northern America where ice skating brings in US$82 million to the local economy along the Rideau Canal Skateway in Ottawa, Canada (Ekos Research Associates as cited in Jones et al., 2006).

Although freshwater lakes have gained attention due to tourism recreation, some countries have benefited from saline lake tourism. For example, Lake Nakuru and Lake Bogoria in Kenya have flourished as tourist spots owing to a large number of flamingos (Ndetei & Muhandiki, 2005). According to the International Lake Environment Committee Foundation (ILEC, 2005), the lake's extreme salinity makes it unique and contributes to its most important values. Lake Nakuru is a highly prized national park in Kenya. Importantly, the proceeds from lake tourism and tourism, in general, are an important revenue for both government and local economies (ILEC, 2005).

2.7.1 Lake Malawi

Lake Malawi is the largest freshwater body in Southern Africa. Lake Malawi is the third-largest lake in Africa and the fourth largest lake in the world (by volume). Hence, its importance in tourism experiences and environmental significance cannot be overlooked (Hall & Härkönen, 2006). The lake, together with Lake Tanganyika and Lake Baikal, is one of the few deep-water lakes still existing today (Delvaux, 1995). Lake Malawi is the main tourism product for destination Malawi, and it represents Malawi in all her marketing communications. Lake Malawi lies in the Great African Rift valley and has sister lakes such as Albert, Victoria, Edward, Tanganyika and Turkana. Together with Lake Victoria and Tanganyika, Lake Malawi makes the three largest rift valley lakes in Africa (Beeton, 2002). The lake's deepest point is around 702 metres and it measures 365 miles long and 52 miles wide earning itself, 'The Calendar Lake' nickname (see www.visitmalawi.mw). The lake, being home to the largest fish species found in any lake in the world, necessitated the formation of its southern part into a protected area, Lake Malawi National

Park (LMNP). The cichlid fish, locally known as 'Mbuna', is endemic to Lake Malawi and displays 'a significant biological evolution,' (*cf*. www.whc.unesco.org/en/list/289). Lake Malawi is comparable to Lake Baikal in Russia which is also a freshwater lake and a world heritage site (WHS) and like Lake Malawi, it has several inlets but only one outlet. Lake Malawi's sole outlet is Shire River, which extends from Malawi to Mozambique and on which Malawi's Hydroelectric Power stations are located.

Hall and Härkönen (2006) maintain that lake tourism should not only be delimited to the water body alone but its surrounding areas as well. In this regard, Lake Malawi's aquatic zone also includes islands, villages and hills such as Mwenya, Nkhudzi and Chombe hills. Lake Malawi has two large inhabited islands (Likoma and Chizumulu), which are geographically in Mozambican waters. The islands are home to the historic St. Peters Cathedral of the Anglican Church (see www.visitmalawi.com) and attract heritage as well as cruise tourists.

Although lake tourism is considered a form of rural tourism that offers a rural tourism experience (Gartner, 2006), Lake Malawi provides travellers with water-based experiences that can also be found in urban water bodies such as sightseeing and kayaking. As described by Furgała-Selezniow, Turkowski, Nowak, Skrzypczak, and Mamcarz (2006), natural, climatic and landscape conditions are vital for tourist recreation in lake area destinations. For tourists' experiences and discovery, Lake Malawi provides the following activities: walking and hiking, cycling, water-based sports such as kayaking, canoeing, and surfing. The lake is also known for its perfect diving spots, fishing, fish watching, boating and shopping from local people.

It is important to mention that fishing is a predominant activity among locals around Lake Malawi with Chambo (*Tilapia lidole*) and Usipa *(Engraulicypris sardella)* being the most common fish species harvested in the lake all year round constituting the main protein source for the

Malawian population. The lake is also a source of water to the villages as well as their recreation in the form of swimming and diving. Lake Malawi has contributed to the development of water-based activities such as scuba diving as travellers seek to have an up-close view of the cichlid fishes. Furthermore, some aquariums have emerged that harvest and export the cichlid fishes for ornamental purposes.

For Hall and Stoffels (2006), notable freshwater activities in New Zealand include fishing, swimming, hot pools, sports, and beach walking. Similarly, in Malawi despite the unavailability of official data, most domestic visitors associate the lake with their recreation and leisure times and beach soccer, volleyball, swimming, boating, kayaking and BBQ are the frequently preferred activities. Other activities the lake is used for include canoeing, sailing, diving, snorkelling and fishing (Hall & Härkönen, 2006).

Lake tourism in Malawi has seen rapid tourism development. The topography of the areas adds beauty to the landscapes and various lodges and hotels made from local materials provide accommodation and restaurant services to tourists at Lake Malawi. Currently, the lakeside is a preferred conference and holiday destination and many hotels have been established to support the business. Furthermore, Lake Malawi is home to the only lakeshore international music festival in the world: Lake of Stars Music Festival, which is hosted over the last weekend of September and attracts artists and attendees from across the globe (*cf.* http://lakeofstars.org/).

2.7.2 Challenges facing lakes

Currently, lakes face various problems worldwide due to man-made and natural challenges. Cooper (2006) submits that as a tourism destination, lakes are not only susceptible to change

brought by tourism and recreation use but also to external threats that endanger the lakes' integrity. Jorgensen & Matsui (1997) summarised the following environmental issues concerning lakes:

1. Decreasing water volume due to water over usage

2. Water acidification due to acid precipitation

3. Collapse of aquatic ecosystems

4. Eutrophication for nutrients inflow

5. Rapid siltation due to increased run-off

6. Water contamination with pollutants

For example, Lake Malawi is currently threatened by deforestation, excessive fishing, the introduction of alien fishes and plants such as Hyacinth (locally known as 'Namasupuni'), industrial pollution and the prospect of oil exploration (Weyl et al., 2010). There is fear that deforestation coupled with little rainfall would affect the lake's water levels and subsequently tourism activities and experiences and other industries such as hydro-electrical generation and farming. For example, in the United States, the US National Park Service closed six ramps between 2002 and 2003 due to low water levels (below fill level) in various lakes (Hollenhorst, as cited in Jones et al., 2006).

According to ILEC (2005) and Turner (1994), Lake Malawi's major challenges are overfishing, climate change and the shrinking lake size. Most communities in the lakes' catchment area rely on fishing for their livelihood, resulting in their engagement in unsustainable fishing practices that have led to the harvesting of small fishes as well as fishing during the breeding season (Bulirani, 2003). Furthermore, due to the fish diversity in Lake Malawi and Lake Tanganyika, ornamental fishing poses a risk of *Mbuna* fish deprivation as the species are endemic and, therefore, their export needs to be regulated (ILEC, 2005). In recent years, Lake Malawi has

been threatened by possible oil exploration by the government across the lake (Beeton, 2002). There is fear that if the government goes ahead with the programme, there could be loss of fishes. There is also the risk of removing Lake Malawi from the World Heritage list (Etter-Phoya, 2014; Mweninguwe, 2012) should there be the 'Gulf oil disaster'. Furthermore, increased climate change is harming water levels and this can lead to reduced water activities (which can result in limited lake experiences) as has been the case with North American lakes as well as Aral Sea in Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan (Cooper, 2006; Jones et al., 2006).

2.7.3 Lake Malawi National Park

Lake Malawi National Park (LMNP) is located in Cape Maclear at the southern end of a rift valley lake. It covers an area of 94, 000 ha and is the first freshwater national park to be designated as a WHS in the world. It is one of the two tourism attractions in Malawi found on the WHS list; the other is Chongoni Rock Art Paintings. Lake Malawi National Park is a natural heritage attraction and was declared as a WHS in 1984 to preserve the cichlid '*mbuna*' fishes, other aquatic life and land wildlife. The park is home to over 700 cichlid fishes most of which are endemic to Malawi (Turner, Seehausen, Knight, Allender, & Robinson, 2001), with only five similar to those in other waters of the world (see https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/289). The park consists of the lake itself, the shoreline, its various islands, mountains, and five enclave villages. The park is also home to the graveyards of the early British missionaries to Malawi and a historical baobab tree, under which Dr David Livingstone conducted his classes.

Lake Malawi National Park located on 14° 02'S by 34° 53'E, was established by the Malawian government in 1980 to conserve the freshwater fishes. Situated at Nankumba Peninsula at the southern end of the lake in Cape Maclear, Mangochi, the hub of tourism activities in Malawi, Lake Malawi National Park is another reason to visit the area. The park is 94.1km^2 long covering

two districts of Mangochi and Salima of which 7km^2 is the aquatic zone. The park goes 100m offshore into the waters of Lake Malawi. Lake Malawi is comparable to the finches of Galapagos Island in the study of evolution. The lake is home to over 1,300 fish species, more than any other freshwater lake in the world. The Mbuna fish is a prized ornamental fish (Weyl et al., 2010). The lake is an important tourism resource in Malawi due to its scenic significance such that Lake Malawi National Park waters and islands are often used on destination Malawi's promotional materials and its website (*cf.* www.visitmalawi.mw).

Being a World Heritage Site, Lake Malawi National Park is a unique tourism attraction due to its location and attributes such as sandy beaches and pristine clear blue waters that offer tourists memorable experiences as they provide values that are longed for by wanderlust tourists. The notion of World Heritage is built on the principles of Outstanding Value that needs to be preserved for the benefit of mankind (UNESCO, 1972a, Preamble). As a result, heritage tourism at many WHS is a valued development opportunity (Su & Wall, 2014). Evidence in the literature suggests that WHS designation of attractions often results in an increased number of tourists to the site (Tucker & Emge, 2010) as well as the creation of a branded cultural image for the site (Ung & Vong, 2010). Consequently, tourists visiting WHS have higher expectations and perceptions of the services and experiences the site offers and satisfaction with the visit experiences may translate into increased numbers to the heritage sites (Poria, Reichel, & Cohen, 2013). Heritage has recently gained favourable attention among tourists and destinations alike, leading to the proliferation of heritage tourism with more and more destinations fronting their tourism products as heritage attractions to offer heritage experiences.

Lake Malawi National park was inscribed onto the World Heritage list having satisfied criteria seven, nine and ten, according to UNESCO.

LMNP also has an aquamarine biological sciences museum. Visitors can celebrate parties and have a barbeque (famously known as braai) with friends and relatives on the beaches, relax by the shores, read as well as having educational and fieldwork contacts with the local people. The five enclave villages in LMNP namely, Chembe, Msaka, Mvunguti, Zambo and Chidzale (Nyanyale, 2005), offer visitors the contact point to the southern Malawi Yao culture which has some Arab traits due to Islamic religion, which accentuates the tourists' experience of the area.

2.7.4 Malawi and Lake Malawi's International recognitions between 2012 and 2018

The table below lists some notable world recognitions that Lake Malawi has received between 2012 and 2018.

Table 2. 2 Malawi international accolades

Destination	Area for recognition	Source of recognition	Year
Lake Malawi National Park	Places Prince Harry will likely go for his honeymoon with Meghan	The Telegraph	2018
Lake Malawi	25 of Africa's most amazing places to visit	CNN	2018; 2017; 2012
Malawi	One of top 10 must-visit countries in 2014	Lonely Planet	2014
Lake Malawi	Five great places to visit in May 2018	CNN	2018
Vwaza Marsh and Liwonde Game Parks	The World's 50 best wildlife holidays	The Telegraph	2018
Malawi	The 15 coolest places to go in 2018	Forbes	2017
Lake Malawi National Park	Boat cruises on the pristine Mumbo Island Lodge on Lake Malawi.	Sawubona (South African Inflight) Magazine	2016
Lake Malawi	The family holiday in Lake Malawi	The Telegraph	2015

Source: Abel (2017), Cha (2014), Bruce (2015), Bruce (2018), CNN (2018), Jacobs (2018), Madden (2018), Sawubona (2016)

2.7.5 Connecting DBE to Lake Malawi

The table below presents a summary of possible DBEs at Lake Malawi.

Table 2. 3 Assumed Lake Malawi DBE

Brand Experience construct	Elements/variables	Relevant Literature
Sensory	Sight (landscape, plants, sky, beach, lake water, the sun, starlight, baboons, otters, moon, birds, buildings)	Agapito, Pinto & Mendes (2017); Orth & Malkewitz (2008); Hall (2008); Oh et al. (2007); Rodrigues, Rodrigues, & Peroff, (2014)
	Hearing (wave sounds, hotel room sounds, baboons, insects, wind, birdsongs, silence)	Agapito et al. (2017); Pilcher, Newman, & Manning (2009); Rodrigues et al. (2015a)
	Smell (Fish, flowers, plants, fresh air)	Agapito et al. (2017); Dann & Jacobsen (2003); Lwin et al. (2010); Spangenberg et al. (1996)
	Touch (lake water, sand, plants, animals, fish)	Agapito et al. (2017); Hultén (2012); Peck & Wiggins (2006); Rodrigues et al. (2015a)
	Taste (Local food, lake fish, fruits-)	Agapito et al., (2017); Ahn & Back (2018); Mkono (2011); Mkono, Markwell, & Wilson (2013); Quan & Wang (2004)
Affective	Attachment & passionate	Ahn & Back (2018); Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015); Thomson et al. (2005); Tung & Ritchie (2011)
	Loyalty	Aggarwal (2004); Ahn & Back (2018); Lee & Kang (2012)
	Feelings/ emotions/ attitudes (Beautiful and calming environment), well-being	Ahn & Back (2018); Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015),
	Exciting and fun gaming activities	Ahn & Back (2018); Ekinci (2003); Kim et al. (2012)
	Calming, relaxing and beautiful lake water	Ekinci (2003); Rodrigues et al. (2015b)
	Local people and staff hospitality	Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015); Kim (2010); Morgan & Xu (2009)
Behavioural	Sporting activities (hiking, swimming, diving, scuba diving)	Ahn & Back (2018); Rodrigues et al. (2013); Tung & Ritchie (2011)

	Leisure activities (e.g. Biking, walking in a park or racing, local clubs, games, entertainment)	Adhikari & Bhattacharya, 2016); Beckman et al. (2013); Brakus et al. (2009); Kim (2010); Chandralal et al. (2015)
	Eating local foods	Mkono (2011); Mkono et al. (2013); Quan & Wang (2004)
	Gazing	Urry (1990, 2002)
Cognitive/ **Intellectual**	Thinking-	Ahn & Back (2018); Brakus et al. (2009); Cacioppo & Petty (1982); Kim et al. (2012); Nysveen et al. (2013); Tung & Ritchie (2011)
	Interaction with other tourists/locals	Ahn & Back (2018); Kim et al. (2009).
	Doing strange and dangerous things i.e. eating strange local food	Mkono (2011); Molz (2007)
	Enthusiasm	Harrigan, Evers, Miles & Daly (2017)
	Absorption	Harrigan et al. (2017)
Relational	Interpersonal interactions, shared mood and emotional intensity, mutual focus of attention, feelings of communion, contact with people, enhancing social relationships	Collin (2004); Geus et al. (2016) Nordvall et al. (2014); Tung & Ritchie (2011)

2.8 Conclusion

Experiences are a core ingredient of tourists' consumption of a destination and it has been argued that their realisation depends on the destination. As Crouch and Ritchie (2000) note, experiences can be met wherever people are irrespective of the place, brand or what they are doing. With tourists migrating from the passive gaze to more experience-based attractions, it has become more important for destinations to incorporate experiences in their attraction offerings to appeal to this market segment that wants be actively involved in the production and consumption of the experience. Therefore, Barnes et al. (2014) urge destination marketers to highlight sensory brand experiences that are consistent with the destination in their marketing messages. They maintain that brand experiences are 'complex' but are very useful in determining visitor outcomes, satisfaction, revisit and recommendation intentions. An experience with a brand has an important effect on a person's interpretation of the brand than the product's features and benefits (Ha &

Perks, 2005) such that consumers would categorise brands according to their attributes. Visitors to Lake Destination attractions fall within the category of a brand experience as patrons that visit these destinations engage with and consume the product/service/experience offered to them.

Following Brakus et al's. (2009) study, few studies have been conducted to fully conceptualise their model. As Barnes et al. (2014) write, destination brand experience is complex and varies from one destination to another and among different visitor types who have different interests. Hence, different individuals can have different interpretations of the same experience (Ooi, 2005). Tourists' values are a necessary ingredient in the outcome of the tourism destination experience evaluation. As seen from the reviewed literature, scales developed by Brakus et al. (2009) have yielded different conclusions in different setups. As conceded by Barnes et al. (2014), different destinations produce different experiences which have effects on tourists' evaluation of the experiences. Andreini et al. (2018), observed that for all the research work done on BE, they sorely depended on Brakus et al. (2019) theoretical perspective "without any criticism and further theoretical elaboration of the concept "(p. 123). This is against the fact that experience is not static and revolutionary changes continue to take place on the tourism market (Andreini et al. 2018; Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Thus, observing that the scale by Brakus et al. (2009) was meant for consumer products that vary distinctively from destination experiences and that tourist experiences are ever-changing, the current study finds it imperative to develop a scale that measures the core destination brand experiences, using tourists as respondents as no study has yet to measure this. Thus, by developing and empirically testing a tourism purpose-made DBE scale, the present study fills a void in the literature where only one operationalization and single theoretical perspective of BE is being used (Andreini et al., 2018).

This chapter has reviewed the literature on the constructs that build a theoretical framework for this study. These important constructs include destination brand experience, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. The next chapter presents the conceptual framework of the thesis as well as the hypothetical relationships between the various dimensions used in the thesis.

CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

"There's no discovery without a search and there's no rediscovery without research. Every discovery man ever made has always been concealed. It takes searchers and researchers to unveil them, that's what makes an insightful leader." Benjamin Suulola

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the conceptual framework of the study, the constructs used in the study and the relationships among them as well as the basis of the research hypotheses.

3.2 Conceptual framework

The main goal of this thesis is to conceptualise and validate a Destination Brand Experience (DBE) Scale. The study also aims to examine the relationship between DBE and satisfaction, DBE and PEB and DBE, tourist satisfaction and PEB. Based on the work in Chapter 2, a conceptual framework is proposed using satisfaction as the mediating factor. Based on the conceptual framework, three main hypotheses are tested in this study.
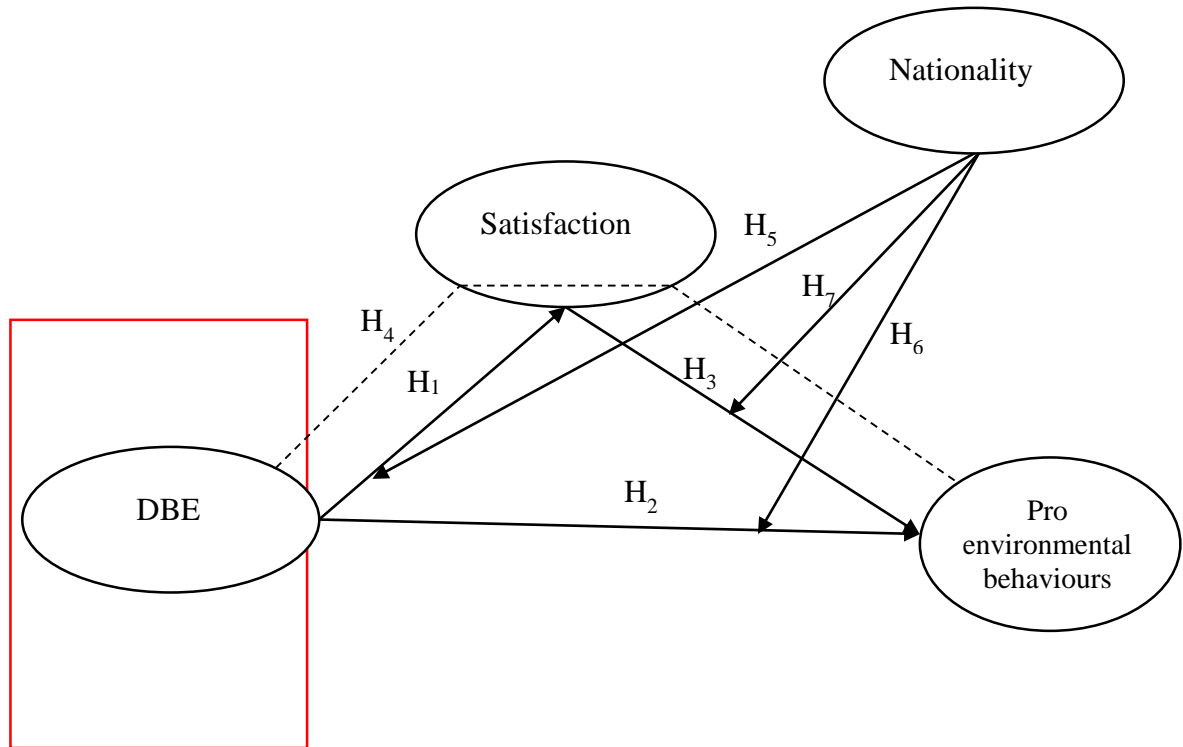
Figure 3. 1 Research conceptual framework

3.3 Research hypotheses

The evaluation of a destination and the experiences it offers have been linked to various factors that are either external or internal to the tourists. Bearing in mind that no two tourists are the same and that experiences are multifaceted and existential (Ooi, 2005), the following constitute some of the factors that can affect tourists' evaluation of DBE at Lake Malawi and their inherent hypotheses.

3.3.1 Consequences of tourist DBEs

Behavioural intentions refer to the likelihood that a tourist, having visited a destination, will select the destination again in a given time (Bigné et al., 2005; Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, &

Preciado, 2013; Pike & Ryan, 2004) or recommend it to others (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Hosany & Prayag, 2013). A plethora of studies has linked brand experience outcomes to brand loyalty (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et al., 2009; Carù & Cova, 2003; Iglesias et al., 2011), satisfaction (Agyeiwaah, Otoo, Suntikul, & Huang, 2019; Bigné et al., 2005; Bolton, 1998; Bustamante & Rubio, 2017), attachment (Park et al., 2010), commitment (Fullerton, 2003) and brand trust (Ha & Perks, 2005; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Although these studies highlight behavioural outcomes of either present or future brand purchases, not many studies have shown the relationship among DBE, tourist satisfaction, and PEB.

3.3.1.1 The relationship between DBE and satisfaction

Evidence from the literature shows that customers' encounter with brand experiences affects their commitment to and involvement with a brand in future (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et al., 2009; Ding & Tseng, 2015; Gentile et al., 2007). Indeed, studies have found relationships between brand experience and satisfaction (Barnes et al., 2014; Khan & Rahman, 2015; Lin, 2015), and between service quality and satisfaction (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Žabkar, Brenčič, & Dmitrović, 2010).

Working on brand experience, Brakus et al. (2009) proposed that BE influences customers' satisfaction. They demonstrate that there is a direct and indirect relationship between brand experience and satisfaction. The indirect relationship between brand experience and satisfaction was mediated by brand personality. Similarly, using the same scale as Brakus et al. (2009), Barnes et al. (2014), found a relationship between brand experience and satisfaction. Similar results have been reported by Ooi (2005) and Zhang, Agarwal, & Lucas (2011). Working on customer website brand experience, Ha and Perks (2005) found that brand experience was positively related to

satisfaction. They report that this was due to the price offered, although not all customers were satisfied with low pricing.

Studying tourist emotional experiences using the pleasure and arousal theory, Bigné et al. (2005) established that positive arousal affects visitor pleasure and this is strongly related to visitor satisfaction. Likewise, describing satisfaction as stemming from positive emotional and cognitive states of online brand experience, Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou (2013) established a relationship between online consumer brand experiences and satisfaction. Further, Klaus and Maklan (2013), measuring customer experience using four dimensions abbreviated as POMP (product experience, outcome focus, moments of truth and peace of mind), found evidence for the relationship between experience and satisfaction. Additionally, it has been observed that tourists' satisfaction in natural environments derives from their engagement with the natural environment and with quality service providers (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011; Coghlan, 2012). Ramkissoon et al. (2013a) investigated the relationship between place attachment, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. Their study conducted at Dandenong Ranges National Park in Australia found that visitors' experience had a strong influence on their pro-environmental behavioural intentions. Therefore, this study postulates that:

H₁: Lake Malawi DBE has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction

In this thesis, we use satisfaction as a one-dimensional construct having items that reflect tourist satisfaction with the destination (Fornell, 1992), the destination brand performance with the tourists' expectations (Fornell, 1992) and the extent to which the destination is a good choice (Oliver, 1980). Items to measure satisfaction were adapted from Oliver (1980) and Veasna, Wu, and Huang (2013). The following are some of the items used to measure satisfaction:

i. I am pleased to have visited this destination,

ii. I am delighted with this destination experiences,

iii. Coming to this destination was a good choice and

iv. It gives me joy that I have decided to come to this tourist destination.

3.3.1.2. DBE and tourist pro-environmental behaviours

Behavioural intentions are defined as tourists' judgement of a destination as well as their determination to revisit and/or recommend the destination (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Studies have found that behavioural intentions are a consequence of brand quality, perceived value and satisfaction (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Petrick, 2004). Studies have identified various behavioural intentions, with loyalty, word of mouth and willingness to recommend being the most frequently used behavioural intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010; Chen & Tsai, 2007). In recent years, pro-environmental behaviours have also been considered as meaningful behavioural intentions, especially in natural areas owing to environmental phenomena such as climate change (Buonincontri et al., 2017; Han et al., 2016; Hines et al., 1987; Lee, 2009; Ramkissoon et al., 2013a).

Lake tourism, as a subset of nature-based tourism, depends on the use of natural resources such as water, mountains and another biodiversity that adds to the place's scenery like vegetation, cultural heritage, wildlife and topography in general. Due to tourists' activities in such areas, environmental degradation has always been a concern and tourism experience has been used to raise awareness of environmental management and conservation (pro-environmental behaviours) in national parks, forests, lakes and mountains that can be affected by tourists' activities (Chiu et al., 2014). Scholars contend that people's reaction to environmental degradation can be used to predict their pro-environmental behavioural intention (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002).

Tourism experience, with place attachment as a mediating factor, has been linked with pro-environmental actions aimed at promoting sustainable use of natural resources (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Cheng, Wu, & Huang, 2013). This notwithstanding, Chiu et al. (2014) found that overall tourists' travel experience not only affects their intention to engage in environmental behaviours but also their involvement and satisfaction partially mediates environmental responsible behaviour. Based on the premise that the choice of travel type influences tourists' willingness to adopt environmentally responsible behaviours in nature-based destinations (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Cheng et al., 2013; Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008), scholars have investigated tourists' commitment to environmental conservation after their tourism trips.

Investigating recreational experience, Hosany and Witham (2010) postulate that recreational experiences lead to recommendation intentions among cruise tourists whereas Buonincontri et al. (2017) state that visitor heritage experiences lead to either general or site-specific sustainable behaviours. Furthermore, Ballantyne, Packer, and Sutherland (2011a) and Ballantyne, Packer, and Falk (2011b) illustrate the relationship between visitor experiences and environmental learning and between visitor experiences and pro-environmental behaviours.

In their study at Repos Conservation Park in Queensland, Ballantyne, Packer, and Hughes (2009) found that tourist experiences with wildlife affected their support for conservation of the environment for their comfort and experience. They also found that conservation-themed interpretation and clear park guidelines on wildlife-tourist interactions affected tourists' learning and their long term behaviour. Lee, Jan, and Huang (2015) found that recreational experiences had a positive effect on tourists' environmental responsible behaviour on Liuqiu Island. In another study by Powell and Ham (2008), guidance in ecological areas was correlated with tourist

satisfaction to Galapagos National Park and this led to environmentally responsible behaviour. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_2: *Lake Malawi DBE has a positive effect on tourists' pro-environmental behaviour*

3.3.1.3. Satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours

In tourism terms, Bigovic and Prašnikar (2015), Chen and Chen (2020) and Wang and Hsu (2010) conceptualise satisfaction as tourists' post-purchase evaluation of their destination experiences. It represents their pleasure and contentment with the destination facilities, services, experiences and the people concerning their motivation to travel to that destination (Chen & Tsai, 2007). As such, various studies propose that high consumer satisfaction leads to positive post-experience behavioural intentions (Bigovic & Prašnikar, 2015; Brakus et al., 2009; Chen & Chen, 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Žabkar et al., 2010). Research has linked satisfaction to behavioural intentions such as loyalty (Oliver, 1999; Žabkar et al., 2010) ahnd paying a high price (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Tsaur et al., 2007), satisfaction and brand quality (Fornell, 1992), satisfaction and brand reputation (Cronin & Taylor, 1992), satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours (Ramkissoon et al., 2013a).

Regarding satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours, some studies propose that recreation experiences have a positive effect on satisfaction and loyalty among tourists and on environmental behaviours (Hosany & Witham, 2010). Orams (1995) posits that tourists' satisfaction with their ecotourism experiences results in behavioural changes towards the environment. Concerning national parks or green spaces, various studies have found that tourists who are satisfied with their park experience are more likely to engage in positive behavioural intentions such as pro-environmental behaviour (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Ramkissoon et al., 2013a, 2013b) and are likely to have a heightened sense of support for ecological conservation (Powell &

Ham, 2008). Other studies have demonstrated that satisfaction is a strong predictor of positive behavioural intentions such as willingness to pay high park fees (Ramkissoon et al., 2013a) and committing to the environment and park (Ramkissoon et al., 2013a).

Ramkissoon et al. (2013a) established that tourists with highly park experience satisfaction had a higher intention to participate in low-effort PEB. Results suggest that the more satisfied visitors were, the less likely they were to engage in high-effort pro-environmental behaviours. The results somewhat differ from Stedman's (2002) findings, which revealed that visitors' low satisfaction levels lead to environmental protection behaviours. Whereas others like Ramkissoon et al. (2013a, 2013b) categorised PEB as either low effort or high effort, some researchers categorise them as either direct or indirect PEB. For example, Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) indicate that examples of direct behaviours include performance or adoption of PEB while indirect PEB includes signing petitions, supporting government policies, voting for favourable politicians who drive sustainability or green agenda, among other.

In Ramkissoon et al. (2013a) study, low-effort pro-environmental behaviour was measured with items such as:

i.   volunteer to reduce my favourite spot in the park if it needs to recover from environmental damage,

ii. tell my friends not to feed animals,

iii. sign petitions in support of this national park,

iv. pay increased park fees if introduced,

v.   volunteer to stop visiting a favourite spot in this park if it needs to recover from environmental damage

whereas high-effort pro-environmental behaviours were measured using these three items;

i.   volunteer my time to projects that help this national park,

ii.   participate in public meetings about managing this national park and

iii.   write letters in support of this national park.

Further, some studies have categorized pro-environmental behaviours depending on resources, effort and physical actions (Ramkissoon et al., 2013a, 2013b) and based on satisfaction levels (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Cheng et al., 2013; Stedman, 2002). The present study measured pro-environmental behavioural intentions following (Ramkissoon et al., 2013a, 2013b) – that is, as either low-effort or high-effort. Therefore, this study formulates the following hypothesis:

H₃: Satisfaction with Lake Malawi DBE has a positive effect on tourists' pro-environmental behavioural intentions

3.3.2 The mediation role of satisfaction on DBE and pro-environmental behaviour intentions

The mediating power of satisfaction has been acknowledged in many studies. For example, Spreng, MacKenzie, and Olshavsky (1996) found that satisfaction is a good predictor of behavioural intentions and so did Petrick (2004) who established that satisfaction is an antecedent of repurchase intention. Brakus et al. (2009) established that there is a direct and indirect relationship between brand experience and behavioural intention (loyalty). The indirect relationship was mediated by satisfaction. Similarly, Barnes et al. (2014) reported that none of the BE constructs has a strong prediction for satisfaction, intention to recommend and intention to revisit except the sensory dimension. Satisfaction was found to be a mediator for behaviour intentions when they used the brand experience scale developed by Brakus et al. (2009). Chiu et al. (2014) found that overall tourist travel experience affects their intentions to engage in environmental behaviours and satisfaction partially mediates environmental responsible

behaviour. Hosany and Witham (2010) reported the same results – that is, satisfaction with cruise experiences partially mediates the association between cruisers' experiences and intention to recommend.

Therefore, this study proposes that:

H4:   Satisfaction mediates the relationship between Lake Malawi DBE and pro-environmental behavioural intentions

3.3.3 The moderating effect of tourists' domestic or international status

Consumption and experience evaluation differences have been noted between international and domestic tourists (Beckman et al., 2013; Huang et al., 1996; Kozak, 2001) and between people of different nationalities (Ballantyne et al., 2011b; Pizam & Sussmann, 1995). In a study of young tourists, Carr (2002) discovered that young and single British domestic visitors displayed different behaviours compared to international tourists, the latter being more hedonistic and passive. Mechinda et al. (2009) demonstrated that domestic and international tourists varied significantly in their contentment with the place and emotional attachment. The study revealed that domestic visitors were more emotionally attached and contented with the destination. Similarly, a study in the US by Bonn et al. (2005) discovered that international tourists had a lower evaluation of the service image experience than domestic tourists. This is, however, in sharp contrast with a study done in Bangkok by McDowall and Ma (2010) who found that international tourists' evaluation of Bangkok was more favourable than locals on all the 24 items that were assessed.

Although some studies acknowledge that certain groups of people, labelled as foodies, travel to eat (Molz, 2007; Smith & Xiao, 2008), Mkono (2011) discovered that international visitors to Zimbabwe were more willing to try local foods but expressed caution and reservations

for foods like Mopane worms which they considered as 'scary' and for the 'brave.' These foods made international visitors curious but they were hesitant to try them. Mkono (2011) notes that tourists avoided the risk of consuming 'wild', 'unusual' 'not for the squeamish' and 'exotic' foods by seeking familiar western foods in the Zimbabwean restaurants. Bonn et al. (2005) affirm that visitors' perception, evaluation and experience of the destination is dependent on their geographical origin. Furthermore, affective emotions are stronger when there is a connection, love and passion between the items being studied (Thomson et al., 2005). Hence, the study formulates the following hypotheses:

H_5 Domestic/international tourists' status moderates the relationship between DBE and satisfaction

H_6: Domestic/international tourists' status moderates the association between DBE and PEB

H_7: Domestic/international tourists' status moderates the association between tourist satisfaction and PEB.

3.3.4 Summary of research hypotheses

The research has formulated seven hypotheses surrounding the three main study constructs of destination brand experience, tourist satisfaction and PEB. The study also tests the mediating role of satisfaction between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours and the moderating role of domestic/international tourists' status of these relationships. Table 3.1 presents a summary of the hypotheses.

Table 3. 1 Summary of research hypotheses

Hypotheses
H_1: Lake Malawi DBEs have a positive effect on tourists' satisfaction.
H_2: Lake Malawi DBEs have a positive effect on tourists' pro-environmental behaviours.
H_3: Satisfaction with Lake Malawi DBEs has a positive effect on tourist PEB intentions.
H_4 Tourists satisfaction mediates the association between DBEs and tourist PEB intentions.
H_5: Domestic/international tourists' status moderates the relationship between DBE and satisfaction.
H_6: Domestic/international tourists' status moderates the association between DBE and PEB intentions.
H_7: Domestic/international tourists' status moderates the association between satisfaction and PEB intentions.

3.4 Summary

This chapter has proffered the conceptual framework of the thesis as well as the relationships among the main research constructs. The conceptual framework consists of three main constructs: DBE, satisfaction, and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. Seven research hypotheses were proposed and they would be tested using modelling (see chapter 4). The study, however, has three main hypotheses that focus on the relationships between DBE and satisfaction, DBE and pro-environmental behaviours and satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. Satisfaction and domestic/international tourist's status have also been used and as a mediator and a moderator respectively.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

"If we knew what it was we were doing, it would not be called research, would it?"

Albert Einstein.

4.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented the theoretical background of the study. This chapter explains the study's methodology. It explores the scale development process for destination brand experiences. It also outlines the study's methodological procedures such as research design, the study area, population and sampling. Further, it gives insight into the data collection techniques and the data analysis methods used for the proposed model and the hypotheses. The proposed approaches and techniques were selected based on the research objectives, the literature review and the conceptual framework.

4.2 Measurement scale development process

Developing a sound measurement scale is a tedious and time-consuming process (Schmitt & Klimoski, 1991). To develop meaningful and user-friendly scales, scholars have put forward various scales for the measurement of tourism experiences. For example, to understand wilderness experiences, travellers were asked to describe their wilderness experiences (Borrie & Birzell, 2001; Hull, Stewart, & Young, 1992) whereas recreation experience preferences (REP) scales were used to measure leisure motivation (Manfredo, Driver, & Tarrant, 1996). For Oh et al.'s (2007) study on tourism experiences, Pine and Gilmore's (1999) experience framework was used – this scale has been used in several studies on cultural attractions (Hayes & MacLeod, 2007; Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2012).

In recent years, memorable tourism experiences (MTE) have become popular. Hence, following the work of Kim (2010), Morgan and Xu (2009) and Tung and Ritchie (2011) among others, scholars have employed MTEs and Tourism Autobiographical Memory Scale (TAMS) to understand tourists' experiences of a destination (Jorgenson et al., 2018). For Kim, Ritchie and McCormick (2012), they employed Churchill's (1979) scale development process and developed 24 items for the memorable tourism experience scale, which were categorized into seven main themes: hedonism, local culture, meaningfulness, involvement, novelty and refreshment. Furthermore, Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015) developed a scale to measure MTE arguing that earlier scales by Kim et al. (2012) and Tung and Ritchie (2011) were less representative as they used student samples instead of real travellers.

Thus, the most comprehensive work on destination brand experiences is that of Barnes et al. (2014) which used Brakus et al.'s (2009) four DBE facets to measure tourism experiences in Sweden. Even though the study emphasised the importance of sensory brand experiences, intellectual and behavioural experiences were not significant in their study partly because of the nature of the destination. Also, their use of Brakus et al.'s (2009) BE scale without adapting it to the tourism destination context is a major drawback. Furthermore, as pointed out by Barnes et al. (2014), their scale needs refinement to be used to test destination brand experience in different destinations while taking into account the different profiles of destination brand experiences. Given the limitations of the scales of Brakus et al. (2009) and the MTEs, especially in terms of their lack of applicability to lake destinations, it became necessary for the current study to develop its scales.

The study followed best practices of scale development as suggested by Churchill (1979), De Vellis (2003), Walsh & Beatty (2007) and Worthington and Whittaker (2006). The scale was

developed in multiple stages as shown in Figure 4.1. The study adopted items after a rigorous review of the literature on tourism experiences, lake tourism, nature-based tourism and rural tourism among others. Interviews with tourists and other stakeholders, as explained in section 4.5, were used to substantiate the adopted items.

Figure 4. 1 Scale development process adapted from Churchill (1979)

| Step 1 | | Literature review of studies on tourism experiences |
| Construct domain and item specification | ← | |

| Step 2 | | Literature review of tourism experience studies and qualitative study (interviews) |
| Item generation | ← | |

| Step 3 | | In-depth interview with experts; analyses, content validity and construct validity check |
| Experts' review of items | ← | |

| Step 4 | | Pretesting using graduate students; content validity and construct validity checking |
| Purification of the survey items | ← | |

| Step 5 | | Pilot test with 80 tourists. Reliability and validity test; Cronbach's alpha, Factor analysis and communalities |
| Pilot testing | ← | |

| Step 6 | | Main survey with a sample of 670 tourists |
| Main survey | ← | Factor and structure analyses, EFA, CFA. Check for convergent and discriminant validity |

| Step 7 | | CFA and modelling |
| Main survey hypothesis testing | ← | |

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4.3 Specification of items and domains of constructs

As alluded to by Churchill (1979) and De Vellis (2003) among others, item generation and domain specification are the most important considerations when developing a scale. This stage allows the researcher(s) to define what they want to measure by extracting items that represent the constructs under examination (Ghiselli, Campbell, & Zedeck, 1981 as cited in Hinkin, 1998). To achieve this, this study used both interviews and literature review to generate the items.

4.3.1 Destination brand experiences

The tourism literature is awash with many experience scales that largely focus on product brand experiences (see Brakus et al., 2009), but which have been applied in the tourism industry without amendments (Barnes et al., 2014; Saari & Mäkinen, 2017). Consequently, no study to date has developed a measurement scale for destination brand experiences. Yet, destinations are unique and different from generic products. Following from Brakus et al.'s (2009) study, four brand experience constructs were extracted, namely behavioural, cognitive, affective and sensory (Chapter 2 provides an in-depth discussion on these constructs). However, cognizant that destinations extend beyond these constructs, the literature review identified other constructs such as relational/social and spiritual experiences among others.

The relational/social, as discussed in Chapter 2, is the communal feeling that tourists have when experiencing a product or a destination. Spiritual experiences emanate from the tranquillity of the place and the connection that tourists have with nature.

4.4 Generation of items

The second phase of the measurement scale development was item generation for the specified constructs. Firstly, the literature was reviewed to identify the underlying tourism

experiences at a lake destination. Web search engines such as Google Scholar, Scopus and JSTOR were used to identify papers on tourism experiences. Through content analysis, only those items that suit lake tourism experiences and rural tourism were selected regardless of the sectors they belonged to. Previous studies on tourism experiences, destination experiences and brand experiences were considered, and a deductive approach was employed to draw items for the current study (Hinkin, 1995). A deductive approach was adopted to have a clear understanding of the literature given its applicability where underlying principles already exists (Hinkin, 1995). Furthermore, a deductive approach was used in item generation to ensure content validity and to retain a connection with in-depth interviews in the final scales.

Secondly, following Tung and Ritchie (2011) and Otto and Ritchie (1996), this study ran a qualitative study to generate destination brand experience items. The qualitative study combined face-to-face interviews and/or open-ended questionnaire. Using convenience sampling, a total of 13 respondents were drawn to ascertain their views on what they think tourism brand experiences of Lake Malawi are. A general question asking respondents 'when you think of Lake Malawi, what experiences come to your mind' was posed. Respondents were then asked to describe their experiences of Lake Malawi. The respondents were given guidance to differentiate their travel motivations from their experiences at a destination.

Thirdly, thematic analysis was employed to extract emerging themes from the interviews. The study employed a realistic and semantic thematic analysis approach to code and develop themes that reflect the data as captured during the interviews (Weiss, 1994). Before analysing the data, the researcher familiarised herself with the data by going through the interview notes. This was followed by data coding where labels that best described the data features were generated. Furthermore, codes were reviewed to generate emerging themes, followed by defining and naming

the generated themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A total of 142 items were derived from both the literature review and the interviews. Table 4.1 presents the results of the literature review DBE exercise, followed by Table 4.3 which presents results of the in-depth interviews.

Table 4. 1 Initial items for destination brand experiences and their domains based on literature review

Possible DBE domains from literature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
Action/Behavioural experiences																																	
1. I engage in a lot of physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x																						
2. Activities																						x											
3. Lake sunset																																	x
4. Bathing and swimming																																	x
5. Walking trail on the lakeshore																																	x
6. This brand results in a lot of bodily experiences	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x																						
7. Natural beaches																																	x
8. Cultural and heritage monuments visits																																	x
9. Lifestyle														x								x											
10. This brand is not action oriented	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x																						
11. Man working on the lake																																	x
12. Sailing on the lake																																	x
13. As a customer of this brand I am rarely passive														x																			
14. Fishing																																	x
15. Express who I am																					x												
16. This brand engages me physically														x																			
17. Boating																																	x
Bodily/sensory brand experiences																																	
18. This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses	x	x	x		x	x	x	x			x	x		x																			
19. Richness of fauna																																	x
20. I find this brand interesting in a sensory way	x	x	x		x	x	x	x			x	x																					
21. Villages on the shoreline																																	x
22. Lake's shoreline																																	x
23. Perceptual interesting																						x											

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#		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
24.	This brand does not appeal to my senses	x	x	x		x	x	x	x			x	x																					
25.	The brand gives sensory experiences															x																		
26.	Shape and design																		x															
27.	Idyllic countryside, picturesque																																	x
28.	Transparent water																																	x
29.	Blue waters																																	x
30.	Animals																														x			
31.	Local people visual impression																														x			
32.	Maritime impression																														x			
33.	Sense of beauty																													x	x			
Affective/emotional brand experiences		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**20**	**21**	**22**	**23**	**24**	**25**	**26**	**27**	**28**	**29**	**30**	**31**	**32**	**33**
34.	I do not have strong emotions for this brand	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x																						
35.	This brand is an emotional brand	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x																x						
36.	Relieved																					x												
37.	This brand induces feelings and sentiments	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x																						
38.	This brand gives me pleasure										x																	x						
39.	This brand makes me happy										x					x																		
40.	I feel good when I use this brand										x																							
41.	Brand often engage me emotionally													x																				
42.	Positive moods															x						x												
43.	Joyful																	x																
44.	Positive feelings																x																	
45.	Cheerful																	x																
Intellectual/cognitive brand experiences		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**20**	**21**	**22**	**23**	**24**	**25**	**26**	**27**	**28**	**29**	**30**	**31**	**32**	**33**
46.	I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand	x	x	x		x	x		x			x																						
47.	This brand does not make me think	x	x	x		x	x		x			x																						
48.	This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	x	x	x		x	x		x			x																						
49.	This brand challenges my way of thinking													x																				

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
50.	Nostalgic																											x		x				
51.	The brand engages my creative thinking														x																			
52.	Learnt something new																								x									
53.	Intrigues me																							x										

Relational/social brand experiences

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
54.	As a customer of a brand, I feel like a part of a community	x													x									x										
55.	Activate meaningful relationships with brand, peers and organization																			x														
56.	I feel like I am part of the brand family														x																			
57.	Tourists admiring the view																																	x
58.	When I use brand I do not feel left alone														x																			
59.	The brand gives me an identity														x																			
60.	Help me build relationships													x																				
61.	Relates me to others/ communitas													x	x				x									x						
62.	Collectivism by involving people, groups and society																				x													
63.	Connects me to nature (subject to brand)													x																				
64.	Connects me to stakeholders (i.e. communities)													x																				
65.	Social rules and arrangements																						x											
66.	Connects me with people with similar or different views/ lifestyle													x										x										
67.	Consumption with other people																							x										
68.	Connects me with societal context													x																				
69.	Sense of belonging																							x										

Spiritual experiences

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
70.	Spiritual awareness																										x	x						
71.	Connects me with nature/ this world																											x					x	
72.	Restorative/ revitalizing effects																										x	x		x				

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
73.	Connection to nature																												x			x		x
74.	Solitude and quietness																												x				x	x
75.	Being with others/communitas																											x	x				x	
76.	Nostalgia																												x			x		
77.	Connection with inner self																												x					
78.	Away from civilization/remoteness																												x					
79.	Inner well-being																												x					x
80.	Appreciates creation																												x					x
81.	Sense of renewal																												x					
82.	Space (to oneself)																												x			x		x
83.	Spiritual uplifting																												x					x
84.	Feeling of being blessed																												x					
85.	Feeling of being part of something bigger and infinite																												x					

1. Brakus et al. (2009); 2. Barnes et al. (2014; 3. Beckman et al. (2013); 4. Lee & Kang (2012); 5. Saari & Makinen (2017); 6. Iglesias et al. (2011); 7. Zarantonello & Schmitt (2010); 8. Lin (2015); 9. Schmitt (2009); 10. Chaudhuri & Morris (2001); 11. Das, Agarwal, Malhotra, & Varshneya, (2019); 12. Iglesias et al. (2019); 13. Andreini et al. (2018); 14. Nysveen et al. (2013); 15. Schmitt (1999a, 1999b); 16. del Bosque & Martín (2008); 17. Bigné et al. (2005); 18. Choi, Ok, & Hyun (2011); 19. Shamim & Mohsin Butt (2013); 20. Schmitt et al. (2015); 21. Swaminathan et al. (2007); 22. Hamzah, Alwi, & Othman, (2014); 23. Gentile et al. (2007); 24. Agapito et al. (2017); 25. de Geus et al. (2016); 26. Hay & Socha (2005); 27. Sharpley & Jepson (2011); 28. Kaplan (1995); 29. de Botton (2003); 30. Heintzman (1999); 31. Heintzman (2007); 32. Smith (2003); 33. Rodrigues et al. (2014).

4.5 Generation of items through in-depth interviews

Interviews were conducted with tourism professionals, tourists, lodge owners, tour operators and government tourism officers on what they think are the destination brand experiences of Lake Malawi. This was done to consolidate the items generated from the literature through first-hand experiences. As Carpenter (2018) asserts, conducting qualitative research to generate items and dimensions is one critical step in scale development. Thirteen people were interviewed and their demographics have been presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4. 2 Profile of in-depth interviews for Lake Malawi DBE

No.	Gender	Occupation	Recent travel destination
1	Male	International tourist	Malawi
2	Female	International tourist	Malawi
3	Male	Tourism Professor	South Africa
4	Male	International tourist	Malawi
5	Male	Teacher/domestic visitor	China
6	Male	Tourism officer	Zimbabwe
7	Male	Tourism officer	Zambia
8	Male	Domestic visitor	Britain
9	Male	Tour operator	Zambia
10	Male	Tourism Professor	Britain
11	Male	Lodge owner	Britain
12	Male	Lodge owner	Malawi
13	Female	Tour consultant	Malawi

From these interviews, 57 items were generated. Table 4.3 below presents the overall results and their presumed DBE domains.

Table 4. 3 New items generated from interviews on Lake Malawi DBE

No	Item	Presumed domain/construct
1.	Amazement at nature	Sensory
2.	Sunsets over the lake	Sensory
3.	Eating local food like Chambo (Tilapia)	Sensory
4.	Walking on the beach is soothing	Sensory
5.	Beautiful scenery	Sensory
6.	To absorb into nature	Sensory
7.	Fish smells in the villages	Sensory
8.	The waters stimulate me	Sensory
9.	Bird watching opportunities	Sensory
10.	Fear of drowning and crocodile	Cognitive
11.	I forget trouble	Cognitive
12.	Tranquillity	Cognitive
13.	Lake Malawi experiences make me more knowledgeable	Cognitive
14.	Learn local cultures	Cognitive
15.	The lake waters help me to focus	Cognitive
16.	I start my day with the lake	Cognitive
17.	Learn more about the lake	Cognitive
18.	I forget trouble	Cognitive
19.	The lake rejuvenates me	Cognitive
20.	Offers me quite time	Cognitive
21.	Lake Malawi is therapeutic	Cognitive
22.	Rock jumping at Lake Malawi makes my adrenaline rise	Behavioural
23.	Beach sports like soccer/volleyball	Behavioural
24.	Water-based sports	Behavioural
25.	Basking in the sun on the sandy beaches makes me get a natural skin tan	Behavioural
26.	Photo taking opportunities	Behavioural
27.	Walking on the sand is good	Behavioural
28.	Walking on the beach keeps me in shape	Behavioural
29.	Reunites me with mother nature	Spiritual
30.	The lake uplifts me spiritually	Spiritual
31.	Lake Malawi connects me to nature powers	Spiritual
32.	Relaxed feeling	Spiritual
33.	Peace of mind	Spiritual
34.	The lake gives me spiritual nourishment	Spiritual
35.	Meditation time	Spiritual
36.	Reflection about oneself	Spiritual
37.	Lake offers me solitude	Spiritual
38.	It draws me away from civilization	Spiritual
39.	The lake has spiritual revitalizing powers	Spiritual
40.	Refreshing experience	Spiritual
41.	I have spiritual awareness at the lake	Spiritual
42.	The lake offers restorative powers	Spiritual

43.	Traditional way of life	Social
44.	Meeting groups of diverse people	Social
45.	Lake Malawi allows me to watch other people enjoy themselves	Social
46.	Family bonding opportunities	Social
47.	Walking in the villages gives me an African experience	Social
48.	Lake Malawi offers me shared experiences with other people	Social
49.	I make friends/ socialize	Social
50.	Local hospitality	Social
51.	Interaction with local communities	Social
52.	Fulfilling experiences	Emotional
53.	Full of fun	Emotional
54.	Lake Malawi snorkelling gives me fun	Emotional
55.	The lake is a fulfilling place	Emotional
56.	The lake surprises me	Emotional
57.	Lake Malawi is charming	Emotional

4.6 Experts review on the initial pool of items for destination experiences

After the initial survey items were generated, six tourism experts were contacted to review the consolidated items from both the literature and the interviews. This was done to identify the most relevant items that define destination brand experience. The process generated new items that were not initially included in the preceding step as well as it reduced the number of items through the face and construct validity (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The experts critically analysed the pool of items for face and content validity before developing and testing a quantitative tourism brand experience scale for Lake Malawi (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004; Hinkin, 1995; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). A purposive sampling technique was used to identify the experts and their selection was guided by Churchill's (1979) assertion that the sample should comprise people who are conversant with the phenomenon under investigation. Table 4.4 provides the profile of the experts used in the study.

Table 4. 4 Experts' profile for destination brand experience interviews

No.	Gender	Occupation	Tourism experience	Recent destination	Location
1	Male	Tourism Professor	10	Brazil	Asia
2	Female	Tourism Professor	6	Thailand	Asia
3	Female	Tourism Professor	11	Macao	Asia
4	Male	Tourism Officer	8	Zambia	Africa
5	Male	Tourism Professor	17	Uganda	Africa
6	Male	Tourism professional	9	United Kingdom	Europe

As proposed by Chandralal and Valenzuela (2015) and DeVellis (2003), the experts were asked to appraise the degree to which the items were representative and valid on each DBE construct. They were asked to assess construct deficiency, terminology, readability and phrasing based on a three-point scale of (1), not representative, (2) somewhat representative and (3) representative. A clear definition of DBE was given to the experts to avoid misunderstandings and delimit the scope of the study. Content validity was, thus, evaluated in terms of item meaning and definition (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004).

After this exercise, all items that lacked clarity were excluded from the study and repetitive items were either merged or modified. Out of 143 items, 89 items were deleted, resulting in 54 items eligible for further exploration.

4.7 Amendment of items for destination brand experiences

Feedback from the experts revealed that some items under the proposed six domains should be merged or modified for concise meaning while others were recommended for deletion. For details refer to appendices 6 to 11. Table 4.5 below presents the final items retained for piloting.

4.8 Purification of items

Following the procedure laid down by Churchill (1979), the next step after experts review was the purification of the generated items to streamline the number of measurement items and to check their validity and applicability. Scale item purification, according to Churchill (1979), entails pretesting, running analyses and conducting validity tests. Thirty doctoral students from the Hong Kong Polytechnic University were asked to evaluate the research instrument and the items used. Ten of the students were pursuing their studies in tourism and were, therefore, knowledgeable about the phenomenon under investigation. A five-point Likert scale was used to determine respondents' level of agreement with the scale item statements. This scale was used instead of a 7- point Likert scale to increase respondents' response rate and the quality of their responses (Babakus & Mangold, 1992). Also, a 5-point Likert scale does not overwhelm respondents with options hence reducing respondents' frustrations (Brooke, 1996). Further, a 5-point Likert scale had been used in previous experience studies (Lin, 2015). After the pretesting exercise, the respondents made certain recommendations that led to the correction of certain items and the revision of irregular household income scale, among others.

4.8.1 Summary of items after purification for destination brand experiences

After the expert review, all the items were proofread to ensure that they were face valid and comprehensible to the survey participants before pretesting them. As shown in Table 4.5 below, the six domains had a total of 54 items. The "action/ behavioural" domain had 14 items, the "bodily/sensory" domain had 8 items and the domain "expressive/emotional" had 10 items. Furthermore, the "spiritual/psychic" domain had 6 items, the 'relational/social" domain had 9 items and the "perceptive/cognitive" domain had 7 items.

Table 4. 5 Revision of measurement items used to measure destination brand experiences

Action/behavioural destination brand experiences

DBE1	LM makes me express who I am through water-based activities
DBE2	LM gives me an enjoyable experience
DBE3	LM makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours
DBE4	Lying on LM beach relaxes me
DBE5	LM activities allows me to self-actualise
DBE6	LM gives me a laid-back feeling
DBE7	LM transforms my mind
DBE8	Physical experiences at LM keep me fit
DBE9	LM is action (water-based sports) oriented
DBE10	LM is a cultural experience
DBE11	Walking along LM sandy beaches is a worthwhile experience
DBE12	LM activities makes my adrenaline rise
DBE13	Sun tanning at LM is important for me
DBE14	LM puts me in a meditation mood

Expressive/emotional destination brand experiences

DBE15	LM has a positive effect on how I feel about myself
DBE16	LM induces feelings and sentiments
DBE17	LM atmosphere is relaxing
DBE18	LM gives me a sense of belonging
DBE19	LM makes me happy
DBE20	LM gives positive feelings
DBE21	LM surprises me
DBE22	I have strong emotions for LM
DBE23	LM is a friendly destination
DBE24	LM gives me nostalgic feelings

Perceptive/cognitive destination brand experiences

DBE25	LM captivates me
DBE26	I have feelings of amazement at nature
DBE27	LM helps me forget about my problems
DBE28	I gain new knowledge at LM
DBE29	LM stimulates curiosity and problem solving
DBE30	I engage in a lot of thinking when I am at LM
DBE31	Learning about animals of LM is rewarding

Bodily/sensory destination brand experiences

DBE32	LM environment is delightful
DBE33	LM provides me with a good culinary experience
DBE34	LM animals are appealing to watch
DBE35	LM allows me to take in the beauty of the place
DBE36	LM waters stimulates my senses
DBE37	LM appeals to my senses
DBE38	Sunrise and sunsets over the LM are exciting to watch
DBE39	LM provides me with a serene experience

Relational/social destination brand experiences

DBE40	LM offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community
DBE41	Being at LM helps me interact with others
DBE42	LM allows me to interact with local people

DBE43	LM represents local hospitality
DBE44	LM allows me to learn about the locals' way of life
DBE45	LM allows me to participate in activities with other people
DBE46	LM allows me to experience the friendliness of local people
DBE47	LM experience helps me to make friends
DBE48	Being at LM is a good opportunity to spend time with my family
Spiritual/psychic destination brand experiences	
DBE49	LM connects me with higher powers of nature
DBE50	LM draws me away from the secular
DBE51	LM reunites me with mother nature
DBE52	LM has spiritual revitalising powers
DBE53	LM offers me solitude
DBE54	LM gives me spiritual awareness

The abbreviation "DBE" denotes destination brand experience while 'LM' denotes Lake Malawi

4.9 Pilot study

After all the generated items had been revised, a pilot test study was conducted to predict the scale's generalizability. The pilot test was conducted to confirm and validate the research instrument and to identify challenges that may arise from its administration at the main survey stage. The pilot study was also done to identify whether the measurement items and the questionnaire design were appropriate (Oppenheim, 1992). Errors and weaknesses of the questionnaire were addressed before the main study was rolled out. Using a paper-based survey, a sample of 80 respondents were approached in-situ (Lake Malawi). For pilot testing, Johanson and Brooks (2009) recommend a sample size of 30 as a reasonable minimum. As the aim of the pilot study was not to generalise results (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006), a sample size of 80 was deemed appropriate and representative after Otoo, Kim, & Choi (2020). The measurement was done in English as it is the official language of Malawi.

4.9.1 Data screening, descriptive analysis and normality test

Data screening was done to determine the quality of the data before further analysis was done. Following Kline (2011, 2016), data were checked for outliers, missing data and normality.

Descriptive analysis and boxplots were used to detect data analysis issues such as outliers (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010) with the help of Statistical Package for Social Scientists (IBM SPSS version 25). During this exercise, two major issues were identified: 1). some respondents did not fill out some sections of the survey questionnaire such as demographics, 2). some respondents filled the survey on the same level of responses across all items and domains.

Furthermore, normality tests were conducted to examine the data for skewness and kurtosis. The results indicated that data were within the acceptable skewness range from -0.43 to 2.04 (Brown, 2006; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). The kurtosis result also revealed that data were normally distributed except for six items DBE2 "Lake Malawi gives me an enjoyable experience', DBE4 "Lying on Lake Malawi beaches relaxes me", DBE17 "Lake Malawi atmosphere is relaxing," DBE32 "Lake Malawi environment is delightful", DBE35 "Lake Malawi allows me to take in the beauty of the place" and DBE38 "Sunrise and sunsets over Lake Malawi are exciting to watch" which were between 5.25 and 7.19. Following Brown's (2006) assertion that skewness indices falling between ±3 and kurtosis indices falling between ±10 are acceptable, the items were retained for further analysis. Refer to Appendix 12 for details.

4.9.2 Demographic characteristics of the pilot study respondents

The pilot study involved 80 participants who were randomly drawn at the study site in Mangochi, Malawi. Their demographics include age, sex, level of education, nationality, marital status and occupation. The pilot study engaged more males (57.5%) than females (42.5%). For marital status, 52.5% was married whereas 46.3% was single and 1.3% was engaged. In terms of education, university first-degree holders were in majority (43.9%) followed by master's degree holders at (30%) and middle/high school graduates (23.8%). Additionally, the majority of respondents were Malawians (73.8%) whereas more respondents were employed by companies

(31.3%) followed by those who owned businesses (27.5%). Table 4.6 presents the demographics of pilot study respondents.

Table 4. 6 Demographic features of the respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Per cent (%)
Gender	Female	34	42.5
	Male	46	57.5
Marital status	Single	37	46.3
	Married	42	52.5
	Others	1	1.3
Age	Under 20	3	3.8
	20s	31	38.9
	30s	26	32.7
	40s	12	15.2
	50s or older	8	10.2
Nationality/origin	Malawian	59	73.8
	International	21	26.2
Educational level	Primary school	1	1.3
	Middle/High School	19	23.8
	Undergraduate degree	35	43.9
	Masters' degree	24	30.0
	Doctorate degree	1	1.0
Occupation	Company employee	25	31.3
	Own business	22	27.5
	Civil servant	7	8.8
	Parastatal	2	2.5
	Housewife	4	5.0
	Tourism industry	3	3.8
	Student	6	7.5
	Retired	5	6.3
	Others	6	7.6

4.9.3 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the pilot study

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to identify the underlying destination brand experiences at lake destinations. EFA was also used to reduce the number of items for a scale as well to determine the composition of factors for further data analysis. Principal components was used as an extraction method with varimax rotation. In the sample of 80 respondents, items with communalities below 0.5 were excluded from the analysis (Stevens, 2002). Similarly, items with eigenvalues below 1 and factor loadings below 0.4 were excluded from the analysis. In general, the communalities ranged from .51 to .79, indicating that the items explained 51% to 79% of the

variance. A preferred Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.845 greater than the 0.60 threshold (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). The data were suitable for factor analysis following a Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (χ2 (406) =1906.50, p =.000), in line with Tabachnik's rule of thumb (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). All reliability coefficients were above the threshold of 0.6 (Nunnally, 1978).

From the factor analysis as presented in Table 4.7 below, six components were extracted with a total variance of 66.69%. Factor 1 was labelled "relational/social experiences" and it had eight items and explained 34.91% of the variance. Factor 2 was named "spiritual/psychic experiences" and it explained 10.90% of the variance with six items. Factor 3 was termed "expressive/emotional experiences" and had four items explaining 6.52% of the variance. Factor 4, "action/behavioural experiences", had five items and explained 5.29% of the variance. Factor 5, "bodily/sensory experiences", accounted for 4.96% of the variance and had three items and factor 6, "perceptive/cognitive experiences", had 3 items and explained 4.12% of the variance.

Table 4. 7 Results of pilot study EFA with descriptive statistics of components' items

Factors and items	Communality	Factor loading	Mean
Factor 1: Relational/social experiences (α = .92, eigenvalue= 10.12, variance explained = 34.91, Grand mean = 4.16)			
LM allows me to experience the friendliness of local people	.82	.85	4.21
LM allows me to learn about the local ways of life	.77	.82	4.14
LM allows me to participate in activities with other people	.72	.77	4.07
LM helps me to make friends	.67	.76	4.17
LM represents local hospitality	.63	.72	4.21
LM allows me to interact with local people	.63	.70	4.23
Being at LM helps me to interact with others	.71	.68	4.35
LM offers me an opportunity of being a member of the community	.50	.56	3.88
Factor 2: Spiritual/psychic experiences (α = .88, eigenvalue= 3.16, explained variance = 10.90, Grand mean = 3.53)			
LM has spiritual revitalising powers	.76	.82	3.30
LM offers me solitude	.70	.76	3.53
LM draws me away from the secular	.67	.75	3.29
LM gives me a spiritual awareness	.63	.69	3.39
LM reunites me with mother nature	.59	.69	4.00
LM connects me with high powers of nature	.59	.67	3.68
Factor 3: Expressive/emotional experiences (α = .86, eigenvalue= 1.89, variance explained = 6.52, Grand mean = 4.03)			
LM makes me happy	.79	.73	4.31
LM gives me positive feelings	.79	.72	4.30
LM has a positive effect on how I feel about myself	.67	.71	3.75
LM induces feelings and sentiments	.65	.70	3.77
Factor 4: Action/behavioural experiences (α = .71, eigenvalue= 1.53, variance explained = 5.29, Grand mean = 3.75)			
LM makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours	.66	.77	3.66
LM makes me express who I am through water-based activities	.59	.72	3.59
Physical experiences at LM keeps me fit	.58	.63	3.80
LM gives me enjoyable experiences	.55	.58	4.17
Sun tanning at LM is important to me	.52	.52	3.54
Factor 5: Bodily/sensory experiences (α = .78, eigenvalue= 1.43, variance explained = 4.96, Grand mean = 4.22)			
LM waters stimulate my senses	.77	.76	4.01
LM appeals to my senses	.71	.73	4.06
Sunrise and sunsets over LM are exciting to watch	.59	.72	4.60
Factor 6: Perceptive/cognitive experiences (α =.74, eigenvalue= 1.19, variance explained =4.12, Grand mean = 3.89)			
Learning about animals at Lm is rewarding	.70	.75	3.96
I engage in a lot of thinking at LM	.73	.67	3.75
I gain new knowledge at LM	.61	.53	3.90

Cognizant that the main aim of this EFA was to determine the underlying dimensions, no item was dropped from the exercise to avoid unnecessary elimination of items, which could affect the measurement properties of the scale (Suddaby, 2010). Furthermore, the application of judgmental item reduction technique showed that the item correlation would improve with a bigger sample size (Cambra-Fierro & Polo-Redondo, 2008; Wieland, Durach, Kembro, & Treiblmaier, 2017; Puri, 1996). After this exercise, some items were revised. For example, under the cognitive domain, "Lake Malawi captivates me" was revised as "Lake Malawi makes me think" while under the sensory domain, "Lake Malawi's colourful fishes are appealing to watch" was revised as "Lake Malawi's animals are appealing to watch". Furthermore, the pilot study furnished the researcher with information on respondents' incentive as most respondents complained that the questionnaire was long. The pilot study also made it possible to forecast the study area's conditions such as few international tourists in April and May.

4.10 Main survey

The main survey was conducted in Malawi at three places along the lakeshore: Nkhata-Bay, Salima and Mangochi. Paper-based questionnaires, QR code and survey links were used to distribute the survey, depending on respondents' preferences.

4.10.1 Study population

A study population, also called a universe, is a group of elements from which a researcher draws a sample for a study and to which the results of a study are. As Cooper and Schindler (2003, p.179) define it, a population refers to "the total collection of elements about which a researcher wishes to make inferences." Malawi has a population of about 18 million people and there are about 1 million international tourists yearly, a majority of which are from the neighbouring country of

Mozambique (Department of Tourism, 2017). The study's target population, therefore, was Lake Malawi tourists/visitors, both domestic and international.

4.10.2 Sample structure

The study recruited persons who were 18 years old and above and were willing to voluntarily take part in the study.

4.10.3 Sample size

The size of a sample in any study is crucial as it determines the statistical analyses that can be used and has implications for the reliability and generalisation of the findings. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) observe that there are two risks associated with having a small sample: 1) unstable patterns of covariation due to correlations of items and 2) difficulties to generalise results on the population as it is not representative. Since this study was set to use Factor Analysis, a large sample was desired (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Although Oppenheim (1992) states that sample accuracy is better than its size, scholars like Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) propose the use of large sample size in scale development research to cancel any scale variances that arise from drawing a small and specific sample of participants. A large sample also ensures population representativeness (De Vellis, 2003) and helps to stabilise covariation patterns.

Although there is no clear agreement among scholars on what a large or desirable sample is, Worthington and Whittaker (2006) recommend a sample of at least 300 participants to be suitable for factor analysis. That said, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) state that such guidelines are misleading while Ferguson and Cox (1993) posit that 100 respondents are a good number for quantitative analysis such as EFA.

Worthington and Whittaker (2006, p. 817) gave four guidelines to sample size determination:

i.   Sample size of at least 300 is sufficient in most cases

ii.   Sample sizes of 150 is adequate if data sets have communalities higher than 0.50

iii.   Smaller samples would be adequate is all communalities are .60 or greater and

iv.   Samples sizes less than 100 are generally inadequate

Going by Worthington and Whittaker (2006) suggestion and taking into account the tourism traffic in the chosen study area, the study targeted 600 respondents to produce reliable results (Hair et al., 2010). However, 823 questionnaires were received at the end of the study in August. Initially, the survey sought to split the respondents into a quota of 400 locals and 200 international visitors. Of the 670 usable questionnaires, 478 responses were recorded from domestic visitors and 192 from international tourists. Having different data sizes for different groups of tourists can be found in the tourism literature, Truong, Lenglet, and Mothe's study (2018) being an example.

4.10.4 Data collection

The sample for the on-the-site survey was drawn using quota sampling (Bryman, 2016) based on a quota attached to each respondent group (see section 4.10.3 above). As this study aims to develop a scale for a lake destination brand experience, issues of generalizability and randomness should not hamper the study (Otto & Ritchie, 1996). Quota sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, ensures that the researcher subdivides the population into different strata in advance based on issues such as age, employment, marital status and gender, based on the proportion of the population being targeted (Segwick, 2012).

Questionnaires are the frequently used tools for data collection in field surveys and were, thus, employed in this study (Stone, 1978). Questionnaires were used for operational and pragmatic reasons to capture a large number of respondents than would be possible if using in-depth

interviews. According to Babbie (2016) and Creswell & Creswell (2018), the administration of questionnaires is preferred because of the following reasons:

i.   They are cheaper to administer

ii.   They are faster to collect data from a large number of respondents

iii. They ensure respondents anonymity

iv.   Since questions are structured, it is because easier to code and analyse the answers

v.   They reduce interviewer bias

vi.   They reduce data collection time

Structured questions were used for easy data analysis with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Bryman, 2016). The questionnaires also carried items on satisfaction and future intention (pro-environmental behaviours) to ascertain whether DBE leads to these post-consumption behaviours. Additionally, the questionnaire included questions on tourist demographics such as household income, marital status, age, gender, occupation, tourism trips in the last 12 months, and trips made to Lake Malawi. These questions were included to help in ascertaining whether the tourists' characteristics have any impact on their evaluation of the DBE at Lake Malawi.

4.10.5 Data analysis

As with the pilot survey data, the main survey followed the same procedure as explained in section 4.9 above. Various data analysis tools, techniques and procedures were utilised to extrapolate meanings and patterns from the data.

4.10.5.1 Exploratory data analysis

EFA is employed to explore the underlying structures of observed variables. It is used as part of a scale development process to ensure that optimum fit of the items to their underlying

dimensions is achieved (Hair et al., 2010). Since this study aimed at developing a DBE measurement scale, EFA was found suitable. Principal components method with varimax rotation was employed to explore the factors underlying DBE dimensions (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Hair et al. (2010) states that a sample size of 50 is the minimum requirement to run factor analysis as long as the sample has enough observations and variables. This study employed 670 respondents of which 335 were used in EFA. For factor extraction, the study considered items with Eigenvalues of 1.0 or higher and factor loadings of 0.4 or higher (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006) for further analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Bartlett test of Sphericity which tests the factorability of the data and Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was also assessed as presented in section 4.9 above.

4.10.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

For construct validation and to measure the latent structure of the scale produced after running an EFA test, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted. CFA is advantageous in that it deals with multiple relationships simultaneously (Kline, 2016). Estimates of the parameters of the hypothesised model and the residual error variance of the observed variables were assessed. CFA assesses the model fit and obtains measurement model estimates. Thus, the model fit was examined by assessing the fit indices such as Root Mean Error Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Chi-Square statistic, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) as proposed by Hair et al. (2010) and Kline (2016).

4.10.5.3 Validity and reliability check

Validity assessment was done to identify whether the developed scale was valid. Several validity tests have been outlined in the literature, including construct validity, content validity,

discriminant and convergent validity. The study employed both convergent and discriminant validity analyses using CFA. Hair et al. (1998) states that construct validity is the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated whereas convergent validity estimates t-tests significance of the factor loadings. Convergent validity is supported when the average variance extracted (AVE) exceed the 0.5 threshold whereas discriminant validity is supported when the factor loadings for the indicators are significant (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). When AVE for the constructs is greater than the squared correlation coefficients, discriminant validity is upheld. Cronbach alpha test was conducted to evaluate the composite reliability for the DBE scale domains which is supposed to be above 0.6 or above (Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

4.10.5.4 Modelling

Modelling was conducted using version 25 of A Moment Structures (AMOS) software. It is a statistical analysis that combines multivariate procedures such as factor analysis, regression, discriminant analysis etc. through path diagram and matrix equations. Modelling was useful in testing measurement, functional and predictive research hypotheses (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Modelling enables researchers to assess latent variables and the interrelationship among variables in a model (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012).

The study employed path analysis, using modelling, to examine the conceptual model and to test the theoretical and measurement assumptions (Hair et al., 2010). As the study employs both exogenous (independent) and endogenous (dependent) variables as well as latent and observed variables, modelling was deemed appropriate as it facilitates the analysis of multiple layer relationships between the variables. Modelling was also used to analyse and compare alternative models, enabling a study to assess the relative model fit (Bollen, 1989; D. Kaplan, 2000). Maximum likelihood parameter estimates (MLE) and correlation matrix were used to derive parameter estimates in modelling. MLE is a commonly used estimate technique as it minimizes fit functions

and validates the composition of observed variables drawn from one population. MLE analyses all estimates of model parameters at once and its fit function is related to the differences between the sample covariance and the study's proposed model (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2001).

4.10.5.5 Independent Samples T-test

To understand the differences between the two tourists groups (domestic and international), an independent samples t-test was done to compare means across the DBE dimensions. An item mean comparison was undertaken to evaluate how the two groups rated various DBE items and dimensions.

4.11 Summary research design
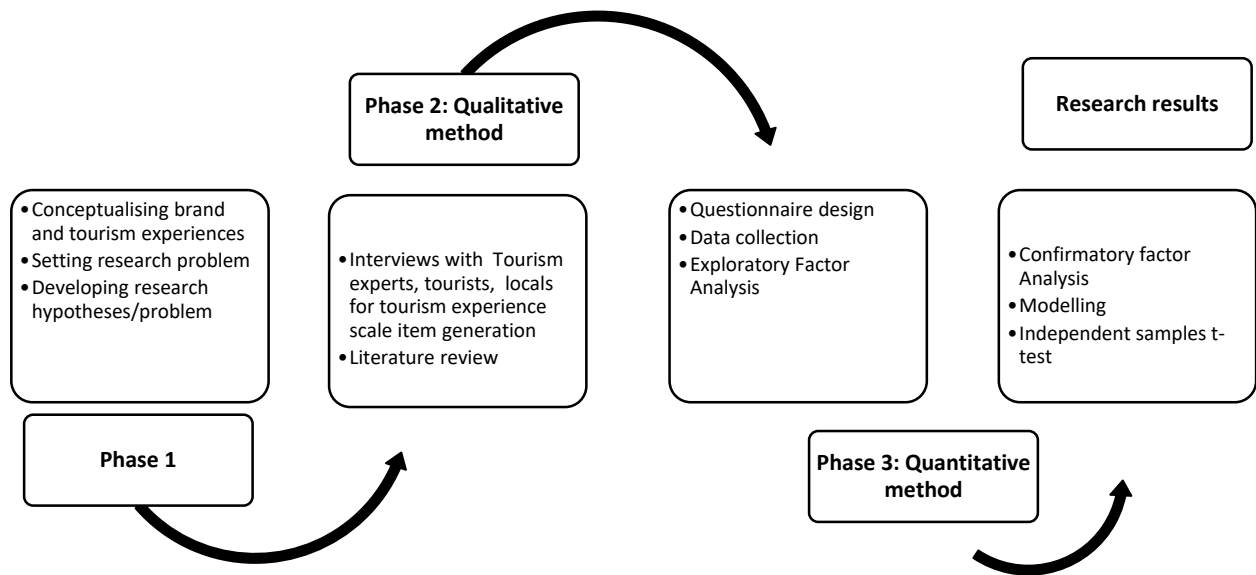
Figure 4. 2 Research design

Source: Authors illustration

4.12 Research ethics

Since this study involved human subjects, research ethics were strictly adhered to. There are four ethical areas of concern in any research (Diener & Crandall, 1978):

 i.   Seeking respondents' consent before commencing the study

 ii.   Causing no harm to respondents. This could be physical or psychological by for example asking respondents a sensitive question that reminds them a painful event

 iii. Not invading their privacy i.e. by asking questions on respondents' attitudes or behaviours that could be embarrassing

 iv.   Not deceiving respondents. Researchers need to pursue methods of inquiry that do not deceive or infringe on human values (Bryman, 2016).

To overcome these ethical concerns, the study ensured confidentiality through respondents' anonymity. Furthermore, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University's research office checklist was completed before the data collection exercise. The researcher obtained ethics approval from the Human Subjects Ethics Sub-Committee (HSESC) of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University Research Office, application number HSEARS20181219002 (see Appendix 2). Respondents were briefed on the nature of the study, its purpose and the types of questions to be asked. No respondent was forced to take part in the study if s/he declined.

Since the study was done in Malawi, the researcher also sought ethics approval from the National Committee on Research in the Social Sciences and Humanities (NCRSSH). This body issued the researcher an introductory letter to present to tourists and authorities when asked for it as it is illegal to collect data in Malawi without the authorisation of NCRSSH (see Appendices 3 and 4).

4.13 Summary

The chapter has submitted the methodological procedures of the study. It explained the study's setting, design and the development of the survey instrument. It also explained how the measurement scale was developed based on an extensive literature review and a qualitative study. Further, the chapter explicated the sampling design and techniques employed in data collection and discussed the pilot study and data analysis methods.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

"If you torture the data long enough, it will confess"

(Coase 1994, p.27)

5.1 Introduction

The following sections document the major findings of the thesis. It covers issues of data processing, descriptive analysis of the survey respondents, measurement scale reliability and construct and model validity. The chapter also presents the results of both the EFA and CFA, followed by a hypothesised model testing.

5.2 Data screening

5.2.1 Missing data and outliers

To avoid multivariate data analysis problems that can arise from missing data (Kline, 2016), surveys with missing data that accounted for more than 20% per indicator were removed from further analysis. Of the 823 collected surveys, 153 were deleted for missing significant data. Box plots in SPSS and descriptive analysis were used to detect such anomalies. The final completed surveys available for further analysis were 670.

5.2.2 Normality test

Before data were analysed, a normality test was conducted to ascertain the normality of the dataset, a prerequisite step before model analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Using kurtosis and skewness analyses, data were tested for normality, noting that skewness at around ± 1 indicates normal distribution (Doane & Seward, 2011; Kline, 2016). However, Field (2009) and Trochim and Donnelly (2006) posit that skewness and kurtosis values of between ± 2 are acceptable. Agreeing with these scholars, Brown (2006) states that for modelling, skewness indices falling between ± 3

and kurtosis indices falling between ±10 are acceptable. Given that the dataset used in the current study is larger than 500 samples, obtaining a statistically significant non-normality data was highly impossible; yet, histograms showed that data were normal.

For this study, data were slightly negatively skewed as most scores were higher than the mean score. Furthermore, positive kurtosis scores indicate that the data has heavy tails and a high peak, as opposed to a normally distributed data and the opposite, is true with negative kurtosis scores. In this regard, Brown (2006) and Kline (2011, 2016) argue that skewness scores of less than three are acceptable. In this study, skewness indices were within acceptable levels of 0.28 and 1.93 whereas kurtosis scores are of an acceptable range from 0.01 to 5.90 (Brown, 2006). However, five items were removed from further analysis based on their kurtosis values. They include: "LM gives me an enjoyable experience", which had kurtosis value of 5.09; "Lying on LM beaches relaxes me", with a kurtosis of 4.09; "LM atmosphere is relaxing", which had a kurtosis value of 3.95; "Sunrise and sunsets over LM are exciting", with a kurtosis value of 4.32, and "I will tell others on the need care for LM", with a kurtosis of 5.38. Refer to Appendix 13 for detailed descriptive statistics results.

5.3 Descriptive results of the study respondents

5.3.1 Demographics of the study respondents

The study employed seven respondent socio-demographic variables namely: age, marital status, highest education qualification, gender, nationality, occupation and annual household income (see Table 5.1). There were more females than males (51.8%), 54.8% were married and the age range was between 26 to 35 years old (47%), followed by 36 to 45 years (22.1%). Regarding the level of education, 32.8% had college degrees, followed by undergraduate degrees (31.3%). Regarding occupation, company employees constituted 26.8% of the sample, followed by civil servants (20.8%) and the self-employed (17.3%). Regarding nationality, 72.7% were Malawians

and of the 172 international tourists, British citizens constituted the majority (4.5%) followed by

Italians (2.4%). Eleven respondents did not specify their nationalities. The income category of

US$100, 000 or above was common (20.8%), followed by the income bracket of less than US$10,

000 (14.5%) among international tourists. For the domestic respondents, the income bracket of

MK701, 000 or above was the most prevalent (53.7%), followed by MK401, 000 – MK500, 000

(6.2%).

Table 5. 1Respondents' demographics in the main survey (N=670)

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	339	51.8
	Male	315	48
	Other	1	0.2
Marital status	Single	268	41
	Married	367	56.1
	Others	19	2.9
Age	18-25	122	18.9
	26-35	304	47
	36-45	143	22.1
	46-55	44	6.8
	56-65	21	3.2
	66 or above	13	2
Education	Primary	2	0.3
	Secondary/ High School	108	16.5
	College degree	215	32.8
	Undergraduate degree	205	31.3
	Master degree	106	16.2
	Doctorate degree	18	2.8
Occupation	Company employee	175	26.8
	Self-employed	113	17.3
	Civil servant	136	20.8
	Retired	24	3.7
	Student	90	13.8
	Housewife	20	3.1
	Parastatal employees	45	6.9
	Other	50	7.7
Nationality	Malawian	483	72.7
	British	30	4.5
	Italian	16	2.4

	American	13	1.9
	Zambian	11	1.6
	German	10	1.5
	Other (Africa)	36	4.5
	Other (Non- African)	55	7.5
Household income			
	Less than US$10, 000	25	3.7
(International tourists)	US$ 10, 000-19, 999	10	1.5
	US$ 20, 000-29, 999	10	1.5
	US$ 30, 000-39, 999	6	0.9
	US$ 40, 000-49, 999	11	1.6
	US$ 50, 000-59, 999	10	1.5
	US$ 60, 000-69, 999	14	2.1
	US$ 70, 000-79, 999	14	2.1
	US$ 80, 000-89, 000	16	2.4
	US$ 90, 000-99, 000	21	3.1
	US$100, 000 or above	36	5.4
(Domestic visitors)	Less than MK50,000	26	3.9
	MK51, 000-99, 999	22	3.3
	MK100, 000- 149, 999	26	3.9
	MK150, 000-199, 999	28	4.2
	MK200, 000- 249, 999	22	3.3
	MK250, 000-299, 999	18	2.7
	MK300,000 – MK400, 000	25	3.7
	MK401, 000-MK500, 000	32	4.8
	MK501, 000 – MK600,000	22	3.3
	MK 601, 000 –MK700,000	20	3
	MK701, 000 or above	279	41.6

N.B: 1US$ = 720 Malawi Kwacha at the time of data collection in 2019

5.3.2 Travel related information of the survey respondents

Respondents were asked two travel-related questions: number of tourism trips (both domestic and international) made in the past 12 months and number of tourism trips made to Lake Malawi, including the current trip. Results are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5. 2 Respondents' travel information (N=670)

Travel information	Count	Frequency	Percentage
Tourism trips in the past 12 months including this one	1-2	307	50.8
	3-5	201	33.3
	6-10	69	11.4
	11-20	26	4.3
	21-40	1	0.2
Lake Malawi visits including this one	1-2	131	23.1
	3-5	112	19.8
	6-10	107	18.9
	11-20	117	20.7
	21-40	71	12.5
	41 and above	28	4.9

5.4 Cross-validation of data

Cross-validation of data is used to evaluate whether the results of statistical analysis can be generalised to an independent dataset to estimate the predictive model's performance. In cross-validation, in most cases, the dataset is split into two equal parts as the use of large samples in structural model analyses makes it challenging for researchers to replicate such studies (DeVellis, 2016; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2016). Thus, the sample dataset was randomly split into two halves of 335 cases each using SPSS. EFA was performed on the first 335 sample-units dataset to explore the fundamental DBE dimensions and to reduce the number of measurement items for destination brand experiences. CFA was conducted on the remaining dataset (N=335).

5.4.1 EFA of the destination brand experience model (N=335)

Principal components with varimax rotation was used to explore the principal factors for the destination brand experience scale of Lake Malawi. The study considered factor loadings of more than 0.40 as suitable (Stevens, 2002) whereas eigenvalues were pegged at 1.0 or higher. A scree plot was inspected to determine factors and only those above the elbow were considered.

After running and re-running the EFA tests, 31 items failed to qualify for inclusion on the DBE scale. Table 5.3 presents the results of the factor analysis. In all, six domains with a total of 23 items, as presented in Table 5.3, were as follows: (1) interpersonal/social, (2) spiritual/psychic, (3) bodily/sensory, (4) expressive/emotional, (5) action/behavioural and (6) perceptive/cognitive. Each factor had at least three or more items which is a recommended threshold for further exploration (Gorsuch, 1997; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The six-factor model explained 64.44% of the variance. The result of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was 6119.264 ($df = 253$, p=0.000) whereas Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy was 0.89. Furthermore, the communalities were between 0.48 to 0.78, indicating that the domains accounted for 48% to 78% of the variance. The reliability Cronbach's alpha for the six domains were above the minimum recommended threshold of 0.70 except for Action/Behavioural DBE factor which had an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of 0.68 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 5. 3 EFA results on the destination brand experiences of Lake Malawi (N=335)

Domains	Communality	Factor loading	Item Mean
Domain 1: *Relational/social DBE* (Eigenvalue=6.86, Variance explained= 29.81, Cronbach's α= .85, Grand mean= 4.19)			
(Social 3) LM allows me to interact with local people	0.65	0.80	4.22
(Social 7) LM allows me to experience the friendliness of local people	0.69	0.80	4.19
(Social 5) LM allows me to learn about the local ' way of life	0.65	0.76	4.06
(Social 2) Being at LM helps me interact with others	0.61	0.75	4.31
(Social 6) LM allows me to participate in activities with other people	0.59	0.71	4.17
Domain 2: *Spiritual/Psychic DBE* (Eigenvalue= 2.72, Variance explained= 11.83, Cronbach's α= .83, Grand mean= 3.50)			
(Spiritual 4) LM has spiritual revitalising powers	0.75	0.84	3.31
(Spiritual 2) LM draws me away from the secular	0.60	0.76	3.26
(Spiritual 5) LM offers me solitude	0.63	0.74	3.59
(Spiritual 6) LM gives me spiritual awareness	0.57	0.70	3.36
(Spiritual 3) LM reunites me with mother nature	0.56	0.61	3.98
Domain 3: *Expressive/emotional DBE* (Eigenvalue= 1.61, Variance explained= 6.99, Cronbach's α= .80, Grand mean= 4.02)			
(Expressive 6) LM gives positive feelings	0.68	0.75	4.26
(Expressive 5) LM makes me happy	0.64	0.74	4.26

(Expressive 1) LM has a positive effect on how I feel about myself	0.64	0.73	3.80
(Expressive 2) LM induces feelings and sentiments	0.63	0.72	3.77
Domain 4: *Bodily/Sensory DBE* (Eigenvalue= 1.39, Variance explained= 6.05, Cronbach's α= .76, Grand mean= 4.20)			
(Bodily 5) LM waters stimulates my senses	0.78	0.79	4.09
(Bodily 6) LM appeals to my senses	0.77	0.78	4.08
(Bodily 4) LM allows me to take in the beauty of the place	0.61	0.63	4.42
Domain 5: *Action/behavioural DBE* (Eigenvalue= 1.15, Variance explained= 5.00, Cronbach's α= .68, Grand mean= 3.70)			
(Action 9) LM is action (water-based sports) oriented	0.68	0.81	3.60
(Action 8) Physical experiences at LM keep me fit	0.68	0.79	3.74
(Action 3) LM makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours	0.48	0.66	3.74
Domain 6: *Perceptive/cognitive DBE* (Eigenvalue= 1.10, Variance explained= 4.76, Cronbach's α= .70, Grand mean= 3.78)			
(Cognitive 5) LM stimulates curiosity and problem solving	0.75	0.76	3.65
(Cognitive 6) I engage in a lot of thinking when I am at LM	0.62	0.70	3.75
(Cognitive 4) I gain new knowledge at LM	0.58	0.63	3.94

LM = Lake Malawi

Following this exercise, an EFA was done on the two dependent variables of satisfaction and future intention (pro-environmental behaviours). One item on pro-environmental behaviours ("I will tell others on the need to care for Lake Malawi") was deleted and two factors were extracted, depicting low and high-effort intentions consistent with the literature (Ramkissoon et al., 2013a, 2013b). KMO was 0.89 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was 0.84 (*df =28, p=0.000*). The first domain was termed "high-effort intentions" and it had four items. The factor explains 42.64% of the total variance. The second domain termed "Low-effort intentions" had four items explaining 15.48 % of the variance.

Satisfaction generated a single- factor solution with seven items and an eigenvalue of 4.06. The KMO value of 0.78 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value of 2190.86 (*df =21, p=0.000*) were attained. The factor had an alpha value of 0.87 and a mean value of 4.54, which indicates that the data were internally consistent. The dimension explained 58.02% of the variance. EFA results are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5. 4 EFA results on satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours (N=335)

Domains and items	Communality	Factor loading	Item Mean
Satisfaction (Eigenvalue= 4.06, Variance explained= 58.02, Cronbach's α= .87, Grand mean= 4.54)			
(Satis 2) I am delighted with LM experiences	0.67	0.82	4.61
(Satis 3) Coming to LM was a good choice	0.65	0.81	4.62
(Satis 6) I enjoyed myself at LM	0.63	0.80	4.58
(Satis 4) My experience at LM was what I needed	0.59	0.77	4.46
(Satis 7) Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to visit LM	0.56	0.75	4.60
(Satis 1) I am pleased to have visited LM	0.52	0.72	4.64
(Satis 5) The visit to LM exceeded my expectations	0.45	0.67	4.27
Pro-environmental behavioural intentions			
High-effort intentions (Eigenvalue= 3.34, Variance explained= 41.76, Cronbach's α= .84 Grand mean= 4.10)			
(Intent 5) I will volunteer my time to projects that help this lake	0.64	0.78	4.16
(Intent 6) I will write letters in support of this lake	0.74	0.84	4.16
(Intent 7) I will participate in public meetings about managing this lake	0.75	0.86	4.18
(Intent 8) I will make a financial donation to an environmental organization in support of this lake	0.57	0.74	3.88
Low-effort intentions (Eigenvalue= 1.28, Variance explained= 16.02, Cronbach's α= .60, Grand mean= 3.82)			
(Intent 1) I volunteer to avoid visiting some areas along the lake if they need to recover from environmental damage	0.48	0.68	4.05
(Intent 2) I will sign petitions against oil drilling in support of this lake	0.43	0.62	4.13
(Intent 3) I will tell my friends not to feed fish in LM	0.57	0.75	3.40
(Intent 4) I will pay increased fees if introduced at Lake Malawi National Park	0.45	0.54	3.70

LM= Lake Malawi

5.5 CFA of the destination brand experience model (N=335)

The study employed CFA to analyse the measurement model using the second sample (n=335). CFA was used to confirm the underlying dimensions in the first sample. Generally, CFA is used to ascertain model. Various model fit indices were applied to determine model fitness which included root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), which indicates the deviation between the observed correlation and the reproduced correlation. According to Kline (2011), the RMSEA indices – also known as "badness of fit" – has to be lower than 0.05 for a good fit to be obtained.

However, for RMSEA, values of between 0.05 and 0.08 are also "acceptable". The closeness of fit index (P-close), whose threshold should be greater than 0.05, was also explored.

Other fit indices are the normed chi-square (X^2/df statistic) which assesses the statistical significance of the model by comparing how the measurement and the structural model predicts the observed variance matrix. X^2/df values of between 1 and 5 are recommended although those between 1 and 3 are ideal (Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, it should be noted that this statistic might be significant when dealing with larger samples. Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and comparative fit index (CFI) were also explored. The rule of thumb is that values greater than or equal to 0.90 indicate a good model fit for both CFI and TLI (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Finally, the goodness of fit index (GFI) was explored. GFI compares the squared residuals of the prediction model and the actual data model. Indices greater than 0.90 represent a good model fit. All AVE values for the constructs were above 0.50, thereby indicating convergent validity. Using the Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT), discriminant validity was passed as no correlation between exogenous constructs exceeded 0.85 (Kline, 2011). Furthermore, all-composite reliability values were higher than 0.70. Table 5.5 presents the findings of the CFA analysis.

Table 5. 5 CFA results of the measurement model (N=335)

Construct	Item	Estimate	S.E	t-value	p-value	Standardised factor loading	AVE	C.R
Social/ Interpersonal DBE	Social5	1.00				0.83	0.54	0.86
	Social7	0.97	0.06	15.50	***	0.80		
	Social6	0.86	0.06	13.71	***	0.72		
	Social3	0.83	0.06	13.11	***	0.70		
	Social2	0.73	0.06	11.40	***	0.62		
Spiritual/ Psychic DBE	Spiritual5	1.00				0.75	0.50	0.83
	Spiritual4	1.14	0.08	13.56	***	0.79		
	Spiritual3	0.86	0.07	12.07	***	0.70		
	Spiritual2	0.93	0.08	11.02	***	0.64		
	Spiritual6	0.95	0.09	11.19	***	0.65		
Emotional/ Expressive DBE	Emot6	1.00				0.77	0.51	0.81
	Emot5	1.05	0.09	11.77	***	0.71		
	Emot2	1.21	0.10	11.66	***	0.71		
	Emot1	1.13	0.10	10.98	***	0.67		
Action/ Behavioural DBE	Action9	1.00				0.60	0.56	0.78
	Action3	1.03	0.20	5.14	***	0.91		
	Action8	1.46	0.26	5.64	***	0.68		
Perceptive/ Cognitive DBE	Cogn4	1.00				0.66	0.51	0.76
	Cogn6	1.22	0.14	8.79	***	0.70		
	Cogn5	1.28	0.13	9.70	***	0.78		
Bodily/ Sensory DBE	Sensory4	1.00				0.47	0.51	0.75
	Sensory5	2.05	0.26	7.98	***	0.81		
	Sensory6	2.01	0.25	7.98	***	0.81		

Note: AVE = ($\sum$standardized factor loading^2)/ [($\sum$standardized factor loading^2) + $\sum$measurement error].

    S.E = Standard error
    AVE = Average variance extracted
    C.R. =Composite reliability
    ***$p<0.001$

One item from the EFA stage, sensory 3 "Lake Malawi animals are appealing to watch", was deleted to improve the model fit. As shown in Table 5.6, the results of the CFA using the second half of the data (N=335) gives a statistical level of fit support for the overall sample indices except for chi-square (χ^2 =428.65, $df=211$, $p=0.000$). For instance, all factor loadings were above the 0.40 threshold (Stevens, 2002) and they ranged from 0.47 to 0.91. The RMSEA indicated a

good fit with a value of less than 0.08 at 0.056. The normed chi-square was within the acceptable threshold ($x^2/df = 2.03$). Given that chi-square is sensitive to sample size, the following fit indices confirmed the suitability of the measurement model- CFI (0.93), TLI (0.92) and GFI (0.90). All AVEs were above the 0.50 threshold and were higher than the squared multiple correlations. The composite reliability of all factors exceeded the cut-off point of 0.7 and they ranged from 0.75 to 0.86. Using the Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT), discriminant validity was passed as no correlation between exogenous constructs exceeded 0.85 (Kline, 2011). Thus, both discriminant and convergent reliability tests were passed. Table 5.6 presents the results of the reliability tests.

Table 5. 6 AVE, CR, MSV and correlations on the destination brand experience scale

	CR	AVE	MSV	Relational	Psychic	Emotional	Bodily	Action	Perceptive
Relational	0.86	0.54	0.22	**0.74**					
Psychic	0.83	0.50	0.30	0.24***	**0.71**				
Emotional	0.81	0.51	0.36	0.43***	0.55***	**0.72**			
Bodily	0.75	0.51	0.34	0.38***	0.50***	0.58***	**0.72**		
Action	0.78	0.56	0.14	0.37***	0.22**	0.36***	0.19**	**0.75**	
Perceptive	0.76	0.51	0.36	0.47***	0.52***	0.60***	0.53***	0.33***	**0.72**
Mean				4.19	3.50	4.02	4.20	3.70	3.78
Std. dev				0.67	0.90	0.76	0.71	0.78	0.81

** Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$

*** Correlation is significant at $p < 0.001$

5.6 CFA of the measurement model including dependent variables (N = 335)

Using the second half of the dataset (N=335), the measurement model was tested following the cross-validation process. CFA was performed to confirm the underlying DBE dimensions and the items were extracted during the EFA stage. All six independent variables (relational/social, spiritual/psychic, action/behavioural, bodily/sensory, perceptive/cognitive and expressive/emotional) and the two dependent variables (satisfaction and pro-environmental

behaviours) were measured as first-order factors. The CFA fit indices results support the measurement model statistical level of fit except for chi-square (χ^2 =712.29, df = 424, p=0.000). For instance, all factor loadings were above the 0.40 threshold (Stevens, 2002) and they ranged from 0.63 to 0.85. The RMSEA indicated a good fit with a value of less than 0.08 at 0.045 and a P-close value of 0.92. The normed chi-square was within the acceptable threshold (x^2 /df = 1.68). Given that chi-square is sensitive to sample size, the following fit indices confirmed the suitability of the measurement model – GFI (0.88), TLI (0.93), and CFI (0.94) – and indicated an acceptable model fit. All AVEs were above the 0.50 threshold and were higher than the squared multiple correlations. The square root of the AVE on the diagonal lane was higher than the corresponding latent construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010), supporting discriminant validity. The composite reliability of all factors exceeded the cut-off point of 0.70 and they ranged from 0.76 to 0.86. Thus, both discriminant and convergent reliability tests were passed. Table 5.7 presents reliability test results.

Table 5. 7 CFA of the measurement model with dependent variables (N=335)

Construct	Item	Estimate	S.E.	*t*-value	*p*-value	Std. factor Loadings	AVE	CR
Relational/social DBE	Social5	1.00				0.82		
	Social7	0.97	0.06	15.11	***	0.80		
	Social6	0.87	0.06	13.71	***	0.72	0.54	0.85
	Social3	0.83	0.07	12.37	***	0.69		
	Social2	0.74	0.06	11.57	***	0.63		
Spiritual/psychic DBE	Spiritual5	1.00				0.75		
	Spiritual4	1.15	0.09	13.55	***	0.79		
	Spiritual3	0.87	0.07	12.08	***	0.70	0.50	0.83
	Spiritual2	0.93	0.09	10.96	***	0.64		
	Spiritual6	0.95	0.09	11.57	***	0.65		
Expressive/emotional DBE	Emot6	1.00				0.79		
	Emot5	1.03	0.08	12.27	***	0.71	0.51	0.80
	Emot2	1.14	0.10	11.69	***	0.69		
	Emot1	1.07	0.10	11.05	***	0.65		
Bodily/sensory DBE	Sensory4	1.00				0.83		
	Sensory5	1.20	0.14	8.87	***	0.82	0.67	0.86
	Sensory6	1.15	0.14	8.35	***	0.81		
Action/behavioural DBE	Behav9	1.00				0.61		
	Behav8	1.43	0.24	5.88	***	0.91	0.55	0.78
	Behav3	1.01	0.19	5.31	***	0.67		
Perceptive/cognitive DBE	Cogn4	1.00				0.67		
	Cogn6	1.21	0.14	8.84	***	0.71	0.52	0.76
	Cogn5	1.23	0.13	9.62	***	0.77		
Satisfaction	Satis1	1.00				0.71		
	Satis2	1.02	0.08	12.21	***	0.78		
	Satis3	0.98	0.09	10.74	***	0.73	0.55	0.86
	Satis4	1.22	0.12	10.50	***	0.80		
	Satis6	0.83	0.08	9.91	***	0.68		
Pro-environmental behavioural intentions	Intent5	1.00				0.63		
	Intent6	1.27	0.11	11.48	***	0.85		
	Intent7	1.34	0.12	11.11	***	0.79	0.55	0.83
	Intent8	1.44	0.14	10.06	***	0.68		

*** Correlation is significant at *p* < 0.001

Table 5. 8 Correlation results, mean and standard deviations of the measurement model (N=335)

Construct	CR	AVE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1)	0.85	0.54	**0.74**							
(2)	0.83	0.50	0.25***	**0.71**						
(3)	0.80	0.51	0.44***	0.53***	**0.71**					
(4)	0.86	0.67	0.43***	0.41***	0.54***	**0.82**				
(5)	0.78	0.55	0.38***	0.22**	0.37***	0.19**	**0.74**			
(6)	0.76	0.52	0.48***	0.52***	0.60***	0.41***	0.33***	**0.72**		
(7)	0.86	0.55	0.50***	0.35***	0.56***	0.59***	0.17*	0.36***	**0.74**	
(8)	0.83	0.55	0.34***	0.35***	0.30***	0.39***	0.21**	0.35***	0.38***	**0.74**
Mean			4.19	3.50	4.02	4.20	3.70	3.78	4.58	4.10
Std. dev.			0.67	0.90	0.76	0.71	0.78	0.81	0.47	0.77

Note: (1) Relational/social, (2) Spiritual/psychic, (3) Expressive/emotional, (4) Bodily/sensory, (5) Action/behavioural, (6) Perceptive/cognitive, (7) Satisfaction, (8) Pro-environmental intention

** Correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$

*** Correlation is significant at $p < 0.001$

5.7 Modelling (n=670)

Modelling was conducted to test the conceptual model. The study used a maximum likelihood estimation method to test the parameters in the conceptual model as stated in Chapter 3 (see Figure 5.1) Goodness-of-fit was conducted before proceeding with hypothesis testing. The Chi-square statistic ((χ^2 =45, df = 28, p=0.000) showed a poor fit due to its susceptibility to large samples. However, the Normed Chi-square value was within the recommended range of 1 to 3 at 2.36. Other fit indices also supported the conceptual model as follows: GFI = 0.99, TLI= 0.99, CFI=0.99, RMSEA =0.031 and p-close =0.98 (Hair et al., 2010).

Furthermore, data were checked for multicollinearity between the independent variables (DBEs) and the dependent variable (satisfaction). According to Hair et al. (2010), if the VIF score

exceeds four and tolerance value is less than 0.2, there could be possible problems with multicollinearity. Multicollinearity diagnosis was not prevalent in the data as the lowest tolerance value was 0.43 and the highest VIF score was 2.33, both on Spiritual/Psychic DBE.
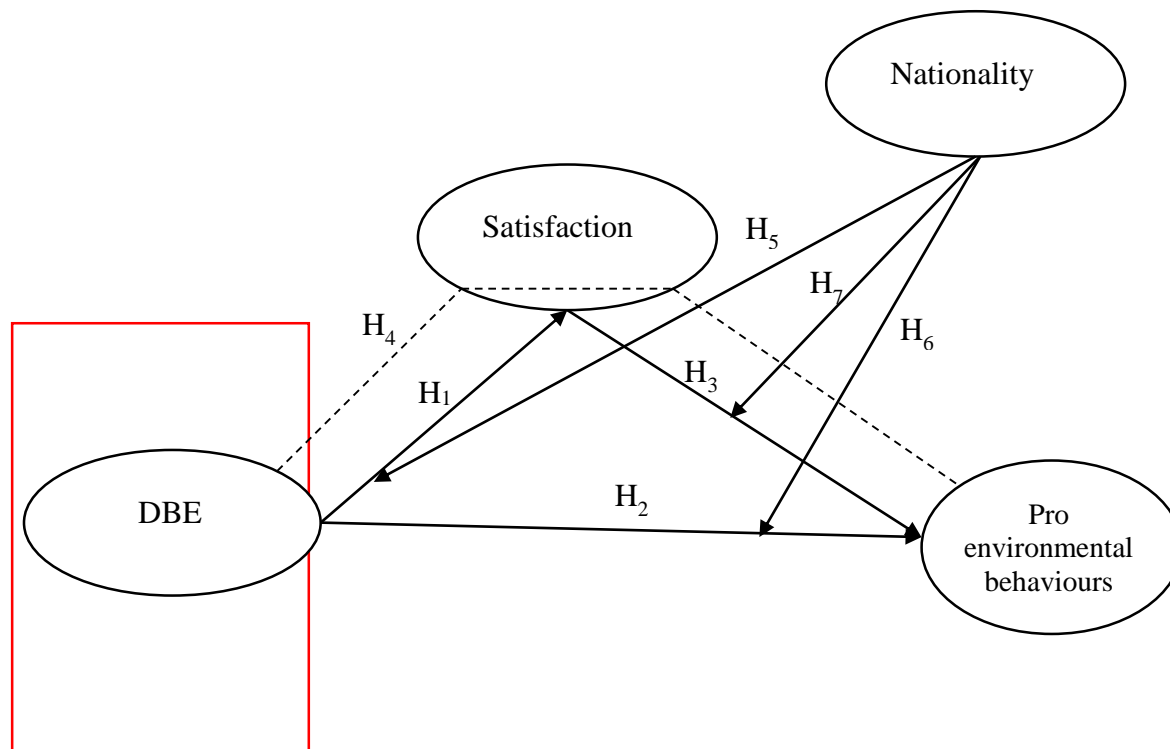

Figure 5. 1 Conceptual model

5.8 Hypotheses testing

Three hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 1 was divided into six sub- hypotheses based on the six DBE dimensions extracted at the EFA stage. These hypotheses examined the direct influence of DBE on satisfaction and future intentions (pro-environmental behaviours). In total, thirteen direct relationships were investigated between paths as presented in Table 5.9 and Table 5.11. Furthermore, six mediated hypotheses were explored as presented in Table 5.14.

Hypothesis 1 proposes that DBE positively affect tourists' satisfaction. The result revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two constructs (β=0.51, t=11.59, p<

0.001). This means that tourists who enjoy DBEs are likely to be satisfied with the destination. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2 proposes that DBE is likely to positively affect pro-environmental behaviours. The result of the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta=0.31$, $t=6.74$, $p< 0.001$). This means that tourists who encounter the lake destination brand experiences will have a favourable attitude towards pro-environmental behaviours. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 3 postulates that satisfaction with Lake Malawi DBE would result in positive pro-environmental behaviours. The result of the test revealed that the path coefficient was statistically significant ($\beta=0.26$, $t=5.18$, $p< 0.001$). Consequently, tourists who are satisfied with Lake Malawi are more likely to engage in PEB. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 5. 9 Results of the direct path modelling

Hypothesis	Path			Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H1	DBE	$\rightarrow$	Satisfaction	0.51	11.59***	0.001	**Rejected**
H2	DBE	$\rightarrow$	Pro-environmental behaviours	0.31	6.74***	0.001	**Rejected**
H3	Satisfaction	$\rightarrow$	Pro-environmental behaviours	0.26	5.18***	0.001	**Rejected**

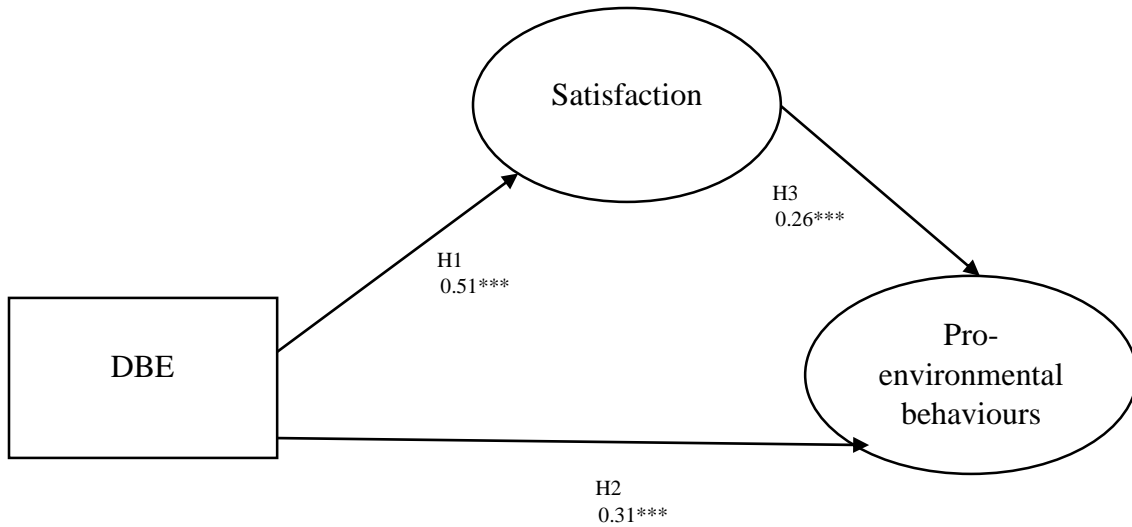*** significant at $p<0.001$(two-tailed)

Figure 5. 2 Results of the model (N=670)

5.8.1 Direct effects between DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours

To determine which DBE items were important for tourists' satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviour, a first-order path model analysis was conducted. First, a model fit analysis was conducted (see Table 5.10 for the results). Thereafter, the direct regression paths were analysed among the eight constructs to test the three hypotheses listed in Chapter 3.

Table 5. 10 Model fit results

GFI	CFI	TLI	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	PCLOSE
0.91	0.94	0.93	977.18	430	2.27	0.044	0.998

Hypothesis 1 was divided into six sub- hypotheses based on the six DBE dimensions extracted at the EFA stage. These hypotheses examined the direct influence of DBE on satisfaction and the effect of satisfaction on future intentions (pro-environmental behaviours). In total, seven direct relationships were investigated between paths as presented in Table 5.12 and Figure 5.3.

Hypothesis 1a proposes that relational/social DBE has a positive effect on tourists' satisfaction with the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between relational/social DBE and satisfaction were examined. The result reveals that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two constructs ($\beta=0.33$, $t=6.35$, $p< 0.001$). This means that tourists who enjoy relational/social DBE are likely to be satisfied with the destination. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 1b postulates that spiritual/psychic DBE is positively related to tourists' satisfaction with the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between spiritual/psychic DBE and satisfaction were examined. The result of the path coefficient was insignificant ($\beta=-0.04$, $t=-0.80$, $p> 0.05$). This means that tourists who highly perceive spiritual/psychic DBE do not necessarily get satisfied with the Lake Malawi destination brand. Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 1c states that expressive/emotional DBE positively affects tourists' satisfaction with the Lake Malawi destination brand. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between expressive/emotional DBE and satisfaction were examined. The path coefficient between expressive/emotional DBE and satisfaction was tested and the results were significant ($\beta=0.27$, $t=4.43$, $p<0.001$). Therefore, tourists who highly perceive expressive/emotional DBEs are likely to be satisfied with the Lake Malawi destination brand. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 1d postulates that bodily/sensory DBE is likely to positively affect tourists' satisfaction with the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between bodily/sensory and satisfaction were examined and the results were statistically significant ($\beta=0.37$, $t=5.89$, $p<0.001$). Thus, tourists who highly perceive bodily/sensory DBE are highly satisfied with Lake Malawi destination brand. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1e states that action/behavioural DBEs are likely to positively affect tourists' satisfaction with the Lake Malawi destination brand. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between action/behavioural DBE and satisfaction were examined. The result showed that the path coefficient for this hypothesis was statistically insignificant (β=-0.06, t=-1.29, p> 0.05). Thus, tourists who highly seek action/behavioural destination brand experiences are not satisfied with the destination brand experience. Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 1f proposes that perceptive/cognitive DBE is positively related to satisfaction with the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between perceptive/cognitive DBE and satisfaction were examined. The results indicated that there is no statistically significant relationship between the two (β=-0.10, t=-1.55, p> 0.05). Thus, tourists who highly seek perceptive/cognitive DBE do not necessarily get satisfied with Lake Malawi. Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 3 postulates that satisfaction with Lake Malawi DBE would result in positive pro-environmental behaviours. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between satisfaction DBE and PEB were examined. Results reveal a statistically significant path coefficient (β=0.45, t=9.12, p< 0.001). Consequently, tourists who are satisfied with Lake Malawi are more likely to participate in PEB. Thus, null hypothesis 2 is rejected.

Table 5. 11 Results of the structural modelling

Hypothesis	Path			Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H1a	Relational/social DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.33	6.35***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1b	Spiritual/psychic DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.04	-0.80	0.422	Not rejected
H1c	Expressive/emotional DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.27	4.43***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1d	Bodily/sensory DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.37	5.89***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1e	Action/behavioural DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.06	-1.29	0.198	Not rejected
H1f	Perceptive/cognitive DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.10	-1.55	0.122	Not rejected
H3	Satisfaction	→	Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.45	9.12***	0.001	**Rejected**

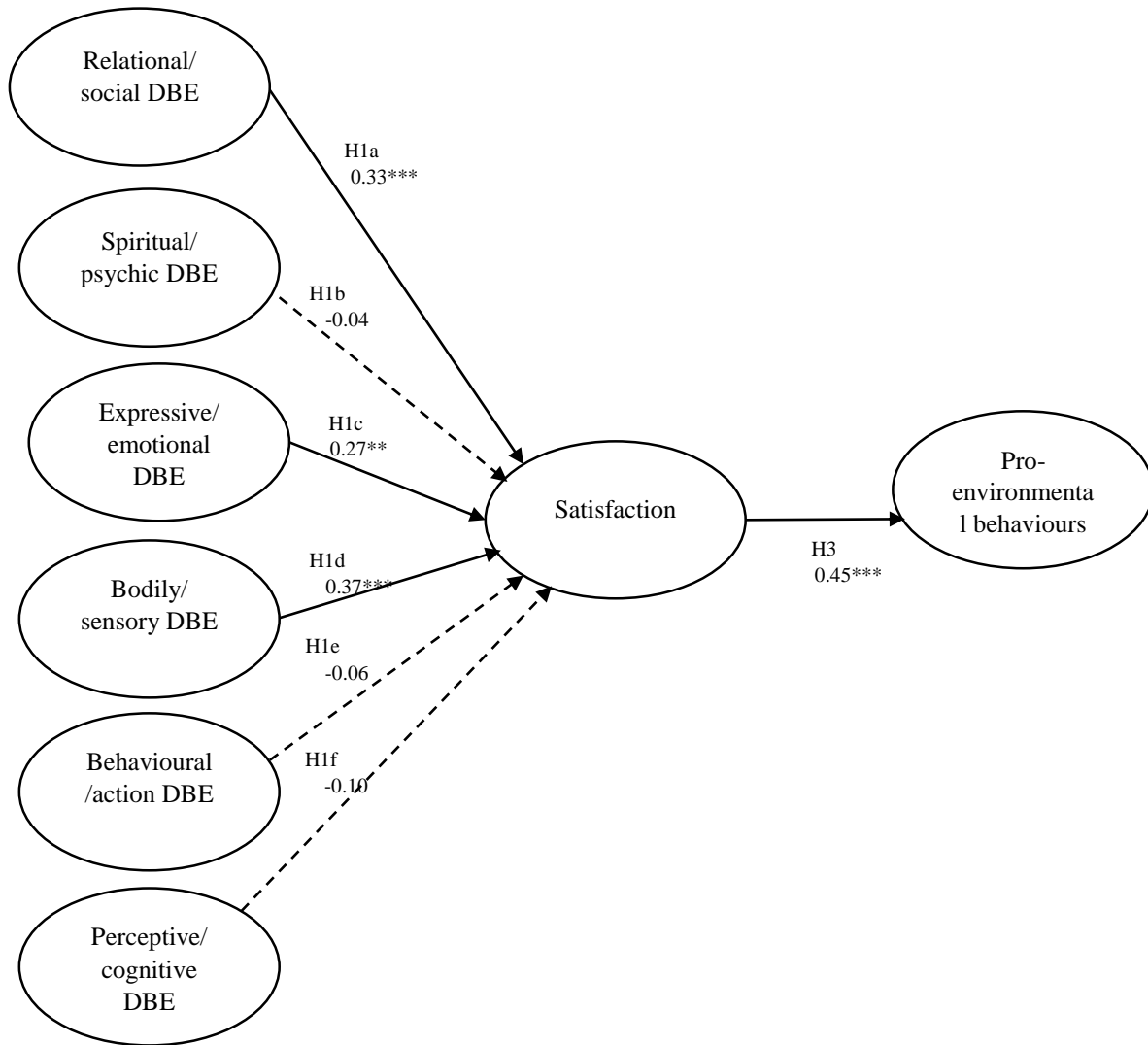Note: *** significant at 0.001(two tailed)

Figure 5. 3 Results of the DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours modelling (N=670)

5.8.2 Direct effects between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours

Some research has measured the effect of DBE on loyalty as a future intention (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et al., 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013) or intention to recommend (Barnes et al., 2014). In the current study, the pro-environmental future intention was necessary given that lake destinations can be fragile and can be adversely affected by tourists' activities as it happened to Maya Bay in Thailand. Furthermore, tourism activities are unsustainable in some cases as they harm eco-systems, bring in litter, cause crowding, etc. Therefore, direct path effects were tested between

the six DBE constructs and pro-environmental behaviours. The model fit results are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5. 12 Results of mediating model fit analysis

GFI	CFI	TLI	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	PCLOSE
0.93	0.95	0.94	675.88	296	2.28	0.044	0.991

Hypothesis 2a proposes that relational/social DBE has a positive effect on tourists' attitude towards pro-environmental behaviours at the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between relational/social DBE and pro-environmental behaviours were examined. The result revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two constructs ($\beta=0.14$, $t=2.57$, $p< 0.01$). This means that tourists who enjoy relational/social DBE are likely to display pro-environmental behaviours at the destination. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2b postulates that spiritual/psychic DBE positively affects tourists' pro-environmental behaviours at the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between spiritual/psychic DBE and pro-environmental behaviours were examined. The result of the path coefficient was insignificant ($\beta=0.10$, $t=1.75$, $p> 0.05$). This means that tourists who highly perceive spiritual/psychic DBE are not likely to participate in PEB at Lake Malawi. Hence, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 2c states that expressive/emotional DBE positively affects tourists' attitude towards pro-environmental behaviours at Lake Malawi. The path coefficient between expressive/emotional DBE and pro-environmental behaviours was tested and the results showed a statistically insignificant relationship ($\beta=0.05$, $t=0.68$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, tourists who highly perceive expressive/emotional DBEs will not necessarily engage in pro-environmental behaviours at Lake Malawi. Hence, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 2d postulates that bodily/sensory DBE is likely to positively affect tourists' pro-environmental behaviours at the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between bodily/sensory DBE and pro-environmental behaviours was examined. The path was found to be statistically significant (β=0.26, t=4.12, p<0.001). Thus, tourists who highly perceive bodily/sensory DBE are more likely to participate in PEB at Lake Malawi. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2e states that action/behavioural DBEs are likely to positively affect tourists' pro-environmental behaviours at Lake Malawi. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between action/behavioural DBE and pro-environmental behaviours were examined. The result was not statistically insignificant (β=0.04, t=0.70, p> 0.05). Thus, tourists who highly seek action/behavioural destination brand experiences will not necessarily engage in pro-environmental behaviours. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Hypothesis 2f proposes that perceptive/cognitive DBE is positively related to tourists' pro-environmental behaviours at the destination. To test this hypothesis, the path coefficient between perceptive/cognitive DBE and satisfaction was examined. The result indicated that there is no statistically significant relationship between the two (β=0.51, t=0.73, p> 0.05). Thus, tourists who highly seek perceptive/cognitive DBE do not necessarily display pro-environmental behaviours at Lake Malawi. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Results of these path analyses are presented in Table 5.13 and Figure 5.4.

Table 5. 13 Results of the direct path between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours

Hypothesis	Path		Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H2a	Relational/social DBE	→ Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.14	2.57**	0.01	**Rejected**
H2b	Spiritual/psychic DBE	→ Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.10	1.75	0.08	Not rejected
H2c	Expressive/emotional DBE	→ Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.05	0.68	0.49	Not rejected
H2d	Bodily/sensory DBE	→ Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.26	4.12***	0.001	**Rejected**
H2e	Action/behavioural DBE	→ Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.04	0.70	0.49	Not rejected
H2f	Perceptive/cognitive DBE	→ Pro-environmental behavioural intention	0.05	0.73	0.46	Not rejected

Note: ** significant at 0.01
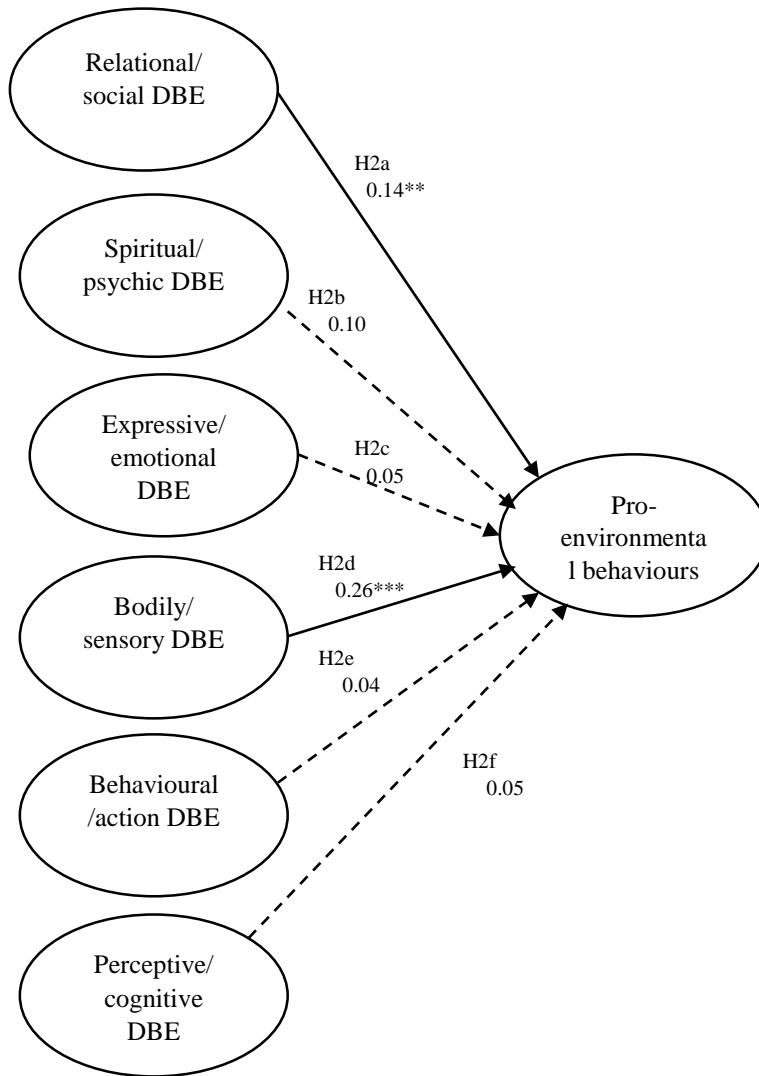   *** significant at 0.001

Figure 5. 4 Results of the DBE and pro-environmental behaviours model test (N=670)

5.8.3 Indirect effect: satisfaction mediating the association between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours

Following Iacobucci (2008) and Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010) suggestion that SEM-based mediation was superior to the Baron and Kenny method, the study used bootstrapping method in Amos to test the mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationship between DBEs (predictor) and PEB (dependent). By investigating the indirect and direct effects of satisfaction on the relationship between DBEs and PEB, we analysed standard errors and 95% confidence intervals for statistical significance. Researchers opine that bias-corrected bootstrapping is a powerful technique to identify mediation in a model (Memon, Cheah, Ramayah, Ting, & Chuah, 2018). Thus, t-values greater than 1.96, $p < 0.05$ is evidence for the presence mediation (Zhao et al., 2010). We thus ran a bootstrapping procedure using 200 iterations to test the significance of the indicators and the coefficient paths of the model. From the mediation analysis, results indicate that satisfaction fully mediates the relationships between expressive/emotional DBE and PEB and between relational/social DBE and PEB. For bodily/sensory DBE and PEB, partial mediation was observed whereas, for the relationships between perceptive/cognitive DBE and PEB, action/behavioural DBE and PEB and spiritual/psychic DBE and PEB, no mediation effect was found. Refer to Table 5.14 for details. Results are interpreted following Zhao et al. (2010).

Table 5. 14 Mediation results using bootstrapping method

Hypothesis	Direct effect (X→Y)	Indirect effect (X→M→Y)	Result
Perceptive/cognitive → Satisfaction → PEB	0.087(ns)	-0.025 (ns)	No mediation (no effect nonmediation)
Action/behavioural→ Satisfaction → PEB	0.50(ns)	-0.015(ns)	No mediation (no effect nonmediation)
Bodily/sensory→ Satisfaction → PEB	0.157*	-0.086**	Partial mediation (competing mediation)
Expressive/emotional→ Satisfaction → PEB	-0.16(ns)	0.065**	Full mediation
Spiritual/psychic → Satisfaction → PEB	0.121*	0.013(ns)	No mediation (direct only nonmediation)
Relational/social→ Satisfaction → PEB	0.061(ns)	0.075**	Full mediation

Note: * significant at 0.05
        ** significant at 0.01
        ns = not significant

5.8.4 Invariance tests

5.8.4.1 Measurement invariance

To further understand the DBE phenomenon, the study examined the moderating effect of tourists' domestic/international tourists' status on DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. Various studies contend that destination evaluation differs between locals and international tourists (Huang et al., 1996; Kozak, 2001), with domestic visitors being more emotionally attached and contented with the destination. This effect has been attributed to tourists' geographical location (Bonn et al., 2005), which consequently affects their affective emotions (Thomson et al., 2005). Furthermore, consumption and destination evaluation differences have been observed among tourists of different nationalities (see McDowall & Ma, 2010), with more differences observed than commonalities (Kozak & Nield, 1998; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997). Understanding these differences based on domestic/international tourists' status can help

DMOs to tailor experiences for each market segment, as satisfaction with a destination's experience can be affected by nationality (Yu & Goulden, 2006).

Consequently, respondents from Malawi were compared to respondents from other countries. Before doing this, a measurement invariance test was done to ascertain whether the two groups were indeed invariant. Specifically, a chi-square difference test was run to assess the measurement invariance. The two models are said to be invariant if the chi-square does not show a significant difference (Yoo, 2002). First, the study runs a non-restricted model invariance test using CFA (measurement model invariance), the results of which are presented in Table 5.15.

The model fit test of the two groups indicates that the proposed model fits the data well. Nonetheless, full metric invariance was not established as a significant chi-square different was established between both the unconstrained (full metric) and the constrained model $\chi^2_{0.05}$ (848) $=1505.1$ and $\chi^2_{0.05}$ (872) $=1569.2$, $p=0.000$, respectively. Although a full metric invariance was not established, a partial invariance test can be acceptable in the event where a subset of parameters is constrained to be equal (Yoo, 2002). Based on parameter changes and modification indices, the constrained paths were released step-by-step. The study released seven paths that were found to be significant while all other paths were constrained for the invariance test. The released items include: relational/social 2, relational/social 3, expressive/emotional 1, expressive/emotional 2, expressive/emotional 3, pro-environmental behaviour intention 7 and pro-environmental behaviour intention 8. Finally, the invariance between the two groups was supported thus warranting structural invariance analyses. Table 5.16 presents the test results

Table 5. 15 Measurement invariances for Malawian tourists (N=483) and International tourists (N=172)

Groups	Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
	Non-restricted model	1505.119	848		0.877	0.928	0.916	0.034
Malawian tourists and International tourists	Full metric invariance of the measurement model (L(X)Y=IN)[a]	1569.24	872	64.12 / 24	0.872	0.924	0.913	0.035
	Partial metric invariance of the CFA model [b]	1528.2	865	23.15 / 17	0.874	0.927	0.917	0.034

a. Chi-square test $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) $> \chi^2_{0.05} = 36.42$; thus the full invariance model is not supported.

b. Chi-square test $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) $> \chi^2_{0.05} = 27.59$; thus partial invariance model is supported.

5.8.4.2 Model invariance test

Following the direct path analysis, path invariance analysis was tested on the two groups by running the two models (DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours and DBE and pro-environmental behaviours). Chi-square test with a constrained and unconstrained model was performed. The difference was significant albeit indicating a partial metric invariance model (restricted model $\chi^2_{0.05}(891) = 1665.7 >$ unrestricted model $\chi^2_{0.05}(860) = 1569.7$). These results indicated that the paths between the Malawian tourists and the international group of tourists are different, making it necessary for further investigations. Results are presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5. 16 Model invariances for Malawian tourists (N=483) and International tourists (N=172)

Groups	Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
	Partial metric invariance	1594.6	877		0.87	0.92	0.91	0.035
Malawian tourists and International tourists	Full metric invariance of the modelling model (L(X)Y=IN) [a]	1628.79	884	34.19/ 7	0.87	0.92	0.91	0.036

Note: a. Chi-square difference test $\Delta\chi^2$ (df) $> \chi^2_{0.05}(7) = 12.02$: thus, the full path invariance model is not supported and the paths between the two groups are different.

Following the partial invariance test, individual coefficient paths were analysed on the DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental model. Four of the seven coefficient paths indicated significant chi-square differences namely relational/social to satisfaction, expressive/emotional to satisfaction, perceptive/cognitive to satisfaction and from satisfaction to pro-environmental behaviours. Therefore, the moderating role of domestic/international tourists' status has partially been verified. Hypothesis 5 and 7 are partially supported.

On the DBE and pro-environmental model, however, no structural path had a significant chi-square difference for the two groups. Results of these path analyses are presented in Table 5.17 and Table 5.18.

Table 5. 17 DBE, satisfaction and PEB invariance test results

Hypothesis	Path	Malawian and International tourist group	
		$\Delta X^2/df$	$\Delta X^2/df$
	Free model	1594.6/877	1628.79/884
H1-1a	Relation/social to satisfaction	1600.4/878	5.8/1**
H1-2a	Spiritual/psychic to satisfaction	1595.8/878	1.2/1
H1-3a	Expressive/emotional to satisfaction	1605.4/878	10.5/1****
H1-4a	Bodily/sensory to satisfaction	1594.7/878	0.1/1
H1-5a	Action/behavioural to satisfaction	1594.9/878	0.1/1
H1-6a	Perceptive/cognitive to satisfaction	1604.3/878	9.7/1***
H3	Satisfaction to pro-environmental behaviours	1597.6/878	3/1*

Note: * $\Delta X^2/df > \Delta X^2 0.1(1) = 2.701$
        ** $\Delta X^2/df > \Delta X^2 0.05(1) = 3.841$
        *** $\Delta X^2/df > \Delta X^2 0.01(1) = 6.635$
        **** $\Delta X^2/df > \Delta X^2 0.001(1) = 10.83$

Table 5. 18 DBE and pro-environmental   behaviours model invariance test results

Hypothesis	Path	Malawian and international tourist group	
		$\Delta X^2/df$	$\Delta X^2/df$
	Free model	1100.81/605	1110.07/611
H2a	Relation/social to pro-environmental behaviours	1103.37/606	2.56/1
H2b	Spiritual/psychic to pro-environmental behaviours	1102.25/606	1.44/1
H2c	Expressive/emotional to pro-environmental behaviours	1100.93/606	0.12/1
H2d	Bodily/sensory to pro-environmental behaviours	1101.12/606	0.31/1
H2e	Action/behavioural to satisfaction	1102.45/606	1.64/1
H2f	Perceptive/cognitive to pro-environmental behaviours	1101.79/606	0.98/1

5.8.4.2.1 Modelling results of the Malawian and international tourists' comparison

Modelling test was done on the two groups before conducting structural invariance tests, the results of which are presented in the three tables below.

The model fit results for the Malawian dataset were good except for the Chi-square value which was significant χ^2 (430) = 910.36, p=0.000. Other model fit indices were as follows: CFI = 0.93, GFI = 0.89, TLI= 0.92, RMSEA = 0.048 and P-close = 0.755. Five coefficient paths were significant out of the seven paths. The insignificant ones were spiritual/psychic to satisfaction and action/behavioural to satisfaction. Of the five significant coefficient paths, perceptive/cognitive coefficient path showed a negative coefficient value. Table 5.19 and Figure 5.5 depict the results.

Table 5. 19 Malawian tourists structural model results (N=483)

Hypothesis	Path			Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H1a	Relational/social DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.20	3.39***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1b	Spiritual/psychic DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.02	0.38	0.703	Not rejected
H1c	Expressive/emotional DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.43	5.89***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1d	Bodily/sensory DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.41	5.84***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1e	Action/behavioural DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.02	-0.46	0.643	Not rejected
H1f	Perceptive/cognitive DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.23	-3.06**	0.002	**Rejected**
H3	Satisfaction	→	Pro-environmental behaviours	0.48	8.33***	0.001	**Rejected**

Note: ** significant at 0.01
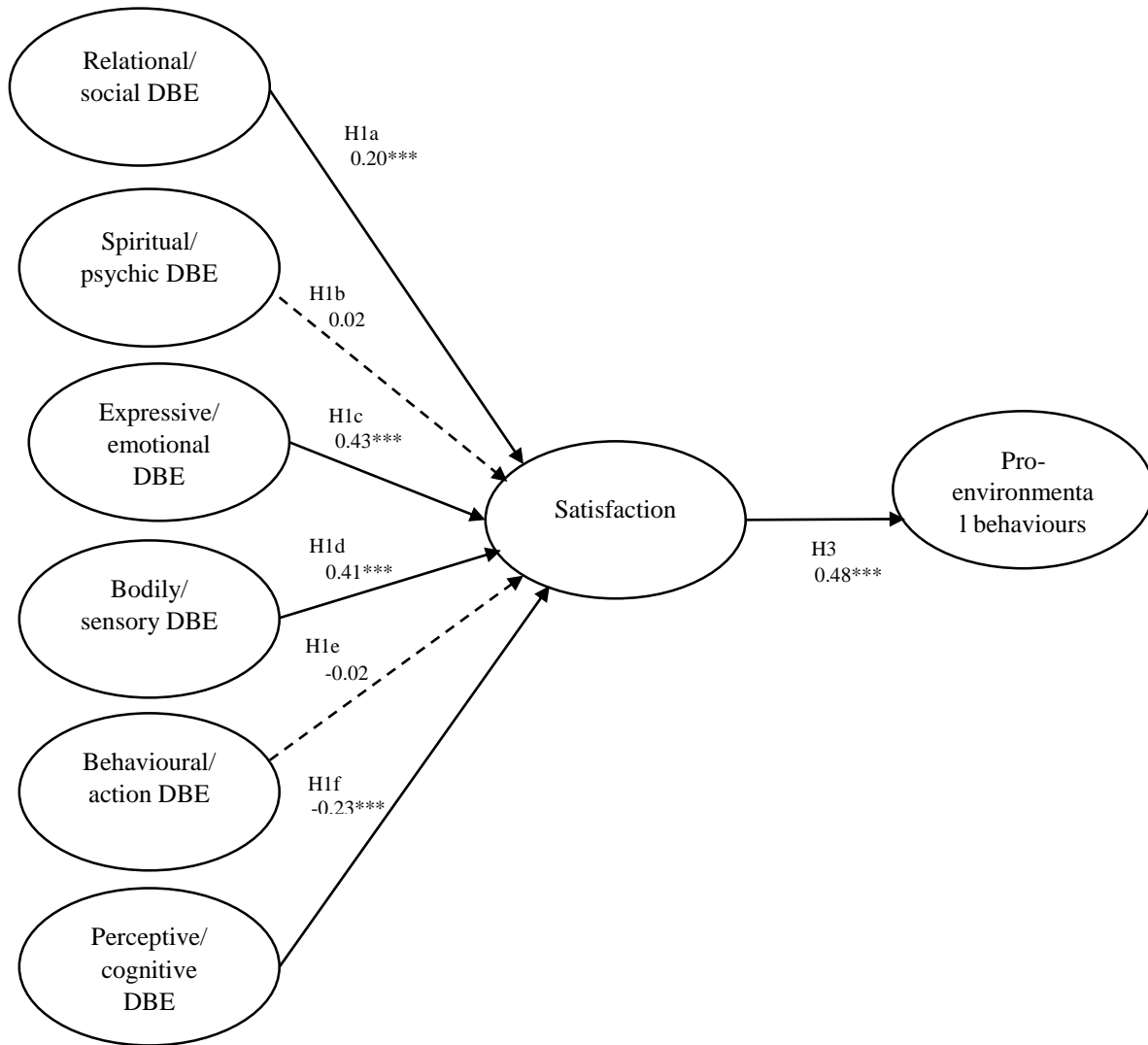   *** significant at 0.001

Figure 5. 5 Malawian tourists' path analysis results (N=483)

The direct path coefficient from DBE to pro-environmental behaviours for Malawian tourists was also analysed in a separate model. The model fit analysis values were as follows: χ^2 (296) = 650.27, p=0.000. Other model fit indices included the following: TLI = 0.92, CFI = 0.93, GFI= 0.91, RMSEA = 0.050 and P-close = 0.513. Two coefficient paths were significant out of the six paths namely relational/social to pro-environmental behaviours (β = .19, t = 2.84, p< 0.01) and bodily/sensory to pro-environmental behaviours (β = 0.33, t = 4.11, p< 0.001). Both coefficients were positive. Table 5.20 and Figure 5.6 show the results of this path analysis.

Table 5. 20 Results of the direct path analysis between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours for Malawian tourist (N=483)

Hypothesis	Path			Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H2a	Relational/social DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.19	2.84**	0.004	**Rejected**
H2b	Spiritual/psychic DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.03	0.44	0.657	Not rejected
H2c	Expressive/emotional DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.00	0.01	0.991	Not rejected
H2d	Bodily/sensory DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.33	4.11***	0.001	**Rejected**
H2e	Action/behavioural DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.07	1.22	0.220	Not rejected
H2f	Perceptive/cognitive DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.03	0.386	0.700	Not rejected

Note: ** significant at 0.01
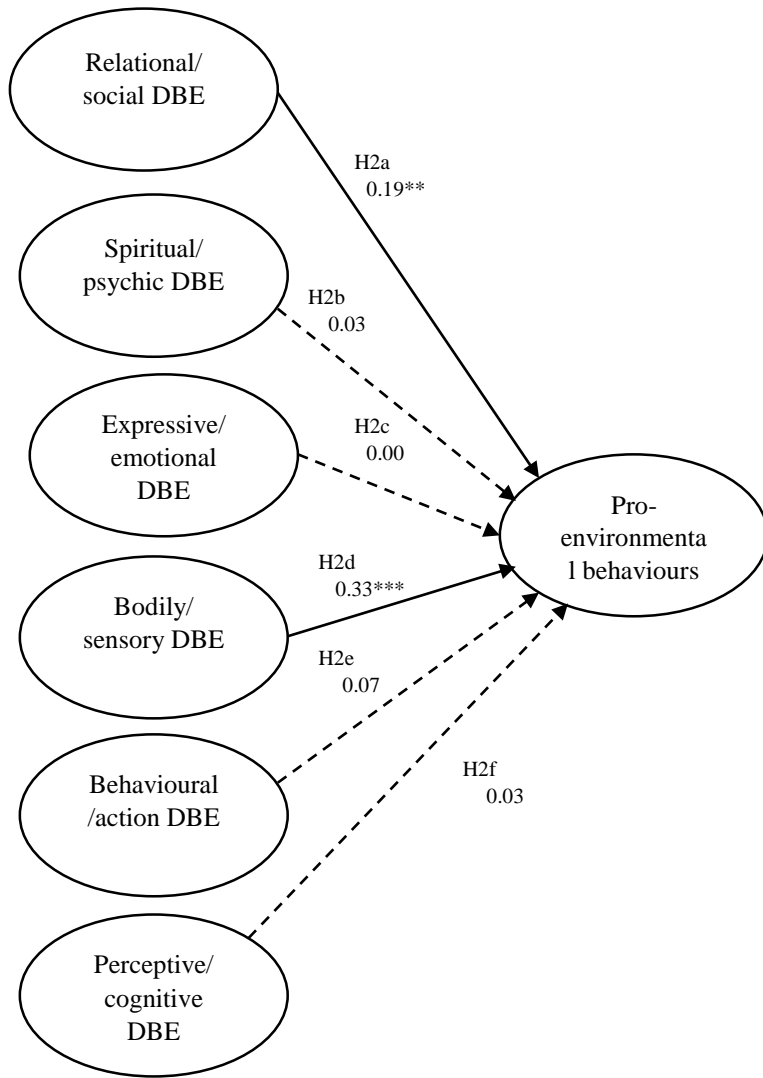   *** significant at 0.001

Figure 5. 6 DBE and Pro-environmental behaviours of Malawian tourists path analysis results

Further, path analyses were conducted on the international tourist group. The results indicated that the model fit was good with Chi-square χ^2 (430) = 658.43, p=0.000. GFI and TLI indices were acceptable at 0.81 and 0.87 respectively. CFI was 0.90, RMSEA =0.056 and P-close= 0.133. Of the seven coefficient paths, four paths were significant and had positive coefficients. These include relational/social to satisfaction (β=.46, t=4.06, p< 0.001), bodily/sensory to satisfaction (β=0.31, t=2.38, p< 0.05), perceptive/cognitive to satisfaction (β=0.23, t=1.97, p< 0.05) and satisfaction to pro-environmental behaviours (β=0.34, t=3.39, p< 0.001). Table 5.21 and Figure 5.7 show the results of this path analysis.

Table 5. 21 Results of the direct paths between DBE and satisfaction, DBE and pro-environmental behaviours for International tourists (N=172)

Hypothesis	Path			Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H1a	Relational/social DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.46	4.06***	0.001	**Rejected**
H1b	Spiritual/psychic DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.10	-0.80	0.424	Not rejected
H1c	Expressive/emotional DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.15	-1.10	0.272	Not rejected
H1d	Bodily/sensory DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.31	2.38*	0.018	**Rejected**
H1e	Action/behavioural DBE	→	Satisfaction	-0.07	-0.79	0.428	Not rejected
H1f	Perceptive/cognitive DBE	→	Satisfaction	0.26	2.00*	0.049	**Rejected**
H3	Satisfaction	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.34	3.39***	0.001	**Rejected**

Note: *   significant at 0.05
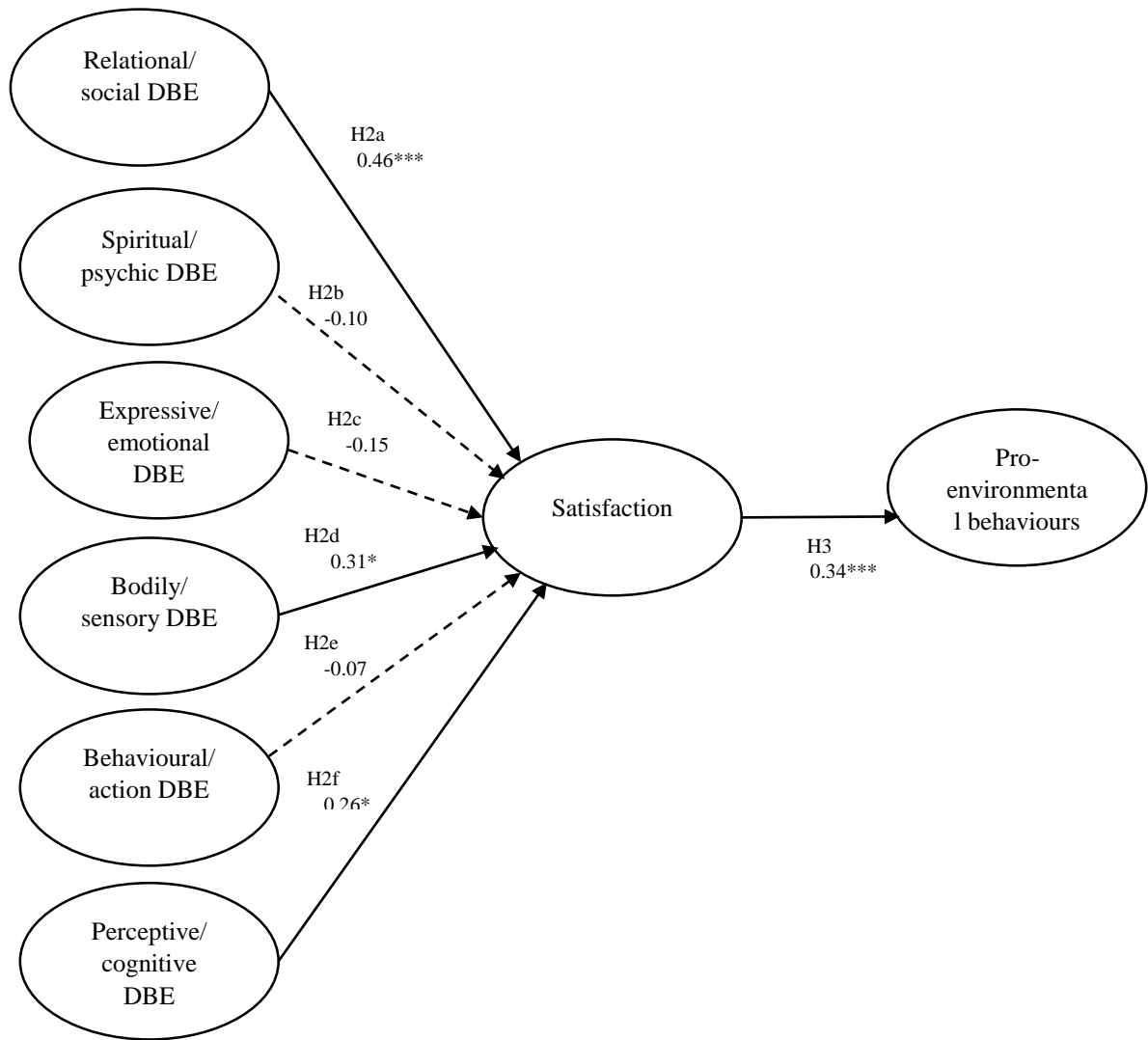   *** significant at 0.001

Figure 5. 7 International tourists' path analysis results

Additionally, a coefficient path analysis was conducted on the DBE and pro-environmental behaviour using the international tourists' dataset. The results of the model fit analyses were as follows: χ^2 (296) = 433.88, p=0.000. TLI = 0.91, CFI =0.91, GFI was acceptable at 0.81, RMSEA =0.052 and P-close= 0.358. None of the coefficient paths was significant at the 0.05 level. Table 5.22 and Figure 5.8 show the results of this analysis.

Table 5. 22 Results of the direct path between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours for international tourists (N=172)

| Hypothesis		Path		Standard coefficient (β)	t-value	p-value	Null hypothesis
H2a	Relational/social DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	-0.02	-0.15	0.880	Not rejected
H2b	Spiritual/psychic DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.21	1.56	0.120	Not rejected
H2c	Expressive/emotional DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	-0.05	-0.33	0.745	Not rejected
H2d	Bodily/sensory DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.22	1.66	0.098	Not rejected
H2e	Action/behavioural DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.03	0.29	0.776	Not rejected
H2f	Perceptive/cognitive DBE	→	Pro-environment behaviour	0.18	1.24	0.214	Not rejected
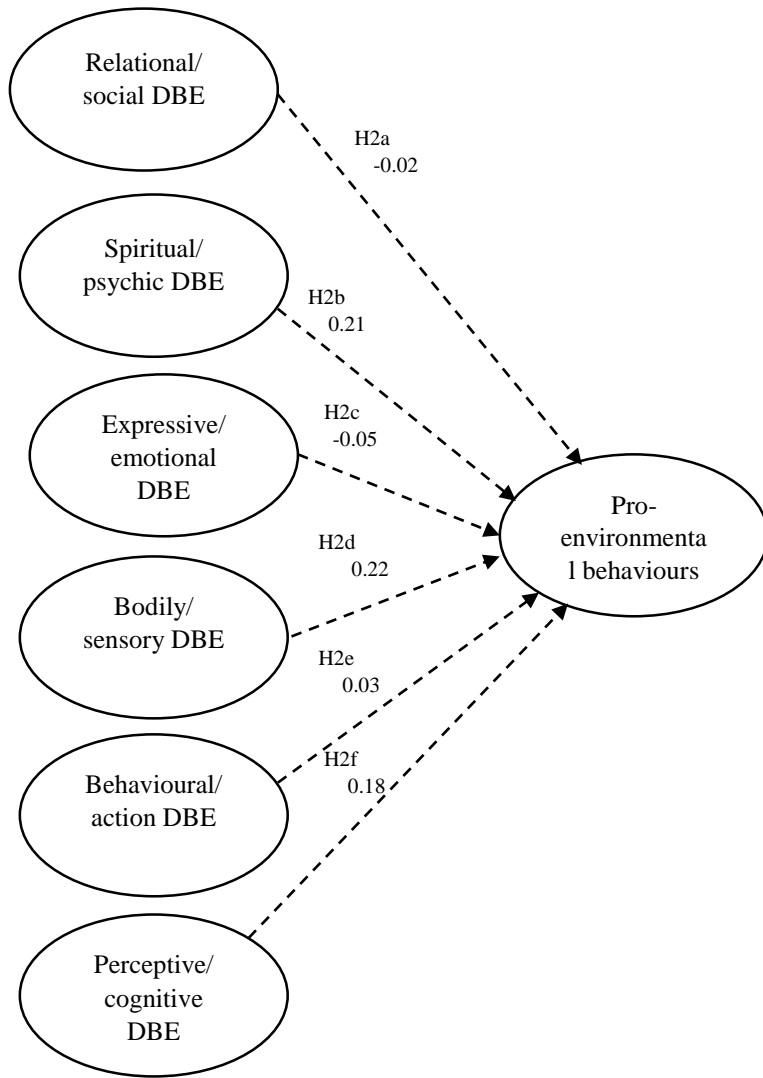
Figure 5. 8 International tourists DBE and pro-environmental behavioural intentions analysis resul
ts

Figure 5.9 and Figure 5.10, summarises the path analysis invariance model tests of the two tourist groups.
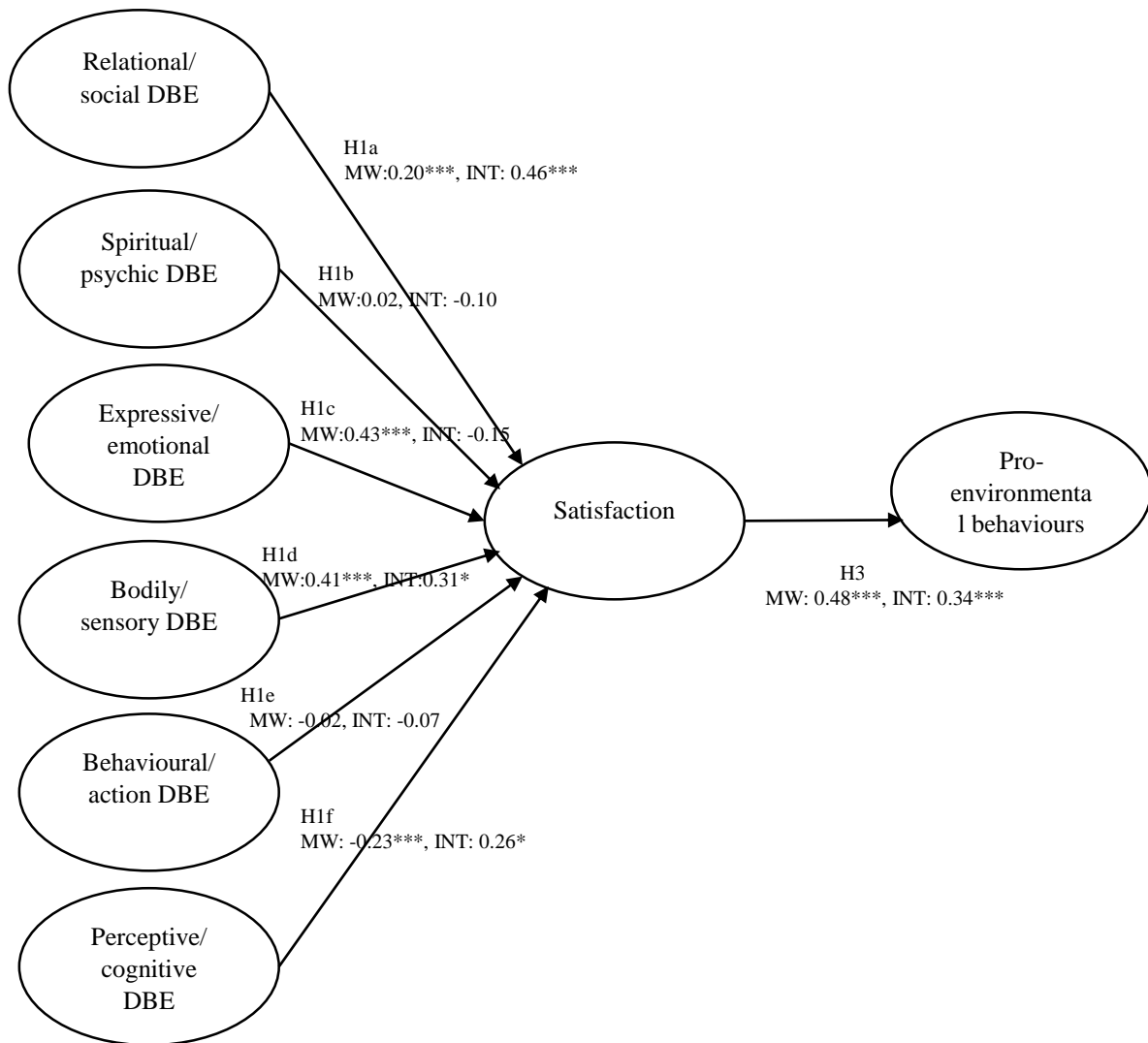

Figure 5. 9 Malawian and international tourist groups path analysis results
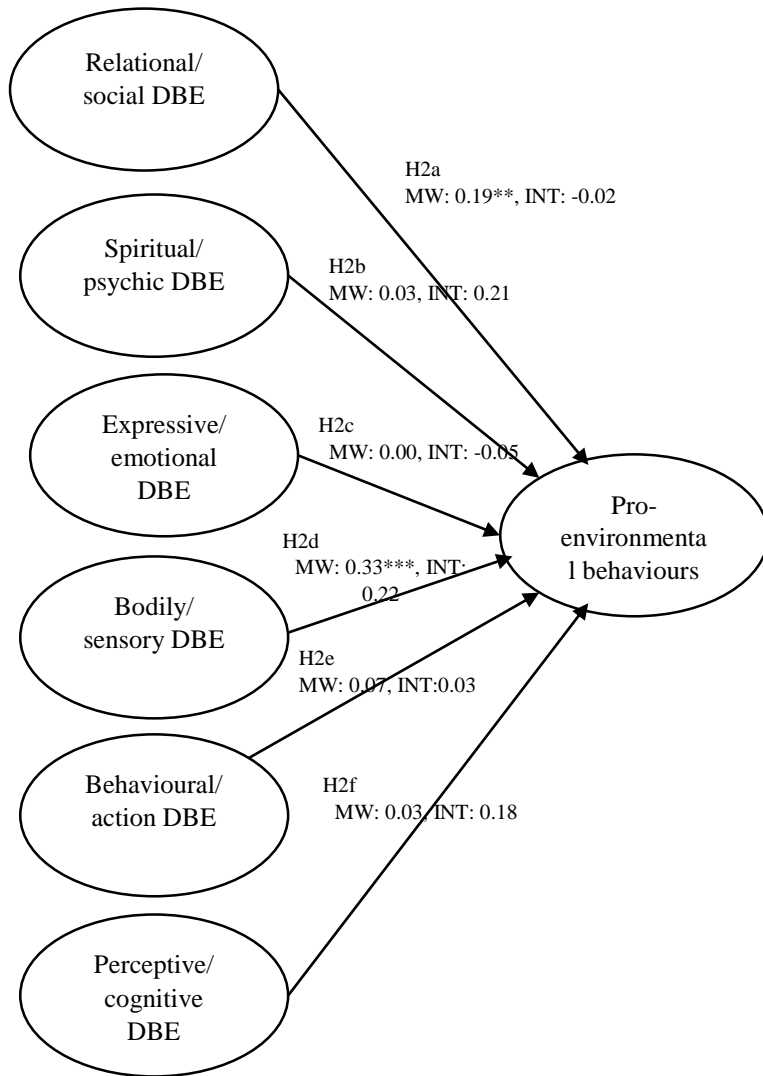
Figure 5.10 Malawian and international tourist groups DBE to pro-environmental behaviours path analysis results

5.8.5 Comparison of means between Malawian and international tourists across the DBE dimensions

Following the invariance test, a comparison of means between domestic and international tourists was run to test the differences in their evaluation of the destination brand experiences. Independent sample t-tests on tourists' DBE mean scores between the two groups showed significant differences in four of the six DBE dimensions, namely relational/social, expressive/emotional, bodily /sensory and perceptive/cognitive. There were significant differences

in relational/social mean scores for Malawian tourists (M=4.23, SD=0.67) and international tourists (M=4.05, SD=0.67), conditions; $t(657)=3.17$, $p=0.002$, expressive/emotional for Malawian tourists (M=4.42, SD=0.47) and international tourists (M=4.29, SD=0.40), conditions; $t(657)=3.46$, $p=0.001$, bodily /sensory for Malawian tourists (M=4.46, SD=0.53) and international tourists (M=4.27, SD=0.57), conditions; $t(657)=3.90$, $p=0.000$, and perceptive/cognitive for Malawian tourists (M=4.28, SD=0.63) and international tourists (M=4.10, SD=0.57), conditions; $t(657)=3.39$, $p=0.001$.

Furthermore, to determine the differences between the two tourists groups, an item mean analysis was run. Significant differences were observed for relational/social, bodily/sensory and perceptive/cognitive DBE. Negative but insignificant t-values were observed for action/behavioural DBE whereby international tourists had higher scores than their domestic counterparts. Table 5.23 presents the details of these results.

Table 5. 23 Results of the comparison of item means between Malawian and International tourists across DBE dimensions

DBE dimension	Malawian	International	t-value	p-value	Null Hypothesis
Factor 1:					
Relational/social	**4.23**	**4.05**	**3.17**	**0.002**	**Rejected**
2	4.37	4.11	3.79	0.000	
3	4.28	4.03	3.28	0.001	
5	4.08	3.96	1.55	0.123	
6	4.22	4.02	2.55	0.011	
7	4.22	4.10	1.65	0.100	
Factor 2:					Not
Spiritual/psychic	**3.90**	**3.81**	**1.37**	**0.171**	rejected
2	3.80	4.06	-2.86	0.005	
3	4.21	3.95	3.46	0.001	
4	4.01	3.77	2.46	0.014	
5	3.86	3.73	1.42	0.156	
6	3.60	3.54	0.59	0.555	
Factor 3:					
Expressive/emotional	**4.42**	**4.29**	**3.46**	**0.000**	**Rejected**
1	4.51	4.58	-1.21	0.226	
2	4.36	4.38	-0.39	0.698	
5	4.45	4.19	4.10	0.000	
6	4.36	4.01	5.07	0.000	
Factor 4: Bodily/sensory	**4.46**	**4.27**	**3.90**	**0.000**	**Rejected**
4	4.52	4.18	5.41	0.000	
5	4.45	4.28	2.65	0.008	
6	4.40	4.34	0.94	0.349	
Factor 5:					Not
Action/behavioural	**4.43**	**4.50**	**-1.89**	**0.059**	rejected
3	4.43	4.52	-1.83	0.068	
8	4.32	4.37	-0.78	0.438	
9	4.54	4.61	-1.25	0.210	
Factor 6:					
Perceptive/cognitive	**4.28**	**4.10**	**3.39**	**0.001**	**Rejected**
4	4.36	4.10	4.06	0.000	
5	4.26	4.04	3.13	0.002	
6	4.24	4.16	1.15	0.250	

Note: Hypothesis were significant at 0.01 level

The negative t-values indicate that international tourists had higher mean scores than Malawian tourists for the related DBE items based on the five-point Likert scale which ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

5.9 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the research findings, beginning with survey demographics, measurement scale development as well as validation and its predictive validity on satisfaction and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. The results of the study are summarised in Table 5.24.

Table 5. 24 Findings summary

DBE scale development
DBE was evaluated using six factors: relational/social, spiritual/psychic, expressive/emotional, bodily/sensory, action/behavioural and perceptive/cognitive.
Direct effects between DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours
Four positive relationships were discovered between relational/social DBE and satisfaction, expressive/emotional DBE and satisfaction, bodily/sensory DBE and satisfaction and between satisfaction and pro-environmental behavioural intentions.
Direct effects between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours
Two positive and statistically significant relationships were found between relational/social DBE, bodily/sensory DBE and pro-environmental behavioural intentions.
Satisfaction as a mediator between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours
Satisfaction was found to be a full/perfect mediator in the relationships between relational/social DBE and expressive/emotional DBE and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. A partial mediation was found between bodily/sensory DBE and pro-environmental behaviours whereas, for the relationships between perceptive/cognitive DBE and PEB, action/behavioural DBE and PEB and spiritual/psychic DBE and PEB, no mediation effect was found.
Measurement and structural invariance

Domestic/international tourists' status affected tourists' evaluation of the DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours. For the domestic tourists, relational/social, expressive/emotional, bodily/sensory, perceptive/cognitive (negative) factors were important and led to their satisfaction and subsequently to pro-environmental behavioural intentions. For the direct effects between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours, relational/social and action/behavioural DBE were important factors for pro-environmental behaviours.

For international tourists, relational/social, bodily/sensory, perceptive/cognitive were important factors that led to satisfaction. Subsequently, their satisfaction led to pro-environmental behavioural intentions. However, international tourists' status did not moderate the relationship between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours intentions.

A comparison of means between domestic and international tourists

Significant differences were observed for four dimensions: relational/social, bodily/sensory, expressive/emotional and perceptive/cognitive DBE. Negative but insignificant t-values were observed for action/behavioural DBE whereby international tourists had higher scores than domestic tourists.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

"The key to motivating others with your ideas is to use the core message to help them make decisions as they apply your idea. The essential part is to make the message compact and to have it imply a sense of worth or priorities about how to implement it"

(Heath & Heath, 2008)

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings of the study as presented in Chapter 5. The section focuses on two main areas: a discussion of the measurement scale for destination brand experience, and the relationship between DBE, satisfaction, and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. The chapter also situates the results of the study within the extant literature. Finally, a conclusion of the chapter is presented.

6.2 The destination brand experiences of Lake Malawi

The derived DBE factors were "relational/social", "spiritual/psychic", "expressive/ emotional", "bodily/sensory", action/behavioural', and "perceptive/cognitive", which altogether represent tourists' encountered and lived experiences (Schmitt, 1999b) of Lake Malawi. This scale is different from the one proposed by Brakus et al. (2009) which had four dimensions, namely sensory, affective, cognitive and behavioural.

The relational/social DBE and connotes tourists' desire to be part of a group or have an identity (Andreini et al., 2018; Nysveen et al., 2013; Schmitt et al., 2015). Relational/social DBE entails tourists' desire for interpersonal relationships with other tourists, locals as well as service providers in a destination. This experience is derived from communing with other consumers such that common passion leads to the creation of a community, social identity and a sense of belonging

(Gentile et al., 2007; Nysveen et al., 2013; Schmitt, 1999b). Although the relational/social experiences have been addressed in previous conceptual brand studies (see Gentile et. al, 2007; Schmitt, 1999b), the present study underscores its importance in destination brand experiences. This attests to Arnould and Price (1993) as well as Aron and Aron's (1996) proposition that people seek to expand themselves through situations and experiences and by including others in their lives through close relationships. Given that tourism experience results from multiple interactions with fellow tourists, local communities, service providers as well as built and natural attractions, relational/social DBE is an important element of a destination experience.

The spiritual/psychic DBE indicates tourists' desire to be close to nature and secluded from all disturbances of everyday life. This DBE resonates with escape as well as the relaxation motive in that tourists' desire to move away from daily life activities (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Oh et al., 2007; Smith & Kelly, 2006). The escape motive informs tourists' decision to travel to quiet environments for renewal, rejuvenation and health-related motivations. In this study, tourists indicated their desire to move away from civilization or secular activities and draw closer to nature for spiritual nourishment and revitalisation (Gill et al., 2019; Hay & Socha, 2005; Rodrigues, Rodrigues, & Peroff, 2014; Sharpley & Jepson, 2011). With lake tourism described as rural (Cooper, 2006), tourists escape modernity to lakeshore areas for deeper spiritual experiences (Kastenholz, 2000; Sharpley & Jepson, 2011). Spirituality is conceptualised as a human experience that deals with connectedness or relatedness (Gomez & Fisher, 2003) and is responsible for peace and harmony between people and nature, God and with themselves (Esfahani, Musa, & Khoo, 2017; Fisher, 2011; Gill, Packer, & Ballantyne, 2019) and promotes happiness, good health and well-being (Smith & Kelly, 2006). Agapito, Valle, and Mendes (2014) posit that apart from all the motivations for tourists to travel to rural places such as lakesides, the rural areas provide a romantic idea of being connected with nature. Furthermore, this factor aligns with what Cohen (1979) describes as 'the

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diversionary tourist experience' that allows tourists to temporarily reverse their everyday life to soothe the spirit and heal the body. Given the intensity of everyday work and life in general, it becomes imperative that people seek mental and body renewal by escaping to natural environments such as lake destinations (Kaplan, 1995; Kastenholz, 2000; Sharpley & Jepson, 2011). Indeed, Kaplan (1995) states that when people visit natural environments such as lakes, seaside, parks and forests, they get fascinated with nature and objects such as clouds, sunsets, and snow patterns. Kaplan (1995) adds that the movement of leaves in the breeze helps the people to think about other things and in so doing they gain restorative opportunities. This dimension thus provides a yawning understanding of spiritual and wellness tourism where people visit quite places for their recollection and rejuvenation. Furthermore, visits to lake destinations, mountainside and other resort areas provide tourists connectedness to nature, socialisation and spiritual experience that are an important aspect of their well-being (Bond, Packer, & Ballantyne, 2015).

Expressive/ emotional DBE was the third factor to be extracted. It describes tourists' emotional connection with the DBEs, and it affirms tourists' desire to travel to destinations that they feel emotionally attached to (Nysveen et al., 2013) as well as to fulfil the nature of humans to attach to various objects or humans they find dear (Bowlby, 1980; Thomson et al., 2005). Brakus et al.'s (2009) study found that this factor was second in importance. However, there is a distinction between this study's finding and their study. Compared to the items in Brakus et al.'s (2009) study, the present study found Lake Malawi to be the only item that induces emotional sentiments. This distinction can be attributed to the different nature of products (for whose purpose the scale was developed), the fact that a destination is an amalgam of different products and services in discrete geographic spaces (Barnes et al., 2014; Buhalis, 2000; McKercher & Guillet, 2011), and to the subjective nature of experiences (Brakus et al., 2009; Chhetri, Arrowsmith, & Jackson, 2004; O'Dell, 2007). Various studies have found that emotions developed with fellow humans are more

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intense than those developed with an object (So et al., 2013) and consequently, this influences consumers' brand relationship (Pawle & Cooper, 2006). This finding also affirms Lin et al. (2019), Torress (2016) and Tsiotsou and Goldsmith's (2012) assertions that interactions between tourists and various elements of the 'servicescape' together with cognitive and emotional reactions of the tourists are vital in the creation of destination experience.

The fourth DBE dimension extracted was named bodily/sensory and is consistent with the literature (Barnes et al., 2014; Brakus et., 2009; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Schmitt, 1999b). This dimension covers multisensory experiences such as sound, motion, smell etc., natural landscapes such as rivers and lakes (Agapito eta l., 2013; Chhetri et al., 2004). Schmitt (1999b) states that sensory experiences relate to the destination/brand appeals through smell, sight, taste, sound and touch and tourists can use this to differentiate [destination] brands. This study revealed that bodily/sensory destination brand experiences are an important aspect of tourists' experiences at a destination. Unlike Brakus et al.'s (2009) study where sensory dimension was found to be the most important, followed by affective dimension, the current study found that relational/social DBE was the most important. Through tourist engagement with the destination, sensory experiences help them to evade pain (Brakus et al., 2009) as they form images that challenge their minds (Hultén, 2011). This study finds that sensescapes through Lake Malawi were an important element of tourist destination experiences. In agreeing with previous studies (Agapito et al., 2013; Barnes et al., 2013; Brakus et al., 2009; Krishna, 2012; Mkono, 2011), sensory experiences offer tourists a window or taste of the area to the destination experiences through sight, tasting, touch, smelling and hearing and these have positive effects on consumer consumers' attitudes and behaviour (Agapito et al., 2013; Hultén, 2012; McCabe & Nowlis, 2003; Peck & Wiggins, 2006; Singh et al., 2000). The study results highlight the need for destinations to intensify multi-sensory stimuli brand encounters for the tourists beyond the tourist gaze, which only focuses on the visual component of the tourist

experience (Agapito et al., 2013; Dann & Jacobsen, 2002; Krishna, 2012). This is important because one sense can affect other senses when consumers evaluate a brand (Agapito et al., 2013).

Action/behavioural DBE was the fifth factor derived in the scale and is consistent with earlier studies (Brakus et al., 2009; Gentile et al., 2007; Schmitt, 1999b). This factor supports Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) assertion on the importance of playful leisure activities. This experience dimension relates to tourists desire to engage in hedonic activities. The present study found that tourists express themselves by engaging in physical actions and behaviours, engaging in physical experiences to keep fit and visiting action-oriented attractions at a destination. In their study on pilgrimage and restoration, Wang, Luo, Huang, and Yang (2020) discovered that among pilgrims to the Tibetan Plateau in China, tourists regarded the 'do-it-yourself activities' and behaviours as an important element of the pilgrim. This resonates with previous assertions that tourism is an experiential product where some tourists engage in physical activities to experience the destination (Gilmore & Pine, 2002; Wang et al., 2020). Cognizant that tourists choose a destination to satisfy various motives, action/behavioural DBE play a vital role in meeting tourists' desire to escape, recovery and self-determination (Wang et al., 2020). Thus, action/behavioural DBE helps understand tourist's activities in the destination and its relation to sought destination experiences (Bond et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020). Furthermore, Ahn and Back (2018) stress that destination experiences should encourage customers to learn or practise new skills so that users can exercise and release stress. This finding concurs with previous studies that point to the role of the physical environment, in this study, Lake Malawi, in provoking tourist's action/behavioural responses to the destination experiences (Bustamante & Rubio, 2017).

The sixth factor of the DBE scale was termed perceptive/cognitive. According to Holt (1995), tourists attach understanding, interpretations and meaning to a product. This factor, according to Holt (1995), is responsible for consumers' evaluation and appreciation of an encounter.

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This result concurs with Brakus et al. (2009) and Holt's (1995) assertion that individuals learn or think when they encounter a brand such as a branded place (Beckham et al., 2013) and this can moderate their tiredness or boredom (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982) through pleasurable experiences that translate into the emotional meaning that tourists associate with a place (Lindstedt, 2011). Concerning sporting event experiences, cognitive experiences drive participants desire to win by perfecting their skills and dexterity (Weed & Bull, 2012). Although experiences are conceptualised as internal subjective experiences (Brakus et al., 2009; Khan & Rahman, 2015) the environment (destination activities, events, the social fabric) in which tourists find themselves are also responsible for their evaluation of destination experiences as well as that affect consumers' behavioural outcomes (Ahn & Back, 2018; Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Packer & Ballantyne, 2016; Walls et al., 2011). Accordingly, intellectual BE that entail stimulation of curiosity and problem solving (Barnes et al., 2014), affects consumers negatively because since the problem-solving process is less exciting (Nysveen et al., 2013).

6.3 DBEs and tourist satisfaction

The tested relationship between relational/social DBE and satisfaction was significant and it was the second strongest of all the DBEs. The results are comparable to Nysveen et al. (2013) who concluded that relational/social BEs are an important predictor of customer satisfaction. This affirms the assertion that people's desire to belong and love (Fournier, 1998; Schmitt, 1999b) and to expand themselves (Aron & Aron, 1996; Gentile et al., 2007) can lead to satisfaction. Agreeing with theories from psychology on peoples' need to belong (see Aron & Aron, 1996; Sağkal & Özdemir, 2020), this study finds that experiences enjoyed in a group lead to satisfaction. Given the importance of the relational/social DBE dimension in the current study, results echo So et al.'s (2013) proposition that emotions developed with humans are more intense than those developed with an object. So et al (2013) in agreement with Pawle and Cooper (2006), further state that

consumers' brand relationship is influenced by emotional factors. In a study by Lemon, Bengtson, and Peterson (1972), it was found that informal social activities done together with others lead to satisfaction. Additionally, these results resonate with Arnould and Price (1993) proposition that tourists seeking various experiences in natural environments such as white water rafting, three elements namely: communion with nature, personal growth and renewal of self as well as communitas with friends, family or strangers is a recipe for positive satisfaction with the destination. Since the lake destination allows people to interact through water-based sports, dining, shopping spaces and the local community, the shared experiences are likely to lead to satisfaction when tourists join parties and find a social identity and a sense of belonging through socialisation with people from their reference group (Andreini et al., 2018; Geus et al., 2016; Nordvall et al., 2014; Schmitt, 1999b).

The insignificant hypothesis 1b is akin Heintzman's (1999, 2002) studies where 44.5% of the campers indicated that spirituality neither added to nor reduced their satisfaction with the park experience whereas 2.7% said that spirituality reduced from their satisfaction with the camping experience in the park. The present results indicate that although tourists prefer a quiet place to unwind, this does not necessarily lead to satisfaction. However, this result is contrary to Esfahani et al. (2017) who found that spirituality among mountaineers led to satisfaction. Care, however, must be taken in interpreting this relationship as spirituality was not a DBE dimension in Esfahani et al.'s (2017) study. With some people deeming satisfaction to be more of affective than based on the quality of the experience (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Wu & Li, 2017), such results are expected. Lack of facilities as well as tourism programs that reflect spirituality along Lake Malawi to help tourists feel spiritually stronger and gain more spiritual benefits, is another explanation for this finding as materialists tend to be less satisfied (Roberts, Tsang, & Manolis, 2015; Solberg, Diener & Robinson, 2004). Results point towards insufficient development of beach tourism that takes into

account spiritual tourists' needs by offering them advanced tourism activities such as yoga and meditation places where tourists can be alone, find inner peace and beauty as they rekindle their spirituality (Stringer & McAvoy, 1992). Indeed, as found by Stringer and McAvoy (1992), tourists who were involved in canoeing exercises reported spiritual exercises that dwelt on social interactions and teamwork with other tourists whereas their counterparts who went hiking reported spiritual experiences emanating from appreciating the beauty of the local environment. Given that Lake Malawi combines both water and land activities, there is need to provide more spiritual-friendly zones where tourists can switch off from their everyday activities and the interpersonal world (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991) and participate in hedonistic experiences.

The tested relationship between expressive/emotional DBE and satisfaction was significant. The results support Barnes et al. (2014) and Bigné et al. (2005) who found that emotional experiences influence visitors' satisfaction. Indeed, Thomson et al. (2005) affirm that individuals that are emotionally attached to a brand are more likely to be satisfied with it. Results stress the importance of emotional attachment to a destination brand. Consistent with previous studies, emotional brand experiences is the desired component of a destination experience and they can determine post-consumption evaluations of the destination (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Thus, agreeing with Morrison and Crane (2007), the present study asserts that destination brands must differentiate themselves from others and create customer satisfaction through consumers' emotional experience with the service brands such as the destination of reference in this study. Similarly, the satisfaction with the brand could be a determinant for emotional attachment with the brand. The result of the present study can be attributed to the nature of a lake destination, which is different from a physical product or a service and generates more emotions in the diverse tourism destination environment.

Whereas as Barnes et al. (2014) found partial support for this relationship in all their three studies, the present study found that bodily/sensory DBE have a positive effect on tourists'

satisfaction. The relationship between bodily/sensory DBE and satisfaction also produced the strongest relationship. This relationship has also been established in previous studies (Iglesias et al., 2019; Nysveen et al., 2013), demonstrating that the sense element of the brand triggers peoples' reaction and satisfaction with the brand. As alluded to by Barnes et al. (2014) and Nysveen et al. (2013), visitors' destination evaluation and their satisfaction is mostly triggered by the sensory aspect such as the taste of food, the feel of sand beneath their feet, the beauty of architectural designs and the smell of the destination, among others. This result could be attributed to the nature of the destination under this study. For destination Lake Malawi, tourists are faced with golden sandy beaches, fish smells and fish is the main dish served in the restaurants. Furthermore, the lake views, which is the main attraction, coupled with water-based sports, sightings of the rare Fish Eagle, could be some of the reasons behind this result. Other studies have also argued that tourism experiences that stimulate the senses reach the heart and mind of tourists (Agapito et al., 2013; Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Schmitt, 1999b). Results of this study indicate the importance of providing multi-sensory experiences that are innovative, exciting and unique (Kao et al., 2008; Oh et al., 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999).

The insignificant effect of action/behavioural DBE on satisfaction validates Barnes et al (2014), Chiu et al.'s (2014) and Nysveen et al. (2013) studies. However, Esfahani et al. (2017) found that mountaineers were highly satisfied with the activities in Sabah. Esfahani et al. (2017) attributed satisfaction to the high-quality tourism products provided in the region. Similar results were recorded by Musa (2002) among divers in Sipadan. The results of the current study suggest that although tourists engage in various activities at the lake destination, they do not derive satisfaction from these activities. This either implies that the activities are not engaging enough or there is lack of stimulating activities (Kao et al., 2008; Pine & Gilmore, 2011), novelty (Hirschman, 1984) and quality (Loureiro, 2014; Parasuraman et al., 1994; Pizam, 2010) as found elsewhere

(Heide & Grønhaug, 2009; Skogland & Siguaw, 2004), facility attributes (in this case lake destination facilities) are highly correlated to satisfaction.

Although Bigné et al. (2005) indicated that perceptive/cognitive BE leads to satisfaction and Nysveen et al. (2013) found a negative relationship between the two, the present study found that there is no significant relationship between perceptive/cognitive DBE and satisfaction. Like Barnes et al. (2014), the cognitive element of brand experience did not lead to satisfaction in the current study and reveals that tourists did not want to exert a lot of mental effort when encountering a brand. Although some studies propose that cognitive experiences are vital in the conceptualisation and interpretation of all other experiences (Lazarus, 1991), the findings in the literature are varied. Going with Lazarus (1991) proposition, Ahn and Back (2018) argue that intellectual or cognitive perception of a brand is crucial in consumers' evaluation of the brand experiences. To the contrary, Barnes et al. (2014) and the present study did not establish that. In the present study, results point that engaging tourists in mental calculations while consuming the DBE would not lead to satisfaction. Being a developing nation, tourist facilities and infrastructure provision on both land and in the water is limited. This would be expected to pose some challenges to tourists interested in for example, engaging in water based activities and sports, which would eventually affect their consumption of the destination experience. For example, use of unlicensed boats, beaches without plastic mesh enclosures among others, would engage tourists in some critical decision making as they would be exposing themselves to some danger if they chose to ride the boats or swim in the water where there are likelihoods of encountering crocodiles or hippos (Wang, Liu-Lastres, Ritchie, & Pan, 2019). Thus, offering experiences that engage tourists' mental imagery and those that elicit memorable experiences need to be balanced as tasks that demand too much mental work is undesirable (Nysveen et al., 2013). Concurring with Nysveen et al.'s (2013) recommendation, a brand experience that requires customers to do a lot of thinking and problem solving negatively

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affects their cognitive or intellectual experience as it creates challenges for consumers to solve problems.

Overall as proposed by MacCannell (1973), where destination experiences are shallow or rather offer unauthentic experiences, tourists would not be satisfied with that destination. As echoed by Tung and Ritchie (2011), destinations must strive to balance tourists' needs and their (destination) performance. Indeed, for lake destinations that are adventuresome and activity-based such as swimming and sightseeing (Uysal, 2003), instrumental actions such as accessibility, accommodation, dining, fishing, boating, driving and communication services among others are core to tourists' satisfaction in outdoor recreation destinations such as Lake Malawi. Uysal (2003) states that instrumental actions should also be accompanied by expressive goals that bring out tourists' goals and subjective emotional rewards such as the pursuit of happiness or self-actualisation.

6.4. DBEs and pro-environmental behavioural intentions

Pro-environmental behavioural intention element incorporated in the study to find out tourists' possible support against various environmental threats that Lake Malawi is currently facing, including deforestation, excessive fishing, the introduction of alien fishes and plants such as Hyacinth (locally known as 'Namasipuni,') industrial pollution and the prospect of oil exploration in the lake which would cause the risk of oil spills (Beeton, 2002; Weyl et al., 2010). More importantly, there is fear that if the government goes ahead with the oil exploration programme, there could be loss of fishes as well as the risk of having Lake Malawi removed from the World Heritage list (Etter-Phoya, 2014; Mweninguwe, 2012) should there be the 'Gulf oil disaster'. Additionally, reports indicate that deforestation together with little rainfall in the country would affect lake water levels and consequently tourism activities and experiences. Again,

commercial ornamental fishing poses a risk of *Mbuna* cichlid fish degradation as the species are endemic to Lake Malawi; hence, its export needs to be regulated (ILEC, 2005).

The results of direct effect test indicated that only two DBE factors: (relational/social DBE and bodily/sensory DBE) have positive effects on tourist' pro-environmental intentions. The influence of relational/social DBE on PEB was positive and resonates with previous studies on DBEs although they did not use PEB as a DBE illustrative factor, they found that relational DBE had a direct effect on post-consumption intention of loyalty (Nysveen et al., 2013). This study's result point to the importance of the relational/social DBE factor in relation to pro-environmental behavioural intentions. For some tourists, social interactions and shared experiences during a tourism trip are responsible for the formation of their pro-environmental behaviours, confirming Graumann and Kruse' (1990) position that social contexts influence how people view the environment partly due to family influence on recreational activities and environmental attitudes.

The positive relationship results on the hypothesis that tested the effect of bodily/sensory DBE pro-environmental behavioural intentions corroborate with Clark, Mulgrew, Kannis-Dymand, Schaffer, and Hoberg's (2019) study which also found a positive connection between whale watching and PEB. On their part, Kastenholz, Carneiro, Marques, and Lima (2012) posit that multi-sensory elements of the rural and natural environment are an important aspect of tourist experiences in natural areas and need to be carefully included in the design of such experiences. Since this study did not individually specify which sensory DBEs had an effect of tourists' PEBs, a multi-sense bundling approach is useful (Agapito et al., 2013) in nature-based destinations such as Lake Malawi cognizant that no sense is dominant in determining tourists' destination brand experiences.

The insignificant effect of spiritual/psychic DBE on pro-environmental behavioural intentions is surprising because if individuals desire a quiet place to find personal meaning through travel, they would be expected to engage in activities that would keep the sanctity of those places.

Akin to the relational/social dimension discussed above, it would be expected that if tourists desire a quiet place where they could recollect, they would be willing to invest in or pay a premium price to maintain the maintain or upgrade their experiences at the destination (Thomson et al., 2005). In a study in Taiwan, Lee at al. (2015) found that escapism (recreation experience) was directly related to onsite as well as general pro-environmental behavioural intentions. Lee et al. (2015) argue that tourists who escape to natural places have a higher immersion with the environment and, thus, have greater environmental knowledge. The same could be expected of spiritual/psychic DBE seeking tourists. Thus, it would follow that spiritual/psychic DBE seeking tourists would be interested in PEB based on their environmental knowledge (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011) which would lead them to seek destinations with quality environments (Chiu et al., 2014) to meet their needs (Wan et al., 2015). From these results, tourists' lack of interest in pro-environmental behaviours despite going to the lake for spiritual experiences could be attributed to their lack of attachment to the place (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Cheng et al., 2013; Ramkissoon et al., 2012). According to Ramkissoon et al. (2013), where tourists are attached to the destination, they display pro-environmental behavioural intentions to preserve the place or destination. Ramkissoon et al.'s (2013), study revealed that tourists to national parks displayed positive pro-environmental behaviours because of how attached to the place they felt. Bowlby (1980) state that people develop attachment according to the beliefs about themselves and their world. Ramkissoon et al. (2013) found that place attachment predicted both low effort and high effort PEBs. Thus, the more people feel connected to the place, the more likely their intention to protect it (Ramkissoon et al., 2013). In this case, it was expected that tourists would show a positive emotional relationship to pro-environmental behaviours if they perceived or believed the environment to be beneficial to them. As attachment is known to last a lifetime, it could be inferred that tourists' would commit to a destination's environmental sustainability for a long-lasting relationship with it (Bowlby, 1980; Thomson et al., 2005). In the case of Lake Malawi

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which is a natural area destination and a part of it is a national park designated as a WHS, similar results to Ramkissoon et al. (2013) would be expected.

Expressive/emotional DBE did not have a positive effect on pro-environmental behavioural intention in this study. In their study regarding emotional experiences among wildlife watchers, Ballantyne et al. (2011a) found that emotional experiences led to deeper thoughts that translated into concern and respect for the environment and wildlife protection. Similarly, Lee et al. (2015) state that experiential engagement leads to pro-environmental behavioural intentions because of nature-based activities that arouse emotional experiences (whether positive or negative) that influence people's experiences with the environment as well as their pro-environmental behaviours. For Tsaur et al. (2007), emotion had a positive effect on visitors' behavioural intention. Studies indicate that people's emotional bond with the environment is a motivating factor to participate in PEB and could be out of guilt for their environmental mischiefs (Kaiser & Shimoda, 1999). For Bowlby (1980) and Schmitt (2013), it is a human desire to be emotionally attached to others or objects. For the results derived in this study, it could be hypothesized that the tourists felt indifferent because they could not bear the environmental problems at a personal level or because they had not encountered the problems themselves (Ballantyne et al., 2009; Loewenstein & Frederick, 1997). Research holds that if tourists do not see the destination putting in measures to reduce negative environmental impacts (Luo et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2015), nor see any threat to the environment because of lack of an inclination to do that (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Kil et al., 2014; Thapa, 2010; Wan et al. 2015), they would more likely not engage in positive environmental behaviours (Dolinar, 2010). According to Thomson et al. (2005) findings, consumers who are attached to a brand would be committed to the brand and be willing to invest in it by among other things engaging in PEB directly or indirectly (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Analogously, it could be deduced that tourists who are emotionally attached to a destination would be willing to invest or pay a premium price to

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access its experiences (Thomson et al., 2005). As Thomson et al. (2005) postulate, humans commit to an object if they perceive it to be irreplaceable. This is also echoed by Chiu et al. (2014), Luo et al. (2020) and Wan et al. (2015) who indicate that perceived value or benefit is a precursor to tourists' PEB in a destination. Nonetheless, this study found no relationship between DBEs and PEB.

Action/behavioural DBE did not have a positive effect on PEB intention in this study. This result is contrary to Chiu et al. (2014) who found support for activity engagement and pro-environmental intentions. They argue that activity engagement coupled with satisfaction promote tourists' concern for the environment and consequently, strengthens tourists' desire to act responsibly. In her study on identifying tourists with smaller environmental footprints, Dolnicar (2010) found that membership to an environmental friendly segment was a predictor of tourist pro-environmental behaviours during a vacation. Although this variable (membership to an environmental friendly segment) and moral obligation were not tested in this thesis, being a member of an environmentally friendly organisation keeps subscribers in motion and would be expected to conform to the group's norms whether in a usual environmental or on a vacation. Of recent, an illustration could be drawn from Greta Thunberg, a young Swedish environmentalist who has taken it upon herself and her family to reduce carbon footprints by among others, not using air travel, being vegans and up-cycling (Jung, Petkanic, Nan, & Kim, 2020).

Lastly, perceptive/cognitive DBE did not yield a positive impact on PEB intentions in this study. This is in line with Lee et al.'s (2015) finding that educational experiences do not lead to general pro-environmental behavioural intentions but leads to on-site pro-environmental behavioural intentions. As proposed by Ballantyne et al. (2011a) and Lee et al. (2015), educating tourists about ecosystems is a vital step towards sustainable destinations as some of them may not aware of the adverse effects of their behaviours on the environment (Ballantyne & Packer 2011;

Luo et al., 2020). Since cognitive experiences require tourists' use of their brainpower, it is unsurprising that it does not lead to pro-environmental behaviours as this could affect their enjoyment while on vacation (Fairweather et al., 2005). Han (2015) and Li and Wu (2019) indicate that tourists involvement in PEB is a reasoned choice and it involves weighing the pros and cons of such an involvement in terms of social status, effort, and money, among others. Other studies also state that tourists' pro-environmental behaviours are different at home and during vacations when they seem not to care much about the environment (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008) and hence tourists' moral obligation has an impact on their pro-environmental behaviours in a destination (Kil et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2020). Thus, it would be assumed that tourists do not want to think more about what they are doing in the destination (whether detrimental to the environment or not) as this could spoil their holidays. Furthermore, if the destination does not regulate pro-environmental behaviours (Juvan & Dolnicar, 2016; Luo et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2015), tourists are less likely to mind the environment reflecting their norms on PEB (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008; Dolnicar, 2010; Kil et al., 2014; Mehmetoglu, 2010). In the case of a destination where tourists do not perceive that their actions are detrimental to the environment, they may present no intent to work on their behaviours while on a vacation (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008; Stern, 2000; Mehmetoglu, 2010).

6.5 DBE, satisfaction and PEB intentions

Validating previous studies (Ballantyne et al., 2011a, 2011b; Ballantyne & Packer, 2011; Bigné et al., 2005; Chiu et al., 2014; Ramkissoon et al., 2013a), the results of the current study showed that satisfaction with Lake Malawi DBEs leads to a strong desire among tourists to participate in high-effort PEB. In the same vein, Stedman (2002) discovered that visitors' low satisfaction levels led to environmental protection behaviours. To the contrary, the current findings are different from Ramkissoon et al.'s (2013b, 2013c) studies that found no relationship between satisfaction and high-effort PEB but there was a link between satisfaction and low-effort PEB.

Although some research document different results on the connection between satisfaction and PEB (Ramkissoon et al., 2012; Ramkissoon et al., 2013b, 2013c; Stedman, 2002), this study reiterates the view that satisfaction leads to high-effort pro-environmental behaviours (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011; Ramkissoon et al., 2013a,). High-effort pro-environmental behaviours constitute collective actions like attending public meetings to protect the destination's resources unlike low-effort PEB, which are more individualistic (e.g. reduce the use of a spot in a park if it needs to recover from environmental damage) according to Ramkissoon et al. (2012).

Regarding the mediation role of satisfaction, Barnes et al. (2014) found relationships between all the four DDE variables (sensory, affective, cognitive and behavioural) and intentions to revisit and to recommend, but sensory BE had the strongest effect size. In this study, however, we identified no salient role of satisfaction in mediating the relationships between perceptive/cognitive DBE and PEB, action/behavioural DBE and PEB and spiritual/psychic DBE and PEB. Satisfaction fully mediates the relationships between expressive/emotional DBE and PEB and between relational/social DBE and PEB. For bodily/sensory DBE and PEB, partial mediation was observed. For water or beach-based destinations such as Lake Malawi, tourist groups are a common sight where they share the same resources such as the beach, swimming pools, bars and restaurants. It is envisaged that these communities could lead to greater achievement of DBEs and satisfaction (Aaron & Aaron, 1996; Arnould & Price, 1993; Lemon et al., 1972; Pawle & Cooper, 2006) through group cohesion or which would potentially lead to PEB (Dolnicar, 2010). The overarching influence of bodily/sensory DBE over the other DBE components provides an important discussion point in the DBE literature concerning satisfaction and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. In this study, bodily/sensory DBE was found to be a significant DBE factor unlike in some studies where emotional and cognitive experiences were found to be significant influencers of satisfaction and future intention (Bigné et al., 2005). Furthermore, where sensory

DBE is induced through various water-based activities, sensory DBE is to be achieved as also found by Barnes et al. (2014). Thus, satisfaction is an important element for promoting pro-environmental behaviours among visitors at a destination as action/behavioural and perceptive/cognitive DBE do not directly lead to PEB intentions on their own. Regarding the partial mediation role of satisfaction in the relationship between bodily/sensory and PEB intention, the reasoning posited by Agapito et al. (2013), Brakus et al. (2009) that sensory experiences are very important BE than the other three (based on Brakus et al., 2009 scale) holds. Just as Agapito et al. (2013) stressed the need for multi-sensory experiences to achieve tourist satisfaction, loyalty and other post-consumption consequences, Kastenholz et al. (2012) also posit that multi-sensory tourist elements, in this study bodily/sensory DBEs, are more related to rurality as was the case in this study. Indeed, Pan & Ryan (2009) singled out multi-sensory elements of hearing, touch and smell as being important to tourists' enjoyment of rural areas than urban environments. Therefore, it is unsurprising that bodily/sensory DBE was partially mediated by satisfaction at Lake Malawi destination where multiple senses play a role in tourist appreciation of the destinations BE. As indicated in the literature, satisfied tourists are more likely to engage in positive behavioural intentions (Bigné et al., 2005; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Ramkissoon et al., 2013a) such as pro-environmental behaviours.

6.6 Comparison of means between domestic and international tourists across DBE dimensions

The findings revealed that domestic and international tourists varied significantly in their evaluation of the DBEs mainly across relational/social, expressive/emotional, bodily /sensory and perceptive/cognitive DBE where significant results were obtained. Although statistical mean differences were observed in four of the six DBE domains, results indicate that for domestic tourists, bodily/sensory DBEs was a highly ranked DBE as evidenced by its high mean score, unlike the

other three domains which were also significant. On the other hand, international tourists highly rated expressive/emotional DBE over the other three significant means differences.

Concurring with previous research (Huang et al., 1996; Kozak, 2002), the present study demonstrates that tourists' evaluation of destination attributes as well as tourist activities can vary based on tourist state as either domestic or international. The results showed that both international and domestic tourists highly scored expressive/emotional and bodily/sensory DBE respectively whereas the insignificant spiritual/psychic DBE had a low score for both groups. However, international tourists evaluated expressive/emotional DBE more positively while domestic tourists evaluated bodily/sensory DBE more positively. Consistent with the work of Yuksel, Yuksel, and Bilim (2010), the current study found that tourists' attachment to a destination could affect how tourists feel, think or evaluate a destination's attributes. International tourists showed a sense of place or emotional DBE attachment that could lead to positive future behavioural intentions such as loyalty towards Lake Malawi (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). These results are in line with Tung and Ritchie's (2011) assertion that emotions are vital for memorable destination experiences. Thus, Lake Malawi destination attributes and experiences connect international tourists to their self-concept (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Yuksel et al., 2010) as they visit the lake and surrounding places for relaxation and to identify with the lake's attributes. For the local tourists, it can be hypothesized that their familiarity with Lake Malawi is responsible for their place attachment (Goodrich, 1978). As seen from the descriptive statistics, some locals and international tourists had been to the lake for more than 40 times making experiential familiarity a reason for the emotional attachment to the lake destination (Tan & Wu, 2016) which positively influences visit intentions (Tan & Wu, 2016; Tsai, 2012). Although not much is known about the relationship between local tourists and place attachment, repeat visits to a destination lead to a sense of home and this is true for both local and international tourists (Chubchuwong & Speece, 2016; Tsai, 2012).

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Furthermore, although action/behavioural DBE had no significant mean difference between the two groups, international tourists had a higher mean score than domestic tourists. This demonstrates that international tourists engage in more action water-based activities than their domestic counterparts. Given than most water-based sporting activities such as scuba diving, kayaking, snorkelling and boating are more targeted at the international clientele, it is unsurprising that international tourists highly scored these items which characterise an outdoor recreation destination (Uysal, 2003). For the perceptive/cognitive destination brand experience which had no significant mean difference, locals ranked the domain higher as compared to their international counterparts. For most international tourists, they may probably have been to other destinations more demanding than Lake Malawi and, hence, did not find Lake Malawi challenging as it lacked novelty (Goodrich, 1978).

6.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented a discussion of the findings of the study outlined in Chapter 5. It also situated the findings within the extant literature to demonstrate the relationship between this study and existing studies as well as provide a clear understanding of the results. The next chapter is the conclusion of the thesis and presents both the academic and practical implications of the study, recommendations for further studies as well as limitations of this thesis.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

"Once we know something, we find it hard to imagine what it was like not to know it" (Heath &

Heath, 2008)

7.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the study that was set out to answer two main research questions: 1) what are the destination brand experiences of Lake Malawi? 2) What are the relationships among DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours? To respond to these questions, five objectives were outlined: a) to develop and validate a destination brand experience scale, b) to evaluate the relationships between DBEs and satisfaction, c) to examine the association between DBE and PEB, d) to examine the mediating influence of satisfaction on the relationship between DBE and pro-environmental behavioural intentions, and e) to explore the moderating role of domestic or international tourists' status on their evaluation of DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behavioural intentions. This chapter outlines how the research objectives were achieved, the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for future research.

7.2 Study overview

Destination band experiences are an important element for destination management organisation as they strive to make their destination different from the competition. Given that almost all tourist products can be imitated, destination branding becomes an important tool that sets destinations apart. Although Brakus et al. (2009) proposed a brand experience scale, its usability has been limited to in-store products with mixed findings when applied to destination areas. The inconsistent findings were mainly between the relationship between BE and satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013). Mindful that destinations are an amalgam of both products and services and that makes the destination complex and different from consumer products (destinations

pose a challenge given the complexity of different destinations (Cai, 2002), the primary aim of this study was to develop and validate a destination brand experience scale with Lake Malawi being a case study destination. In the wake of environmental concerns due to tourists' activities as well as global warming and climate change, the study analysed the relationships among DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours, a gap that was yet to be filled. To address this aim, the study had five objectives: a) to conceptualise and validate a destination brand experience scale, b) to evaluate the association between DBE and tourist satisfaction, c) to investigate the relationship between DBE and tourist PEB, d) to examine the mediating power of tourist satisfaction on the association between DBE and tourist PEB, and e) to explore the moderating role of domestic or international tourists' status on their evaluation of DBE, tourist satisfaction and PEB. A multi-stage procedure which involved a mixed-method approach was taken to implement this project. First, a literature review was done to identify items that could be used to measure a DBE. From this exercise, a total of 96 items bordering on DBEs were identified. Second, in-depth interviews were carried out with international tourists, tourism operators, tourism officials and local tourists. From this exercise, 58 items were generated. Third, experts in the field of tourism were invited to judge the generated items as well as the suggested domains. On a scale of 1 (not representative) to 3 (very representative), they were asked to rate the items based on clarity and relevance. At the end of this exercise, some items were either merged or deleted and a total of 54 remained. A questionnaire with items on DBE, satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours was piloted at Lake Malawi. Results of the study indicated that DBE could be measured using six dimensions namely: Relational/social, spiritual/psychic, expressive/emotional, action/behavioural, perceptive/cognitive and bodily/sensory. After this analysis, the main survey was conducted at Lake Malawi from May to August 2019. A total of 670 useable questionnaires were collected. An EFA with varimax rotation was performed on the first half of the data (N=335) to extract the underlying dimension of

the DBE, which answers the first objective of the study. Results of this analysis were consistent with the pilot study results. Six domains were extracted namely: Relational/social, spiritual/psychic, expressive/emotional, action/behavioural, perceptive/cognitive and bodily/sensory. Altogether, the six constructs accounted for 64.44% of the variance explained and comprised 23 items. Cronbach's alpha reliability of each extracted dimension as greater than 0.70 thus indicating internal consistency. The relational/social DBE had five items and entails tourist's desire to experience the destination together with other tourists and local people. The spiritual/psychic DBE domain relates to tourist desire to escape to quiet places to recollect and unwind as they connect with nature. The relational/social DBE deals with tourists' experiences as they interact with other tourists, service providers as well as the local communities in the destination during consumption of the destinations' products and services. The action/behavioural DBE is concerned with tourists' behaviours and actions upon interacting with the destination brand. The expressive/emotional DBE dimension entails tourist emotions, feelings and sentiments as they consume the destination brand. The bodily/sensory DBE is about tourists' use of their multi-senses when interacting with the destination whereas the perceptive/cognitive DBE represents tourists' use of their reasoning power, problem-solving and curiosity as they engage with the destination brand.

Following this stage, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on the other half of the data (N=335), and the six extracted factors were confirmed and had reliable goodness of fit indices such as Normed chi-square, CFI, TLI, GFI, RMSEA, P-close. The factors also had good CR and AVE for discriminant and convergent validity respectively. To test the hypotheses of the study and answering objectives two, three, four and five, modelling using AMOS was done. Of the six DBE factors, relational/social DBE, expressive/emotional DBE and bodily/sensory DBE had a direct effect on satisfaction whereas the other three (spiritual/psychic DBE, action/behavioural DBE and perceptive/cognitive DBE) were not significant. Satisfaction was also found to be positively

related to pro-environmental behaviours. For the direct relationship between DBEs and pro-environmental behaviours, only relational/social DBE and bodily/sensory DBE were significant. Using bootstrapping mediation method, we found that satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between bodily/sensory DBE and PEB and satisfaction fully mediated the relationships between expressive/emotional DBE and PEB and between relational/social DBE and PEB. Finally, for the relationships between perceptive/cognitive DBE and PEB, action/behavioural DBE and PEB and spiritual/psychic DBE and PEB, no mediation effect was found. Differences were also observed between Malawian and international tourists. Domestic/international tourists' status moderated two DBEs (relational/social and bodily/sensory DBE and pro-environmental behaviours) for the Malawian group and none for the international group

7.3 Contribution to knowledge

Despite the conceptualization of BE by Brakus et al. (2009) which has been widely used in different sectors including marketing, technology, banking, e-commerce and tourism, a gap still existed in the conceptualisation of destination brand experience from a destination perspective (Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2010; Khan & Rahman, 2015; Zhang et al., 2020). Furthermore, need arose to link the DBE scale to destination-specific experience outcomes such as pro-environmental behaviours cognisant that tourists are capable of destroying the very assets that attract them (Wu et al., 2020). Such being the case, this study provides several implications for knowledge and academia.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge of brand experiences. Building on previous brand experience studies and integrating concepts of general tourism experiences, this study developed a first-order, six-factor DBE measurement scale. Hence, the study deepens our understanding of brand experiences by extending and refining the existing variables in the literature from four to six: relational/social, spiritual/psychic, expressive/emotional, bodily/sensory

action/behavioural and perceptive/cognitive DBE. Essentially, the study highlights the DBE-related items that can be accurately used to measure tourists' DBEs, thereby offering valuable insights to researchers and academics on destination brand experiences. By introducing a new factor (spiritual/psychic DBE) the study had extended the conceptualisation of brand experiences from the product orientation to a destination orientation. Resonating with previous scholars on rural tourism (S. Kaplan, 1995; Kastenholz, 2000; Sharpley & Jepson, 2011), the spiritual/psychic DBE dimension underscores the importance of mental and body renewal needs of tourist who escape to natural environments such as lakes, forests and mountain destinations. This is different from a product-oriented BE scale which did not factor in the need for spiritual connectedness with the product, which is mostly utilitarian. Wehrli et al. (2017) state that utilitarian products mostly emphasise product attributes factual information and describe product benefits.

The study has demonstrated the importance of relational/social DBE, a component whose importance Brakus et al.'s (2009) study did not establish. Although Nysveen et al. (2013) validated the importance of relational brand experience dimension in service brands such as mobile, television and broadband services, the construct was not ranked first. Also, their study used three items, including how consumers feel about belonging to a community, how they feel about being part of a family and how they feel about being alone. The current study, however, used five significant items that succinctly described the relational/social attributes people expect at a destination. This makes the current study one of the first studies to demonstrate the importance of the relational/social construct in a tourism destination; even the more as this construct was found in the current study to be the most important brand experience. This study found that relational/social and spiritual/psychic experiences are very important at a lake destination, unlike previous studies that identified sensory DBEs as the most important. Given the differences between products and destinations, this study advances the understanding that destination brand experiences

vary from tourist to tourist depending on their preferred destinations and engagement in various activities. For example, tourists engaged in spiritual or retreat tourism activities might either need social isolation to concentrate on meditation or they might need the presence of other people for group retreat activities (Gill et al., 2019).

Unlike other studies that only focussed on loyalty/revisit intentions, recommendations and word of mouth as future intentions, this study has shown the importance of considering the destination environment as a future behavioural intention in the wake of vast environmental concerns (Wu et al., 2020). Thus, this study contributes to an understanding of the relationship between DBEs and sustainability through pro-environmental behaviours. By investigating the relationship between DBE and pro-environmental behaviours, this study extends the conceptualisation of DBE and its predictive ability on dependent variables beyond satisfaction, brand equity and loyalty. Importantly, this study has highlighted the importance of relational/social DBE in tourists' pro-environmental behavioural intentions at a lake destination, followed by bodily/sensory DBE. And it has responded to Agapito et al.'s (2013) call for studies to address the underexplored tourist sensory experiences in the rural environment, which Kastenholz et al. (2012) agree plays a crucial role in stimulating various tourists' senses. Additionally, this study has shown the uniqueness of applying DBE to a lake destination and linking the experiences to pro-environmental behaviours, a practice that is missing in literature. Thus, the results of this study contribute to an understanding of tourism experiences in marine environments, especially freshwater environments such as Lake Malawi which are currently facing environmental threats. The study's results also beam light on how freshwater lake destinations can provide DBEs as many lakes are saline in the world (Cooper, 2006), and how these destinations can sustain the experiences by engaging tourists in pro-environmental behaviours. Moreover, for the few studies that have investigated pro-environmental behaviours in relation to tourism experiences, none used DBE as

an antecedent variable. For example, Ballantyne et al. (2011a) used recreation experience and Ballantyne et al. (2011b) used visitor learning.

The study has shed more light on the relationship between DBE domains and satisfaction. In agreement with Nysveen et al. (2013) and Barnes et al. (2014), this study affirms the importance of sensory brand experiences to visitors' satisfaction with a destination. Indeed, the sense element of the destination brand triggers peoples' reactions and satisfaction with the destination brand. Although satisfaction is a prerequisite for behavioural intentions, this study has shown that not all DBE lead to satisfaction. Indeed, the study contributes to DBE scholarship by demonstrating that relational/social DBE relates to tourist satisfaction with the destination, agreeing with theories from psychology on peoples' need to belong (see Aron & Aron, 1996). This study is a step towards the conceptualisation of DBEs and satisfaction. Consistent with previous studies, the study demonstrates that emotional brand experiences are the desired component of a destination experience and they can determine post-consumption evaluations of the destination (Pike & Ryan, 2004). Again, this study gives us an understanding of the importance of the relationship between cognitive/perceptual DBE and satisfaction which is less studied in the literature. Concurring with Nysveen et al.'s (2013) conclusion, a brand experience that requires customers to do a lot of thinking and problem solving negatively affects their cognitive or intellectual experience as it creates challenges for consumers to solve problems. Although some studies propose that cognitive experiences are vital in the conceptualisation and interpretation of all other experiences (Lazarus, 1991), the findings in the literature are varied. For instance, Ahn and Back (2018) argue that intellectual or cognitive perception of a brand is crucial in consumers' evaluation of the brand experiences; however, Barnes et al. (2014) and the present study found quite the opposite.

Furthermore, the study contributes to our understanding of tourist evaluation of the destination brand experience based on their nationality. While it would be expected that locals

would be more emotionally attached to their destination, the results surprisingly indicate that international tourists were more interested in expressive/emotional DBE than the other five DBEs. As Kozak (2002) posits, international tourists are likely to be interested in culture and nature-based tourism activities that make them feel at home and attached to a destination. Moreover, when destinations provide outstanding outdoor recreation experiences, tourists derive emotional experiences which are an indication of their internal emotional state (Uysal, 2003).

7.4 Implications to practice and management

This study offers valuable insights into destination marketing organisations on how to develop and market their destination brand experiences. Given that nearly every product can be imitated, it is vital for each destination to explicitly market its core DBEs to tourists who are always looking for new experiences. Hence, the present study's identification of DBEs drawn from and validated in a destination context can help DMOs to identify products and services that can support these new experiences. By promoting a destination's BE, DMOs could work towards delivering the brand promise to the tourists for enhanced tourist-brand relationships such as repeat visits (Brakus et al., 2009; Iglesias et al, 2011). For example, the study has revealed the importance of relational/social DBE among both international and domestic tourists. Accordingly, DMOs in collaboration with the private sector need to design activities and experiences that promote friendships among tourists to maximise this desired experience. Given the assumption that people tend to be individualistic, destinations can 'exploit' this by creating opportunities for people to meet and interact. Thus, the DMO can strategically market Lake Malawi, for example, as a place where people could meet and make long-lasting friendships. Furthermore, destinations need to develop experiences that stimulate tourists' affection, their senses as well as their social relationships since these were found to lead to satisfaction and give an indication of tourists' future intentions. Such experiences are likely to lead to satisfaction and long-term impressions on the visitor's memory, as

the relationships and experiences would be meaningful to the tourists and could shape their normal lifestyles or 'vacation lifestyle'. DMOs, through collaboration with various destination service providers, are encouraged to provide facilities and services that promote this DBE through various touchpoints (Baker, 2007), which is the most sought-after experience at the lake. Tour operators in Malawi can also arrange village tours for tourists- this can foster closer relationships between tourists and the local people and promote healthy social exchanges. Furthermore, the Tourism Department in Malawi should consider designating and developing public beaches where people can access quality services at an affordable rate without necessarily being in-house guests.

Regarding expressive/emotional DBE, a lesson goes to DMOs to strive to make tourists identify with the places or attractions they visit as this can have a direct link to their emotions. As the study has demonstrated, emotional DBEs led to satisfaction; hence, DMOs should strive to create and maintain emotional DBEs for an intimate relationship between the customers and the destination. With specific reference to Lake Malawi, the DMO could consider engaging operators to design holiday packages commensurate with locals' earning power, cognizant that most respondents were locals who cannot afford the exorbitant prices currently being charged by operators. Another way of fostering emotional destination experience is to offer boat rides to significant islands in Lake Malawi, bird watching spots as well as cichlid fish spots at an affordable price. A new version of "Tidziyamba ndife a Malawi", a media program that highlighted touristic areas in Malawi and encouraged Malawians to travel locally, would also be useful. Furthermore, destination planners need to understand their destination attributes and regulate the enhancement of quality tourist experiences that can influence tourists' emotional attachment to and evaluation of a destination. Considering that a destination experience is part and parcel of a destination image (Pike & Ryan, 2004), tourists' desire for an emotionally positive destination experience which affects their choice of a destination besides the cognitive benefit of a destination image formulation,

must be well managed. In this regard, to build a long-lasting emotional tie with tourists, destination Malawi can capitalise on its internationally recognised activities such as Lake of Stars Music Festival, Lake Malawi Yachting Marathon, Sand Music Festival, Cape Maclear Triathlon and Likoma Island Festival among others, which are exclusive to Lake Malawi destination. Given that these events involve active tourist engagement; they can contribute to tourists' emotional identification with the experiences (Andreini et al., 2018; Pine & Gilmore, 2009).

Concerning action/behavioural DBE, results indicate that tourists desire to engage in physical activities at Lake Malawi but lack of quality water-based tourism products, services and facilities can prevent this from happening (MacCannell, 1973). Thus, there is need for the DMO in Malawi to collaborate with the private sector to provide water-based activities that can engage the attention of tourists as 'prosumers' in leisurely brand experience consumption and give them a 'wow effect' (Kao et al., 2008; Nilsen & Dale, 2013; Sundbo, 2009) and an engaging experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

Regarding perceptive/cognitive DBE, tourists are likely to ponder their decision before participating in water activities at Lake Malawi – this is common with lake destinations given the risk associated with such destinations (Ahn & Back, 2018; Brakus et al., 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013). Therefore, the DMO should ensure the safety of tourists at the beach by providing divers and lifeguards, a practice that is currently non-existent. Furthermore, the DMOs need to actively promote Lake Malawi as a safe destination to counter the negative publicity (e.g. the presence of crocodiles and contracting bilharzia) given to the lake since the negative publicity is likely to make tourists think hard before engaging in any water activities at the lake. In this vein, the DMO needs to have an active social media presence that they can use to address rumours and/or reports that can adversely affect the image of the destination. By using social media, the DMO can also engage and influence younger and prospective tourists' perception and evaluation of Lake Malawi, a segment

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that represents most visitors to the lake, thereby enhancing customer-brand relationship (Ahn & Back, 2018). Thus, the DMO should recognise the importance of the perceptive/cognitive DBE dimension as this could have an impact on the conceptualisation and interpretation of all other destination brand experiences (Ahn & Back, 2018; Lazarus, 1991). In sum, DMOs should provide brand experiences that engage tourists and gives them satisfaction as it indirectly influences responsible behaviours. For DMOSs like Malawi, there is a need to capitalise on the DBEs that lead to satisfaction in its positioning strategy. If the destination promotes DBEs that lead to satisfaction in its marketing campaigns, Lake Malawi is likely to gain a competitive advantage over other competing destinations.

Since not all people who visit ecological places such as lakes have positive environmental behaviours or norms (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2008; Dolnicar, 2010; Kil et al., 2014; Mehmetoglu, 2010), DMOs need to consider environmental education for such tourists as studies indicate that knowledge about environmental problems leads to environmental concern (Chiu et al., 2014). In a bid to reduce negative environmental impacts, the study has revealed the need to increase nature-based information to visitors of Lake Malawi on the importance of pro-environmental behaviours. In agreement with Ballantyne and Packer (2011) and Chiu et al. (2014), the current study submits that destinations should strongly engage tourists in transformative learning or on-site knowledge about sustainability for long-term impacts as research suggests that most nature-based tourism experiences fall short in delivering convincing conservation messages (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011). To achieve this, there is a need for DMOs to use technology (see Boomsma, Pahl, & Andrade, 2016) for lasting mental imagery and cognitive experiences. Given that Lake Malawi is also being threatened by debris from surrounding communities as well as lake users, it is high time lodge owners increased awareness about caring for the environment. As research also indicates that some tourists will conform to destinations PEB policies (Luo et al., 2020; Wan et al., 2015), destinations

need to adopt strict policies and regulations on the environment. Given that in this study only relational/social and bodily/sensory DBEs had a positive relationship with pro-environmental behavioural intentions, DMOs need to ensure that other dimensions of the destination brand experience also contribute to pro-environmental behavioural intentions. For example, Tsaur et al. (2007) found that emotions had a positive effect on visitors' behavioural intentions, hence the need to explore how best DMOs can provide experiences that lead to the preferred pro-environmental behavioural intentions. Additionally, the DMO should create positive expressive/emotional/experiences of the lake destination for the target markets to realise or reinforce the attractiveness of Lake Malawi (San Martin & del Bosque, 2008). The DMO can also look into the possibility of engaging tourists and potential tourists on the need to engage in pro-environmental behavioural intentions through social media. Noting that the problems facing Lake Malawi could be curtailed if different stakeholders were involved, the DMO should be proactive in promoting the destination while at the same time communicating a message of intent to save the lake through various desirable tourists' pro-environmental behavioural intentions.

Last, there is a need for the Malawi DMO to strengthen expressive/emotional destination experiences to attract more international tourists. By providing services and activities that evoke positive feelings, Lake Malawi is likely to become a 'must-go-to destination' for international tourists who, according to this thesis, highly scored expressive/emotional attributes. Also, more village tours and social activities for tourists must be introduced at Lake Malawi to consolidate the emotional and social experiences the lake provides. Such activities can be used to demonstrate the uniqueness of Lake Malawi and its people, which could build up more expressive/emotional and action/behavioural destination brand experiences for international tourists. Furthermore, the local DMO should collaborate with the national DMO to project Malawi as an emotional and action-based destination in their international marketing campaigns. For local tourists, the DMO should

emphasise on bodily/sensory destination experiences that stimulate their five senses as they engage in activities at the lake. The DMO should also ensure that the lake and its surrounding environment is clean and beautiful as this dimension was highly scored by domestic tourists. Moreover, the DMO at Lake Malawi should focus on developing and managing shared tourists' spaces that can promote relational/social experience for locals in line with their Ubuntu philosophy, which underscores the importance of bonding with other people (Hidago & Hernandez, 2001).

7.5 Study limitations and future research suggestions

The first limitation of the study is that the collection of data was limited to three data collection points along Lake Malawi even though the lake stretches across seven districts. Furthermore, although the main data collection involved a large sample (N=670), data were collected in three lakeshore districts only and we could have missed tourists who had already been to the lake but were in other cities. Therefore, further research needs to be conducted on a bigger scale capturing several Lake Malawi destinations. To corroborate or repudiate the findings and relationships established in this study, similar studies should also be done in other tourism destinations.

Sampling is a very critical element in any research where the chosen sample units should be representative of the general population. Although United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2018) indicate that tourism is predominantly domestic in many countries with domestic tourism trips (9 billion) outdoing international arrivals by six times, there is need to balance domestic and international tourist sample of respondents. Since this study recruited more domestic tourist respondents as compared to international tourists, this could lead to bias in terms of the interpretation of destination brand experience results. Thus, this presents a second limitation of the study.

The third limitation relates to the sampling approach used in the research. Convenience sampling was considered more appropriate owing to the unknown population of Lake Malawi tourists. Despite the bias of convenience sampling and its lack of representativeness, which can reduce the generalisation power of the findings, it was the best way to collect data in the context of the present study where there is an unknown number of tourists. To mitigate this challenge, a large amount of data were collected. Future studies could consider using probability sampling methods.

The measurement of pro-environmental behavioural intentions is yet another limitation. Although this variable was divided into low-effort and high-effort, low-effort item component was not used for further analysis due to its low reliability. Therefore, it is suggested that better and multi-dimensional measures of pro-environmental behavioural intentions be developed in future studies. Future research can also transcend pro-environmental behavioural intentions to consider other environmentally responsible behaviours such as civil action, education, activist behaviour or persuasive action. Furthermore, future studies could consider testing other antecedents of pro-environmental behaviours such as place attachment (Ballantyne et al., 2011a, 2011b; Buonincontri et al., 2017; Ramkissoon et al., 2013b), environmental concern (Chiu et al., 2014; Cottrell & Graefe, 1997), recreation experience (Lee et al., 2015), perceived value (Chiu et al., 2014), and service quality (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011; Coghlan, 2012) in terms of how they relate to the DBE scale. Furthermore, this study used pro-environmental behavioural intentions and not actual behaviours. Although behavioural intentions are used to predict actual behaviour, future research should consider measuring actual behaviours of tourists at a destination. Deliberate efforts should also be made to compare tourist pro-environmental behaviours at home and in a destination and how that affects their experience of the destination.

This study used modelling to test the relationships among the constructs. Future studies could consider using other data analysis methods such as regressions, ANOVA, and t-tests. For

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example, Ramkissoon et al. (2013a) used both multiple regression and SEM and found different results on the relationships between place identity and satisfaction, place social bonding and low-effort PEB. Similar analyses on the relationships between DBE dimensions and satisfaction as well as DBE and PEB are recommended. Multiple regressions could be conducted to test relationships between DBEs and satisfaction, DBES and pro-environmental behaviours and t-test could be done to test differences in satisfaction or pro-environmental behavioural intentions between domestic and international tourist groups.

7.6 Areas for further studies

Although spirituality is an "essential nature of human being, their strength of purpose, perception, mental powers and frame of the mind" (Fisher, 2011, p.18), having this attribute at a destination does not necessarily satisfy tourists. Theoretically, researchers need to further examine this relationship and the antecedent motivational factors, which could perhaps impact on this relationship. Furthermore, research into the requirements of spiritual/psychic driven tourists who desire a stable mindset through perception in a serene environment (Esfahani et al., 2017) is required, as this has a direct impact on their revisit intention (Yoon & Uysal, 2000).

Relational/ social DBE was found to be the strongest factor of the DBE scale. The dimension has shown positive relationships with satisfaction as well as pro-environmental behaviours. Nonetheless, for tourism research which has barely investigated this DBE dimension, more research needs to be done to understand the relational/social DBE domain. Since some studies have only focussed on some DBE dimensions such as emotional DBE (Morrison & Crane, 2007), sensory (Hultén, 2011), other studies need to be conducted for the relational/social DBE other than testing social or tour groups as moderating factors to understand its interplay with other variables such as brand love, brand trust and word of mouth as consequences of the brand experience.

Lastly, results of this study show that satisfaction with DBE leads to high-effort pro-environmental behaviours which constitute collective actions like attending public meetings to protect the destination's resources unlike the individualistic low-effort PEB (e.g. reduce the use of a spot in a park if it needs to recover from environmental damage). These results are different from those arrived at by Ramkissoon et al. (2013b, 2013c). The disparity in the findings of the current study and the findings of previous studies is fertile ground for further research.

7.7 Personal reflections

Looking back to the three years I spent at SHTM, I can only gaze in wonder as to how I survived the scorching academic heat of the place. Those three years are the most critical and most memorable years of my life in many ways. First, SHTM made me realise how small I am in academic circles. I will always cherish those peer meetings, seminars and silent competitions that helped me to be who I am now.

This place enabled me to come out of my shell and meet the giants of the industry both in class and in research. These three years opened my deep understanding of what research is all about. SHTM groomed me from a scratch to conceptualise research methodology. As someone who thought and believed that I was cut for qualitative research, SHTM unearthed the potential of my quantitative skills. Research idea and gap conceptualisation was another thing I will always remember when I reflect upon my PhD journey. As my supervisor will allude to, it was not easy to shape and define the research gap owing to my poor research background. As I had to juggle classes, teaching workload, research proposal writing and socialising, research gap conceptualisation was the most tormenting part of the journey. This could also be true to most students at SHTM.

Furthermore, being in an Asian setting where students always want to attain good grades and do not show if they are equally struggling, having problems in statistics and quantitative classes

were the most painful experiences ever. But here I am, I have learnt and unlearnt several times for the perfection of my research concept. I have also mastered the basics of both qualitative and quantitative research methods. SHTM exposed me to conference paper writing, journal article writing a well as paper reviewing and critiquing thereby building up research skills I never had before joining the school. I am proud to have passed through this fire for my purification like gold.

During data collection, facing respondents was another concern. Coming from a background where locals always look for an incentive to do anything even if it's for their good, convincing domestic respondents to respond to my questionnaire was exhausting. Similarly, international tourists were not keen to hear you out when approached to fill out a questionnaire. This was due to their preconceived beliefs that black people always beg for money from white people. As a result, to manage to collect 670 duly completed questionnaires was not an easy task.

The experience gained while writing this thesis is yet the most exciting part of this PhD reflection as I came to realise and exploit my potential in both data analysis and interpretation. As someone who likes telling stories, I found data result reporting the most fantastic part of this whole journey. It is at this point that I realised that the three years spent at SHTM were worth it. I realised that everything is attainable if you strive to get it. I also realised that goal setting is an important aspect of academic life.

Despite all the challenges faced on this journey, it is only worth having memorable experiences of the positive aspects that will make me soldier on as a young academic. I am grateful to my supervisor who always pushed me to think critically and to be specific with my ideas. I appreciate this mentor/mentee relationship established.

7.8 Concluding remarks

It has come to the attention of both destination managers and researchers that tourists are rational beings and that they involve reason in their holiday decision making. Tourists seek experiences that offer value for their money. Tourists choose a destination that promises and delivers their preferred experiences commensurate with their motivations and basic needs (Ekinci, 2003; Uysal, 2003). As such, in developing destination strategies, destination branding is a dynamic effort where destinations seriously package and market their experiences as a brand (Ha & Perks, 2005). Destination or place branding signifies an intangible competitive trophy that destinations long to attain as it aids their understanding of their brand performance against the competition. By providing branded and unique experiences, destinations make tourists hold memorable experiences of the experiences encountered in the destination (Aaker, 1991; Beckman et al., 2013; Blain et al., 2005; Cai, 2002; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Since tourism services are highly intangible, building strong brands could help tourists to differentiate one destination from another (Ha & Perks, 2005; Lee & Jeong, 2014).

Building on the brand experience scale developed by Brakus et al. (2009), this study has provided an enhanced tourism-centred way of measuring destination brand experiences. Testing 13 research hypotheses with other variables such as satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviour, the study has shown the predictive power of the newly constructed multi-dimensional DBE scale. The thesis has provided its academic and practical contributions concerning the conceptualisation and operationalization of DBEs using Lake Malawi as a point of reference. The significance of the study notwithstanding, it has certain limitations especially since it is one of the first studies of its kind. It is, therefore, hoped that this thesis would engender further research to respond to the limitations of the study and provide a better understanding of the DBE phenomenon.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Survey questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

I am working on **Destination Brand experiences of Lake Malawi (LM)** with an aim of developing a measurement scale. I, therefore, would like to invite you to participate in this study. Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 5 (1= Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3= Neutral, 4 = Agree and 5 = Strongly Agree), your agreement with the items below that measure your experiences at Lake Malawi.

Furthermore, note that your participation is voluntary and that the data you provide will only be used for the purposes of this study.

I appreciate your time and willingness to participate in this study.

Cecilia Ndamiwe Ngwira, PhD Candidate
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.
Email: cecilia.ngwira@_____

N.B: Brand experiences are the reactions people give when they interact with a brand. Experiences could come from activities of by just being at the lake.

Part 1: This section will ask you questions pertaining to your evaluation of experiences at Lake Malawi

Action/Behavioural experiences at Lake Malawi	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. LM makes me express who I am through water-based activities	1	2	3	4	5
2. LM gives me an enjoyable experience	1	2	3	4	5
3. LM makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours	1	2	3	4	5
4. Lying on LM beach relaxes me	1	2	3	4	5
5. LM activities allows me to self-actualise in water-based activities	1	2	3	4	5
6. LM gives me a laid-back feeling	1	2	3	4	5
7. LM transforms my mind	1	2	3	4	5
8. Physical experiences at LM keep me fit	1	2	3	4	5
9. LM is action (water-based sports) oriented	1	2	3	4	5
10. LM is adventuresome	1	2	3	4	5
11. Walking along LM sandy beaches is a worthwhile experience	1	2	3	4	5
12. LM activities makes my adrenaline rise	1	2	3	4	5
13. Sun tanning at LM is important for me	1	2	3	4	5
14. LM puts me in a meditation mood	1	2	3	4	5

Expressive/emotional experiences at Lake Malawi	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. LM has a positive effect on how I feel about myself	1	2	3	4	5
2. LM induces feelings and sentiments	1	2	3	4	5
3. LM atmosphere is relaxing	1	2	3	4	5
4. LM gives me a sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5
5. LM makes me happy	1	2	3	4	5
6. LM gives positive feelings	1	2	3	4	5
7. LM surprises me	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have strong emotions for LM	1	2	3	4	5
9. LM is a friendly destination	1	2	3	4	5
10. LM gives me nostalgic feelings	1	2	3	4	5
Perceptive/cognitive experiences at Lake Malawi	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. LM makes me think	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have feelings of amazement at nature	1	2	3	4	5
3. LM helps me forget about my problems	1	2	3	4	5
4. I gain new knowledge at LM	1	2	3	4	5
5. LM stimulates curiosity and problem solving	1	2	3	4	5
6. I engage in a lot of thinking when I am at LM	1	2	3	4	5
7. Learning about animals of LM is rewarding	1	2	3	4	5
Bodily/sensory experiences at Lake Malawi	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. LM environment is delightful	1	2	3	4	5
2. LM provides me with a good culinary experience	1	2	3	4	5
3. LM animals are appealing to watch	1	2	3	4	5
4. LM allows me to take in the beauty of the place	1	2	3	4	5
5. LM waters stimulates my senses	1	2	3	4	5
6. LM appeals to my senses	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sunrise and sunsets over the LM are exciting	1	2	3	4	5
8. LM provides me with a serene experience	1	2	3	4	5
Relational/social experiences at Lake Malawi	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. LM offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community	1	2	3	4	5
2. Being at LM helps me interact with others	1	2	3	4	5
3. LM allows me to interact with local people	1	2	3	4	5
4. LM represents local hospitality	1	2	3	4	5
5. LM allows me to learn about the locals' way of life	1	2	3	4	5
6. LM allows me to participate in activities with other people	1	2	3	4	5
7. LM allows me to experience the friendliness of local people	1	2	3	4	5
8. LM experience helps me make friends	1	2	3	4	5
9. Being at LM is a good opportunity to spend time with my family	1	2	3	4	5
Spiritual/psychic experiences at Lake Malawi	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. LM connects me with higher powers of nature	1	2	3	4	5
2. LM draws me away from the secular/ civilisation	1	2	3	4	5
3. LM reunites me with mother nature	1	2	3	4	5
4. LM has spiritual revitalising powers	1	2	3	4	5
5. LM offers me solitude	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.	LM gives me spiritual awareness	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2: This section will ask you questions pertaining to your evaluation of the destination satisfaction and future intention after experiencing Lake Malawi.

Satisfaction		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I am pleased to have visited LM	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am delighted with LM experiences	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Coming to LM was a good choice	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My experience at LM was what I needed	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to visit LM	1	2	3	4	5
Future intention (Pro-environmental behaviour)		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I volunteer to avoid visiting some areas along the lake if they need to recover from environmental damage	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I will sign petitions against oil drilling in support of this lake	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I will tell my friend not to feed fish in LM	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I will pay increased fees if introduced at Lake Malawi National Park	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I will volunteer my time to projects that help this lake	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I will write letters in support of this lake	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I will participate in public meetings about managing this lake	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I will make a financial donation to an environmental organization in support of Lake Malawi	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I will tell others on the need to care for our Lake Malawi	1	2	3	4	5

Part 3: Socio-demographics
1. Gender: ① Female   ② Male   ③ Others_____
2. Marital status: ① Single   ② Married   ③ Other_____
3. Age _____
4. Highest educational status: ①Primary ②Secondary school /High School ③ Undergraduate degree ④ Master's degree⑤ Doctorate degree ⑥ Other _____
5. Your current occupation: ① Company employee ② Self-employed ③ Civil servant ④ Retired⑤ Student ⑥ Housewife ⑦ Parastatal employee ⑧ Other_____
6. Your nationality: _____
7. How many times have you made a tourism trip in the past 12 months including this one? _____
8. How many times have you been to Lake Malawi including this one? _____
9. Which of the following best describes your **annual household income?**

For international tourists
① Less than US$10,000
② US$ 10,000-19,999
③ US$ 20,000-29,999
④ US$ 30,000-39,999
⑤ US$ 40,000-49,999
⑥ US$ 50,000-59,999
⑦US$ 60,000-69,999
⑧US$ 70,000-79,999
⑨ US$ 80,000-89, 000
⑩ US$ 90,000-99,000
⑪US$100,000 or above

For domestic visitors

① Less than MK50,000   ⑤ MK200,000- 249,999   ⑨ MK501, 000 – MK600,000
② MK51,000-99,999   ⑥ MK250,000-299,999   ⑩ MK 601,000 –MK700,000
③ MK100,000- 149,999   ⑦ MK300,000 – MK400, 000   ⑪ MK701,000 or above
④ MK 150,000-199,999   ⑧ MK401, 000-MK500, 000

THANK YOU VERY MUCH

Appendix 2: Human Subjects Ethics Sub-Committee approval Hong Kong Polytechnic University

THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

To	Tung Vincent Wing Sun (School of Hotel and Tourism Management)
From	SONG Haiyan, Chair, Departmental Research Committee
Email	hmsong@

		Date	09-Jan-2019

Application for Ethical Review for Teaching/Research Involving Human Subjects

I write to inform you that approval has been given to your application for human subjects ethics review of the following project for a period from 04-Sep-2017 to 04-Sep-2020:

Project Title:	Destination brand experiences of Lake Malawi: Scale development and validation
Department:	School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Principal Investigator:	Tung Vincent Wing Sun
Project Start Date:	04-Sep-2017
Reference Number:	HSEARS20181219002

You will be held responsible for the ethical approval granted for the project and the ethical conduct of the personnel involved in the project. In case the Co-PI, if any, has also obtained ethical approval for the project, the Co-PI will also assume the responsibility in respect of the ethical approval (in relation to the areas of expertise of respective Co-PI in accordance with the stipulations given by the approving authority).

You are responsible for informing the Human Subjects Ethics Sub-committee in advance of any changes in the proposal or procedures which may affect the validity of this ethical approval.

SONG Haiyan

Chair

Departmental Research Committee

Appendix 3: Letter of introduction from The Hong Kong PolyU

14 February 2019

To Whom It May Concern

I write to seek your approval for Ms. Cecilia Ndamiwe Ngwira to carry out research at your facility/organization. Ms. Ngwira (Student number: 1790   ) is a PhD student at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR. Her study is titled "*Destination Brand Experiences of Lake Malawi: scale development and validation*".

Ms. Ngwira shall adhere to the principles of ethics pertaining to The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, and to those of your institution in Malawi. I will be grateful if you would grant Ms. Ngwira the support and information required to accomplish her PhD thesis. Please contact me by email: vincent.tung@_____ for further information, where needed.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. Vincent Tung
Assistant Professor
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Appendix 4: Request for permission letter to conduct research in Malawi

C/O Mzuzu University
Department of Tourism
Private Bag 201
Luwinga
Mzuzu 2.
Cell: 099 701

27th April, 2019.

The Executive committee
NCSRH
Private Bag B303
Lilongwe.

Dear Sir/Madam,

Application for a PhD Research proposal approval

I am sending my research proposal for consideration and approval. The study is on Destination Brand Experiences of Lake Malawi. The goal of this study is to develop and validate a scale which would be used to measure visitor experiences of a lake destination.

With this letter, I am enclosing the following:

a) Research proposal (two copies)
b) Budget
c) Curriculum vitae of the principal investigator and supervisors
d) Bank deposit slip for the application fee
e) Informed consent form
f) Data collection instruments and
g) A letter of research approval/introduction from The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Sincerely yours,

Cecilia Ndamiwe Ngwira
PhD Candidate
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
cecilia.ngwira@

Appendix 5: Ethical approval to conduct survey in Malawi

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

Lingadzi House
Robert Mugabe Crescent
P/Bag B303
City Centre
Lilongwe

Tel: +265 1 771 550
+265 1 774 189
+265 1 774 869
Fax: +265 1772 431
Email:directorgeneral@ncst.mw
Website:http://www.ncst.mw

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

Ref No: NCST/RTT/2/6   3rd. June, 2019

Ms Cecilia Ndamiwe Ngwira,
C/O Mzuzu University,
Department of Tourism,
Private Bag 201,
Luwinga, Mzuzu.
Email:cecilia.ngwira@

Dear Ms Ngwira,

RESEARCH ETHICS AND REGULATORY APPROVAL AND PERMIT FOR PROTOCOL NO. P.04/19/373: DESTINATION BRAND EXPERIENCES OF LAKE MALAWI: SCALE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION

Having satisfied all the relevant ethical and regulatory requirements, I am pleased to inform you that the above referred research protocol has officially been approved. You are now permitted to proceed with its implementation. Should there be any amendments to the approved protocol in the course of implementing it, you shall be required to seek approval of such amendments before implementation of the same.

This approval is valid for one year from the date of issuance of this approval. If the study goes beyond one year, an annual approval for continuation shall be required to be sought from the National Committee on Research in the Social Sciences and Humanities (NCRSH) in a format that is available at the Secretariat. Once the study is finalized, you are required to furnish the Committee and the

Commission with a final report of the study. The committee reserves the right to carry out compliance inspection of this approved protocol at any time as may be deemed by it. As such, you are expected to properly maintain all study documents including consent forms.

Wishing you a successful implementation of your study.

Yours Sincerely,

Yalonda .I. Mwanza

NCRSH ADMINISTRATOR

HEALTH, SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES DIVISION

For: CHAIRMAN OF NCRSH

Appendix 6: Amendment of items on behavioural brand experiences

1.	Lake Malawi makes me express who I am → Modified "Lake Malawi makes me express who I am through water-based activities"
2.	Lake Malawi gives me enjoyable experience → Merged to "Lake Malawi gives me enjoyable experience"
3.	I engage in a lot of physical actions when I encounter this brand → Modified to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
4.	Lying on Lake Malawi beach makes me feel romantic → Modified to "Lying on lake Malawi beaches relaxes me"
5.	I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand → Modified to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
6.	Bathing and swimming → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me express who I am through water-based activities"
7.	Walking trails on the lakeshores → Modified to "Walking along Lake Malawi sandy beaches is a worthwhile experience"
8.	This brand engages me physically → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
9.	I like to see people working on the lake → Deleted
10.	This brand results on bodily experiences → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
11.	Natural beaches → Deleted
12.	→ Retained "Lake Malawi gives me a laid-back feeling"
13.	Basking in the sun on the sandy beaches makes me get a natural skin tan → Modified to "Sun tanning at lake Malawi is important to me"
14.	As a customer of this brand I am rarely passive → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
15.	Sailing on the lake → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
16.	Rock jumping at Lake Malawi makes my adrenaline rise → Deleted
17.	Boating → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
18.	Fishing → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
19.	Cultural and heritage monument visits → Modified to "Lake Malawi is a cultural experience"

20.	Walking in the villages at Malawi gives me an African experience → Merged to "Lake Malawi is a cultural experience"
21.	This brand is not action oriented →Modified to "Lake Malawi is action oriented"
22.	Lake Malawi engages me physically → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
23.	Lake Malawi snorkelling gives me fun →Lake Malawi gives me enjoyable experience
24.	Walking on the beach keeps me fit → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
25.	Beach sports like soccer and volleyball → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
26.	Water based sports → Merged to "Lake Malawi makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours"
27.	Lifestyle → Deleted
28.	Photo taking opportunities → Deleted

Appendix 7: Amendments of items on sensory brand experiences

1.	This brand makes a strong impression on my visual senses or other senses → Modified to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
2.	Richness of fauna → Modified to "Lake Malawi animals are appealing to watch"
3.	I find this brand interesting in a sensory way → Merged to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
4.	This brand does not appeal to my senses → Modified to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
5.	Beautiful villages on the shoreline → Deleted
6.	Lakes shoreline are appealing → Modified to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
7.	To absorb into nature → Merged to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
8.	Amazement at nature → Merged to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
9.	Fish smells in the villages → Merged to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
10.	Lake Malawi allows me to take in the beauty of the place → Retained
11.	Lake Malawi waters stimulates me → Modified to "Lake Malawi waters stimulates my senses"
12.	Perceptual interesting → Merged to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
13.	The brand gives me sensory experiences → Merged to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
14.	Sunsets and sunrises over Lake Malawi are exciting to watch → Retained
15.	Maritime impression → Merged to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
16.	Shape and design of the lake → Merged to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
17.	Idyllic countryside, picturesque → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to take in the beauty of the place"
18.	Transparent waters → Merged to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
19.	Blue waters → Merged to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
20.	To absorb in nature → Merged to "Lake Malawi environment is delightful"
21.	LM colourful fishes are appealing to watch → Modified to "Lake Malawi animals are appealing to watch"
22.	Animals

	→ Merged to "Lake Malawi animals are appealing to watch"
23.	Lake Malawi provides me with a serene experience → Retained
24.	Local people visual impression → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to take in the beauty of the place"
25.	Sense of beauty → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to take in the beauty of the place"
26.	Eating local food like Chambo → Modified to "Lake Malawi gives me a culinary experience"
27.	Lake waters stimulates my senses → Retained
28.	Beautiful scenery → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to take in the beauty of the place"
29.	Walking on the beach is soothing → Merged to "Lake Malawi appeals to my senses"
30.	Bird watching opportunities " Merged to "Lake Malawi animals are appealing to watch"

Appendix 8: Amendments of items on emotional brand experiences

1.	This brand induces feelings and sentiments → Modified to "Lake Malawi induces feelings and sentiments"
2.	Walking on the sand is romantic → Merged to "Lake Malawi induces feelings and sentiments"
3.	Lake Malawi is charming → Retained
4.	Lake Malawi atmosphere is relaxing → Retained
5.	Full of fun → Modified to "Lake Malawi induces feelings and sentiments"
6.	Refreshing experience → Modified to "Lake Malawi atmosphere is relaxing"
7.	Sense of belonging → Modified to "Lake Malawi gives me a sense of belonging"
8.	Fulfilling experiences → Merged to "Lake Malawi induces feelings and sentiments"
9.	Amazement at nature → Merged to "Lake Malawi surprises me"
10.	Positive mood → Modified to "Lake Malawi has a positive effect on how I feel about myself"
11.	Good mood → Merged to "Lake Malawi has a positive effect on how I feel about myself"
12.	Lake Malawi is a friendly destination → Retained
13.	Positive feeling → Retained
14.	Cheerful → Merged to "Lake Malawi induces feelings and sentiments"
15.	This brand makes me happy → Retained
16.	I have strong emotions for Lake Malawi" → Retained
17.	This brand is an emotional brand → Merged to "I have strong emotions for Lake Malawi"
18.	Brand often engages me emotionally → Merged to "Lake Malawi induces feelings and sentiments"
19.	Nostalgic feelings → Retained
20.	Feel relieved Merged to "Lake Malawi atmosphere is relaxing"
21.	I feel good when I use this brand → Merged to "Lake Malawi has a positive effect on how I feel about myself"
22.	This brand gives me pleasure

	→ Merged to "Lake Malawi has a positive effect on how I feel about myself"
23.	I do not have strong emotions for this brand → Modified to "I have strong emotions for Lake Malawi"

Appendix 9: Amendments of items on cognitive brand experiences

1.	I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand → Modified to "I engage in a lot of thinking when I am at lake Malawi"
2.	This brand does not make me think → Deleted
3.	The lake amazes me → Modified to "I have feelings of amazement at nature"
4.	This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving → Modified to "Lake Malawi stimulates curiosity and problem solving"
5.	This brand challenges my way of thinking → Merged to "Lake Malawi stimulates curiosity and problem solving"
6.	I forget my problem when at the lake → Modified to "Lake Malawi helps me forget about my problems"
7.	I learn new things at Lake Malawi → Modified to " I gain new knowledge at Lake Malawi"
8.	The lake captivates me → Modified to "Lake Malawi captivates me"
9.	Learn more about the lake → Merged to "I gain new knowledge at Lake Malawi"
10.	LM makes me think → Merged to "Lake Malawi captivates me"
11.	Learn local cultures → Merged to "I gain new knowledge at Lake Malawi"
12.	Lake Malawi is therapeutic → Merged to "Lake Malawi helps me forget about my problems"
13.	I forget trouble → Merged to "Lake Malawi helps me forget about my problems"
14.	Learn about animals → Modified to "Learning about animals of lake Malawi is rewarding"
15.	The brand engages my creative thinking → Merged to "Lake Malawi stimulates curiosity and problem solving"
16.	Learnt something new → Merged to "I gain new knowledge at Lake Malawi"
17.	The lake intrigues me → Merged to "Lake Malawi captivates me"

Appendix 10: Amendments of items on social brand experiences

1.	As a customer of the brand, I feel like a part of a community → Modified to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
2.	Active and meaningful relationship with the brand, peers and organization → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
3.	I feel like I am part of the brand family → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
4.	Tourists admiring the views → Deleted"
5.	When I use the brand, I do not feel left alone → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
6.	The brand gives me an identity → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
7.	Help me build relationships → Modified to "Lake Malawi helps me make friends"
8.	Relates me to others/communitas → Modified to "Being at Lake Malawi helps me interact with others"
9.	Collectivism by involving people, groups and society → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
10.	Connects me to stakeholders → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
11.	Connects me to nature → Deleted
12.	Social rules and arrangements → Modified to "Lake Malawi allows me to learn about the local's way of life"
13.	Shared experiences with others → Modifies to "Lake Malawi allows me to participate in activities with other people"
14.	Watch others enjoy themselves → Deleted
15.	Experience the friendliness of local people → Modified to "Lake Malawi allows me to experience the friendliness of local people"
16.	Connects me to the societal context → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to learn about the local's way of life"
17.	Consumption with other people → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to participate in activities with other people"
18.	Sense of belonging → Merged to "Lake Malawi offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community"
19.	Interaction with local communities → Modified to "Lake Malawi allows me to interact with local people"
20.	Traditional way of life → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to learn about the local's way of life"

21.	Meeting groups of diverse people → Merged to "Being at Lake Malawi helps me interact with others"
22.	Family bonding opportunity → Modified to "Being at Lake Malawi is a good opportunity to spend time with my family"
23.	Local hospitality → Modified to "Lake Malawi represents local hospitality"
24.	I make friends and socialize → Merged to "Lake Malawi helps me make friends"
25.	Friendliness of local people → Merged to "Lake Malawi allows me to interact with local people"
26.	Learn local cultures → Merged to Lake Malawi allows me to learn about the local's way of life"

Appendix11: Amendments of items on spiritual brand experiences

1.	Lake Malawi connects me with higher powers of nature → Retained
2.	Away from civilization → Modified to "Lake Malawi draws me away from the secular"
3.	Restorative/ revitalizing powers → Modified to "Lake Malawi has spiritual revitalizing powers"
4.	Connection to nature → Merged to "Lake Malawi connects me with higher powers of nature"
5.	Solitude and quietness → Modified to "Lake Malawi offers me solitude"
6.	Connection with inner self → Merged to "Lake Malawi connects me with higher powers of nature"
7.	Spiritual uplifting → Deleted
8.	Inner well-being → Deleted
9.	Appreciate creation → Merged to "Lake Malawi connects me with higher powers of nature"
10.	Feeling of being blessed → Deleted
11.	I have spiritual awareness at the lake → Modified to "To feel privileged and/or important"
12.	Space to oneself → Deleted
13.	Reunite me with mother nature → Retained
14.	The lake uplifts me spiritually → Deleted
15.	The lake offers me restorative powers → Merged to ""Lake Malawi has spiritual revitalizing powers""
16.	Reflection about my self → Deleted
17.	Lake Malawi connects me to nature powers → Merged to "Lake Malawi connects me with higher powers of nature"
18.	I start my day at the lake → Merged to "Lake Malawi gives me spiritual awareness"
19.	The lake gives me spiritual nourishment → Merged to "Lake Malawi gives me spiritual awareness"
20.	The lake gives me spiritual nourishment → Merged to "Lake Malawi gives me spiritual awareness"
21.	Feeling of being part of something bigger and infinite → Modified to "Lake Malawi gives me spiritual awareness"

Appendix 12: Normality test results of the items used in the pilot study

Items	Mean Statistic	Skewness Statistic	SE	Kurtosis Statistic	SE
LM makes me express who I am through water-based activities	3.59	-0.79	0.22	0.42	0.44
LM gives me an enjoyable experience	4.17	-1.83	0.22	5.25	0.44
LM makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours	3.66	-0.88	0.22	0.17	0.44
Lying on LM beach relaxes me	4.17	-1.83	0.22	5.25	0.44
LM activities allows me to self-actualise	3.54	-0.81	0.22	0.30	0.44
LM gives me a laid-back feeling	3.58	-0.95	0.22	0.26	0.44
LM transforms my mind	3.68	-1.01	0.22	0.56	0.44
Physical experiences at LM keep me fit	3.80	-1.03	0.22	0.88	0.44
LM is action (water-based sports) oriented	3.58	-0.94	0.22	0.39	0.44
LM is a cultural experience	3.78	-1.22	0.22	1.47	0.44
Walking along LM sandy beaches is a worthwhile experience	4.15	-1.78	0.22	4.13	0.44
LM activities makes my adrenaline rise	3.34	-0.54	0.22	-0.61	0.44
Sun tanning at LM is important for me	3.54	-0.86	0.22	-0.41	0.44
LM puts me in a meditation mood	3.53	-0.83	0.22	-0.17	0.44
LM has a positive effect on how I feel about myself	3.77	-0.65	0.22	-0.46	0.44
LM induces feelings and sentiments	3.78	-0.83	0.22	-0.10	0.44
LM atmosphere is relaxing	4.45	-2.04	0.22	7.11	0.44
LM gives me a sense of belonging	4.06	-1.14	0.22	1.34	0.44
LM makes me happy	4.31	-1.76	0.22	3.67	0.45
LM gives positive feelings	4.31	-1.61	0.22	2.85	0.44
LM surprises me	3.46	-0.44	0.22	-0.72	0.44
I have strong emotions for LM	4.00	-0.81	0.22	0.43	0.44
LM is a friendly destination	4.34	-1.74	0.22	3.17	0.44
LM gives me nostalgic feelings	3.80	-0.71	0.22	-0.32	0.44
LM captivates me	3.99	-1.17	0.22	0.68	0.44
I have feelings of amazement at nature	4.24	-1.30	0.22	1.53	0.44
LM helps me forget about my problems	3.88	-0.86	0.22	0.09	0.44

I gain new knowledge at LM	3.89	-0.68	0.22	-0.04	0.44
LM stimulates curiosity and problem solving	3.64	-0.43	0.22	-0.62	0.44
I engage in a lot of thinking when I am at LM	3.76	-0.84	0.22	0.19	0.44
Learning about animals of LM is rewarding	3.97	-0.71	0.22	-0.13	0.44
LM environment is delightful	4.50	-1.90	0.22	5.19	0.44
LM provides me with a good culinary experience	3.98	-1.10	0.22	0.74	0.44
LM animals are appealing to watch	4.38	-1.70	0.22	2.99	0.44
LM allows me to take in the beauty of the place	4.39	-1.92	0.22	5.11	0.44
LM waters stimulates my senses	4.02	-0.93	0.22	0.58	0.44
LM appeals to my senses	4.08	-0.98	0.22	0.67	0.44
Sunrise and sunsets over the LM are exciting to watch	4.61	-2.16	0.22	7.10	0.44
LM provides me with a serene experience	4.38	-0.82	0.22	0.14	0.44
LM offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community	3.88	-0.89	0.22	0.10	0.44
Being at LM helps me interact with others	4.35	-1.64	0.22	4.05	0.44
LM allows me to interact with local people	4.21	-1.47	0.22	2.42	0.44
LM represents local hospitality	4.22	-1.46	0.22	2.76	0.44
LM allows me to learn about the locals' way of life	4.14	-1.51	0.22	3.02	0.44
LM allows me to participate in activities with other people	4.08	-1.29	0.22	1.62	0.44
LM allows me to experience the friendliness of local people	4.23	-1.52	0.22	2.60	0.44
LM experience helps me to make friends	4.17	-1.16	0.22	1.59	0.44
Being at LM is a good opportunity to spend time with my family	4.55	-2.01	0.22	4.78	0.44
LM connects me with higher powers of nature	3.69	-0.69	0.22	0.03	0.44
LM draws me away from the secular	3.32	-0.33	0.22	-0.81	0.44
LM reunites me with mother nature	4.00	-1.14	0.22	0.80	0.44
LM has spiritual revitalising powers	3.30	-0.29	0.22	-0.79	0.44
LM offers me solitude	3.53	-0.51	0.22	-0.70	0.44
LM gives me spiritual awareness	3.40	-0.37	0.22	-0.90	0.44

SE= Standard Error

LM – Lake Malawi

Appendix 13: Normality test results of the items used in the main study

Item	Mean Statistic	Std. Dev Statistic	Skewness Statistic	SE	Kurtosis Statistic	SE
LM makes me express who I am through water-based activities	3.66	0.97	-0.94	0.09	0.79	0.19
LM gives me an enjoyable experience	4.25	0.73	-1.72	0.09	5.90	0.19
LM makes me engage in physical actions and behaviours	3.74	0.94	-0.93	0.09	0.80	0.19
Lying on LM beach relaxes me	4.20	0.80	-1.55	0.09	4.09	0.19
LM activities allows me to self-actualise	3.71	0.98	-0.88	0.09	0.61	0.19
LM gives me a laid-back feeling	3.77	1.00	-0.98	0.09	0.79	0.19
LM transforms my mind	3.73	1.03	-0.93	0.09	0.53	0.19
Physical experiences at LM keep me fit	3.74	0.99	-0.82	0.09	0.40	0.19
LM is action (water-based sports) oriented	3.60	1.06	-0.83	0.09	0.15	0.19
LM is a cultural experience	3.72	0.98	-0.97	0.09	0.75	0.19
Walking along LM sandy beaches is a worthwhile experience	4.15	0.86	-1.48	0.09	3.02	0.19
LM activities makes my adrenaline rise	3.46	1.11	-0.64	0.09	-0.28	0.19
Sun tanning at LM is important for me	3.61	1.13	-0.96	0.09	0.32	0.19
LM puts me in a meditation mood	3.71	1.05	-1.00	0.09	0.62	0.19
LM has a positive effect on how I feel about myself	3.80	1.07	-0.77	0.09	0.03	0.19
LM induces feelings and sentiments	3.77	1.06	-0.81	0.09	0.13	0.19
LM atmosphere is relaxing	4.41	0.77	-1.68	0.09	3.95	0.19
LM gives me a sense of belonging	4.03	0.93	-0.92	0.09	0.66	0.19
LM makes me happy	4.26	0.88	-1.45	0.09	2.32	0.19
LM gives positive feelings	4.26	0.83	-1.23	0.09	1.72	0.19
LM surprises me	3.69	1.10	-0.70	0.09	-0.14	0.19
I have strong emotions for LM	3.96	0.99	-0.87	0.09	0.35	0.19
LM is a friendly destination	4.37	0.83	-1.67	0.09	3.47	0.19
LM gives me nostalgic feelings	3.70	1.15	-0.77	0.09	-0.06	0.19
LM captivates me	4.00	0.97	-0.89	0.09	0.40	0.19
I have feelings of amazement at nature	4.33	0.79	-1.26	0.09	1.64	0.19

LM helps me forget about my problems	3.83	1.06	-0.78	0.09	0.08	0.19
I gain new knowledge at LM	3.94	0.94	-0.81	0.09	0.39	0.19
LM stimulates curiosity and problem solving	3.65	1.04	-0.50	0.09	-0.35	0.19
I engage in a lot of thinking when I am at LM	3.75	1.09	-0.80	0.09	-0.01	0.19
Learning about animals of LM is rewarding	3.89	1.00	-0.71	0.09	-0.05	0.19
LM environment is delightful	4.45	0.76	-1.59	0.09	2.88	0.19
LM provides me with a good culinary experience	4.01	0.96	-1.03	0.09	0.90	0.19
LM animals are appealing to watch	4.32	0.84	-1.33	0.09	1.69	0.19
LM allows me to take in the beauty of the place	4.42	0.74	-1.37	0.09	2.66	0.19
LM waters stimulates my senses	4.09	0.92	-0.87	0.09	0.35	0.19
LM appeals to my senses	4.08	0.90	-0.78	0.09	0.13	0.19
Sunrise and sunsets over the LM are exciting to watch	4.55	0.68	-1.82	0.09	4.32	0.19
LM provides me with a serene experience	4.35	0.73	-1.07	0.09	1.32	0.19
LM offers me an opportunity of being a member of a community	3.87	1.08	-0.82	0.09	-0.01	0.19
Being at LM helps me interact with others	4.31	0.78	-1.27	0.09	2.12	0.19
LM allows me to interact with local people	4.22	0.85	-1.15	0.09	1.28	0.19
LM represents local hospitality	4.21	0.85	-1.11	0.09	1.32	0.19
LM allows me to learn about the locals' way of life	4.06	0.89	-1.05	0.09	1.23	0.19
LM allows me to participate in activities with other people	4.17	0.85	-1.18	0.09	1.70	0.19
LM allows me to experience the friendliness of local people	4.19	0.84	-1.17	0.09	1.62	0.19
LM experience helps me to make friends	4.18	0.87	-1.09	0.09	1.15	0.19
Being at LM is a good opportunity to spend time with my family	4.45	0.79	-1.59	0.09	2.60	0.19
LM connects me with higher powers of nature	3.66	1.14	-0.67	0.09	-0.17	0.19
LM draws me away from the secular	3.26	1.23	-0.29	0.09	-0.88	0.19
LM reunites me with mother nature	3.98	1.03	-1.08	0.09	0.81	0.19
LM has spiritual revitalising powers	3.31	1.21	-0.28	0.09	-0.82	0.19
LM offers me solitude	3.59	1.12	-0.57	0.09	-0.37	0.19
LM gives me spiritual awareness	3.36	1.23	-0.48	0.09	-0.71	0.19

I am pleased to have visited LM	4.64	0.59	-1.90	0.09	5.03	0.19
I am delighted with LM experiences	4.60	0.57	-1.39	0.09	2.58	0.19
Coming to LM was a good choice	4.62	0.57	-1.51	0.09	3.15	0.19
My experiences at LM was what I needed	4.46	0.67	-1.33	0.09	2.66	0.19
The visit to Lm exceeded my expectations	4.27	0.83	-1.30	0.09	2.06	0.19
I really enjoyed myself at LM	4.58	0.57	-1.34	0.09	2.97	0.19
Overall, I am satisfied with my decision to visit LM	4.60	0.58	-1.36	0.09	1.84	0.19
I volunteer to avoid visiting some areas along the lake if they need to recover from environmental damage	4.05	1.06	-1.13	0.09	0.79	0.19
I will sign petitions against oil drilling in support of this lake	4.13	1.10	-1.22	0.09	0.77	0.19
I will tell my friends not to feed fish in LM	3.40	1.38	-0.38	0.09	-1.07	0.19
I will pay increased fees if introduced at Lake Malawi National Park	3.70	1.15	-0.70	0.09	-0.28	0.19
I will volunteer my time to projects that help this lake	4.16	0.87	-1.09	0.09	1.26	0.19
I will write letters in support of this lake	4.16	0.86	-1.00	0.09	0.93	0.19
I will participate in public meetings about managing this lake	4.18	0.93	-1.20	0.09	1.36	0.19
I will make a financial donation to an environmental organization in support of this lake	3.88	1.11	-0.95	0.09	0.44	0.19
I will tell others on the need to care for Lake Malawi	4.52	0.71	-1.93	0.09	5.38	0.19

SE = Standard Error

LM = Lake Malawi