EFFECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTANCE ON THE DESTINATION CHOICE OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS VISITING MAASAI MARA NATIONAL RESERVE, KENYA

BY

ASHIOYA BELINDA

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF TOURISM HOSPITALITY AND EVENT MANAGEMENT IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN TOURISM MANAGEMENT

MOI UNIVERSITY

2022

DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

I declare that this thesis is my original work, and has not been presented for examination in any other university. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without prior permission from the researcher and/or Moi University.

Sign:_____ Date:_____

ASHIOYA BELINDA

(SBE/DPHIL/003/09)

DECLARATION BY SUPERVISORS

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

Sign:_____ Date:_____

DR. IMBAYA BEATRICE

Department of Tourism and Tour Operations Management, Moi University.

Sign:_____ Date:_____

FOR: PROF. SULO TIMOTHY

(POSTHUMOUS)

Department of Agricultural Economics, Moi University

DEDICATION

To the most intentional and industrious young people in the whole world, and my personal encouragers; my children Eleazar, Hephzibah and Hannah. I also dedicate this thesis to my father the late Habil Makore, who was very interested to see accomplishment while he was still living.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I would like to acknowledge the almighty God for helping to travel this long journey this far. I also wish to thank my supervisors Dr. Beatrice Imbaya and Prof Timothy Sulo (posthumously) for tirelessly guiding and supporting me. I would also like to appreciate the Dean and Faculty of the School of Tourism, hospitality and Events Management at Moi University for their encouragement. I also want to recognize the Directorate of Post Graduate Studies at Moi University for their persistent optimism which they demonstrate when they communicate to me. Last but not least I acknowledge friends, family and colleagues who, in one way or another, made a contribution towards the completion of this thesis. God bless you all.

ABSTRACT

Understanding the concept of destination choice is central to experiences that are memorable to tourists; and to effective presentation of destinations by practitioners. Although past studies have examined destination attributes with regard to tourists' destination choice, the effect of psychological distance on international tourists' destination choice remains unexplored. This study employs the Construal level theory (CLT) to examine the effect of psychological distance on destination choice by international tourists visiting the Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR). Specifically, the study aimed at determining the direct effect of temporal, spatial and social distances on destination choice by the tourists. In retrospect, the study postulated that temporal, spatial and social distances had no significant effect on destination choice. The study adopted the mixed methods research design anchored in the pragmatist research paradigm. The target population included international tourists and managers of the 38 star-rated lodges situated in the MMNR. A sample of 327 international tourists was obtained from 2105 accessible population using the systematic random sampling technique. The 25 managers studied were picked from the 38 star-rated purposively selected accommodation facilities. Data from the tourists were collected using a self-administered questionnaire while interview schedules were used to collect data from the managers. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed to analyze data. The study established that; temporal distance ($\beta=0.417$, $p<0.05$) and spatial distance ($\beta=0.277$, $p<0.05$) were positive and significant predictors of tourists' destination choice. It was further established that social distance ($\beta=-0.114$, $p>0.05$) was not a significant predictor of tourists' destination choice in the context of this study. The three dimensions of psychological distance together accounted for 63 percent of the variance in destination choice by international tourists as determined by a coefficient of determination (R^2) value of 0.63. Unlike previous studies which indicate that temporal distance as a construct has two indicators namely: proximal future and distal future, this study revealed the intermediate future as the third indicator of temporal distance and this constitutes new knowledge. This study also reveals that distant tourists' destination choice is influenced more by abstract information while that of near future tourists is influenced more by concrete information. The study concludes that under CLT, choice of MMNR as a destination by international tourists was mainly driven by temporal and spatial distance. The study confirms the effect of psychological distance on how tourists perceive information by proving that both temporal and spatial distance dimensions have a significant effect on international tourists' destination choice. It is therefore recommended that abstract information be created for tourists planning to travel in the distant future and concrete information for those planning to travel in the near future.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACCRONYMS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CB	Consumer behaviour
CLT	Construal Level Theory
DW	Durbin-Watson
EATTA	East Africa Travel and Tours Agency
KMO	Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin
MAR	Missing at Random
MCAR	Missing Completely at Random
MNAR	Missing Not at Random
MMNR	Maasai Mara National Reserve
MMSDI	Maasai Mara Science and Development Initiative
MNAR	Missing not at Random
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation
PCA	Principal Components Analysis
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SPSS's	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
VIFs	Variance Inflation Factors
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference for Trade and Development
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WTO	World Tourism Organization

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Temporal distance

Distance in time e.g. between time of decision and actual travel (Trope and Liberman, 2010)

Tourists' destination choice

Stages through which the mind passes in order to make a travel purchase

Spatial distance

Physical distance between the tourist and the destination (Trope and Liberman, 2010)

Social distance

The degree of similarities/differences in social practices of the tourists and those of the destination community (Trope and Liberman, 2010)

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the background of the study, the problem statement, the research objectives, the research hypotheses, and the significance of the study, the scope, and the limitations of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

The emergence of tourism as a global economic force emanates from its ability to generate an estimated 10% of the world GDP and an estimated similar percentage of global employment (Signe, 2022). At the same time tourism is considered as a vehicle for protecting diversity and the ecosystem, preserving the heritage of culture, and promoting the empowerment of the host communities (UNCTAD, 2017). There is a positive relationship between international tourist arrivals and the associated receipts, especially the foreign exchange which plays an important role in the balance of payments for the developing nations (Akama, 2016). Given the benefits of tourism, and if well developed, it can be an effective catalyst to the attainment of the eighth, twelfth and fourteenth Sustainable Development Goals; that is provision of employment, preservation of local culture, and developing the economy; respectively (UNCTAD,2017).

On the regional and continental levels Dieke (2020) observes that demand for tourism for destination Africa is largely untapped and that there is great potential for growth if only certain challenges can be addressed. Even though on the global level the number of international arrivals is on the rise, the share of the same that goes into the economy of Africa is still regarded as dismal (Akama, 2016). There is overall dissatisfaction with the earnings from industry which may be emanating from such factors as deficiency in knowledge regarding the marketing mix components for

international travelers, discontentment from the social and political dimensions towards the industry especially with the inconsiderate commercialization of destinations, rigidity of government structures that prevent them from responding rapidly to market dynamics, insufficient supply of the human resource, and the current stage of development in the region generally. Other issues border on health, security, and natural disasters (Dieke, 2020).

Nonetheless, tourism is growing faster within the emerging and developing nations compared to the rest of the world so much so that business generated from international tourism, as at 2015, rivaled public sector investments and foreign aid (Signe, 2022; UNWTO,2019). In 2018, about 67 million tourists visited Africa, representing a rise of 7% from the previous year, making Africa the second-fastest growing region with regard to tourism, after Asia Pacific (UNWTO, 2019).

Kenya is viewed as one of the destinations that are both successful and well established on the African continent. This is attributed to the fact that pioneer facilities have been in place due to a vibrant expatriate (colonial) community that was interested in engaging commercially in tourism (Dieke, 2020). Besides, apart from South Africa, Kenya is the only African nation that benefits from investments directed towards tourism; and among the four African nations that appear to increase their investments in the progress of their tourism sectors (Signe, 2022). In 2018, Kenya was reported as the third largest tourism economy in sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa and Nigeria coming first and second respectively; and also growing faster than the two, at a rate of 5.6% above the global and sub-Saharan rates of 3.9% and 3.3% respectively (William,2019). Of the three sectors on which the economy of Kenya is anchored, agriculture, manufacturing and tourism, the only one that demonstrates

phenomenal growth, and has emerged as an agent of diversification, transforming infrastructure, and growing the economy, is tourism (Nyasha et al, 2020).

Kenya ranks high as a global tourist destination due to the diversity, particularly of fauna, historical and archeological sites, and the exemplary hospitality that is characteristic of the Kenya people (Kenya Tourism Strategy 2013-2018). Owing to substantial contribution made by tourism to foreign exchange earnings, provision of employment, social progress and infrastructural development, it is being relied upon, to a great extent, to realize the economic pillar of Kenya's Vision 2030. International tourist arrivals in Kenya in 2019 were 1.45 million, earning Kenya 119.9 billion Kenya shillings. However, according to projections it had been expected that international arrivals would reach 3million and that Kenya would hit the 200 billion Kenya shillings mark with regard to earnings from tourism by the end of 2018. This represents a shortfall of 32.5% in international arrivals and a 21.5% shortfall in earning, not to mention the major slump that the industry suffered in 2015(Tourism Sector Performance Report, 2018; Tourism Strategic Plan 2013-2018).

The failure to attain desired targets can be attributed to the various challenges facing the industry generally, for instance terrorism and Covid-19, that resulted in travel advisories. Having dropped by approximately 74% it is estimated that globally, it will take about two-and a-half years for international arrivals to bounce back to the 2019 level (UNWTO, 2022). Figures from the Tourism Research Institute indicate that, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, arrivals fell to an all-time low of 568,000 in 2020. By end of 2021 arrivals had resumed the upward trend to 870,000; and it is expected that by end of 2022 the 1 million mark will have been surpassed.

Among the leading tourist destinations in Kenya is the Maasai Mara National Game Reserve (MMNGR) which is a world-renowned tourist destination; a unique habitat due to the presence of a wide variety of wild animals. The spectacular annual wildlife migration involving more than one million wildebeests, a great herd of zebras and Thomson's gazelles and other animals draws a large number of tourists to the MMNGR annually (Maasai Mara Science and Development Initiative {MMSDI}, 2015); positioning the MMNGR as an important destination both globally (to tourists) and nationally (to the economy).

Despite its popularity internationally, as a prime safari destination, there are some challenges specific to the Maasai Mara ecosystem among them: climate change and land-use challenges, ecosystem challenges, political and economic challenges, and human and cultural challenges (MMSDI, 2015). Nevertheless, in spite of these challenges, Kenya's popularity, and in particular that of MMNGR, as a tourist destination continues to grow (Omare et al, 2019). Hence in 2021, MMNGR was voted the third best national park globally. Given the crucial role emotions play in the choice of travel destinations (Al-Msallam, 2020), this is likely to have a bearing on the way MMNGR is viewed by potential travelers internationally and to influence its place as a destination of choice going forward.

In the recent past, the destination choice process has gained recognition in tourism consumer behavior studies as it is linked to building and sustaining demand related to the destinations and tourist services offered (Qiu et al, 2018. Among the areas that have received attention in literature are, psychological factors associated with destination choice. For instance, Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) evaluated the main models of decision making in tourism literature and concluded that most of them view the destination choice process as a funnel, in which tourists, based on rational

behavior, eliminate alternatives based on socio-psychological and non-psychological factors (Saito & Strehlau, 2018).

Destination choice is a purchase and is therefore guided by consumer behavior theories. The main consumer behavior theories have been categorized into four, namely the economic, the psychological, the psychoanalytic and the sociocultural (Bray, 2008). The economic oriented theories explain allocation of disposable income by individuals; the psychology oriented focus on behavior that results from perceptions formed from experience; the psychoanalytic stem from dimensions assigned to personality: the id, the ego, and the superego; while the sociocultural conceived philosophies give insight on the social aspects of persons ((Lantos, 2015). Further consideration of the psychoanalytic perspective reveals that an individual's ego espouses enjoyment. The ego on the other hand concerns itself with ethics, while the superego provides the ability to judge and choose (Lapsley and Stey. 2011). CLT can be perceived as an extension of the psychoanalytic consumer behavior theory due to its tendency to view choice as a deeply mental exercise (Praveen kumar, 2015).

CLT has been found to offer en explanation for the journey that individuals travel mentally in order to encounter entities that are within close range and those that are far off (Theodorakis and Painesis, 2018). It has been identified as a paradigm that provides the link between construal levels and psychological distance. Construal levels have therefore been identified as the varying cognitive levels at which individuals mentally conjure proximal and distal objects and events for ease of evaluation. Considerable research has been carried out to establish the role of CLT in consumer behavior, demonstrating that a variation in CLT has effects on, among others, effective marketing communications with regard to the choice of words and pictorials; which consequently influence the consumer preferences (White,

MacDonnell and Dhall, 2011; Cho and Lee, 2014; Mogilner, Aakar and Pennington, 2008).

A number of studies have also attempted to establish the link between psychological distance and the choice of destination (Aldholey et al, 2019; Abooali et al, 2011; Hamilton & Lau, 2004; Dunne et al. 2011; Bazerman & Moore et al., 2012; Amuquandoh and Adjei, 2013; Ragavan et al., 2014; Jariyachasit, 2019); among others. For instance Isaac (2019) found out that after visiting and engaging with a destination tourists maintained a positive image of the same, this was an exploratory research that used interviews to collect data which was analyzed thematically. Abooali (2011), based on literature review, concluded that psychological distance affects destination tourists' choice. Hamilton and Lau (2004) also established that a tourist destination choice is a product of the images formed. Bazerman and Moore in their book, Judgment in Managerial Decision Making, discuss the impact of temporal distance in making choices.

Amuquandoh and Adjei (2013) established that tourists are attracted to most of the indigenous foods cooked at tourist destination; a factor that reduces the social distance between the tourists and the locals Rasoolimanesh et al (2022) posit that it is important to understand international tourists' perceptions and their relation to satisfaction because these have implications for tourism marketers; using the qualitative approach and partial least squares-SEM to analyze. Research also puts emphasis on the importance of tourists' destination perceptions on the resultant choices. Dunne et al (2011) establishes the impact of situational factors or spatial distance, on city-break travel choices using the sequential mixed methods approach. These studies converge with the current study on the aspects of destination choice on the basis of perceptions. Using construal level theory, current study seeks to explain

how people traverse psychological distance and develop perceptions that enable them to make choices (Prasad, 2022). The current study however uses the mixed methods research design.

At the same time various researchers have conducted studies in MMNGR (Bhandari M, 1999; Onchwati and Sommerville, 2010; Bhandari M., 2014; Walpole et al, 2003; Muthee L.W., 1984; and Maasai Mara Science and Development Initiative, 2015; among others. Bhandari (1999, 2014) are studied conducted by observation and gathering secondary data and they decry the environmental degradations caused in the MMNGR ecosystem by tourism. Muthee (1991) discusses the ecological impact of tourism on MMNGR using simulations. Onchwati and Sommerville (2010) is a book in which sustainable development for MMNGR is discussed. MMSDI (2015) is a summit that was held in which presentations were made on challenges facing the MMNGR ecosystem, with the view of developing a policy towards the restoration and conservation of the same. From these studies is evident that studies have been focusing on degradation, human-wildlife conflict, the negative impacts of tourism and sustainable approaches for conducting tourism in the MMNGR. None of these studies have considered the MMNGR as an international business and the sustainability of the demand side of the destination.

Tourism is a very competitive enterprise given that various destinations around the world compete for tourists from the same pools of source markets. It is important for managers to understand the dynamics involved in competition between destinations so that their attention is drawn towards the critical aspects that enable destinations to sustain their competitive edge (Woyo and Slabbert, 2021). It is worth noting that effective destination management demands that the manager be in mastery of various dimensions of the destination including performance and impacts; image, brand and

promotional programs; and the services offered. Research reveals that the subject of destination management has been ignored for a long time and yet managers are expected to operate destinations that deliver memorable experiences (Owiyo, 2018; Woyo and Slabbert, 2021). This calls for understanding of the tourists' requirements and their choice processes.

Marketing begins with the customer as the center of interest, and in this case of tourist destinations, it is the tourist. When the consumer is properly understood, she/he can be served to their satisfaction. The current study puts the tourist into consideration and, using the mixed methods research approach, aims to establish the effects of psychological distance, based on construal level theory, on international tourists' destination choice.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Maasai Mara National Game Reserve (MMNGR) is a world renowned tourist destination; positioning the MMNGR as an important destination both globally (to tourists) and nationally (to the economy). Generally international arrivals have been on the rise, however, attaining desired targets has been elusive. Owing to global economy reliance on tourism fierce competition has grown between destinations; and continuous improvement of destination image has become an imperative. Efforts to attain targets must go hand in hand with beautifying the destinations. But considering the degree to which Kenya relies on tourism it is imperative that the momentum toward attaining the targets is accelerated. Since marketing is the main tool that is used to communicate to source markets, it is important to establish factors that will improve communication effectiveness and be able to influence the tourists' destination choice. Most of the studies that have been carried out on MMNGR have focused more on conservation (the supply) and less on the tourist (the demand).

Although past studies have examined destination attributes with regard to tourists' destination choice, the effect of psychological distance on international tourists' destination choice remains unexplored. Yet understanding destination choice from a psychoanalytic perspective is likely to result in positive image portrayal and a sustainable competitive edge. This study employs the Construal level theory (CLT) to examine the effect of psychological distance on destination choice by international tourists visiting the Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR). Specifically, the study aimed at determining the direct effect of temporal, spatial and social distances on destination choice by the tourists. As established by Woyo and Slabbert (2021) one of the strategies to maintaining the competitiveness of tourist destinations is by designing effective campaign programs to the source markets; an aspect that contrual levels and psychological distance posit to address. The study also sought to establish the awareness of the lodge managers developing promotional communications, based on construal level and psychological distance, to the source markets as critical for effectiveness. Therefore the overall objective of this study is to establish the effects of psychological distance and the resultant construal, on tourists' destination choice decision-making by international tourists visiting the Maasai Mara national reserve

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General Objective

To establishthe effects of psychological distance on the destination choice decision making of international tourists to the Maasai Mara National Reserve, Kenya

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:-

i. To determine the effects of temporal distance on destination choice of international tourists

ii. To determine the effects of spatial distance on destination choice of international tourists

iii. To determine the effects of social distance on destination choice of international tourists

1.4 Research Questions

1. Does temporal distance affect the destination choice of international tourists?

2. Does spatial distance affect the destination choice of international tourists?

3. Does social distance affect the destination choice international tourists?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested in this study.

$H_0$1: Temporal distance has no significant effect on the destination choice of international tourists.

$H_0$2: Spatial distance has no significant effect on the destination choice of international tourists

$H_0$3: Social distance has no significant effect on the destination choice of international tourists

1.6 The Significance of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of psychological distance based on construal level theory on the tourists' destination choice of international tourists visiting the Maasai Mara national reserve. The study provides benefits various categories of people.

It is important to note that tourism management has become an important discipline whose curriculum is now offered at various tertiary colleges and institutions of higher learning. This study therefore contributes to extant literature in that discipline, and

specifically to the area of tourists' destination choice. Secondly the study is instructive to researchers in areas of further research. Thirdly the study guides policy makers in areas that would require revision of policy in order to enhance the competitiveness of the country as a destination; and those of the destinations within. Last but not least the study guides tourism marketers on how to enhance marketing communications so as to increase international tourist arrivals.

1.7 The Scope of the Study

The study evaluated international tourists' decision making process using three of the dimensions of psychological distance, based on CLT: temporal distance, spatial distance and social distance. It focused on international arrivals at the Maasai Mara National Reserve. The choice of this National Reserve is due to the fact that it is a globally famous tourist destination which receives over 75% of the international tourists who visit Kenya annually. The main focus was on the international tourists who visited the reserve during the high season between May and October 2019.

1.8 Research Limitations

There were various challenges encountered in this study.

The first limitation had to use a questionnaire for the survey and it was in the English language which demands possession of literacy skills. Tourists come from all over the globe and from diverse backgrounds and therefore some of them cannot read, write or speak English (especially those from the Asian continent). This was overcome by using voluntary interpreters from among themselves because at least within each party there would be one or so tourists who understood English. A further challenge was posed by the fact that discussions would end abruptly if the group leader got information that there was something interesting to see (perhaps an animal had appeared), or to move to the next activity like leaving the MMNR for another tourist

destination or to catch a flight back home. The researcher overcame this by leaving the questionnaires in the rooms and collecting them the following day during the normal routine cleaning time. With the managers' permission the tourists were made aware concerning the study in the evenings while they relaxed, so that they would feel at ease filling the questionnaires when they found them in the rooms.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Chapter Introduction/Overview

This chapter reviewed literature on the key constructs under study. Consequently, the chapter contains reviewed literature on the concept of tourist destination, tourist decision making, psychological distance, and the construal level theory. Secondly the chapter reports empirical review of literature relating psychological distance and decision making and offers a critique of these empirical studies and gaps identified. The chapter also contains the theoretical and conceptual frameworks.

2.1 Dependent Variable: Tourists' Destination Choice

2.1.1 Concept of Tourism Consumer Behaviour

Tourist destination choice is anchored in the consumer behavior discourse. Scholars have highlighted the importance of tourism stakeholders understanding travel motivation and behavior among tourists if indeed creation of demand and enhancement of tourist destination choice have to realized (Blasco et al., 2016; Decrop& Kozak, 2014; Van Vuuren &Slabbert, 2011). Consumer behavior encompasses attitude, evaluation, searching and purchasing services and products, or activities, experiences; and the decisions which go towards satisfying consumer needs (Cohen et al., 2014; Schiffman et al., 2014; Van Vuuren &Slabbert, 2011). According to Seyidor and Adomaitiene (2016), consumer behavior focuses on individuals' formulation of decisions pertaining to expenditure of accessible assets such as effort, money and time. Interest in tourists' destination choice is based on evidence which shows that the process of decision-making among tourists is not only complex, but is also multi-faceted and involves interrelated concepts, elements and sub-decisions (Cohen et al., 2014; Hsu et al., 2009; Smallman & Moore, 2010).

One of the most important stages in the consumer decision process is information search. Various other platforms have been identified as sources of information that tourists require to decide on destinations. Smallman & Moore (2010) identify travel agents, airlines, marketing activities, brochures, internet, family and friends, magazines, monitoring organizations, coach operations and visitor centres as crucial sources of destination information. Other potential sources of information and influencers of destination choice include social media (Sema, 2013), online marketing and reviews (Litvin et al., 2008).

Many other aspects of information search have been identified. For instance Ragavan et al., (2014) identify factors such as transport access to and within the destination, availability of suitable and price friendly accommodation, destination weather conditions, adequacy in infrastructure, attractions, and local people as critical to tourist destination choice. Jariyachamsit (2019) highlights factors such as trip distance, entertainment options, destination environment, accommodation facilities, history and culture of destination, and available recreation activities as factors which influences decision making among tourists. Food also features among factors that influence decision making among tourists. Amuquandoh and Adjei (2013) posit that local delicacies and cuisines interest tourists and can also act as attractions. Pestek and Cinjarevic (2014) concur with Amuquandoh and Adjei (2013) that characteristics of food such as uniqueness, quality and price, cultural heritage, food image, and nutritional benefits influence choice of food among tourists. Yiamjanya and Wongleede (2016) identify the allure for foreign land, food culture, exploration of new things, and adventure among others as important pull factors.

Tsourgiann et al., (2015) identify natural environment, vacation activities, transport accessibility, entertainment facilities, history and architecture, and local culture as factors contributing to tourists' destination decision making.

Destination choice is therefore seen as being dependent upon information determined from a combination of situational factors, alternative specific factors, and decision maker specific factors (Stabler et al, 2009; Wu et al, 2011). Price emerges from the alternative specific group as a critical attribute relative to tourist activities (Awaritefe, 2004) or the cost of travel. Qiu, Masiero and Li (2018) point out that in line with the law of demand; price increase is bound to result in decreased visit intention. Other alternative specific attributes often associated with destination choice include travel time and travel distance which have adverse effects on destination choice (Wu, et al., 2011); tourist attraction or resources which have been found to relate positively with choice of destination (Wu et al., 2011); type of activities available (Huybers, 2003); and attractiveness and reputation (Awaritefe, 2004; Wu et al, 2011).

Under the situational factors category, factors which are perceived as exerting significant influence on choice of destination include climate and weather conditions (Bigano et al, 2006); crowdedness (Huybers, 2003), and political and social situations (Karl et al, 2018). Decision maker-specific factors highlighted are the composition and size of tour party, tourist behaviors, socio-economic segmentation, demographic segmentation and religious groups (Wu et al, 2018; Shi et al, 2022; Chan & Guillet, 2011; Swarbrooke& Horner, 2003). These pieces of information must be explicitly provided by the destination to raise its chances of being selected.

Choi et al (2012) basing on an empirical data set collected from Chinese tourists visiting Macau SAR, attempted to decompose the destination choice process into a

multistage sequence (before purchase, at time of purchase, after purchase, after arriving at destination) with multiple decision choices for a vacation trip. The study results demonstrated that travel decision-making follows a multidimensional, ongoing sequence and is a hierarchical process. The contingent nature of decision-making was validated in part, by tracing the process of decision-making and information use along the travel planning horizon. The study results provided new insights for many tourism destinations and businesses eyeing the burgeoning Chinese tourists' market.

In another study Smallman and Moore (2010) in their research of process studies of tourist decision-making reviewed tourism decision-making paradigms and advocated for researches that would concentrate more on processes, like the decision-making process. The current study therefore is a contribution to literature in the direction recommended by Smallman and Moore (2011).

Rosendahl et al (2015) in their study titled “developing integrated marketing communication for tourist attractions in Norway” sought to answer some pertinent questions regarding tourists’ decision-making such as; whether destinations make enough investments in, and develop appropriate communications to tourist source markets in such ways as to address the target audiences, and if the communications presented truthfully what the destinations offered. Further questions raised were regarding the alignment of the communications to the evaluation criteria that are used by the source markets. The questions raised by Rosendahl et al (2015) are the essence of this study which seeks to establish the influence of psychological distance based on the CLT framework, on tourists’ destination choice decision-making. If the null hypothesis is rejected then these questions will be answered.

Bargeman and Van de Poel (2006) researched on the role of routine on vacation decision-making. It was a qualitative study among 32 Dutch households. It established among other findings, that planning for a domestic vacation was much less involving than for a vacation abroad. The current study attempts to examine the international tourists' destination choice process using psychological distance and CLT, in an attempt to unpack some of these complexities. This further emphasizes the need for the destination managers to provide comprehensive and clear information concerning the destination to enhance chances of being selected.

2.1.2 Tourist Travel Behaviour

Travel behaviour pertains to the specific behaviours and activities of tourists at a destination (Hertmann, 2011). Tourist travel behaviour is best understood from the dimension of traveller' roles and typologies. Like the decision-making typologies and roles are dependent upon social influences. They allow for assigning character to travellers and predicting their behaviour at a particular destination; and other psychological considerations (Acker et al, 2010). The conversations on travel behaviour focus on travellers and the various mental stages that they engage in order to settle on a trip of choice. It involves decisions on the where, when, how, and what among others. Consumer behaviour theory becomes relevant here as it explains the each of the decision making stages (Hertmann, 2011). Various theorists have conceptualized typologies in various forms as indicated below:

Theorist	**typologies**
Gray, 1970	Sunlust/wanderlust
Plog (2001)	venturers (Allocentric)/dependables (psychocentric)
Cohen (1972)	the organized mass tourist, individual mass tourist, the explorer and the drifter
Smith (1989)	the charter tourist, the mass tourist, incipient mass tourist, unusual tourist, off-bit tourist, elite tourists, explorers

Source: Hertmann, 2011

Other classifications have emerged with time. Qiu et al (2018) classifies tourists into different types basing on the tourists familiarity and desire for novelty. On one extreme is the 'drifter' who desires high levels of novelty at the expense of familiarity. However, on the other extreme lies the 'organized mass tourist' who demands for maximum familiarity as opposed to novelty. Sandwiched between these two extremes are the 'explorer' who represents a weaker aspect of the drifter, and the 'individual mass tourist' who is a weaker representative of the organized mass tourist. Plog (As cited by Goelgner, 2016), on the other hand uses the psychographic system to categorize tourists into 'Allocentric', 'Near-Allocentric', Nud-centric', 'Near-Psychocentric', and 'Psychocentric'. Plog argues that psychocentric tourists often look out for mature and familiar destinations. On the contrary, Best Trip Choices (2017) postulates that mid centric tourists can be viewed as 'Jeurneyers and Voyagers' who are sensation seeking and who enjoy adventurous holidays. Gretzel et al. (2004) integrates travel personalities that include 'culture creature', sight seeker; 'city slicker', Arid Athlete', 'All-rounder', 'Beach' Bum', 'Shopping shark', 'Trail Trekker', 'Family Guy', 'Boater', History Buff', and 'Gamer'. Travel motivation in terms of push factors or tourist motivation per se cited in Qiu et al., (2018) and pull

factors or specific destination attractions also emerges as critical elements of subjective factors with potential to influence destination choice.

Typology determines the activities of interests at the destination. The traveler will therefore choose the destination depending on the availability of those activities at the time intended for travel (spatial-temporal considerations) (Acker, et al, 2010).

The role of the traveler is determined by tourist motivations which are implicit in the typology. The tourist hierarchy of needs, often referred to as the tourist travel career ladder, is akin to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the only variation being that the traveler can choose to address a number of needs on a single trip (Hertmann, 2011). The motivations can range from factors arising from within the traveler, from the destination, or from the general environment, for instance, a global pandemic (Vuuren & Slabbert, 2011). They add that awareness of travel behavior empowers marketing and development programmes concerning a destination, as well as other important related plans. Since tourism is a highly competitive industry, knowledge of typology and roles can help a destination increase arrivals and the earnings thereof by being intentional about with the marketing communications to the source markets.

A number of studies have been conducted in the endeavour to understand the tourists' travel behaviour. For instance Terry Lam and Cathy Hsu (2006) applied the theory of planned behaviour to tourists' destination choosing process, employing the constructs of attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. They perceived behavioural control as past behaviour influenced by choice of the destination. The current study, using psychological distance and CLT attempts to provide explanation of the process through which such constructs are taken in order to reach the choice of a destination.

Subjective factors such as personality also feature prominently among influential factors to the process of destination choice. Qiu et al (2018) classifies tourists into different types basing on the tourists familiarity and desire for novelty. On one extreme is the ‘drifter’ who desires high levels of novelty at the expense of familiarity. However, on the other extreme lies the ‘organized mass tourist’ who demands for maximum familiarity as opposed to novelty. Sandwiched between these two extremes are the ‘explorer’ who represents a weaker aspect of the drifter, and the ‘individual mass tourist’ who is a weaker representative of the organized mass tourist. Plog (As cited by Goelgner, 2016), on the other hand uses the psychographic system to categorize tourists into ‘Allocentric’, ‘Near-Allocentric’, Nud-centric’, ‘Near-Psychocentric’, and ‘Psychocentric’. Plog argues that psychocentric tourists often look out for mature and familiar destinations. On the contrary, Best Trip Choices (2017) postulates that mid centric tourists can be viewed as ‘Jeurneyers and Voyagers’ who are sensation seeking and who enjoy adventurous holidays. Gretzel et al. (2004) integrates travel personalities that include ‘culture creature’, sight seeker; ‘city slicker’, Arid Athlete’, ‘All-rounder’, ‘Beach’ Bum’, ‘Shopping shark’, ‘Trail Trekker’, ‘Family Guy’, ‘Boater’, History Buff’, and ‘Gamer’. Travel motivation in terms of push factors or tourist motivation per se cited in Qiu et al., (2018) and pull factors or specific destination attractions also emerges as critical elements of subjective factors with potential to influence destination choice

According to Erul et al, (2020) travel decisions involve choice of destination, time period of visit, duration of stay, activities to undertake, purchases, accommodation, sites to visit (and itinerary), among others. They observe that the challenge that tourists face is to make choices that will maximize the experience and yield the desired satisfaction; reiterating the route that the process take as need development,

information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and the post purchase dissonance; and the cycle begins all over again.

From the foregoing conversations there are several implications. First and foremost the destination managers must ensure that the destinations are maintained to possess a good image, complete with the offerings that are congruent to the travelers' travel intentions. Secondly, the destination managers must understand the tourist typologies and their expectations of the destinations. Thirdly, it is crucial that the destination manager must communicate these offering very clearly to the destination markets.

2.1.3 Tourist Travel Decision Making

Tourist destination choice is anchored in the consumer behavior discourse. Scholars have highlighted the importance of tourism stakeholders understanding travel motivation and behavior among tourists if indeed creation of demand and enhancement of tourist destination choice have to realized (Blasco et al., 2016; Decrop& Kozak, 2014; Van Vuuren &Slabbert, 2011). Consumer behavior encompasses attitude, evaluation, searching and purchasing services and products, or activities, experiences; and the decisions which go towards satisfying consumer needs (Cohen et al., 2014; Schiffman et al., 2014; Van Vuuren &Slabbert, 2011).

According to Seyidor and Adomaitiene (2016), consumer behavior focuses on individuals' formulation of decisions pertaining to expenditure of accessible assets such as effort, money and time. Interest in tourists' destination choice is based on evidence which shows that the process of decision-making among tourists is not only complex, but is also multi-faceted and involves interrelated concepts, elements and sub-decisions (Cohen et al., 2014; Hsu et al., 2009; Smallman & Moore, 2010). According to Pearce (2005) the research work of academicians and scholars cannot

only solve the puzzle of the tourists' destination choice, but also influence the same process; making them useful to practitioners

Interest in tourists' destination choice is based on evidence which shows that the process of decision-making among tourists is not only complex, but is also multi-faceted and involves interrelated concepts, elements and sub-decisions (Cohen et al., 2014; Hsu et al., 2009; Smallman & Moore, 2010). According to Nejati and Mohamed (2014) the travel decision-making process goes through five stages namely problem recognition, information search, evaluating the options available, the purchase decision, and the after-purchase reflection. They argue further that when travelers encounter challenges in the process of deciding the resort to mental construals of close substitutes. The implication is that knowing the variables involved is crucial in aiding the process and increasing the chances of the destination being chosen. According to Seydov and Adomaitiene (2016) factors that influence this decision-making process are broadly categorized into pull and push factors; where the pull are external to the traveler while the push emanate from within the traveler. Understanding of the process and the factors involved is very important because they help the destination manager to identify the expectations of the traveler and to prepare offerings at the destination that will meet the traveler's expectations to satisfaction (Nejati & Mohamed, 2014; Seydov & Adomaitiene, 2016).

There has been plenty of research investment in the aspect of tourist decision-making (Chen, 2007; Poria, Reichel &Biran, 2006; Yan & Morrison, 2007) in an attempt to identify who really is a tourist, where does she or he want to go, and how and why; reflected in such themes as tourist motivations, the process of choosing a destination, and tourist typologies and their decision-making process. Pearce (2005) defines tourists' destination choice process as the behaviour that tourists manifest when

looking for, buying, utilizing, assessing and disposing destinations assumed to have the ability to meet their needs. Schiffman &Kanuk (2010) weighs in with a rejoinder that these studies have majorly focused on the model of destination choice which has been instrumental in demonstrating the interactions between the image of the destination, visitor typologies, and selection of the destination. He emphasizes the need to comprehend the interactions between an individual's characteristics the characteristics of a destination in predicting the tourists' behaviour. Indeed this is considered useful as it would raise the level of understanding of the positive and negative evaluative elements that affect tourists' choice of a destination and travel decision-making which are considered important areas in tourism research literature for the reason that ability to predict tourists' decisions guide the programs for marketing of tourism by helping in creation of demand and informing the destination choice process. (Laws, 1995; March & Woodside, 2005; Haarhoff, 2018; Lam & Hsu 2006; (Decrop 2006; Mazanec, 2005; March & Woodside, 2005).

It is perceived that with possession of sufficient knowledge and comprehension of behaviors of tourists, policies and plans can be designed and implemented to raise the level of tourism demand. It is further expected that managers will understand better both how tourists make their decisions and the activities they engage in at the destination; and put in place effective marketing programs. The imperative of businesses paying attention to the attributes of goods and services, and considering customer preferences when making decisions about market offerings will be observed for tourism businesses; considering that, especially for tourism, people may take decisions to travel for leisure but they all do it for diverse reasons (Law et al. 2004; Fodness, 1992; Verma, Plaschka& Louviere, 2002; Beerli& Martín, 2004).

In tourism research, many models of the decision-making in the choice of tourist destination, also show that the individual's demographic and socioeconomic status are internal inputs that influence their decision (Beerli& Martín, 2004) – and trip characteristics have also been used to predict vacation choices. Travel decision-making models are of particular interest to this research due their consideration of the various inputs that tourists consider in order to arrive at a travel decision (George, 2010; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Moutinho 2000). Haarhoff (2018) further adds that the destination choice is not always as straightforward as it appears, as the prospective tourist can withdraw at any stage prior to the actual purchase, and that it is also not uncommon for some stages in the conventional decision-making process to be skipped.

Al-Tarawneh (2012) perceives decision making as a procedure through which solutions to problems related to existing demand circumstances are recognized and selected. Previously choice has been identified as the critical issue in consumer behavior (Sirakaya& Woodside, 2005). Consequently, choice set method has been employed to explain decision making. Djeri et al., (2007) argue that the process of decision making entails choosing between two or more options. In essence therefore, a decision is seen to happen when a solution is selected.

Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) delineate five stages through which decision-making process is realized. They include; recognizing the problem, searching information on available alternatives, selecting and purchasing, and embarking on post purchase process. In the case of tourist destination decision making, Djeri et al (2007) identify four phases namely; introspective consideration of own ideas, retrospective reflection, prospective expectations and prescriptive decision. Um and Crompton (1990) had

hitherto identified four critical stages in choosing tourism destinations. They are; the awareness set, the late consideration or evoked set, and destination choosing.

According to Irsha, (2018), external variables comprise of the tourist pull factors associated with the destination, and also the social and family influences encountered during decision-making. On the other hand, the nature of the trip is inclusive of various aspects related with the trip and which also beg for decisions. They include the time the trip has to be made, the trip size, and the activities intended to be undertaken during the trip. Internal variables relate to aspects such as attitude, motivation and lifestyle which are person specific situational factors.

More studies have further emphasized the importance of understanding the tourists' decision-making process. Moore et al., (2012) for instance, discerned that dimensions such as flexibility in making decisions, timing and area of the trip, stage of the trip, and the social composition of the trip party were critical dynamics in decision-making among tourists However, it is emerging that tourists rely on several other criteria to choose a preferred destination. Litvin et al. (as sited by Reisinger & Crotts, 2010) for instance, points to the intangibility factor of the word-of-mouth arguing that the service nature of the tourism industry is such that the word-of-mouth in conjunction with interpersonal influence is an important source of information. Litvin and colleagues contend that travel decisions are occasionally based on opinions of others.

Decision making in the context of tourist destination is no doubt confronted with psychological distance dimensions. Such decisions in line with observations by other researchers, can have immediate (time: proximal) or long term (Time: distal) consequences; can be close or near (space: proximal) by concerning physical features or events around them or far (space: distal) in which case they concern physical

features or events in other countries; or can affect themselves or those closely associated with them (social distance: proximal) or others not associated with them (social distance: distal). Previous evidence has shown that decision making allows for discrepancies if made for one-self as opposed to being made for others (Garcia-Retamero &Galesic, 2012; Polman, 2012); for the present against later (Olwola& Kennedy), or for the here against a distant location (Goodman &Malkoc, 2012). These studies demonstrate that studying tourists' decision-making is attains greater completeness when the perspective of psychological distance is invoked. Thus, the current study has purposed to investigate the effects of psychological distance on tourists' decision-making regarding destination choice.

2.1.4 The Concept of Destination and Tourist Destination Choice

The discourse on tourism cannot be complete without insights into destinations and destination choice. From the era of the Pharaohs of Egypt and the classical world, tourism was already being practiced as is manifested through voyages that people undertook to relax and amuse themselves. It was a symbol of the luxury that they enjoyed. From those early times tourism was already fashioned along adventures at destinations, centered on features, sports and the people (Gyr, 2010). People from all walks of life: nobility, merchants, soldiers, students, pilgrims, beggars, robbers and hobby travelers; engaged in tourism. By the 487-424 BC traveling for research purposes had already commenced. By the eighteenth century guidebooks, travel logs with comprehensive content complete with recommendations were available (Gyr, 2010). In the same era, one Thomas Cook came up with travel agencies, travel packages and other instruments that enabled tourism to be practiced en masse and as businesses (Kline et al, 2014; Gyr, 2010). Tourism is perceived to have spiraled upwards after World War I with the development of sophisticated infrastructures; and

holidaying becoming a popular type of recreation for many to the point that it became a vital sector of the economy globally and a definitive manifestation of industrialization (Gyr, 2010). Consensually, it traverses boundaries temporally, spatially and socially.

A lot of interest has been devoted towards the discourse on tourist spaces (Meethan, 2006). As a result, several definitions of tourism destination have been advanced. According to Govers and Go (2009), a destination is conceived as a construction of a geographical place which has an influence on visitors' actions as well as on the local's conceptions. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) defined tourist destinations as geographical regions that are explicitly positioned and branded to offer tourists all manner of travel activities and enjoyment. Meethan, Anderson and Miles (2006) posit that destinations are imagined communities that constitute tourists and hosts; and are constructed in a deliberate way to fulfill the specific expectations that tourists have. McGibbon (2006) argues that destinations are surrounded by symbolic complexes that depict images which originate from diverse sources that include literature, photography, art, television, music and film.

The concept of tourism destination continues to receive attention in the discourse on tourism (Kresic &Prebezac, 2011; Tam, 2012; Ariya, Wishitemi, & Sitati2017). Scholars contend that the driving force towards destination choice is embedded in the destination attractiveness without which the notion of tourism would be unheard of. Studies further point out that the choice of a destination is dependent upon the ability of the destination to meet the diverse needs of the tourists (Kresic &Prebezac, 2011; Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. 2007). According to Lee, Huang and Yeh (2010), special features that a destination is capable of offering provide the basis for tourist attraction.

Such features enhance place attachment and dependence in relation to a destination (Chen, Wu and Huang, 2012).

Lopes (2011) is also a study on destination image focused on the establishment of important elements of a destination from a tourists' point of view and what it means for destination managers. The study opinionated that destinations occurred in two phases: primary and secondary, and that the secondary image was developed prior to a person's tour. In their conclusions they stressed the importance of strategic persuasive communication about the destination.

Saramemi and Kylanen (2011) contend that in tourism studies, the concept of destination has been viewed from several perspectives. They recognize that tourism destination could be framed ideographically, in which case focus is on natural and human material presence, or from an organizational perspective for which the scale and scope of spatial, temporal and capacity are prime, or from a cognitive perspective for which tourists experiences, feelings, actions, and perceptions reign supreme

The concept of destination has also previously been defined basing on various research orientations. They further noted that geography oriented research has for instance regarded destinations as geographical areas which include countries, towns and islands delineate five elements that define destination products. These are attractions, facilities, images, price and accessibility. Definitions from the realm of environmental and economic geography have associated destinations with locations for tourism planning, development and where the effects of tourism are visible (Hall, & Page, 2006; Baerenholdt et al., 2004).

On the basis of the marketing management paradigm, destinations are regarded as traditional commodity products, that agglomerate services and facilities that are designed to meets tourists needs and expectations (Cooper et al., 2005). A tourism destination is considered as an amalgamation of tourism products in which each product represents a package of intangible and tangible components that reflect activities offered at the destination. Such products offer an integrated experience to consumers. A destination to them is defined as a geographical region which visitors find unique, and which is identified by its brand name, and it exists both physically and mentally (Saraniemi & Kylanen, 2011)

The customer orientation research argues that a destination is a culmination of a service environment that offers a combination of services which not only deliver psychological, sensual and intangible benefits but also brings out tangible elements (Mossberg, 2007; O'Dell, 2005). Destinations from a customer oriented research are regarded as places that facilitate customer experience since customer value is at the core of the services marketing model (Haahti &Komppula, 2006). Such a model puts emphasis on customer value when designing tourism products. The customer-orientation perspective works on the premise that service providers facilitate unique experiences for customers but are not able to deliver without the participation of customers (Komppula, 2005).

Alternative views on the concept of destination have been advanced basing on the understanding that the customer – oriented approach perceives a tourist as a passive consumer. Yet, it has been pointed out and rightly so, that as a customer, the tourist is a participative, active, and economically rational decision maker, who has the capability to make judgments based on rational choices (Moisander &Valtonene, 2006). Building on the World Tourism Organization (WTO) definition which views

tourist destinations as fundamental units of analysis in tourism (Zemla, 2016), a number of other alternative definitions have been advanced. From a spatial approach for instance, a tourist destination is defined as a geographical area rich in tourist products that motivate guests and encourage tourism activities (Koestantia et al., 2014); or a well-defined geographical area which is also looked at in the realm of a brand or product (Tan et al., 2013).

Economically, a tourist destination has been defined as a region that provides tourists with opportunities to travel outside of their residence (Vargas-Sánchez, (2016)); a place or situation where a tourist travels and visits attractions that have special motivations. Such places include historical or archaeological sites (Izadi, 2015); and as an area that has a significant offer of tourism attractions and infrastructure. Such an area often maintains a long term concentration of visitors owing to its developed services and tourism infrastructure.

On the basis of the systems approach, Koestantia et al., (2014) define a destination as an area without any administrative limitations which has tourist aspects that are interrelated and integrated systematically and which motivate travel, visits, and industry mechanism. Baggio et al. (2010b) on the contrary, invoked the network approach to define a tourism destination as a complex system which encompasses a network of companies, associations and organizations that have dynamic and nonlinear mutual relationships.

According to Zygmunt (2013), tourist destinations experience sharp competition for tourists. Consequently, national and regional governments always desire to succeed by increasing competitiveness of their tourist destinations. Zygmunt (2013) contends that a destination's ability to meet needs of tourists is indeed the impetus required to

attract tourists to the particular destination. Biganoa et al., (2004) add that a destination's attributes and components define the ability of that destination to meet the diverse needs of tourists. Vengesayi (2003) therefore argues that competitiveness of a destination is manifested in its capability to pull or attract visitors, and the revenue associated to it. In Barros et al (2010) which analyzed Portuguese tourist choice processes concerning a new destination concluded among other things that, tourist's destination choice should be considered as a multistage process involving destination attributes, travel arrangements, and information gathered.

Liu (2014) is a study on understanding destination choice from a cultural distance perspective using familiarity, geographical distance, past international travel experience and novelty seeking as the moderators to the relationship between cultural distance and destination choice. A self-administered survey research approach was used and data was collected using quantitative structured questionnaires. Descriptive analysis tools of frequencies, means and standard deviations to establish data characteristics while correlation analysis and collinearity we applied in order to detect correlation and multi-collinearity and the hypothesis that tourists chose destinations with cultural similarities to their own was only partially supported.

Tan (2018) studied trip planning using the destination image attributes perspective and the temporal dimension of psychological distance. He opined that planning prior to a trip was in most cases protracted, and that expectations drifted from fantasy to actuality. CLT and psychological distance was applied to international cities located overseas; through the image of a destination in order to decipher the dynamic underlying the drift. The study concluded that there are some attributes about which tourists invariably worry. The study acknowledged that tourism is packaged with dreams, as well as risks and limitations. The said drifts also indicate that tourists

increasingly desire to deal with concrete matters and to fix activities into their travel programs as they approach the time of traveling. He added that these are the concerns that organizations that market destinations must constantly address in their communications.

Bronner and Hoog (2014) investigated the role of information searching on economizing of vacations and found that the most important stages of tourists' destination choice engage websites mounted by tourism marketers, and the buzz word on the internet, followed by brochures and travel guides.

From the foregoing discourse it is evident that tourism has become an important global economic activity that is practiced by individuals and groups from diverse economies, socio-cultural backgrounds and geographical regions. It is also evident that for tourism to thrive there must be existence of destinations. The concept of tourist destination has been widely researched. Consequently a destination has been defined from various perspectives including geographic, cultural, economic, marketing, systems, administrative, and even competitive. Therefore destinations are real places that exist far away from the habitual dwelling of the tourists. they are endowed with features that are attractive, which features must be developed and maintained because they are of economic value hence they are considered as essential pillars of economic development for many nations. The aspect of economic importance brings into the destination description the element of commercialization of the attractions, which in turn brings in the customer aspect. In the case of tourist destinations the customer is the tourist. The attractiveness must be communicated to tourists using credible sources and presentations that communicate effectively as to make the tourist choose the destination. The tourists will then, mentally, traverse temporal, spatial and social boundaries in order to access the destinations. The

element of effective communication cannot be overemphasized since extant literature also shows that destinations around the world compete for the attention of the tourist. This study focuses on MMNR as a tourist destination that is world famous. Besides, according to vision 2030 Kenya intends to be among the top-ten long haul world tourist destinations by 2030.

Important to a tourist destination is the destination image. According to Molina et al (2010) destination image is largely accepted as a pertinent aspect in successful tourism management and destination marketing. In their study "Tourism marketing information and destination image management" they sought to identify destination features which contribute to building a positive image for the destination and to examine the relationship between those features, and the image induced by brochures. They posited that information about a specific destination was an important avenue for promoting the tourism industry and influence the image of the destination. Their study was based on previous research on the impact of tourist information sources in destination promotion and argued that brochures, as tourist information sources, have an important influence on destination image. Based on past theoretical discussions regarding destination image, empirical research was conducted to test the relationship proposed here. Multiple item indicators from previous studies were used. Molina et al (2010) in this study used the survey approach and non-probability sampling to draw their sample size. They measured the constructs using a five-point Likert scale while relationships between variables was established using ANOVA. Results indicated that there was a relationship between information sources and destination image, thus influencing the choice process.

Another aspect about destinations that has attracted attention is risk. Karl et al (2018) in their study on the influence of risk perception on destination choice processes had as main objectives determining safety and security as basic prerequisites for the positive development of destinations (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). They argued that risk was one of the most influential factors in tourists' destination choice and mainly influenced the decision of where to travel (Fuchs and Pizam, 2011). Although past studies agreed that risk influenced destination choices, the questions of during which step of the travel decision-making processed risk was considered most relevant for Karl et al (2018), and that which other determinants played a role, remained unclear. Karl et al (2018) sought to specifically address these ambiguous aspects to shed light on tourists' travel decision-making and destination choice process in the context of risk. The study employed the mixed methods approach research design. Using semi-structured interviews data was collected both by survey and group discussions. The qualitative data was subjected to content analysis while the quantitative data was subjected to time series analyses both at the micro and macro approach levels. Theoretically they came up with three conclusions: First, was that the travel behavior sequence (Choi et al, 2012; Mansfeld, 1992) should be considered as a circular process where experiences that tourists had during their travels influenced their future destination choices. Secondly, the destination choice and destination choice behavior needs to be seen as a dynamic process that changes during tourists' lives, and particularly, that general travel experiences influenced risk perceptions and shaped destination choices as tourists climbed the travel career ladder (Ryan, 1998); and the individual tourists' life cycle, like changes in the family situation during tourists' lives (e.g. transition from traveling as a couple to traveling with small children) were of importance; since they all highly affected risk perceptions and

destination choice behaviors. Finally, that destination choices were part of the open system of tourism, that changed when there were changes in the source market (e.g. economic crises) or at destinations (e.g. increase in terrorism); which would determine tourists' personal choice of destination and result in fresh patterns of arrivals.

It is worth noting that all the definitions of a destination is a good or a package of services that must be presented as attractive in order to influence tourist behavior; the must be explicitly but uniquely positioned and branded to satisfy specific expectations built by the tourists; and therefore manifest capability of offering customer value. This situates the study of tourist destination choice in the domain of consumer behavior which explains how consumers make purchase choices. The definitions further indicate that tourists prior to travelling form images of destinations based on information obtained from literature, pictures, films, art, television and music. This has two implications: one is the emphasis that destination choice is founded in consumer behavior where the choice process involves information search from various sources. Secondly, considering that the destination choice is made based on imagery formed based on available information and the fact that the choice is for a distant place involving distant communities to be visited in the distant future, it is important that studies on tourist destination choice be anchored in psychological distance and specifically, the construal level theory as applied in this study. In so doing the conceptualization of a destination this study hopes to help in improving the tools of communicating to source markets in order to improve arrivals and the earnings therefrom; by associating it (the destination) with psychological distance and construal level theory (CLT).

In conclusion studies have underscored the importance of understanding CB for purposes of understanding the tourists' destination choice process. Extant literature also credits research with the capability of not only solving the puzzle of destination choice, but also influencing it; and reiterate that the goal of destination managers is to influence tourists' decision-making and this can only be done effectively if they understand tourist behavior patterns and interests (needs). It is also noted that destination choice decisions are made based on information received from multiple sources. Past studies have investigated motivations and attractions and many other factors that are considered to be involved in the tourists' decision-making process.

Decisions concerning tourism have been described as much more complex because they entail purchasing a trip that will take place in the future at a geographically distant and (sometimes unfamiliar) destination; and will also involve encountering foreign communities with foreign cultures. They have come to the conclusion that the studies on tourists decision-making have been based on decision-making models developed for goods and conventional services such as those provided by banks. They have concluded further that prior studies on tourists' decision-making process have employed the cause-and-effect approaches with factors on one side and outcomes on the other. Extensive reviews have also been conducted on the research that has been carried out on tourism and the tourists' decision-making process and have come up with various recommendations for the direction that research on this subject should take: First and foremost they recommend tourists specific models. Secondly they advocate that the models should focus on processes such as the decision-making.

Thirdly they recommend that key areas requiring more research in tourism include decision-making, expectations, perceptions, and satisfaction. Fourthly they recommend use of more qualitative approaches that are able to emphasize the vividness of tourism engagements. The current research attempts to fill in these gaps by focusing on the tourists' decision-making, and how through psychological distance from the CLT perspective, expectations and perceptions can be managed in order to choose a destination and have a satisfying experience. This current study also adopted the mixed methods research design in order to include a qualitative component that facilitated capturing some vividness of the tourists' engagements.

2.2 Independent Variable (Psychological Distance)

2.2.1 The concept of Psychological Distance

Psychological distance, often referred to as psychic distance is viewed from the tourist perspective as the perceived differences individuals attach towards tourist destinations and their own country (Abooali& Mohamed, 2012; Sousa & Bradley, 2008). This definition delineates the two concepts of psychological and distance which are subjective. Various definitions of psychological distance have however been highlighted. According to Trope and Liberman (2010), psychological distance reflects the subjective experience that an individual undergoes with regard to the closeness or far-ness of something from the self, here and now. Wilson et al., (2013) concur that in defining psychological distance as such, it can be experienced in objective forms of distance in time or space.

According to Ankomah and Crompton (1992 as cited in Choi et al., 2016), cognitive distance which, amounts to mental representations of the actual distance are influenced by an individual's cultural, social and general life experiences. Cadwalleder (1979 as cited in Choi et al., 2016) concurs with the cognitive distance

notion by pointing out that subjectivity creeps in decisions regarding the need to travel, where to travel to, and how to reach there. McDonald, Chai and Newell (2015) recognize that there are diverse factors or events and objects which define psychological distance. However, this study focused on temporal, spatial and social distances which have been employed in previous studies (Chen & Li, 2018).

According to Van Lange & Huckelba, (2021) psychological distance is independent on locale and refers to the extent to which individuals detach themselves from involvement with others. Berman et al, (2012) define psychological distance as the subjective space which individuals perceive between themselves and things, people or events. Berman et al contend that psychological distance is an egocentric separation through which individuals become points of reference, acting as non-involved third parties in situations.

Fielder et al. (2012) posit that adjusting the psychological distance is critical in life, since the psychological distance accounts for individuals' actions such as self-conscience, being humble, flexibility and being open to uncertainty. Fielder et al. (2012) further contend that adjustment of different levels of psychological distance must recognize the different levels through which it is manifested as noted in the construal level theory. Consequently, four distinct levels are delineated namely; social, temporal, spatial and experiential distances.

Manoj and Tsai (2012) build on the definition by Trope and Liberman (2010), which advances that psychological distance relates to the dimensions such as space, hypotheticality, time and social distance; which define the different ways that objects are removed from the self; to concur that individuals are capable of distancing themselves from objects, events and tasks (Kyung, Menon & Trope, 2010); and that

psychological distance is capable to reducing the intensity of negative feelings (Van Boven et al., 2010).

Maglio (2020) by exploring consumers dreams, intimates that psychological distance has the capacity to enable the consumer to transcend beyond immediate experiences, by conjuring a spatially distant location, delaying immediate actions to extrapolate for the future, and to be sensitive enough to others' priorities. Consequently, Maglio (2020) posits that consumers need to hold hypothetical alternatives if they have to succeed in switching to other new brands. Maglio (2020) delineates space, time, social distance, and probability as the dimensions or avenues through which the mind travels away from the present.

Psychological distance has been attributed with several aspects of real life such as the capacity to modulate goal based against movement based imitation (Genschow et al., 2019); reducing sensitivity to any further psychological distance (Trope &Liberman, 2013); improving decision making under information overload via gist memory (Fukukura, Ferguson &Fiyita, 2013); reducing literal imitation (Hansen, Alves & Trope, 2016); promoting exploration in search of a global maximum (Yudkim et al., 2019); impacting on politeness (Stephan, Liberman& Trope, 2010); impacting on group judgements in the way of beliefs pertaining to common goals (Henderson, 2009) and impacting on abstraction (Soderberg et al., 2015).

Septianto &Pratiwi (2016) in their experimental study posited that in considering a course of action, considerations against (cons) the action tend to be subordinate to considerations in favor of (pros) the action in that cons are considered only if the level of pros is sufficient, whereas pros are considered independent of the level of cons. The authors therefore concluded that pros constituted a higher construal level than

cons and predicted, on the basis of temporal construal processes (Trope & Liberman. 2003), that pros were more pertinent in making decisions for the more distant future, whereas the contrary applied for cons.

Eyal et al (2009) in their experimental study it was predicted that because of their abstract nature, personal values had greater impact on how individuals plan their distant future than their near future. Higher correspondence was found when behaviors were construed on a higher level and when behavior was planned for the more distant future than when the same behaviors were construed on a lower level or were planned for the more proximal future. Their research demonstrated that personal values were better predictors of individuals' mental construal and plans for distant future behaviors than near future behaviors. Personal values seemed to provide a general interpretive frame and behavioral guide for the relatively distant future. They concluded that the immediate future is construed in terms of more specific, situational aspects that are unrelated to one's general values. For instance, an individual who values adventures and risk-taking may persistently plan activities that express this value (like hot balloon rides) in the future, but hardly, in reality take part in those activities, due to situational constraints. Thus, while values may guide people's plans, low-level, local, and sometime emerging matters are likely to shape their actual behavior. People may therefore often fail to express their values in actual behaviors unless they pre-commit themselves, in advance, to carrying out those behaviors.

Xu et al (2020) is an exploration of the word-of-mouth and its influence on tourist destinations in crises. They begin by noting that the number of managers that are turning to word-of-mouth as a marketing instrument is on the rise, due to its efficiency and effectiveness. They argue that invitations to comment online, have been instrumental to spreading information about their organizations, and have served

to draw in future customers. Based on the findings of Shi et al (2016) they argue that word-of-mouth influences not only what consumers expect and what satisfies them, but also their opinion about the quality of the goods and services of the organization thereby influencing their decision to buy or not to buy. Xu et al (2022) are convicted that through the word-of-mouth the fear of the possibility of risk can be minimized while raising the value of the organization with the end result those reservations are increased. The current study is based on psychological distance that has its roots in the construal level theory. In this study psychological distance is defined as subjective distance imagined by the participants of experiences and individuals within the participants' psychological space along any of its dimensions which have been identified as temporal, spatial, social and hypothetical. They posit that tourists perceive images and their emotive dispositions about destinations are significantly influenced by psychological distances. These emotional and cognitive perceptions about destinations are in turn conveyed to others by word-of-mouth. They also stated that there is a high likelihood of repeat visits to a destination with an imagined lesser psychological distance.

The study of Xu et al (2021) considered tourists' perceived destination image as the exogenous variable, word-of-mouth and psychological distance as mediating variables between the imagines destination image and expected behavior change. Word-of-mouth was also applied as the moderating variable on the association between the imagined destination image and psychological distances and the expected behavior change. Behavior change was taken as the endogenous variable. Data was collected using five-point Likert scale self-administered questionnaires. The study sample was drawn using convenience sampling design from various tourist destinations in Kashgar (Japan). Normality of data was tested using skewness and kurtosis. Harman's

single factor test, partial correlation, multi-trait multi-method model, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin analyses were also performed. Reliability was tested using Cronbach's alpha test while the validity was tested using convergence validity and discriminant validity. Convergence validity used the standardized factor loading, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). AMOS 17 (IBM) is the means by which the model fit was analyzed. Path analysis was used to regress the variables and establish the relationship between the exogenous variables and the endogenous variable. The results revealed that word-of-mouth plays an important role destination image improvement; that word-of-mouth is a critical indicator of tourists expected behavior change (and hence it influences repeat visits); that word-of-mouth moderates the association between the imagined image of the destination and tourists' expected behavior change; and that word-of-mouth has the capability to moderate psychological distances and hence diminish any of its negative effects on destination choice decision process. All these outcomes were recommended to destination managers for adoption by the implementers of their marketing programs.

From the past studies that have been reviewed various conclusions can be made concerning psychological distance and its usefulness to this study. In the first place it has been found that psychological distance can improve decision-making under information overload. The tourism industry is very competitive with every destination trying to woo tourists, thus creating information overload in the system that is processing information in order to make a destination choice. Secondly psychological distance promotes exploration in search of maximizing the global experience. Thirdly is that it decreases choice deferral rates and increases choice satisfaction. If there is a tool that will enable a destination to be chosen immediately instead of tomorrow, it (the destination) should be able to go for it. Fourthly, psychological distance and

construal guide predictions, evaluations, and lead to behavior change (which would manifest in destination choice). Fifthly it has been found that pros are more salient in deciding for the distant future, and that they are not affected by cons. It means that if a destination provides enough reasons why it should be visited, providing reasons to the contrary may be difficult. Sixthly at has also been proven that decisions for the distant future are more reflective of an individual's values that can only likely to be actualized through pre-commitment. This is a nugget for destinations that can access the values data bases of tourists in their source markets and convince them of the possibilities of actualization. Last but not least is the fact that aspects that are distant assume more permanence than those that are close. This is due to the fact that the distant aspects are value and desire based and therefore difficult to change. On the other hand, those that are close are perceived to be changeable with every emerging piece of information. Therefore, this study finds a lot of reliance in the concept of psychological distance vis-à-vis the tourists' destination choice process.

2.2.2 Temporal Distance and destination Choice

Liu and Xu (2015) define temporal distance as the amount of time (in the past or future) which separates an individual's present time and the target event. Blackley (2006) posits that temporal distance reflects how far in time it is that a future event is set to occur from the present. Consequently, it may be construed as a near future event when the distance measured in terms of time is short, or distant future event when time distance to the event is long. Liberman, Sagristano and Trope (2002 as cited in Blackley, 2016) agree that temporal distance measured in terms of time is critical in determination of levels of abstraction, and by extension, level of construal.

O'Sullivan (2015) asserts that temporal distance is a measure of distance in time. Consequently, an object is temporally near if it is near in time. However, it is labeled

as temporally distant if it is far in time. Kim et al (2016) delineate two aspects of temporal distance. They argue for instance, that tourists planning to visit far destinations in the far future focus more on abstractions of the destination, while those who plan to visit close destinations in the near future focus more on concrete attributes of the destination.

Blackley (2016) posits that temporal distance reflects how far it is that a future event is set to occur from the present, and may be construed as near future event when the distance measured in terms of time is short, or distant future even when distance measured in terms of time is long. Liberman, Sagristano and Trope agree that temporal distance measured in terms of time is critical in determination of levels of abstraction, and by extension, level of construal (Blackley, 2016).

Various studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between temporal distance and destination choice Tan (2020) analyzed the effect of temporal psychological distance indirectly on tourist destination attributes via reliance on word-of-mouth. After manipulation of low and high temporal distances by employing distances of 2 months and 12months and conducting a series of tests on the 128 and 155 responses for the 2 months and 12 months groups respectively, Wee-Kheng Tan (2017) found significant differences among the groups in relation to safety, relaxation and safety, and relaxation attributes. Wee-Kheng Tan (2019) concluded that word-of-mouth was not a homogeneous block influencer under temporal distance, but rather depends on the attributes inherent in the destination of choice.

Liu et al (2020) explored the role that psychological distance and involvement plays in the buying behavior elicited by consumers in an online promotion activity. Using an empirical model that pitted purchase decision on temporal distance and social

distance, Liu et al. (2020) established that temporal distance was a positive and significant predictor of consumers' purchase decisions of high involvement, but was a negative predictor of purchase decisions of low involvement products. In retrospect, they concluded that temporal distance impacted consumers purchase decision involvement positively and significantly; while purchase decision involvement was a positive and significant determinant of consumers' total consumption.

Laran (2010) explored the influence of temporal distance in choosing the future, by examining its effect on consumers' self-control, drawing upon experiments on two self-control domains namely; saving money and healthy eating. Laran (2010) found evidence linking temporal distance to self-control decisions.

Tan (2018) focused on moving from fantasy to reality by analyzing the prior planning of a trip bearing in mind temporal psychological distance and destination image attributes. Tan (2018) argued that planning for trip is often lengthy and usually shifts from fantasy to reality. The study by Tan (2018) revealed that the unfolding shifts were a concern to tourists with regards to certain attributes. Consequently, the study proposed the need to allay these concerns by concretizing tourists' abstractions over time.

Dickinson et al (2013) sought to understand temporal rhythms and travel behavior at destinations by exploring potential ways through which sustainable travel could be achieved. Using diary photograph and diary interview to capture spatial and temporal patterns, Dickinson et al. (2013) determined that there were three temporal themes that influence travel behavior. The themes were; daily and place related rhythms; time fluidity; and control of time. Accordingly, therefore, three messages were discerned by Dickinson et al. (2013). The first message was that transport systems ought to

revolve beyond clock time regimes if temporal fluidity has to be realized. Second, personal modes of transport such as cycle, car, walk, and particularly in rural areas are the favorite of temporal forces; third, that the car has the capacity to optimize travel fluidity but is unsustainable.

Kim et al (2016) argue the effective promotion of products and services is salient for the growth of tourism establishments that are involved with this business that is very competitive. Basing their study on CLT using three experimental studies, they sought to examine the influence of temporal and spatial distance on favorite persuasive communications in the industry of tourism. In their study, a significant impact was registered for both temporal and spatial construal on assessments involving different details in information regarding accommodation. Particularly, when respondents were told to visualize traveling in the distant future or to a comparatively distant destination, their assessments of an accommodation that had been abstractly described were more positive than those that they gave for a concretely described accommodation.

On the other hand when individuals were told to visualize traveling in the immediate future or to a comparatively close destination, their assessments of an accommodation that had been concretely were more preferred than those of an abstractly described accommodation. They also found that the media used to transmit the information, whether textual or pictorial, had significant effects when preferred advertising materials were considered in the context of psychological distance. When participants were asked to evaluate an accommodation on the basis of pictorial content, their dispositions were more favorable with a higher construal than with a lower one. However, respondent evaluations of lodges based on verbal communication elicited negative dispositions. Finally, it was established that advertisements used in the

tourism travel industry do not always constitute effective communication; and overall, both textual and pictorial content were not designed to align with the temporal distance and the relevant level of construal.

Nenkov (2012) in his study on effects of varying psychological distances in convincing communications, proved that the persuasiveness of communications and their resultant effects could be maximized if they were framed in such a way as to match the stage at which the tourists in the target source markets were in their decision-making process when they were evaluating the communication. The findings from his two experimental studies revealed that consumers still in the pre-decisional stage of decision making were more inclined to be persuaded by communications designed from a psychologically distant standpoint. On the other hand, consumers already in the post-decisional stage were more inclined to be convinced by communications designed on the basis of psychologically near standpoints.

Basoglu, &Yoo (2015) conducted a study on the effect of temporal distance on travel decisions among lodges in the USA. The objectives of the study aimed at establishing how temporal distance changes the focus on the structure (level of construal) for different types of travel decisions: hedonic and utilitarian. The study specifically sought to establish whether the decision maker usually has a consistent preference for a travel decision taking into consideration that temporal distance differs. The Construal Level Theory (CLT) was been adopted to understand this phenomenon. The results showed that the temporal distance shift (from near to distant future) was a significant evaluation input criteria for hedonic travel decisions. It altered decisions where high-level construal became more salient among vacation options. On the other hand, temporal distance did not create such a change in preference for utilitarian travel decisions. As the study was the first adaptation of CLT to the context of travel

decision-making, study findings entailed theoretical contributions to CLT literature and tourism decision-making research.

Wee-kheng (2020) conducted a study to assess the effect of tourists' personalities on perceived travel constraints on destination selection. The study objective was to assess how tourists' personality traits influence their perceived travel constraints during the selection process of the destination. Specifically, it sought to assess the role that tourists' personality played in the initial destination selection, the management of their perceived leisure travel constraints, and the corresponding information searches under different temporal distance conditions. Using the partial least squares individual and multi-group analyses were conducted on 335 respondents who filled a questionnaire with items on the distant- and near-future scenarios. The study revealed that the constraints of safety concerns and a lack of interest, time, and money were major concerns of tourists. The study established that these constraints were experienced more strongly for a high temporal distance, than a low temporal one. The study also established that the effect of tourist's personality on perceived constraints was more evident for high temporal distance than the low distance. Wee-Kheng (2020) supports the current study which sought to assess the effect of the three dimensions of psychological distance on tourist choice of a destination.

Dogan and Erdogan (2020) conducted a study to assess the effects of congruence between individuals' and hotel commercials' construal levels on purchase intentions in Turkey. The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of consumer construal levels on their purchase decisions, taking construal level theory as the basis of the study. The study established that construal level of individuals was operationalized through trait based and state-based approaches. The study was formulated to assess two constructs (high construal level high vs. low construal level) and (abstract advert

content vs. concrete advert content) between-subjects experiments. The study established that participants who were assigned to a condition in which the construal level of the participant and the hotel advert was consistent (high congruence) had a greater purchase intention for hotel services than participants who were assigned to a condition in which the construal level of the participant and the hotel ad were inconsistent (low congruence). The findings of the study which imply the need for congruence between the construal level of the commercials and that of the buyer for effective communication hence behavior change, were very supportive to the current study which sought to assess the relationship between the three dimensions of psychological distance based on CLT and destination choice among the tourists. The specific findings of Dogan and Erdogan (2020) have a direct bearing on the current study which also sought to establish the importance of aligning marketing communications with the construal levels both of the communications and of the tourists.

La Corte and Piolino (2016) projecting from increasing studies on the ability of the mind to travel backward and forward in time, investigated the role of personal semantic memory and temporal distance in episodic future thinking. They posited that the capability of individuals to visualize the future and to pre-experience events in person was modulated in temporal distance and had a strong adaptive worth. They argued that the further events were from the now the less definitive they appeared and hence the less the sense of pre-experience they carried; meaning that these events were presented in an abstract form, contrary to current events that were presented in concrete form. However, they also established that even in the far future, unique events with an episodic meaning associated with a specific phenomenon, whether

appealing to the sensory, context or emotions, could be perceived. This has implications for self-validation and emotional inference of visualized future events.

Various conclusions that apply to this study can be drawn from the review of prior studies. First, they demonstrate that temporally distal objects or events are construed at a high construal level and they appear abstract and simple hence easy to understand. Based on this concept the studies indicate that the choice of the content that is to be communicated is important to the decision-making process, so much so that the content should be aligned to the levels of construal, and that the timings of the communications and the presentations should be aligned to the particular stage that the tourist is in the decision-making process. The studies also conclude that temporal distance is an important influence on the decision-making process for hedonic travels and not on utilitarian travels; whereas concreteness is pertinent to both hedonic and utilitarian travels. Last but not least, these studies reveal that creating communications based on high-level construal stimulates a desire to travel, in the case of non-travelers.

2.2.3 Spatial Distance and Destination Choice

Spatial distance, often known also as geographical distance has been previously defined as a subjective feeling which an individual experiences with regards to the nearness to or farness an object is from the individuals' current location (Trope &Liberman, 2010). Williams and Bargh (2008) posit that spatial distance remains a basic tenet of our reality which according to Landau, Meier and Keefer (2010) is critical to understanding distance forms such as temporal and social. Saj et al. (2014) observe that time, and space, define how far away things are experienced to be. In further articulating the fundamental role of spatial distance, O'Conor et al. (2014) contend that spatial distance also reduces sensitivity to punishment and reward.

Grand (2007) associates spatial distance with, among others, identification, affective commitment, perspective taking, liking and behavior in organizational contexts.

Consequently, spatial distance is perceived as an objective antecedent of relational interdependent of self-construal. Sander et al. (2010) reckon that while spatial distance remains important to many conceptual models, methodological implementations require greater attention. They argue that there has been a convergence of theory, method, and data which have sparked a revolution in how spatial distance is used in diverse spatial theorizations involving natural, human and human environmental systems. Choice of spatial distance as an antecedent of tourist destination choice was informed by previous studies which have shown its potential to affect individual's evaluations and judgments (O'connor et al., 2014; Thompson et al. 2015). Magho et al. (2013) for instance, have demonstrated that spatial distance impacts on intertemporal decision making.

Various studies have been conducted on spatial distance and its influence on making of choices. Tan and Liu (2018) employed the perspective of construal level theory to analyze the role that psychological distance plays on the ambiguity decision making using various dimensions of psychological distance which included spatial distance, and having employed experimental manipulation, Tan and Liu (2018) confirm that psychological distance in the form of time, space, social and probability distances were significant in construal level for decision. Thus, the closer psychological distance is to decision making, the higher the degree of avoidance of ambiguity among individuals.

Miao et al. (2019) examined judgment and decision making. The study by Miao and others was motivated by the fact that online investment platforms have enabled an increase in investment in projects around the world; however apprehension remains with regards to the impact of spatial distance. Using three studies, two of which manipulated spatial distance, they established that spatial distance had an impact on impatience with investment returns. However, generalized control tended to remedy impatience for investment returns.

Fatfouta et al (2015) assessed the influence of spatial distance cues in economic decision- making from a social context. The study was motivated by the knowledge that social distance impacts on humans' perceptions of fairness when faced with financial negotiations. The authors therefore sought to explore the impact of spatial distance in the same situation. Using two studies, Fatfouta et al (2015) affirmed that cues of spatial closeness tended to influence significant offer acceptance of monetary offers as opposed to cues of spatial distance. They concluded that perceptions of spatial closeness were analogous to those of social closeness.

Henderson et al (2006) analyzed the effect of spatial distance on social judgment bearing in mind that spatial distance unlike temporal distance from events and objects has received little attention. Using four studies, Henderson et al. (2006) concluded that an increase of spatial distance from events elicited an increase in individuals' propensity to rely on abstract, global and general information when making decisions and judgment with regards to the events. They asserted that the expansion in spatial and geographical horizons warranted a study of human transcending of the now and here.

Junghye, Choong-Ki and Seong – Hoon (2016) explored the influence of spatial and temporal distances in the behavior towards travel intentions in the Korean context. They established among other findings, that spatial distance is an impediment to distant destination travels. Further, they found out that the greater the spatial distance and also the longer the time interval between formation of intention and the actual travel were responsible for higher odds of behavior change.

Schneider et al. (2020) studied options choice difficulty occasioned by spatial distance warranting the too close to call clarion. The essence was to examine whether indeed close spatial distance made decision making more difficult. Using six experiments involving 672 participants, Schneider et al (2020) confirmed that the closer the choice options, the more difficult it was both in behavioral measures and self-report. They concluded that the effect of the too close to call clarion was theoretically and methodologically relevant in scenarios where choice options were visually presented.

Perez-Nordtvedt et al (2014) examined the influence of spatial distance and strategic interpretation on adaptation to temporal shocks. Using survey data drawn from 168 business owners Perez-Nordtvedt et al. (2014) established that strategic interpretation has a direct influence on temporal adaptation. However, spatial distance (also known as geographical distance) of the firm from the point of disruption moderated the relationship between strategic interpretations and adaptation to temporal shocks.

Huang et al, (2020) conducted study to assess tourist's spatial – temporal behavior patterns in themes parks in Hong Kong. According to the study there are three critical factors that influence tourist's experiences at a destination. These are time, space, and activities. According to the study geography time concept of the 'space–time path', that defines the activity-based constraints, serves as a powerful visualization and

quantification tool revealing tourists' spatial behavior. Moreover, the proliferation of tourist-tracking technologies has enabled more precise tourist behavioral data than ever before. The study used multiple data sources in analyzing and tourists' spatial–temporal behavior patterns on a micro scale. Data on tourists' temporal–spatial behavior was gathered using a GPS handheld tracking device. Questionnaires were distributed to assess tourists' socio-psychological characteristics. Taking into consideration the differences in the demographic and emotional characteristics, three spatial–temporal behavior clusters were identified using the density center clustering, consisting of four factors: path length, tour time, coverage area, and oval circumference. The study results could however only apply to tourists in Hong Kong. Generalization of the results was not possible because of the nature of attractions in Hong Kong which are different from those at other destinations such as the MMNR.

Williams and Bargh (2008) assessed how spatial distance cues influenced affect and evaluation in the context of keeping one's distance. They conceptualized a situation where physical distance has the propensity to influence people's feelings and thoughts. Using four experiments, Williams and Bargh primed participants with either spatial closeness or spatial distance. They established that the distance prime had a greater effect on enjoyment of media reflecting embarrassment; had less emotional distress on violent media among others. Williams and Bargh (2008) in retrospect were able to show that distance mediates effects on judgment and affect.

Lee et al (2012) is an investigation focused on establishing the degree of excitement maintenance and travel distance over time. The findings reveal that distance in time did not necessarily motivate tourists to travel further. In other studies (Pederson, et al 1991; McKercher & Lew, 2003; Li & Cai, 2020) on destination choice it was found that demand for travel decreased as the distance from the source market increased.

Wang et al (2019) aimed at exploring the antinomy of distance influences on tourist destination decisions by showing its stimulus effects and functionary mechanism. The concept of "distance desire" was suggested for expressing the stimulus effects of distance, while the characteristics and subsidiary aspects of this concept were also examined. A tourist destination choice model was developed to determine the relationships between the change in the related constructs and tourist travel intentions. The findings revealed that distance desire as well as tourist dispositions, subjective norms, and imagined behavioral control were salient variables that favorably influenced tourist travel intentions. Distance desire was also seen to play an intermediary role between tourist dispositions and travel intentions and tourist personal values and travel intentions. The study therefore provided evidence that introduction of distance desire improves the perceptions and planning capabilities of the tourist destination decision model.

Verma et al (2019). Sought to understand global tourism trends by mapping the traffic of tourists globally onto a complex network and studied the effect of two sorts of distances, spatial, and through the global Airline Network, flight connections accessibility, which is a pertinent infrastructure for the travel industry. They established that although the World Network of Airlines served to provide infrastructural support for the International travel industry Network, the traffic of tourism was not consistent with the levels of flight connections accessible globally. Instead, unidirectional movements could be observed locally shaping communities that gave insight to worldwide tourism patterns since there was only a 15% probability of accessing bidirectional traveling between any two nations. The study revealed that most tourists traveled to neighboring countries and mainly covered longer distances when there were direct flights, regardless of the time it took. This

was thought to be as a result of one-way cyclic tourism that was uncovered by examining the triangulations that were made by the network of movements in the International Tourism Network. This study focused on the effects of distances on traveling and how opinions were altered between short and long distances. Findings revealed that even though outbound travel was largely directed towards nearer destinations than distant ones, addition of long flights to the basic infrastructure network caused a significant advantage in determining imagined distances of tourists.

The relationship between the World Airlines Network and the International Tourism Network gave insight on how the two structures are at variance and have developed alongside one another by chance. Verma et al (2019) argued that tourism demand as observed in the international tourism network was not always congruent to supply network of the world airlines network, indicating that business demands also made up a big section of the infrastructure supply, that is to say, the diminishing distribution of traffic of tourists is most probably a consequence of diminishing motivation to travel larger distances for tourism when there are no direct flights.

Mckercher et al (2003) examines the decaying effect of distance in air travel from Hong Kong to other countries. Distance decay theory states that demand will be at a maximum at some distance comparably near to a source market and begin to reduce exponentially as distance becomes longer. The typical distance decay is built on the supposition of a constant distribution of travel products over spatial distance. The impact of these travel isolation zoning is to misrepresent the typical distance decay curve, quickening decay rates between tourists' countries of origin and the inner boundary of the ETEZ and generating attention for more demand at places outside its outer boundary. Furthermore, it was observed that for the Hong Kong market, the

ETEZ formed an interactive wall between small distant and long distant behavior trends.

Wong et al (2020) study aimed at reconciling the inconsistency between economic theory and distance decay theory by creating the dual distance model to improve the explanations concerning tourism movement/demand. Basing on data collected from three different places in China, results demonstrate that while spatial distance significantly affects travel demand, economic distance does not, other factors remaining constant. The relationship between of these two factors of distance sheds new light onto how the taken-for-granted distance decay curve is dependent upon the economic distance between the tourists' places of origin and the destinations.

In conclusion the review of studies on spatial distance advances a number of revelations. To start with spatial distance is said to diminish the sensitivity towards rewards and punishment (the beautiful experiences at a destination or the dangers inherent). It is also been found to be an antecedent to relational interdependence of self-construal, and of destination choice. Furthermore, spatial layout at a destination has been found to be a determinant of visitor movements at, and the carrying capacity of the destination. There is also evidence that interest to travel diminishes with increase in spatial distance, especially where there are no direct flights. Last but not least, whereas demand for travel remains constant in the face of economic distance, it is affected by spatial distance. Therefore these findings make the construct of spatial distance salient to the present study.

2.2.4 Social distance and Destination choice

Social distance is a social construct manifested across a variety of social categories and which measures the degree of social separation between groups on the basis of

group differences (Crossman, 2018). According to Crossman, social distance is recognized from three dimensions known as affective, normative and interactive. Under the affective domain, Crossman, (2018) posits that it is the degree to which people from across groups sympathize or empathize with each other is measured. To measure this degree, the Bogardus social distance scale created by Bogardus (1947) and which is a psychological testing scale has often been employed. Consequently, the scale establishes the willingness and unwillingness of people to interact with others across groups (Crossman, 2018). The normative social distance on the other hand is not judgmental in nature, but does bring out distinction among groups in terms of nationality, sexuality, race, gender or even class (Crossman, 2018). From a sociology perspective, it is argued that this form of social distance informs the understanding that differences shape, life experiences and trajectories of different groups of persons. Recognition of such differences is then expected to inform social policy (Crossman, 2018). The interactive social distance is often seen as a measure of social ties. The basic argument posited is that lesser interaction among groups reflects widening interactive distance (Crossman, 2018).

Lee et al (2018) noted that social distance is the measure of interpersonal space between individuals or social groups. According to Joo, Tasci, Woosnam, Maruyama, Joo et al, (2018) Social distance is a feeling of closeness defined by how the people in different groups interact with each other and with other groups. If a social group feels secure and open with another group they would be exhibiting proximal social distance. This can also occur when they feel like the other social groups are similar to their group, therefore seeing the group as an extension of their social group. Among these cases, there is a feeling of insecurity and closed off from groups at far distances. Far distances are when people in a social group feel as if they cannot relate to the

other group (Chen, & Rahman, 2018). The implication is that social distance between home country and travel destination results in more reassurance and travel satisfaction.

A review of past studies by Celik (2019) reveals that very few studies have been carried out in the area of social distance and tourist decision making. Most of these previous studies sought to examine the effects of social and temporal distances on the responses to recommendations of others. Lee et al (2018) evaluates international tourists' perception on social distance and recreation demand. Thyne et al (2017) researched on residents' perception of tourism focusing on the role of social distance. These studies show a growing interest in the social aspect of tourism, and specifically, what should be done with the host community in order to enhance the attractiveness of a destination. This study will focus on the effect of social distance on the tourists' destination choice.

Chen and Chen (2018) examined the effect of internet word-of-mouth on the purchase intention of a tourism destination among consumers, basing on social and temporal distances. The study by Chen and Chen (2018) was buoyed by an increasing trend amongst tourists to reference the internet word-of-mouth in purchase intentions. The study concluded that consumers' willingness to travel in the far future was dependent upon quality word of mouth. More precisely, the study revealed that for far social distance, the word-of-mouth significantly affects purchase intention. On the other hand, for closer social distance, quantity of word-of-mouth is a significant determinant of purchase intention.

Wu (2018) analyzed social and spatial distance on decision making in the cultural context. Wu argued that with an increase in usage of social media and integrated

marketing communications, psychological and particularly social and spatial distances have become critical behavior. Wu used a two by two-by-two experimental design to show that both social distance and spatial distance had significant impacts on behavior intention.

Thyne, Watkins and Yoshida (2017) assessed the role of social distance on resident perceptions of tourism in the Japanese context. Using a total of 1,569 host residents, Thyne et al., (2018) established that there were significant differences in perceptions of social distance between visitors from different nationalities. More precisely, their study revealed that social distance had a significant influence on the perceptions host residents have on tourism and its development.

Liu and Xu (2015) analyzed the effects of social distance and temporal distance on choice of preferences among consumers. Taking cognizance of the understanding that social distance is a measure of the distinctness with which a social target is perceived from the perceiver's self, Liu and Xu (2015) used experimental methods to conclude that social distance and temporal distance were significant predictors in consumers' choice of virtual products in the now and the future.

Montinari and Michela (2013) examined the role played by social distance in social preference under risk. Buoyed, by the knowledge that individuals will in many contexts take decisions on behalf of others, Montinari and Michela (2013) focused on investment-oriented decisions to show that social distance, irrespective of the person involved is an important determinant in decision making on behalf of others. They argued that when deciding on behalf of friends, individuals' behavior exhibits less risk taking, and nears expected value maximization.

Guo et al. (2019) used event related capabilities to examine the modulating capacity of social distance on uncertain decision making. Using a total of 57 healthy subjects drawn from single choice Iowa Gambling Task, they analyzed three uncertain decision making stages. From the results, they established that social distance had an interactive working relationship with choice frame, the higher the social distance, the more individuals tended to choose a more advantageous deck; and that anticipation of risky choices increased with higher social distance.

Sun, Liu, Zhang and Lu (2017) analyzed the impact of increased social distance on individuals risk propensity. They were motivated by the understanding that individuals are often risk averse in times of gains but are risk seeking in times of losses. Consequently, Sun et al., (2017) manipulated social distance using three experiments that related to decision making for oneself or other people (Experiment 1), decision making for unknown or known persons (experiment 2), and decision making for distant or close friends (experiment 3). Among the key findings reported by Sun et al. (2017) is that an increase in social distance was a precursor for more risk neutral disposition. They concluded that the social distance between decision makers and beneficiaries positively and significantly influenced risk preferences.

Cole, Bruch and Shamir (2009) explored the moderating influence of social distance on transformational leadership in the leader-follower context. Using a sample of 268 individuals drawn from 50 leader-follower groups, Cole et al. (2009) revealed that whereas increased social distance neutralized perception towards transformative leadership, high levels of social distance enhanced individuals' perceptions on the utility of transformational leadership on emotional climate and collective efficacy. Consequently, Cole et al (2009) concluded that social distance is an important

contextual variable that has potential to enhance some relationships and also neutralize others.

McCrae et al (2017) posited that their work extended the findings of Cole et al. (2009) by directly demonstrating effects on stereotype-relevant judgments and behavior, by showing that these effects obtained even as a result of mind-sets induced by unrelated tasks, and by demonstrating that an abstract construal mind-set did not directly activate stereotype content, but that it promoted inclusion of exemplars into a salient social category. Concerning models of category-based stereotyping, McCrae et al (2017) demonstrates that cognitive variables beyond processing effort, as moderated by cognitive capacity (McCrae et al., 1994) or motivation (Monteith, 1993), could influence categorization of social targets. At a practical level, their study also suggested that inducing a more concrete construal mind-set facilitated the avoidance of stereotypes in the evaluation of others and reduced the influence of stereotypes on one's own performance. Given the widespread and ongoing interest in finding ways to reduce discrimination (Devine& Sharp, 2009) they concluded that nonsocial contextual influences, or in other words, construal level mind-sets, affect stereotyping of self and others. The findings of McCrae et al (2017) are relevant to this study because they help in explaining the development of attitudes by tourists towards host community; which may have a bearing on destination choice.

Nan (2007) drawing upon construal level theory, conducted experiments to establish the effect of social distance on responses of individuals on messages of persuasion. The first experiment was able to show that the persuasive impact of a gain frame became stronger when people evaluated socially distal (e.g., others) as opposed to proximal targets (e.g., selves). On the other hand, the persuasive impact of a loss frame remained unchanged across various levels of social distance. In the second

experiment it was demonstrated that the persuasive power of a communal frame became more intense when people made judgments for socially distal, as opposed to proximal targets, while that of an individual frame was unvaried by social distance. The third experiment affirmed that the level of mental importance of positive and societal outcomes of a performance rose with an increase in social distance increases, while the mental importance of negative and individual outcomes stayed constant even when those of social distance are varied.

In a broader sense, Nan (2007) complements previous examinations of the perceptual effect of social distance. The area of communication has had a long practice of researching the impacts of social distance on perceptions. Studies on the third-person effect (i.e. the general perception that media content has a larger effect on others than on selves); embodies this practice (Rubin et al, 2010; Perloff 1989; Price, Tewksbury, & Huang, 1998). Over time, studies have examined various justifications for the third-person effect. The suggested justifications largely fall into one of two classifications. Some are stimulus-based justifications, proposing that the third-person effect is an outcome of an individual's desire to improve self-esteem (Gunther & Thorson, 1992; Meirick, 2005; Perloff, 2002). Others are perception-based justifications that underscore the part of perceptions in the third-person effect (Eveland, Nathanson, Detenber, & McLeod, 1999; Gunther 1991; McLeod, Eveland, & Nathanson, 1997). Gunther (1991) borrowed the theory of fundamental attribution error from social psychology to explain the third-person effect. Gunther contended that when evaluating message impact on others, observers will diminish the influence of circumstantial factors and recognize more opinion change of those others, while when evaluating themselves, observers will assign insignificant opinion change due to a greater consciousness of circumstantial factors. By considering the cognitive and

evaluative effects of social distance from the perspective of CLT, Nan (2007) offers an exceptional perspective to examine the third-person effect. From the standpoint of CLT, the third-person effect may partially be driven by the different construal level of people's conceptual pictures of their own against others' actions.

According to CLT, people tend to form concrete and contextualized pictures (i.e., low-level construal) for their own behaviors. However, for others' behaviors, the mental pictures are more inclined to be abstract and decontextualized (i.e., high-level construal). As such, people may recognize more complication in their own actions against others and trust that their own actions are as a result of more factors. This could end in a less imagined influence of media content on selves than on others. The construal level narrative of the third-person effect is in principle consistent with the justification based on the fundamental attribution error. It is more associated with perception-based reasoning of the third-person effect than to stimulus-based justifications.

Nan (2007) was found to have implications for health and for health promotions: that even though a majority of them are exclusively directed towards the targeted category of people whose health perceptions, outlooks, or actions are to be altered, there has been a upward tendency for health communications to passively target more the influencer categories (e.g., friends, parents). The reasoning of such promotions is to push these social groups to put an affirmative influence on others, who are the critical audience of interest for the communications. Nan (2007) was further found to indicate that the same communication plan may be variously operational contingent on whether the communication audiences act as the ultimate target recipients or influencers. When asked to make decisions for others (i.e., acting as influencer groups), people are more convinced by high-level construal of the promoted agenda

such as a gain frame and a societal frame, compared to when they are told to make decisions for themselves (i.e., acting as the ultimate target audience). Low-level construal such as a loss frame and an individual frame are less susceptible to role changes.

According Yang & Wong (2012), culture, a pertinent component of social distance, remains under researched even though it is among the important factors that affect tourists' decision to choose a destination. In their study Yang and Wong observed that the effect of culture on destination choice is reflected in two elements: in the first place they saw that tourists with different cultural practices exhibited diverse behavior when it came to choosing destinations (Richardson & Crompton, 1988; Wong & Lau, 2001); secondly they observed that cultural diversity and convergence were important preference criteria in the process of selecting a destination as some tourists sought cultures similar to theirs while others routed for novelty and exploration to obtain knowledge of and from cultures different from their own, hence choice of destinations with different cultures (Crouch, 1994).

Yang and Wong also noted that as an important shaper of human behaviors and business practices in general, social distance has received substantial attention in literature that pertains to international business and multinational corporate management, while the same, in terms of research in tourism was still at its natal stage; adding that only few studies had focused their attention to the particular effects of cultural distance on tourists' destination choice process when choosing a destination choice. They further observed that cultural differences could easily be sources of misunderstandings and communication breakdowns between the tourists and the host communities; which could easily result in cultural conflicts. It has also

been noted that a small social distance translates into richer interactions with the host community and enhanced overall tourist experiences.

Based on this assumption Yang and Wong (2012) analyzed tourist demand using social distance and the findings indicated that the effect that social distance has on tourist arrivals was significant and negative, implying that social distance was an impediment to international tourism. Other studies [Jackson, 2008; Ang et al, 2007; Ng et al, 2009] that tested destination choice measurement and the effect of social distance on intention and likelihood to visit saw their findings supporting those of Yang and Wong (2012); that social distance significantly negatively impacted on international tourists' destination choice regarding destinations.

However other studies on the effect of social distance on destination choice have yielded mixed or inconclusive results. In his study Jackson (2008) on the same subject reported in his findings that tourists originating from nations that are highly individualistic, such as the United States, New Zealand, Canada and Australia were often inclined towards choosing destinations with whom they have a small social distance, and that tourists originating from nations that are highly collectivistic were inclined to choosing destinations with whom they have a large social distance. However they argued that when the influence of other variables are put into perspective, such as seeking novelty (curiosity of human nature, exploration and sensation) the effect of social distance on choice of destination may end up being significantly positive, thereby contradicting previous studies (Jang and Feng, 2011).

Furthermore, extant literature in the field of international business also presented similar inconclusive findings concerning the relationship between social distance and the choice of mode of entry into a foreign market when it came to international

investment. Whereas some studies indicated that some companies had a tendency to choose the full control approach for counties where they have a large social distance (Shane, 1994; Anand and Delios, 1997; Padmanabhan, P., & Cho, K. R. (1996). Others reported that foreign investors are more likely to establish joint ventures or other collaborative approaches in countries where they had a large social distance (Chang and Rozenzweig, 2001; Erramilli and Rao, 1993).

According to Shenkar (2001) this phenomenon popularly referred to as the "social distance paradox", or the presentation of conflicting outcomes in studies on social distance and its effect on choice of tourist or even investment destination, may be the outcome of theoretical and methodological frameworks applied in the studies, arguing that solid evidence is required in order to conclude that there is a constant and symmetric relationship in the social distance between two nations; and that there is a linear and causal relationship between social distance and performance, entry approach and investment. In an attempt to resolve the social distance paradox a suggestion was made by twenty four researchers of international renown, to consider the incorporation of some possible moderators like the accrued experience of the foreign investor, the risk involved in the investment (Brouthers and Brouthers, 2001), the differences in the languages of the visitors and the hosts (Lopez-Duarte and Vidal-Swarez, 2010), and the integrity in the governance of the hosting nation which were perceived to be having an influence on the relationship between social distance and the approach of entry and investment. Therefore in their study Yang and Wong (2012) settled for past travel experience, seeking of new experiences, geographical distance and familiarity as possible moderators based on the literature that was examined.

A study that sought to establish that temporal distance from an abstract construal of a social object would create imagined social distance was conducted. In particular it considered how distance in time from the anticipated social communication and level of construal of a social target affect social distance. Basing on CLT, it was hypothesized that temporal distance and more abstract construal would improve social distance (Liberman, et al, 2007; Liberman & Trope, 2008; Liberman et al, 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2010). Findings from four experiments using different measures of social distance agreed with this supposition, demonstrating that distance in time from the anticipated social dealings resulted in considering the social target as less known (Study 1) and less comparable to the self (Study 2). It also established that a more abstract, high construal level of a social target ended up in perceptions of less familiarity (Study 3) and in a meagre assignment of resources (Study 4).The research provided evidence that beliefs for temporally distant (against proximal) social dealings result in greater social distance from a target individual, measured as diminished acquaintance (Study 1) and as a diminished likeness to the self (Study 2). It also demonstrates that a more abstract, higher level construal of a social object results in diminished acquaintance (Study 3) and in reduced assignment of resources (Study 4). The research shed light on how social closeness could be promoted or hindered by previously unaddressed psychological factors. Furthermore the study gave insight into how social proximity could be enhanced or impeded by past unresolved psychological factors.

The findings of this study were consistent with the results of the studies that investigated politeness as an indicator and moderator of social distance where it was demonstrated that politeness influences and is influenced by temporal distance and level of construal (Stephan et al., 2010). Additionally, the findings of this study are

also consistent with CLT, proving further the correlations among dimensions of psychological distance (temporal distance and social distance) and the influence of nonconcrete construal on farness or closeness. Besides, the study records the influence of temporal perception and construal level using a wide variety of variables (familiarity, similarity and resource allocation), popularly applied in social psychology as examples of social distance. It is worth noting that both Stephan et al. (2010) and Stephen et al (2011) demonstrate the influence on social distance level of construal and of distancing on other dimensions. Especially, the indicator of social distance used in Stephan et al. (i.e., politeness) interrelates in the affirmative with valence (the more polite, the more distant and is largely considered highly positive), while the indicators used here interrelate negatively with valence (e.g., assigning meagre resources is an indicator of more distance and is considered less positive). This demonstrates that the influence of CLT is not merely an influence on valence. Indeed, it was observed in the experiments that changes of distance did not dependably influence the valence of the target person. Although the valence of a person (e.g., liking against disliking a target person) is significantly related to feeling near to him or her, the influence of construal level and of farness or nearness was not necessarily moderated by valence.

It is worth noting that the findings of Stephan et al (2011) from the standpoint of earlier discoveries by Levy et al (2002), which demonstrated that individual variations in the propensity to depict action in abstract terms, as indicated by the Behavior Identification Form (Vallacher & Wegner, 1989), was related with perceptions of resemblance with others, empathy, willingness to help, and actual helping. They pointed out the importance of differentiating between a target's level of construal, as was used in these studies, and a disposition to construe on a high level one's own and

another person's act, that was used as an indicator in Levy et al.'s studies. Perhaps, if the construal of both the self and the target varies, then there would be a relationship between higher construal level and empathy and helping, because standards of humanism and altruism, which are high level constructs, would begin to manifest. On the other hand, when the construal of only the target is manipulated, then a lower level of construal would create a sense of more familiarity to the self, even though more studies are required to further investigate this.

As tourism is a social activity it is important for destination managers to recognize the effect that the social distance between source market and the destination communities has on the tourist's destination choice (Stephan et al, 2011). Understanding the source markets, their expectations, and the choice process, are critical for the destination brand building and the planning and designing of appropriate marketing communication programs that will in turn, allow tourists to make better destination choices that and optimize their experiences (Çelik, 2019; Çelik and Dedeoglu (2019).

In conclusion, prior studies have been able to accomplish various aspects concerning social distance. To start with they have been able to determine that social distance has three dimensions namely normative, affective and interactive. While the normative dimension brings out the distinction between people groups (in terms of gender, religion, race, etc.) the affective measure the degree of sympathy or empathy. Lastly the interactive dimension measures the social ties (the willingness or unwillingness to interact). From the psychological distance perspective studies have revealed that abstraction promotes stereotyping. Although this may carry a negative connotation, on the positive side it can be said that abstraction allows broad categorization of people groups and thus promotes inclusion rather than exclusion.

Social distance also promotes persuasion in that representations of socially distant communities are more believable. In addition to that the merits of a gain-frame are higher from a socially distant perspective, and cannot even be diminished by a loss-frame. Furthermore, it has been found that when it comes to decision-making, people would rather rely on the wealth of knowledge in their possession, rather than in the knowledge acquired from third parties, like, through advertisements. Through studies again it has been established that this aspect of mistrust can be dealt with through introduction of influencers in the communication. For instance, demonstrating that MMNR has been able to host royalty like the former President of the USA or the Prince of Wales gives persuasive social credence to the destination. Therefore, these studies show that the construct of social distance is one that is important in the tourists' destination choice process. Other important findings from previous studies worth noting are that studies on effect of social distance on decision making have presented mixed results thus creating the "social distance paradox"; and that social distance is moderated by temporal and spatial distance.

2.3 Review of Theories and Theoretical Underpinning

The study was underpinned in the construal level theory, consumer behavior theories, and psychological distance theory.

2.3.1 Construal Level Theory and Tourism Marketing

Construal Level Theory (CLT) proposed by Liberman and Trope (1998) has been at the center of the discourse on psychological distance. According to Liberman and Trope, having been founded in social psychology, the construal level theory relates psychological distance with peoples' perceptions of abstraction and concreteness. In conceiving the theory, Liberman and Trope (1998) associated a relatively short-term perspective with low level-construal, whose focus is detailed, concrete and context

specific information. On the contrary, they associated a relatively long-term psychological distance with high level construal which recognizes abstraction and general structure. Trope and Liberman (as cited in White, 2011) point out that under the construal level theory, objects or events are construed on multiple levels of abstraction. Consequently, low – level construal involves concrete concepts that capture subordinate and more or less incidental features which convey the uniqueness of objects or events. Trope and Lieberman's conceptualization of construal levels produced by psychological distance and the resulting effect on events, objects and people is summarized in table 2.1.

Various studies have been conducted on CLT and the researcher reviewed some of them in order to find if it had a relationship with tourists' destination choice. Liberman et al (2007) is a clarification on issues raised after their study titled "Construal Levels and Psychological Distance: Effects on Representation, Prediction, Evaluation, and Behavior". Inspired and challenged by the matters that were raised they sought to elucidate on a number of issues.

Table 2.1: Distinguishing High-Level and Low-Level Construal

High-level construal	**Low-level construal**
Abstract	Concrete
Simple	Complex
Structured, coherent	Unstructured, incoherent
De-contextualized	Contextualized
Primary, core	secondary, surface
Super-ordinate	Subordinate
Goal relevant	Goal irrelevant

Source: Trope and Liberman, 2003

The first commentary concerned the theoretical framework, specifically, comparisons and contrasts among distance dimensions, the question of additional distances, the nature of the interaction among distances, and the relationship between psychological distance and construct of stimulus information sampling. The second commentary was about applications of CLT to consumer choice, particularly, how to make better decisions, the nature of regret, and how people construct and process choice sets. Concerning the first commentary they pointed out that the various dimensions of psychological distance upon which they had focused (temporal distance, social distance, hypotheticality, and spatial distance) each seemed to be relevant in isolation, to consumer choice. They added that whereas the dimension of future temporal distance raised the questions of saving, investing in durable goods, buying things for future use, and taking actions for future goals (like exercising self-control); the dimension of past temporal distance raised the issues of regret. Social distance on the other hand posed the questions of how people advised others, how they decided for others, and how they bought presents. Probability on its part pointed to such issues as gambling, questions about uncertain outcomes (like those created by the launch of new products) and about counterfactual reasoning. Spatial distance focused, perhaps, on such matters as internet shopping. At first glance, then, each of these distance dimensions seems to pertain to a different domain with distinct questions and solutions.

What emerged as a matter of interest is that the similarities among the dimensions of psychological distance may allow for the importation of questions and solutions from one domain of distance to the other. For example, Zauberman &Lynch, (2005) mention the finding that people save more if they make a decision in advance to save distant future raises in salary than without such prior decisions. Various scenarios

were set and considered: for instance a question was posed as to if people would also save more when the raises are less likely; or if they would decide on saving others' incomes more than their own; or if their decision would vary if amounts were weighted more in future gambles and that probabilities were weighted less (Sagristano, Trope, & Liberman, 2002); and if the decisions would be consistent for gambles on behalf of other people and for online gambling. The other consideration was given that temporal distance increased the weight of desirability compared to feasibility if buying a present in the future for someone would make it more desirable and create more a sense of interpersonal closeness (in other words reduce social distance).

In conclusion the indication was that the aspect of correspondence between psychological distance and the problem of decision-making has a significant relationship (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004). And as Dhar and Kim (2007) established, CLT suggests that in order to increase persuasiveness, a message has to stress higher construal level aspects and diminish lower construal level aspects if it was referring to decisions about more distal entities—future times, other people, other places, and hypothetical events.

Prasad (2022) in his paper titled understanding consumer psychology: the CLT perspective begun by registering that there were many theories, concepts and models that had been developed in the attempt to understand how consumers conduct themselves in the process of purchasing goods and services in order to meet their needs. He posited that CLT is a social psychology theory that has been embraced by marketers to assist them in explaining the relationship between psychological distance and people's thoughts and behaviors when making judgments concerning a product or

service of interest. He argued that construal is crucial in circumstances where individuals are expected to look outside the information to which they have access.

The principal reason for seeking knowledge of consumer behavior is to gain good comprehension of the psychology of consumers and to improve the understanding of the methods that people use when they need to assess goods or services. As Prasad (2022) observes that studies have been able to demonstrate that there are other factors that have an effect on the way consumers make judgments other than the fact that the products are of good quality and that they are desired. What is however clear is that the consumer understands and experiences the here and now and he or she cannot experience the past nor the future. All that the consumer would have are memories of the past and hopes, plans and forecasts for the future. Hence the individual choices and decision-making are a composite bundle of the memories, the current experiences, and the aspirations about the future visualized by creating mental pictures (construal) that are abstract (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Prasad explains further that mental construal are simply reminiscences, conjectures, and expectations since through them, one can create expectations or memories, or even predict how individuals may react to situations or objects.

According to him all these become inputs to choice and decision-making, and the construals that ensue constitute the bridges that enable individuals to move uninhibited across psychological distances. In other words construal has becomes the means by which individuals perceive, understand and interpret their surroundings. CLT explains the correlations that psychological distance has with what an individual thinks, be it concrete or non-concrete. According to CLT individuals reflect more conceptually on the things that are far away in time and space, and more vividly on those that are near.

Trope and Liberman proceed to indicate to the link between psychological distance and CLT. They state that when individuals explain experiences that are near in time they will normally use certain, low-level construal. When they need to explain experiences that are distant in any of the psychological distance dimensions they use abstract, high-level construal. Low-level construal are less structured, more contextual, and they include subordinate and incidental characteristics of items or experiences or happenings (Kim et al, 2019).

Prasad proceeds to make further observations: that low-level construal therefore forms when an individual is thinking in detail and focusing on the secondary characteristics of an item or a happening which are not important to understanding the item or the experience in question. On the other hand he posits that high-level construal are symbolized systematically and they constitute the essence drawn from the information availed to an individual while low level construal consists of the superordinate characteristics of an item or experience. He adds that people thinking on this scale are said to be considering the broader perspective and do not concentrate on the details. It can therefore be concluded that items or experiences that are near in any dimension of psychological distance are explained in concrete terms while those that are distant are explained in non-concrete terms, at the expense of the subordinate and incidental characteristics. Prasad (2022) defines temporal distance as that distance which refers to experiences that are separated from the now in time which, according to him, have resulted in two fallacies.

The first one is the planning fallacy which explains that individuals fail to think in detail about happenings scheduled for the distant future and therefore short change themselves on the satisfaction of those happenings when they actually take place. The second fallacy is that of time discounting which postulates that individuals place more

value on happenings that are closer than those that are distant in time, when actually the distant happening are considered more valuable since they are targeted to meet the bigger goals. Spatial distance, as Prasad (2022) explains, is the geographical distance between the someone and the place where the experience is scheduled to take place. As such, an experience that is at a near place is vivid while an event at a distant place is abstract.

Social distance, he explains, denotes the extent to which two or more individuals or people groups are associated with each other, and the ease with which they are able to interact. Consequently groups with similarities are said to have a short social distance in between while those that have dissimilarities and are unable to relate are socially distant. Of hypothetical distance he states that it explains the probability that an event will or will not happen. The more likely the shorter the hypothetical distance, and the less likely the longer the hypothetical distance. Prasad (2022) was unpacking psychological distance in order to explain its relevance to marketing of goods and services. First and foremost he posits that consumers create construal of items, goods, services, and experiences depending on the specific information that has been availed to them, and the processing capacity that they possess. Consequently, they formulate their behavior patterns and intents on that basis.

Prasad (2022) advises that marketers and businesses therefore need to ensure that appropriate information about the business is disseminated. Secondly, in the case of tangible goods, he advises that CLT has an insignificant role since psychological distance plays a very small role. However, when it comes to services, because of their intangibility, psychological distances have a significant effect on the consumers' intentions to purchase due to the variations in the levels at which people perceive. He adds that diverse marketing programs will have diverse effects on the psychological

distances, and as a result, consumers will form construal at different levels which may lead to the formation of different behavior patterns.

CLT has also been found to influence the quality of decisions. According to Trope and Liberman (2007) CLT interprets psychological distance on two levels, the distant and the proximal. The quality of the decision, whether distant or proximal based, depends on a number of factors. According to Fielder (2007) the quality of the decision is dependent upon the amount of utility derived from the feasibility features which belong to low-level construal, and the utility derived from the desirability features which belong to the high-level construal.

On the other hand, high construal capture super ordinate central features which elicit general meaning underlying events or objects. Construal level theory has in the recent past undergone modifications which have seen it get expanded and is tied to psychological distance, social distance and geographical distance (Fielder, et al., 2012; 2015) Liberman& Trope, 2010). It is posited that high level construal allow people to mentally transcend existing experiences by forming representations that consist of the most important and invariant features of available information (Trope &Liberman, 2010). This is essence allows people to generate novel and hypothetical examples (White, 2011).

Choice of CLT for the current study was informed by behavioral perspectives which contend that, manipulation of CLT impacts on judgments and decision making (Tranutmann, 2019). According to White (2011), construal level has the potential to impact on cognition, categorization and the processing of information and by extension, decision making. White (2011) further observes that differences in construal lead to divergence in negotiation tactics. The current study sought to

examine manipulation of psychological distance and the impact it could have on choice of tourist destination, which has latent elements of negotiation. It was therefore necessary to employ the CLT for the current study in order to understand the allure of desirability and feasibility in relation to choice of tourist destination.

Moreover, several empirical studies have been reported which show that construal levels are implicitly associated with psychological distance. They include a demonstration that sensitivity to the effects of distance reduces with the initial experience of distance, and that such distance may cut across various dimensions of psychological distance (Magho, et al., 2013); a demonstration that psychic distance is critical to choice of tourism destination with international tourists perceiving psychic distance highly when choosing destination (Emami &Ranjbarian, 2015); CLT has also been applied in promotional strategies in the hotel industry (Jungkeun et al., 2014).

Shin et al (2017) performed a study titled a test of the psychological distance effect for online travel reviews based on CLT. The main objective of the study was to establish, using CLT, the influence of the usefulness of travel reviews that are made online; on the opinion of the tourists. The construal levels of focus were applied to temporal distance. The research used the experimental survey and data was collected from tourists using questionnaires, and from tour operators using interview schedules. The study concluded that abstract information had an influence on the decision-making of tourists who intended to travel in the distant future, while concrete information was influential on decisions for tourists who intended to travel in the near future. The study also revealed that concrete information was easier to store in memory and to retrieve.

Chang, Zhang, &Xie, (2015) conducted a study to assess the effect of construal level and consumer environmental concerns on message framing in green advertising. According to the study majority of the firms that have adopted green advertising and put great emphasis on the value of green promotional advertising strategies. The study revealed that there is limited focus on the effectiveness of green as a factor in advertisement. The study sought to incorporate message framing and construal level theory by examining the moderating role of temporal distance on gain or loss framed messages and consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. The findings for the study, which were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics, established that congruency between loss frame and low level construal, as well as the match between gain frame and high level construal, leads to more positive outcomes in consumers' attitudes and purchase intention. The study also noted that the key features of congruency effect varying line with the level of consumer environmental concerns which has both theoretical and practical implications.

In a persuasive discourse, a gain frame emphasizes the positive consequences of complying (for example, ‘‘If you go to MMNR in July, you will be able to witness the wildebeest migration.’’). On the contrary a loss frame lays emphasis on the negative consequences of not complying (for example, “if you do not keep a safe distance from the wildlife during a game drive, the animals may attack and destroy your vehicle”). A key discovery from earlier studies is that a loss frame is inclined to being more persuasive than a gain frame. However, instead of concentrating on the comparative persuasiveness of a gain versus loss frame, Nan (2007) considers gain–loss framing from the standpoint of CLT, investigating how the efficacy of each distinct frame fluctuates as a function of social distance. Contemporary research suggests that a gain

frame may vary from a loss frame with respect to construal level (Eyal, Liberman, & Trope, 2004; Pennington &Roese, 2003).

Chung and Chen (2018) in their study titled “the impact of country and destination images” based on the CLT perspective state that tourism is intangible in nature and therefore perceptions of a destination as formed by the tourists are pertinent in destination selection (Chen, Lin and Petrick, 2013). According to Chung and Chen (2018) the international marketing-oriented concept of country-of-origin effects describes the country’s perceptions impacts on the attitudes formed towards goods originating in that country, and that tourism has adopted this view point explaining how tourists’ general perceptions of a country impact on the image that they conceive of the country as a potential travel destination (Elliot et al, 2011; Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Martinez and Alvarez, 2010). They add that such perceptions may lead to stereotyping, which may in turn influence the buying decision especially if the tourists have little or no knowledge about the destination. This implies that the image of a country is an integral part of the tourist destinations that are found in that country. The main objective of their study was to establish the cause of the differences in the psychological perceptions of tourists for long and short haul destinations from a CLT perspective. The study employed tourist destination image, destination loyalty and the country image as the constructs. Survey design was the basis upon which the study was conducted. Stratified simple random sampling guided that sampling procedure and a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data. The constructs were measured using a five-point Likert scale where country image was measured on eight aspects, tourist destination image on seven aspects, and destination loyalty on four aspects.

Data was analyzed using ANOVA to compare the responses on country image, destination image and loyalty of respondents to the destination. The validity of the scales for measuring the constructs was done using confirmatory factor analysis. Using SPSS SEM to test the hypothesis, the results revealed that country image affects destination loyalty directly, and through the tourists' perception of the destination image. It also revealed that the direct impact of the image of the country on the loyalty to the destination was greater for long haul destinations, while the indirect impact of the country's image on the loyalty of the tourists to the destination was greater in the short haul destinations. The study also revealed that the image of a country did not have a statistically significant influence on the loyalty to the destination for short haul destinations.

Dogan and Erdogan (2020) did a study titled effects of congruence between persons and the marketing commercials released by lodges based on construal levels; on the buying behavior of travelers. They contended that even though tourists' decision-making and attitudes had received a great amount of attention from scholars, the tourists' decision-making process within the framework of CLT was yet to be explored. Their study focused on whether and how the construal levels of expected travelers impacted on their intent to buy hotel accommodation. The null hypotheses were that the presence of congruousness between a tourist's construal level and that of the commercials released by the hotel had a positive impact on the tourists' intention to buy accommodation; that the absence of congruousness between the construal level of the tourists and the construal level of the commercials released by the hotel would have a negative effect on the tourists intent to buy lodges; that the state-based and the trait-based construal levels being congruent to the construal level of the commercial

would have a positive impact on buying behavior while incongruousness would have the opposite effect.

The study used the experimental design. The respondents were on a random basis assigned to a commercial whose construal level was either high or low and were instructed to respond to either “how” or “why” questions. Data was collected through a self-administered questionnaire software based on the internet and was supplemented by approaching some respondents physically to fill hard copies. Participants’ intentions to buy accommodation were measured using a seven-point Likert scale. Data was analyzed using means, standard deviations, factor analysis and ANOVA. The results revealed that when the levels of trait- and state-based construal were congruent with the construal level of the commercials released by the hotel, the impact on the intent to buy accommodation was positive. On the practical front the study informs marketers and accommodation managers that they should consider the tourists’ construal levels while creating commercials, marketing communications and the hotel websites.

Tan and Wang (2021) studied the application of information values and CLT for examining low-cost carrier commercials. The study examined the level of influence of commercials sponsored by low-cost airlines that focused on destinations against those that focused on pricing; through the sign and hedonic values contained in the content of the commercials within the framework of CLT. They contended that airline commercials were entrenched in customer specific information such that, for travelers who value comfort commercials focused on services rendered; travelers who valued entertainment, meals and ambience commercials concentrated on inflight services; those who valued attractiveness of the routes taken by the airline the commercials

concentrated on the destinations; and finally for travers who were price sensitive the commercial focused on prices (Hu and Lou, 2016; Kim et al 2016).

They argued further that communication forms the backbone of the travel industry as it offers both the expectations of the experiences, emotions and feelings and the enhancement of one's personal image and validation before peers (Tang and Jang, 2014; Kah et al, 2010). They emphasized the importance of commercials and their content as the means by which travelers make their decisions. They argued further that CLT has the capability to explain how individuals respond to an experience and that this response depends on their imagination of the experience before it happens. They stated that these imaginations lead to construal levels which are associated with psychological distance (Kim et al, 2019; Lee, 2019; Trope and Liberman, 2010). They concluded that high level construal are associated with large psychological distances and that the experience under evaluation may be interpreted on the basis of "the why", the degree to which it is desirable, and the basic features that define it (its abstract). On the contrary the low level construal was described as being associated with short psychological distances and that the experiences under evaluation may be interpreted on the basis of "the how", the degree of feasibility, and the secondary features (its details) that define it (Stephan et al, 2008; Janakiram and Ordonez, 2012; Kim et al, 2020).

According to Tan and Wang (2021) hedonic international travels involve planning well in advance hence engaging temporal distance. However, entrenching the decision and the worth of this hedonic travel in visiting a tourist destination using a low cost carrier translates the advance planning of the trip from fantasy to reality. They postulated that when the means of traveling was an integral part of the destination, and commercials were concentrated on the destination rather than the

cost, at a long temporal distance they were more effective. They also opined that reduction in temporal distance caused a shift in the evaluation from abstractness to vividness (Trautmann and Van de Kuilen, 2012; Chou and Lien, 2012). The main constructs in this study were temporal distance and the type of commercial. The sample of the study was drawn using simple random sampling and the data was collected using self-administered questionnaires. The constructs were measured using a five-point Likert scale.

Data analysis was completed using descriptive statistics of mean, standard deviations, average variance extracted, composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha; and inferential statistics analysis employed partial least squares and ANOVA to extract the predictors and to establish the relationship between the variables, respectively. The findings of the study revealed that when sign and leisure values were included, the recommendation to decide in a particular direction after exposing the travelers to the commercial gave a clearer explanation than when simply responses to commercials were used. The study also established that providing hedonic and sign values had no significant influence on the value of the information between the destination-focused and the cost-focused commercials. Thirdly, the study revealed that the effects on decision recommendations were different and that they depended on the temporal distances and the source. The leisure value information had a significant influence on decision recommendation. The study contributed to clarifying the influence of commercials, viewed from the dimensions of leisure and sign values, and psychological distance (specifically temporal distance) using the CLT framework.

Lee et al (2021) is a study that investigates the influence of psychological distance on the tendency of tourists to cancel reservations of travel plans. The study anchors the investigation in CLT to find explanations for these tendencies to cancel, based on the

psychological distance dimensions. Lee et al (2021) begin their discourse by pointing out that tourist product such as package tours, air and hotel packages, hotel accommodation and seats on an airplane are highly perishable in that should their reservations fail to materialize on the due date then the related losses are immediately registered. Thus accurate prediction of tourists courses of action are of paramount importance and improved comprehension of their behavior patterns helps in profit maximization. They noted that a cancellation is one of the most contentious issues between tourists and tourism based business because of the refunds and penalties policies that are often punitive to the tourists. The study was anchored in CLT because by this theory there is an explanation for people's imagined psychological distances towards other individuals, items and experiences; and the influence that these have on people's choices and behaviors.

Basing on Trope and Liberman (2010) they argued that for happenings scheduled for the distant future individuals employ abstract, simple and high-level construal to make their judgments and focus on particular characteristics of that experience that are associated with the goals that they intend to achieve. Under these circumstances tendency is to confidently judge the experience as positive or beneficial. However they also state that individuals have the tendency to apply concrete, complicated and low-level construal to judge psychologically near experiences. Under these circumstances judgment is objective or neutral and from a proximal point of view. Hence it has been observed that individuals judge with favor experience alternatives that possess concreteness and feasibility when considering happenings that are psychologically close; and also for those that possess abstractness and desirability for happenings that are psychologically distant. Lee et al (2021) posited that if the date of travel is far individuals simply regard it as departure and that all they think about is

how it is of benefit to their goal. However when the date of traveling is near the tourists reflect upon it realistically as expenditure of funds, time and energy and this may lead to easy cancellation.

They postulated that there is a negative correlation between the length of psychological distance and the possible cancellation of the trip. The study used temporal, spatial, experiential, arbitrary and economic dimensions of psychological distance as constructs of psychological distance, dependency on travel agencies as a moderating variable, and the decision to cancel or not to cancel as the dependent construct. The study was based on secondary data collected from a travel agency. Descriptive statistical analysis was through means and standard deviations while inferential statistical analysis was achieved through binary logistic regression. The findings revealed that rates of cancellation increased when spatial, arbitrary and economic distances are nearer. On the other hand, increase in temporal and experiential distances lead to high numbers of cancellations. The results revealed further that dependence on travel agencies is a strong moderator in the relationship between the psychological distances and the decision to cancel or not to cancel travel reservations; and that their positive influences were instrumental in the reduction of cancellation rates. The study recommends to tourism-based businesses to incorporate the individual psychological distances of tourists if they desire to reduce the losses that emanate from absentee package tour clients, unoccupied hotel beds and unoccupied airplane seats; and that as a result they will be able to make more accurate estimates of the sales and profitability of their operations.

Eyal et al. (2004) suggest that affirmative characteristics associated with performing a certain act may constitute a higher construal level than undesirable characteristics. They provided evidence for this viewpoint by proving the relegation of undesirable

characteristics (or cons) to affirmative ones (or pros), thereby implying that the significance of undesirable characteristics is reliant on the importance of affirmative characteristics more than the significance of the affirmative characteristics is dependent on the value of the negative attributes (the notion of asymmetric conditional importance). In an experimental study Eyal et al (2004) asked college students appraise the desirability of a student loan offer. Fifty percent of the participants were informed by an expert that the student loan had either some merits or no merits at all; and at the same time, they were asked to register their interest in knowing if the loan had any demerits.

The other fifty percent was told that the loan had either some demerits or no demerits, and were then told to show their interest in knowing if the loan had any merits. It was discovered that participants' interest in receiving more information about the merits of the student loan was influenced by the original information about the demerits: Interest was notably lower in the absence of demerits than in the presence of some demerits. However, participants' interest in receiving more information about the merits of the student loan was not influenced by the initial awareness about the demerits: they maintained a high level of interest regardless of whether there were no demerits or some merits. These findings provided evidence that the relegation of demerits to merits, that is, the prominence of demerits is dependents on whether there are merits more than the prominence of merits being dependent on whether there are demerits. Eyal et al. established that an affirmative trait associated with the performance of an act constitute a higher construal level than undesirable traits.

Li et al (2020) investigated the effects of covid-19 on tourists' behavior patterns based on psychological distance and CLT. They sought to improve the prediction of tourists' future behavior change by expositing psychological distance, CLT, and how

psychological distance may be associated with risk. They noted that tourism as an industry is dangerously exposed to crises and disastrous situations. They described how the advent of covid-19 occasioned the suspension of operations in hospitality facilities, and affected other activities related to tourism such as closure of borders, issuing of visa and issuance of travel bans. The study defines psychological distance as a subjective conjecture that an object or experience is near or distant from the self, at the present location and present time. According to them CLT suggests that the creation of imaginations of the mind constitute some vague constructions and that one of the factors that determines the level of that vagueness is psychological distance.

They posit that the appropriate adjustments can be made to the target individual's psychological distance since, according to them psychological distance has an influence on judgments, expectations and decisions. Postulating that the phenomenon of the covid-19 pandemic could be expounded by psychological distance, they state that as soon as the perception of temporal and spatial distances depicts them as being far enough, and that the probability of its outbreak is low, then in the tourists' minds the pandemic is perceived to be under control. From a covid-19 perspective temporal, hypothetical and spatial distances are proximal while social distance is distant. As such tourists are thought to have concretized construal about the pandemic situation and to be imagining it as a greatly risky situation. The study was based on data collected from secondary sources and the researchers emerged with various conclusions. One of the important conclusions was that psychological distance and CLT could improve the comprehension of tourists' imagined risks, and changing travel arrangements. The study also revealed that psychological distance and the CLT framework served to identify different risk types: health risk, psychological risk,

social risk, performance risk, image risk and time risk; that constitute the fears and anxieties harbored by the tourists during the pandemic.

The study also identified three emerging travel patterns: from general to elaborate; from open-hearted to closed and from radical to conservative. In the light of psychological distance and the inherent risks to travel as imagined by the tourists, tourism marketing operatives were provided with much needed and timely guidance. To begin with the study recommended emphasis on spatial distance and hypothecality in order to diminish the perception formed by tourists concerning health and psychological risks. Secondly, they recommended that destination marketers should focus on niche segments in publicity articles with emphasis on sparse populations, nature-based attractions, temporal distance, and the benefits associated with them. These, they suggested, would help in meeting the emerging changes in the needs of the tourists, for example, from open-heart to closed. The studies also recommended the appropriate dissemination of information regarding safety, prices and communications regarding tourism in order to diminish fear and anxiety and accelerate the rate of recovery for the tourism sector.

The philosophy here is that the imaginations that tourists harbor about real risks in this pandemic situation are founded on the information that is accessible to them. Figure 2.2 demonstrates the conceptual model proposed by Lee et al (2020) showing how, in the season of the Covid-19 pandemic psychological distance is interacting with the perceived risk types to create new tourist behavior patterns.

The choice of construal level theory is based on the proposition that travel decisions are made for a future time to a geographical location away from the tourist's home and involving a community that is different from that of the tourist. As a result travel

decisions are made on the basis of construal founded on information received from various sources (media, friends, experiences) concerning the destination.

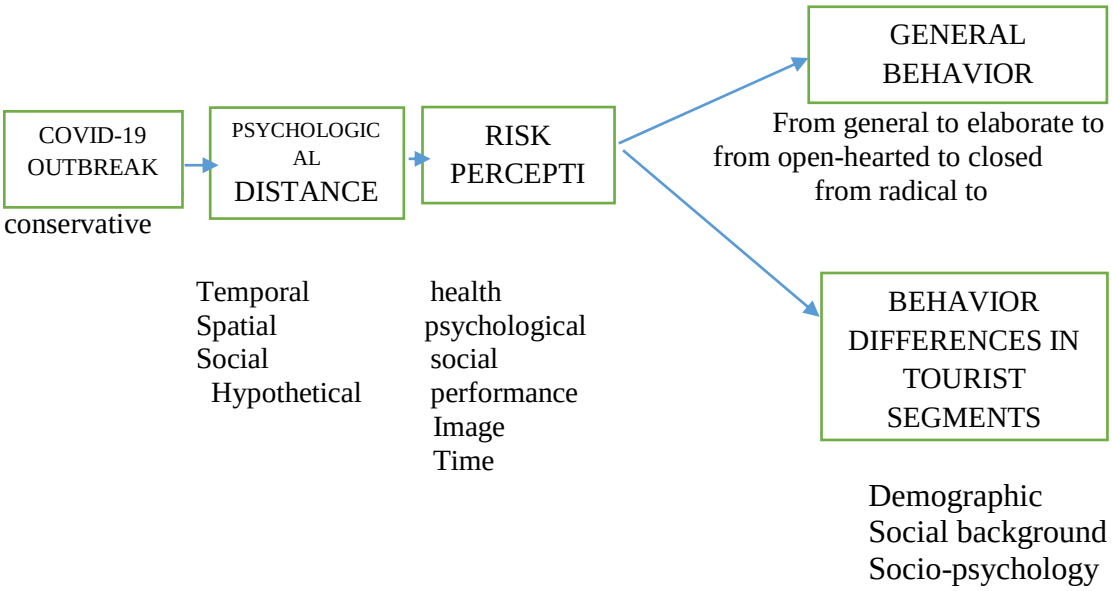


Figure 2.0 Conceptual models of interactions between psychological distance and risk to produce new tourist behavior patterns under the covid-19 pandemic

Source: Lee et al (2020)

2.3.2 Psychological Distance Theory

According to Prasad psychological distance may be defined as individuals' imaginations of how near or distant something is from them, or how close or distant an event is scheduled to take place in the future. In other words psychological distance is subjective and egocentric and it is measure from the self, here and now (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Consequently from the psychological distance perspective an item or an experience may be separated from the self in time, space, socially and hypothetically. From these are derived the dimensions of psychological distance: temporal, spatial, social and hypothetical. He concludes by stating that prudent marketing communication can manipulate psychological distance and influence the consumers behavior patterns and hence the purchase decision. The

model in figure 2.1 Prasad (2022) summarizes the relationship between psychological distance and consumer behavior. It demonstrates the influence of marketing strategy on consumer behavior.

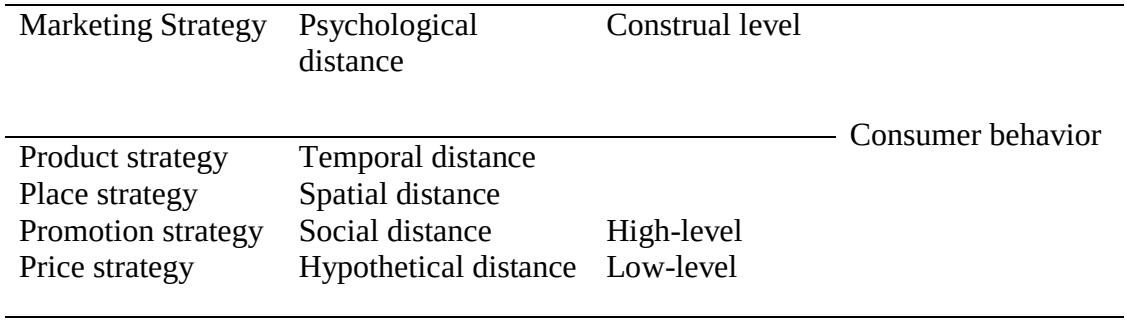


Figure 2.1. The relationship between psychological distance and consumer behavior

Source: Prasad (2022)

The discourse on psychological distance is often incomplete without incorporating the notion of construal level. Bounded rationality postulates that people often rely on intuition and heuristics when making decisions (Selten, 2001). Indeed, it has empirically been shown that psychological distance impacts on decision making by activating a certain level of construal (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Kim, Schnall and White (2013) contend that, important decisions are usually taken in consideration of potential consequences and are influenced by the activated level of construal. According to Trope and Liberman (2010), the construal level theory postulates that people are often influenced to construe objects, events and tasks by their psychological distance. Consequently, when events are psychologically near, low level and concrete construal are used to represent them. However, they use high level and abstract construal to represent events perceived to be psychologically distant.

The construal level theory assumes that the here and now are the only places that can be experienced directly, whereas the future and others are only abstractions that

manifest in the form of memories, imaginations, hopes or plans. Trope and Liberman (2010) posit that psychologically long distance is abstract where high level construal constitute broad concepts representing an object; while psychological closeness relates to low level construal such as an objects concrete features.

The essence here is that psychological distance directly influences the level of construal and in so doing, guides judgment and the ability to make decisions (Trope et al., 2007). Evidence shows that tourists often look at similarities and differences between home countries and destinations when evaluating preferred destinations (Emami &Raybarian, 2015). According to Abooali and Mohamed (2012), tourists engage psychology to perceive destinations as being close, or far from them. More similarities between a destination and home country for instance makes tourists to construe the destination as being closer and comfortable to visit (White & White, 2007). More differences between tourists' home country and preferred destination results in perceptions of more psychological distance and diminishes chances of the destination to be chosen (Kozak et al., 2007).

While most consumer research has focused on choices made across comparable options, Kim et al (2008) explored choices made across non-comparable options. The key difference may have been the ready availability of decision criteria versus the need to create a general one (Bettman &Sujan, 1987). They proposed that construal levels would affect the ease with which general decision criteria could be created, and in doing so, will also influence choice behavior. Through a series of studies, they demonstrated that an abstract construal level decreases choice deferral rates and increases choice satisfaction for non-comparable choices and yet has the reverse effect on comparable choices.

According to Trope et al (2007) Construal level theory (CLT) explains how psychological distance influences individuals' thoughts and behavior. It assumes that people mentally construe objects that are psychologically near in terms of low-level, detailed, and contextualized features; and at a distance they construe the same objects or events in terms of high-level, abstract, and stable characteristics. Research has shown that different dimensions of psychological distance (time, space, social distance, and hypotheticality) affect mental construal and that these construal, in turn, guide prediction, evaluation, and behavior. Leiser et al (2003), basing on Trope (2003) earlier findings and hypothesizing that CLT could account for other dimensions of psychological distance such as social distance, followed up to demonstrate how CLT could accounts for a wide range of economic behaviors such as predicting the choices of others, giving advice, joining pension schemes, and the failure of annuitizing assets at retirement. By explaining how CLT could account for these various economic behaviors and suggesting novel predictions, they attempted to stimulate researchers to investigate further the role of psychological distance in economic behavior.

Nussbaum (2006) conducted a study of four experiments to test the hypothesis that temporal distance increases the weight of overall dispositions in predicting and explaining future behavior and concluded that results were as supportive of the assumption of construal level theory that perceivers use more abstract representations (higher level construal) to predict and explain more distant future behaviors. In a further study this seemed to confirm the findings of Nussbaum et al (2003) seeking to understand the reasons that drove perceivers to base their behavior predictions for the more distant future on global dispositions, adding that it was an indication that it reflected the kind of information that is frequently accessible and needed about

proximal against distal future situations. Usually, information about concrete contextualized factors becomes accessible only as the time of the occurrence draws closer, while information concerning the global attributes of others might be accessed long in advance. Even when information about concrete factors is available, these factors may be seen as fluid and varying, whereas global traits may be seen as solid and stable and, therefore, as transcending the here and now. Besides, it is usually allowable for decision-makers to change their predictions in the context of the information that they receive over time. This, in turn, may enable those using the information to make decisions to postpone the processing of low-level contextual information till they are able to get to draw near in time to the actual situation.

Decision-makers may process future behavior in high-level terms—in terms of others' global traits— and only later associate temporal distance with level of construal. This association may influence both how decision-makers think about the future and also how they communicate with each other about it. Consequently perceivers may be expected to respond to questions involving the far future in terms of universal considerations and questions about the close future in terms of more specific considerations, even when information about the two types of contexts is accessible for both the proximal and the distal future.

2.3.3 Consumer behaviour theory

Engaging in the consumption process makes one to be considered a consumer; and buying to meet personal or communal needs of, say, family, household or other form of community results in final consumption. When one is involved in a series of actions that lead to purchase and utilization of goods and services of economic nature it is referred to as consumer behavior (Bray, 2008); mirroring the embodiment in entirety the decisions of a consumer with regard to purchasing, utilizing, and

disposing of commodities, services, ideas and even time (Bray, 2008). Consumer behavior is engagement of both thinking faculties and actions, encapsulating the why, when, where, whether, how, how much, how often, and how long, of the consumption of an item. Consumer behavior is critical if one has to comprehend the various market segments and develop strategies that would result in effective penetration in these markets. Consumer behavior intentionally draws out the gaps in the molding of consumer desires and expectations, and hence it helps in solving their problems on a constant basis (Bray, 2008). In view of the foregoing tourists can be considered as customers and tourism as a service and therefore application of consumer behavior theories thereto is appropriate.

The major categories of consumer theories include economic theories, psychological theories, psychoanalytic theories and socio-economic theories; all of which are anchored in the law of consumption which states that consumption rises with increase in aggregate earnings; provided that spending habits and political conditions remain unchanged; and that the freedom and perfectness of the economy are assured (Bray, 2008). Whereas economic theories are anchored on income appropriation and its effect on determination of demand; the essence of psychological theories (otherwise known as learning theories) resides in the fact that experiences have the power to effect adjustments for purposes of future actions and hence are able to make a case for destination promotion. On the other hand psychoanalytic theories were birthed from the reflections of Sigmund Freud who classified the personality of an individual into the id, the ego and the super-ego; which serve to control the need to enjoy, the moral aspects involved in the act (of enjoyment), and the judgment as to whether therefore to proceed with the act or nor; respectively. This theory is applicable when it comes to putting individuals' values into consideration when putting together the packaging of,

and the marketing programs of a destination. The socio-cultural theories espouse the view that humans are primarily social animals and that what they want or how they behave are to a great extent influenced by the cohorts to which they belong. The moral of this theory is that the social grouping to which a tourist belongs will have a bearing on the choice of the destination.

Based on the consumer behavior theories it is evident that tourists extensively engage in choice, and hence decision processes. On the other hand it has been observed that tourist decision making is risky and complex; and therefore requires considerable investment of resources and effort (Garcia et al, 2014). Given that tourism is experienced at destinations away from the familiar home-grounds, and also given that at the same time tourists are very intentional about novelty that necessitates extensive consideration of alternatives, then tourism destination choice becomes a function of the destination, the intended period (or season of the year) of the travel, the duration of the tour, the activities to engage in while at the destination, the purchases, the accommodation, and the sites to visit (and the itinerary), among others (Feng, 2011). The challenge usually is to make choices that will maximize the experience and yield the desired satisfaction.

An understanding of consumer behavior helps in understanding different market segments and developing strategies to effect penetration into these markets. It also seeks to identify the gaps in shaping their desires and aspirations and solving many of the consumer's day-to-day problems in purchasing. The consumer decision making is a process that begins with problem recognition and ends with post purchase dissonance, and the process begins all over again (Kharouf, Biscaia, Garcia-Perez, & Hickman, 2020).

CB remains one of the most researched areas in the marketing and tourism fields, with the terms ‘travel behavior’ or ‘tourist behavior’ typically used to describe this area of inquiry (Huete-Alcocer, López-Ruiz, &Grigorescu, 2019). According to Thyne, Woosnam, Watkins, & Ribeiro, (2020) the existing body of research on travel behavior can therefore best seen as fragmented due to the fact that, among others, individual studies borrow consumer behavior models for products and conventional services like banking, and apply to tourism. According to Celik (2019) Tourists highly engage in the choice process; making travel decisions risky, complex and requiring large investments and efforts because tourism products and services are consumed away from home. Besides, tourists usually seek novelty that encourages them to consider options extensively.

Various studies have been conducted in the domain of consumer behavior and destination choice. For instance, Cohen et al (2014) did a study on consumer behavior and tourism focusing on key concepts, influences and research contexts and appreciated the large amount of investments made by researchers in the same field. Cohen et al (2014) was a review of contemporary research materials published in three prominent tourism journals: the Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management and the Journal of Travel and Research; between the years 2000 and 2012. They were inclined to observing how research was developing in what they considered key concepts researched by most scholars, which included decision-making, values, motivations, self-concept and personality, expectations, perceptions, trust and loyalty, and satisfaction. Of interest to this study was the key concept of decision-making.

Cohen et al (2014) argued that effective marketing was hinged on proper comprehension of consumer behavior and decried the fact that when it came to

tourism consumer behavior, it remained anchored in the general assumptions of decision-making. They posited that tourist decision-making could not be satisfactorily explained in words alone without modeling, due to the complexity that they carried. In their critique they registered that tourism research had so far not departed from the traditional consumer behavior models, but rather, that they continued to be characterized by the assumptions based on rational decision-making (Smallman and Moore, 2010) and noted further that these models were continuously disqualified for their inability to demonstrate the complexities of tourists' decision-making as these decisions were considered to emanate from unique contexts (Hyde and Lawson, 2003). They argued further that tourists' decision-making increased in complication due to involvement of other sub-decisions of such aspects as the travel program; and the fact that some of the decisions have to be made before, while others are made during the visit; and which decisions are highly subject to prevailing circumstances (Decrop and Snelder, 2004; Choi et al, 2012; March and Woodside, 2005). Cohen et al (2014) espoused the idea that research in tourists' decision-making needed to use less structured approaches that included verbal accounts that could bring out vividness of activities.

Consumer behavior theory was chosen for this study because tourism is a business in which destinations are the products and the tourists are consumers. In view of that travel decisions are choice processes that are influenced by factors internal and external to the tourist (Smallman and Moore, 2010). They also enable researchers to understand different market segments and to develop strategies that are requisite for understanding these segments. Furthermore they provide a vivid presentation of the outcomes of changes in variables and circumstances. They have also been used in past studies to develop conceptual frameworks to guide research and; they have enabled

construction of various buyer choice processes and the relevant promotion methods (Santos et al, 2021).

2.3.4 Theoretical Underpinnings

The study is underpinned in the theories of psychological distance, construal level theory and consumer behavior. In conclusion the aspect of correspondence between psychological distance and the problem of decision-making has a significant relationship has been established (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004). And as Dhar and Kim (2007) established, CLT suggests that in order to increase persuasiveness, a message has to stress higher construal level aspects and diminish lower construal level aspects if it was referring to decisions about more distal entities—future times, other people, other places, and hypothetical events.

2.3.5 Conclusion of literature review

From the studies that have been reviewed a number of issues emerge. First and foremost the studies show that the current tourists' destination choice models are based on the consumer decision models for goods and services. Yet the same studies reveal that tourists' decision-making process is more complex and has many more issues to consider than those concerning purchase of goods or ordinary services like banking. Furthermore, evaluation of psychological distance is an important factor in the tourists' destination choice process and that when the framework of CLT is applied the perception of destinations is affected and thus influences the destination choice process. Furthermore, psychological distance and CLT are important when it comes to destination presentation, and that the timings and vividness of the presentation is important to the tourists' destination choice process. Various studies have been conducted on decision-making using psychological distance and CLT.

Many of them have been experimental few of them have focused on tourism, and much less on the destination choice process.

Consumer behavior theory was chosen for this study because tourism is a business in which destinations are the products and the tourists are consumers. In view of that travel decisions are choice processes that are influenced by factors internal and external to the tourist (Smallman and Moore, 2010). They also enable researchers to understand different market segments and to develop strategies that are requisite for understanding these segments. Furthermore they provide a vivid presentation of the outcomes of changes in variables and circumstances. They have also been used in past studies to develop conceptual frameworks to guide research and; they have enabled construction of various buyer choice processes and the relevant promotion methods (Santos et al, 2021)

Reviews carried out on a large number of the studies on tourism recommend generation of more process studies, with decision-making being one of the important processes highlighted as requiring more research. Furthermore, reviews recommend departure from the popular cause-effect approaches and focus more on the processes. They have recommended decision models that integrate psychological processes. The current study focuses on the tourists' decision-making process employing psychological distance and CLT using data collected from tourists at a destination. It is therefore expected to contribute significantly to theory and knowledge in tourism and the tourists' destination choice process.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a self-developed structure believed by the researcher to have the capacity of explaining the development of the phenomenon under

investigation. It provides a visual display of the relationships between the concepts in the study; which concepts are developed after considering the ideas, reviewing other studies and pertinent theories that form the knowledge base for the researcher to be able to champion for the position she or he espouses (Adom et al, 2018; Grant and Osanloo as quoted in Smitten et al (2019), 2014). According to Akintoye (2015) a conceptual framework is very useful especially when existing theories have become obsolete or insufficient in fully supporting the study.

Figure 2.2 is the presentation of the conceptual framework for this study. The main objective of this study was to investigate the effects of psychological distance on international tourists' destination choice. Psychological distance has various dimensions which include temporal, spatial and social distances; and which the study used as exogenous variables. The destination choice was the endogenous variable.

Temporal distance is the amount of time in the past or future, which separates the individual's present time from the event (Liu and Xu, 2015). It therefore manifests as the distant future or the near future. It is critical in the determination of the level of abstractions, and hence levels of construal (Liberman et al, 2011). It is argued that tourists planning to visit far destinations in the far future focus more on the abstractions of the destinations. In this study the indicators of temporal distance were conceptualized as the distant future and the near future. Spatial distance is defined as the subjective feeling which an individual experiences with regard to the farness or nearness that an object is from the individual's current location (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Spatial distance has demonstrated its potential to affect individuals' evaluations and judgments (O'Connor et al, 2014; Thompson et al, 2015).

In this study farness from the individual's current location and nearness to the individual's current location were taken as the indicators for spatial distance. Social distance is a construct that measures the degree of social separation between groups on the basis of group difference in, for instance, language, cuisine, etc. According to Crossman (2020) social distance has three dimensions namely affective, normative, and interactive. Crossman (2020) explains further that affective social distance refers to the degree to which people from across groups empathize or sympathize with others who are far from them; and normative social distance refers to that which brings out distinctions among people in terms of nationality, gender, race, and even class; while interactive social distance is seen as a measure of social ties (Crossman, 2018). Social distance determines self-perception in relationships with others when considered at abstract levels. Social distance was therefore considered as an important construct in this study, with affective, normative and interactive social distance as indicators.

Tourists' destination choice is the behavior that tourists manifest when searching for assessing and choosing a destination that is assumed to have the ability to meet their needs (Pearce, 2005). The destination choice is determined by many factors but some researchers have conveniently categorized them into two: pull factors and push factors. The pull factors include social and family influences, allure of foreign land, food culture, exploration of new things, adventure, destination attractions, etc. (Irsha M., 2018; Dahiya and Batra, 2016; Qiu et al, 2018). The push factors include personality, disposable income, health, family and work commitments, past experience, hobbies and interests, existing knowledge of the potential destination, lifestyle, attitudes, opinions and perceptions, etc. (Kihara, 2010). Destination choice

was the endogenous variable in this study, with the push and pull factors as its indicators.

Exogenous variables **Endogenous variable**

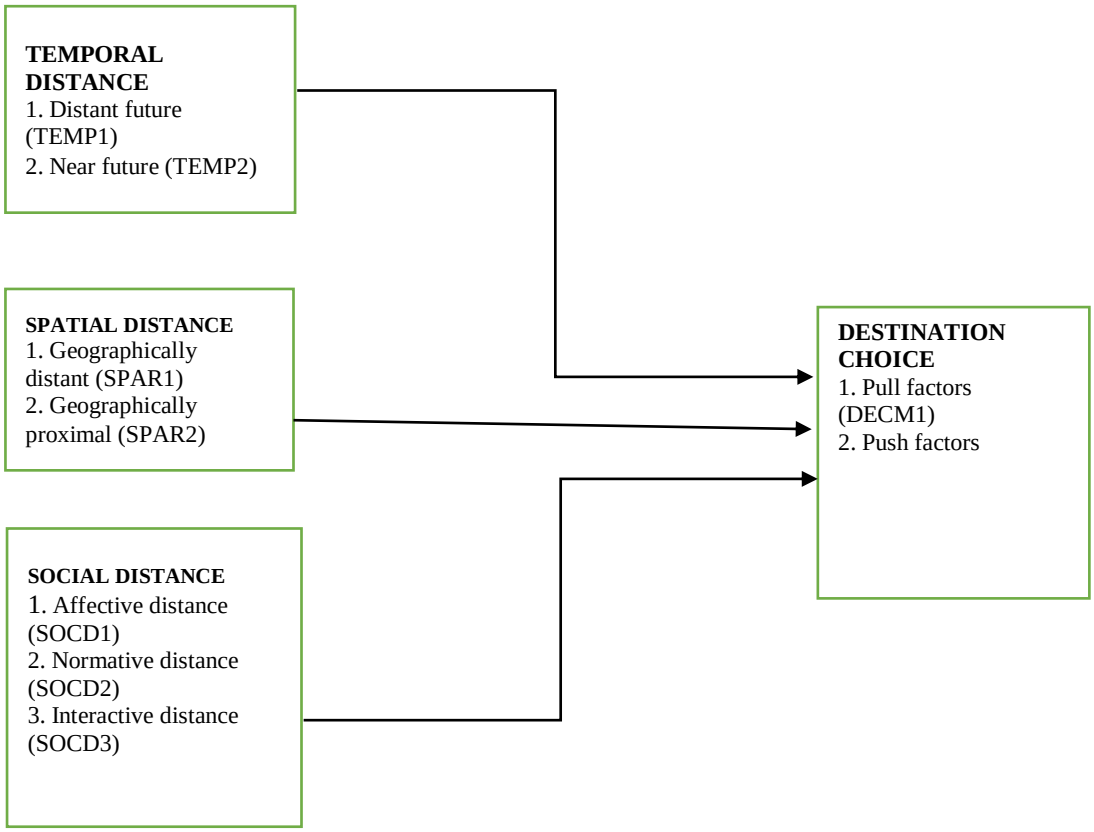


Figure 2.2: Model of conceptual framework

Source: Literature Review: Author, 2022

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the location where it was conducted, the philosophical paradigm underpinning it, the methods employed in the study, the design suitable to the paradigm adopted, the population targeted, sample size and sampling procedures employed, instruments utilized in data collection, validity and reliability of these instruments, data analysis methods and ethical considerations made while conducting the study.

3.2 Study Area

The study was conducted in Maasai Mara National Reserve. Maasai Mara ranks among Africa's best-known reserves. It lies in the Great Rift Valley, a fault line that stretches from the Red Sea in Ethiopia through, Tanzania, Kenya, and Malawi all the way to Mozambique, a distance of 5,600km (MMSDI, 2013). The nearest town to the Maasai Mara reserve is Narok. The great Mara ecosystem spans a total area of 1,510 km^2, and specifically situated at the northernmost section of the Mara Serengeti ecosystem (Protected Planet, 2018). The reserve has Serengeti Park as its Southern boundary, Siria/Oloolo escarpment as its Western boundary, and Maasai Pastoral ranches as the eastern and northern boundaries respectively. The reserve is drained mainly by the Mara River and the Talek River. Drainage lines are mostly fringed by trees and shrubs, which also cover, hilltops and hill slopes.

The reserves terrain is predominantly open grassland that features seasonal river lets. The ground in the Western border of Siria is mainly swampy and therefore attracts most wildlife due to accessibility to water and non-disruption of tourists. The reserve receives rains biannually, with long rains being received in April and May, while

short rains are experienced in November and December. The reserve has an elevation of 1,500–2,180m; receives an average rainfall of 83mm/month, and has a temperature range of 12-30^{0}C (Protected Planet, 2018).

Maasai Mara National Reserve was chosen for this study on effects of psychological distance based on construal level theory and tourist's destination choice owing to the number of local and international tourists who visit the reserve. According to Shah and Mukhovi (2019) 50% of the international arrivals visiting Kenya must visit MMNR, in which case effects of elements of social, spatial and temporal distances are experienced. In 2014 MMNR is reported to have earned Kenya three billion Kenya Shillings from tourism (Parita and Mikalisa, 2017). It is therefore touted as the number one destination in Kenya and East Africa. The great migration experienced yearly between July and October is an experience that attracts visitors from all walks of life and from all corners of the World. The World Travel Awards (2020) named MMNR the top safari destination in Africa. Moreover, the cultural way of life among the Maasai fascinates international visitors who then seek to bridge the social distance between them and the Maasai, despite their being a wider physical distance in their localities.

3.3 Philosophical Paradigm

For a study to be meaningful it must be anchored within a philosophy (Zukauaskas et al, 2018). Dictates and beliefs held among individuals referred to commonly as paradigms are known to influence the design that such individuals pursue during research (Baskarada & Koromos, 2018; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Zukauskas et al, 2018). Paradigms are often loaded with opposing worldviews and are therefore critical to decision making among individuals (Creswell, 2014). A number of

paradigms are available; some of which are extreme and restrictive, while others are safe and accommodating (Creswell, 2014).

Prior to settling for a philosophy, the researcher must understand the available philosophies together with their relative strengths and weaknesses, and thereby be able to determine the one that is suitable for the particular research. The trending research philosophies are the positivist, the interpretivist, the pragmatist, and the realistic (Rehman and Alharthi, 2016). The flow chart (figure 3.0) below summarizes these philosophies in terms of the types of the researches to which they apply, the methodologies for which they are suitable, and the data collection approaches that they sustain.

In seeking to establish effects of psychological distance on tourists' destination choice, the current study assumed that the constructs of psychological distance; temporal, spatial and social distance; could be independently manipulated to lead to diverse choices. This suggests the use of quantitative methods. However, considering the complexities involved in the tourists' destination choice process the study also required incisive interviews with key individuals perceived to possess important information that could complement the quantitative data. This essentially introduced a qualitative element into the study. (Jagosh et al, 2011; Panhwar et al, 2017).

There are various paradigms that research can adopt (figure 3.0), but this study adopted the pragmatist paradigm. To start with, the pragmatism paradigm builds on actions, situations and consequences as they arise as opposed to antecedent conditions and actions as in the case of post positivism (Creswell, 2014). It does not consider the world as absolute unity and allows the research problem to determine the philosophy. What is important is the practicability of the results (Zukauskas et al, 2018). In

essence, under this paradigm, no specific approach is employed, but rather whichever method that works at the specific time is preferred. Recognizing the flexibility that it provides, the present study employed the pragmatic paradigm in order to mix both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Alghamdi and Li, 2016) and get a concise answer to how psychological distance influences the destination choice process among tourists visiting the MMNR. Figure 3.0 is a summary of researcher paradigms and their usability.

Research paradigms	**Technology often associated with research paradigms**	**Basic methods**	**Data collection measures (examples)**
Positivist/post positivist	Experimental Half experimental Correlating Reductions Theory examination Causal relative Determination Regulatory	Quantitative: although this paradigm can use a qualitative method, usually quantitative methods dominate (Mertens, 2014)	Experiments Half experiments Tests Scales
Interpretivist/ constructivist	Naturalistic Phenomenological Hermeneutic Interpretivist Ethnographic Many participants value the social and interpretation perspective Theories creation Symbolic interation	Qualitative methods dominate though quantitative methods can be used too	Interview Observation Document study Image data analysis
Trans forming	Critical theory Neo-Marxist Feminist Critical race theory based on the philosophy of Freire Promoting participation Emancipating Defense The overall picture focused on empowerment problem Focused on changes Interventionistic Non-standardized sexuality theory Depending on race Political	Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. Contextual and historical factors are described, especially how they are related to oppression (Mertens, 2014)	A wide spectrum of measures, a special need to prevent discrimination, for example, sexism, racism and homophobia
Pragmatist	Action consequences Focused on the problems Pluralist Focused on the application in the real world Mixed methods	Qualitative and/or quantitative methods can be used. They are conformed to concrete research questions or aim	There can be used measures from positivist as well as from interpretivist paradigms, for example, interviews, observations, testing and experimentation

Figure 3.0: Paradigms: terminology, methods, and means of data collection

Source: Adapted by the author from Zukauskas et al (2018)

3.4 Research Design

The present study employed the mixed research design in which the researcher combines the elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Schoonenboom & Johnson, (2017). Under this approach, quantitative data were analyzed simultaneously with qualitative data, ostensibly to corroborate the quantitative findings.

A research design entails a plan that is detailed which specifies procedures and methods to be employed in collecting and analyzing data, and which ensures that relevant evidence is gathered in order to answer the questions at hand in a manner which is not ambiguous (Alexandrie, 2017; Wright et al., 2016). Such a plan outlines the purpose for which data is collected, measured and analyzed (Kapoor, 2016). The pragmatic paradigm favours the mixed methods approach to research which brings on board both quantitative and qualitative techniques (Ayiro, 2012). Both quantitative and qualitative techniques are utilized in tandem in order to strengthen the outcomes (Yu, 2009; Creswell, 2014)

3.5 Target Population

This study targeted international tourists visiting Maasai Mara National Park with a view to making generalizations regarding the influence of psychological distance, based 0n CLT, on their destination choice process. For this study the MMNR was considered the destination of choice. Sekeran (2010) argues that in the event that the entire population cannot be reached, an accessible population consisting of elements of the target population within reach of the researcher could be used. Target population has been perceived as characteristics upon which researchers seek to draw generalizations (Kumar, 2012). Gay, Mills and Airasian as quoted by Murray et al, 2010 (2010) also postulate that the target population entails a group for which a

researcher desires to draw generalization. This study therefore used an accessible population of 2,105 international tourists who visited and were accommodated in 38 star-rated lodges and camps in the MMNR in July of 2019.

3.5.1 Determination of Sample Size

An ideal sample size consists of a specific number of potential respondents, replicates or units of observation. According to Rubin and Babbie (2013), an ideal sample size is critical to making valid inferences and generalizations about a population. Consequently in determining sample sizes, factors such as cost, time and convenience ought to be put into consideration. For this study, the target population of 2105 corresponds to a sample size of 327, using the Krejcie and Morgan sample size determination tables (appendix VII). The study therefore employed a sample of 327 international tourists, who participated in the study. A sample of 25 managers was purposively selected from the 38 five-star lodges situated in the MMNR. The study settled for 25 because by then no new information was emerging (Creswell, 2014) and therefore there was no need to interview the rest of the managers from the remainder of the targeted 38 five-star lodges.

3.6 Sampling Design and Procedure

For this study systematic random sampling design was applied to the tourists whereas purposive sampling was applied to selecting the sample of hotel managers.

Systematic sampling is a quasi-random sampling procedure that is achieved by dividing the target population (N) by the determined sample size (n); thus N/n. from the value that is obtained one unit is randomly selected. The value obtained also serves as the interval for the systematic selections. The current study targeted 2,105 international tourists who were booked in lodges in the MMNR during the study

period. The sample size was 327 tourists and using the formula for systematic sampling 2105/327 yielded approximately 6. One unit was randomly picked from the first six, and thereafter every sixth unit was picked. Using this sampling approach secured equal accuracy in the different star-rated accommodation facilities and comparisons could be made with equal statistical power. Systematic random sampling also served to improve the representativeness of the resulting sample size by using it; it was also possible to eliminate clustered selection and reduced chances of corruption of data (Creswell, 2014).

Systematic sampling has some weaknesses that include assumptions that would be performed on a specified population size and that it would naturally manifest a level of randomness otherwise there would be a risk of selecting uniform items (Creswell, 2014). In this study these weaknesses were overcome by collecting data across different lodges. With regard to analysis, once the data had been properly coded and entered analysis was left to SPSS AMOS 18.

Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where the sample is selected based on the needs of the study as determined by the research objectives which define both the characteristics of the sample, and the information that is required (Palinkas et al, 2015). It generates a manageable amount of data and at the same time makes the generalization of the research findings possible (Ames et al, 2019). Purposive sampling has few weaknesses. In the first place it is not always possible to determine the differences between the elements from which the sample is drawn. Secondly the researcher that applies purposive sampling has the challenge of convincing the readers of the objectivity of the results and if they can be generalized since she/he is perceived to have used his/her own judgment in drawing the sample (Palinkas et al, 2015; Creswell, 2014).

In this study the weaknesses of this sampling design were overcome by first and foremost selecting the hotel managers in the MMNR who face the same dynamics as far as the tourism is concerned. The interview schedule guiding the collection of data from them was standardized and interviews were performed until no new information was emerging. The results of this study can therefore be generalized. It is also perceived that social sciences research can benefit from new knowledge that may emerge from the data that is collected from purposively drawn samples. Purposive sampling was used to select the managers the star-rated lodges operating in the MMNR because they were considered as the key informants. Key informants in a study are those individuals considered to be in possession of in-depth knowledge that can help in achieving the research objectives. This may be by virtue of such factors as their positions in the organizations and their areas of expertise. They are therefore expected to provide comprehensive information that can lead to accurate descriptions of patterns in the study target populations (Creswell, 2014; Kumar, 1989; Tremblay, 1957).

3.7 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

This study relied on secondary and primary data by reviewing literature in the area of the study, and in the form of responses elicited first hand from the sampled international tourists and the hotel managers. A questionnaire was the principal tool used for primary data collection, because of its flexibility, versatility, validity, uniformity, and cost effectiveness (Satrirenjit, Alistair & Martin, 2012 as quoted by M Morintat & Wainaina). Beside, questionnaires are amenable to broad coverage, quick response, and peculiar types of responses (the ones that require anonymity). Being repetitive in nature they present a simple approach to planning, constructing and administering; as well as putting less demand on the respondent. A questionnaire is an

essential initial and versatile instrument whose uniformity enables the researcher to concentrate on the research objectives (Taljaard et al, 2015). However a questionnaire is not without limitations.

In the first place it can only be ministered to a literate population; and frequent lack of personal contact may lead to poor response rates and low reliability. Sometimes it is not possible to read the handwritings of some of the respondents and entries that are not complete are also a possibility. There is also the possibility of manipulation of entries. Questionnaires are not very useful in researches that focus on delicate matters (like drug addiction) and for studies that require delving deep into issues (Taljaard et al, 2015). In this study the challenges were overcome by first and foremost, conducting a pilot study with 30 tourists and 2 accommodation managers (Kieser and Wassmer (1996) at the Tsavo National Park. Interactions were also made with the tourists in the evenings and explaining the study and the objectives in order to create interest and raise the response rates. The fact that they were semi-structured added some advantages. First and foremost the unstructured section serves as a safety net that aids the researcher to highlight matters that may not have been captured in the structured section. This section also provides allowance for the respondents to divulge more information beyond the restriction of the structured section. At the same time it may be used to elaborate or corroborate what is on the structured section. Most importantly it increases the response rate as it is said to empower the respondent, balancing the perceived power of the researcher (Decorte et al, 2019)

The questionnaire was in two parts: The first part was purely structured and closed ended and it captured the demographic data of the respondents. The structured part was in form of Likert scales. A Likert scale is a unidimensional psychometric scale that that is used by researchers to collect and measure attitudes and opinions from

respondents, which in turn helps in understanding their views and perspectives. It has the benefits of being simple for both the researcher and the respondent; and the answer options can be quantified to apply to a range of responses. It is good for dealing with sensitive questions and also creates a balance between the open and closed ended questionnaires. There are however few challenges with it. For one it is prone to bias as respondents tend to avoid the extreme responses. They also have an element of vagueness that may lead to subjective explanation. Furthermore the choices tend to be restrictive, in which case respondents resort to the nearest applicable which may not exactly reflective of their reality (Subedi, 2016).These challenges were overcome by testing the instrument before applying it fully to the study.

The second part of the questionnaire was designed based on the four constructs under study namely; social distance, temporal distance, spatial distance and destination decision making. Data for the three psychological distance constructs was produced on a 5-pointLikert scale with options ranging from strongly disagree, disagree, moderately agree, to strongly agree for temporal and spatial distance items; and not comfortable at all, somehow comfortable, moderately comfortable, comfortable, and very comfortable for social distance. On the contrary, responses on the destination choice construct were also produced on 5-pointLikert scale but with options ranging from important at all; not important, somehow important, important, to very important. This part also contained semi-structured and open ended questions that sought to obtain tourists incisive views on among others; difficulties experienced in making the decision to travel to the Mara, follow up information needed in preparation for trip, whether activities in the Mara were meeting expectations, cultural

similarities/differences experienced and potential improvements to enrich future visits.

To administer the questionnaires, the researcher engaged four research assistants who were taken through orientation on the objectives of the data collection. Each research assistant was assigned an average of 10 five-star lodges, while the researcher took the overall responsibility of supervision. On the basis of recommendations that participants ought to understand and be clear on the required information, the questionnaires were administered on a drop and pick up (DOPU) basis which, according to Kramer et al (2013) is a delivery made in person of self-administered questionnaires which are then picked up later; and have been found to result in response rates of more than 93% due to the relationship that ensues from the interaction between researcher and respondent.

Data from the hotel managers was collected using interview schedules. An interview schedule is a document containing a set of questions (which can be as few as two) that serves as a compass during the data collection process between a respondent (like a key informant and the researcher), especially when in-depth information is sort. In-depth interviews are appropriate in instances where the research interest is concise; when the situation is not amenable to participant observation; when the research needs to be completed in the shortest time possible; when the research is based on a broad variety of people or situations; and when concentration is on individual human behaviors (Fox, 2021). The study chose to use them because they are the most preferred method of collecting qualitative data in social sciences (Licoln & Denzin, 2003; Phillimore and Goodson, 2004; Travers, et al 2015) for various reasons. Furthermore most of the literature in tourism is perceived to have evolved from interviews held with people (Picken, 2017) hence it is the most popular with

researches in tourism (Riley and Love, 2000; Noy, 2008). To begin with they have been found to facilitate collection of detailed data that enables the researcher to reflect further on matters raised by the respondent, thereby providing a richer representation of the situation.

In-depth interviews are useful in exploring the experiences of different respondents and allow individuals to present their positions and this has the effect of increasing the validity of the data. They are however expensive to both the researcher and respondent in time and are therefore usually limited in quantity during a study. Aside from the risk of ungeneralizability they may lack in efficiency since the respondent may wonder into other matters not relevant to the study. Last but not least they may suffer from biases because the respondent may not be honest and may conceal some elements of experiences under investigation and; the researcher may be unintentionally influencing what the responses (Fox, 2021). These challenges were overcome by having the interview schedules tested before they could be fully used in the study. For this study interviews with the managers were preferred because it gave the researcher the opportunity to make observations and to get first-hand information.

3.7.1 Pretesting

Pre-testing for this study was performed on 30 subjects at the Tsavo National Park.

A pilot study can be defined as a minute scale of an entire study; or trials of a specific research too, for instance the questionnaire (Doody and Doody, 2015). Piloting is important because it helps establish the adequacy of the study tools; assess if the entire study is feasible; develop a protocol for the research, assess the effectiveness of the study sampling technique; identify challenges associated with logistics of the research; establish the resources (like finances, personnel, equipment) required for the

study; and training for the researcher; among others (Malmqvit et al, 2019; Doody and Doody, 2015). The recommended sample size for piloting is between 12 and 70 subjects; a threshold that this study met (Whitehead et al, 2014).

3.8 Measurement of Variables

Four measurement scales consistent with the four constructs under study were employed. The temporal distance scale was ordinal and consisted of eleven items reflecting temporal distance such as 'I considered how things might be in the future when the trip would happen, and tried to influence them with my day today behavior', and 'I only focused on immediate concerns and figured that the future could take care of itself' etc. The spatial distance scale comprised of nine items specifically developed to reflect spatial or geographical distance. Examples of items under this category included; 'the attractive nature of the reserve made me perceive it to be closer to home', and 'the reserves natural beauty made it appear very close' among others.

The social distance scale consisted of eleven items which measured how comfortable tourists were with locals in the park for example, 'sharing a game drive with locals around the reserve', 'having locals as friends' etc. The last scale was on destination choice and it constituted ten items that examined factors which contributed to choice of the Mara. Typical items included' interesting cultural heritage', 'beautiful wildlife, and 'wildebeest migration' among others.

Table 3.0: the constructs, their indicators and scales of measurement

Variable	Nature	Indicators	Scale
Temporal distance	Independent	Distal (far) future (TEMP1) Proximal (near) future (TEMP2)	ordinal
Spatial distance	Independent	Distant(far) in space (SPAR1) Near (close) in space (SPAR2)	ordinal
Social distance	independent	Affective social distance SOCD1) Normative social distance(SOCD2) Interactive social distance(SOCD3)	ordinal
Destination choice decision-making	Dependent	External (pull)factors (DECM1) Internal (push) factors (DECM2)	ordinal

Source: Author 2022

3.9 Data Analysis

3.9.1 Analysis of Quantitative Data

Collected data were first coded and entered into SPSS version 23 and subsequently screened and cleaned for response rate, missing values, univariate and multivariate outliers and factor structure of the four latent variables. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the analysis. Inferential analysis further assisted the researcher to make inference of the relationship between the variables using the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) – AMOS version 18 that applies a combination of factor analysis and regression analysis, which was preferred for this study for its various virtues which were deemed beneficial to the study.

3.9.2 Data Screening and Cleaning

Data was first checked for response rate to establish that it was high enough for analysis to proceed. It is important to have a high response rate in a survey because it provides the best avenue to obtaining estimates that are not biased; it increases representativeness; and determines the quality of the data obtained (Fosnacht et al, 2017; Smith M.G. et al, 2019).The data was then checked for missing values. It has been pointed out that factors such as respondents' unwillingness to respond to sensitive questions on say marital status, age and attrition leads to missing data which may impact negatively on study approaches and findings (Baraldi& Enders, 2010). Besides, evidence shows that some data may be wrongly captured leading to scores that differ markedly from the rest (Masconi et al., 2015). Data were therefore screened for missing values and outliers.

While there are various approaches for missing value analysis, this study used the missing completely at random (MCAR) approach which allows for replacement of missing data below 5% using hot deck imputation (Myers, 2011). Under this approach to imputation, any value found to be missing was replaced using the recurrent trend in which case, the missing value was replaced by an observation from a similar unit.

Univariate and multivariate outliers were also assessed in the collected data. According to Masconi et al. (2015), outliers are cases which appear to have unusual or extreme values on a single variable, in which case they are known as univariate outliers, or on a combination of variables, in which case they are known as multivariate outliers. They argue that outliers may need to be addressed prior to statistical analyses since they may signal anomalies. In this study, univariate outliers were assessed using the graphical approach. Using SPSS's Explore Command, box

plots were generated and any points below or above the whiskers were deemed as univariate outliers.

Detection of multivariate outliers was conducted using the more objective approach of computing Mahalanobis distance for each case. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), Mahalanobis distance statistics D^2 indicates the multivariate distance that exists between each case and multivariate mean for the group. Cases were therefore evaluated via chi-square distribution given strongest alpha levels of 0.001. Statistically significant cases under this alpha level were then deemed to be multivariate outliers and would be eliminated.

3.9.3 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is important in that it highlights the basic features of data collected in the study and confirms its suitability for analysis. Descriptive statistics in the form of minimum and maximum response values, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were used to explore the perceptions of the psychological distance constructs, and critical factors that informed tourist's decision to visit the Mara. In this case the mean was used to capture the typical response among tourists while the standard deviation and skewness indicated variations between tourist responses and were therefore used to show consistency in responses. For descriptive analysis the frequency, mean, percentages, standard deviation and skewness were computed to assess the nature of the data collected for the study. Since this study was using SEM to analyze data descriptive statistics were important specifically because data is analyzed based on the assumption of normality. Descriptive analysis provided the mean, the mode and the kurtosis, enabling the researcher to confirm compliance with SEM assumption of normality. Another reason for performing the descriptive statistics was that input to a SEM analysis comprises means, variances and

covariances which can only be obtained after descriptive analysis. Inferential analysis was used to assess the relationship between the variables

3.9.4 Inferential Analysis

Inferential analysis enables the drawing of conclusions from the sample used in the study for purposes of generalization. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using

AMOS version 18 was the main strategy to data analysis in this study. The choice of SEM using AMOS for data analysis was informed by a number of reasons: First and foremost it ensures that the assumptions upon which the data analysis is based are clear and can be tested. It also contains graphical interphase software that improves creativeness and enables a quick clean-up of the model to eliminate possible errors. The programs within it are able to perform overall tests of fitness of model and distinct parametric tests all at the same time; as well as the comparison of regression coefficients, means and variances. It allows the use of model measurement and confirmatory factor analysis thus eliminating errors and improving the accuracy of the estimated association among the latent variables (Jia, 2019). According to Werner and Schermelleh-Engel (2009) SEM offers analysis opportunities that are not available with other methods and; it provides more reliable results. It is particularly espoused for social sciences, to which tourism research belongs.

To begin with hypotheses in social sciences use constructs and inference made to them from indicators. SEM enables the analysis of a number of indicators to a construct, and these results in higher validity of the outcomes. Furthermore social sciences data have been observed to contain a significant amount of errors of measurement. SEM is able to incorporate these errors in the analysis thus increasing the reliability of the results. SEM also facilitates the testing of complex relationship

patterns that are characteristic of social sciences theories. Another important property of SEM is that it enables the researcher to test for compatibility between the model and the data in general. It also facilitates testing of particular postulations about parameters, and their compatibility with the data, thus ensuring that the variances and covariances are systematically included. Analyzing data using SEM is based in assumptions that are clear and verifiable, availing to the researcher complete control and comprehension of the data being processed and the results.

There are however some challenges associated with using SEM. In the first place model identification may not be possible where empirical association among the variables is feasible. SEM also involves analysis of many relationships at the same time which can lead to estimation problems. Furthermore SEM depends on multivariate normality and large sample sizes which has adverse implications for reliability of results from small samples and abnormal distribution. In order to overcome these challenges the study made sure to fulfil the assumption upon which SEM is based; and the use of modification indices in order to achieve the model fit (Natchtigall et al, 2003).

The three psychological distance constructs were conceptualized as having direct effects on tourists' destination choice. Prior to analysis, the five assumptions of regression notably; normality, linearity, serial correlation, homogeneity of variances, and multicollinearity were tested following recommendations by Ernst and Albers (2017). Assumption of normality was tested using the P-P plots which have an edge over formal goodness of fit tests such as Kolmogorov-Smirnoff and Shapiro-Wilk (Razali et al, 2011) in pointing out features of distribution which are not normal. In the p-p plots approach, non-violation of normality assumptions was assumed if data points were closer to the diagonal line either side (Tabachnick &Fidell, 2013).

Partial Scatter plots were used to test linearity between the main exogenous constructs. Under this approach, variables which are normally distributed while being linearly related at the same time are expected to produce scatter points that appear linear. Assumption of homoscedasticity (the homogeneity of the error term between all the independent variables and the dependent variable) was tested using a plot of studentized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. Non exhibition of a discernible pattern would then indicate non violation of homoscedasticity.

To establish the factor structure in each of the psychological distance constructs and that of the destination choice construct the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was performed. PCA is a statistical method that reduces large sets of variables to smaller ones, while preserving as much information as possible, for ease of exploration and visualization. For this technique, the Kaiser criterion was employed. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) is an index through which existence of linear relationships between constructs is confirmed. Moreover, the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity (completeness) were employed in order to test sampling adequacy and to confirm the unrelatedness of the variables) respectively. Under this test, a KMO value equal to or above 0.6, and a significant Bartlett's measure of less than 0.05 indicated that it was suitable to perform a PCA on the data. PCA can be performed using orthogonal or oblique rotation. The two types of rotation have their different approaches depending on the objectives of the rotation. Thus for orthogonal one can use the varimax, equimax or quartimax approach; while for oblique one can use the promax, oblimax, or quartimin approach. An orthogonal rotation is believed to be capable of producing a factor structure that is simpler and much easier to interpret. A varimax rotation is useful in transforming the vectors associated with PCA to a simpler structure by

maximizing the sums of squares of the coefficients contained in each resulting vector (Park et al, 2002; Jackson, 2005). This study used the orthogonal varimax rotation.

The assumption of autocorrelation or serial correlation was tested using the Durbin-Watson (DW) test. Autocorrelation relates to error terms being dependent with each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Interpretation of the DW statistic was based on the following criteria: A DW statistic closer to or equal to 2 was interpreted to mean lack of autocorrelation. A DW statistic substantially below 2, and more so below 1 indicated positive autocorrelation; while, a value substantially above 2 indicated existence of negative autocorrelation.

Finally, the assumption of multicollinearity was tested using Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs). According to Hair et al. (2014) multicollinearity relates to correlations between independent variables which adversely affect regression estimates. VIFs therefore tests potential existence of such correlations. Using the categorization by Ringle et al. (2015), VIF values above 5 were deemed to suggest existence of multicollinearity.

3.9.5 Measurement Model Validation

The measurement model was composed of the four study constructs and their indicators. Validation of the measurement model aimed at confirming the goodness of fit to the data. The moment structures of the four latent variables were examined using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 18. Mohajan (2017) argues that to be valid, the measurement model must attain recommended levels of fit indices, for instance for GFI it is 0.9; and for RMSEA it ranges between 0.05-0.1. In addition, the following validation checks were run: convergent validity, discriminant validity and composite reliability.

Carlson and Herdman (2012) postulate that convergent validity captures the ability of two or more measures to converging measures a common variable. Consequently, on the basis of recommendations by Carlson and Herdman (2012) significant factor loadings were used to measure convergent validity, and were expected to exceed the 0.70 limit; construct composite validity to exceed 0.80 and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to go above 0.50. Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing squared correlations of each construct with the associated AVE- as recommended by Hair et al., (2007). According to Hair et al., (2007), discriminant validity is the extent to which constructs differ. Discriminant validity was therefore assumed if the square root of the AVE was found to be larger than squared correlations between the constructs (Ahmed et al., 2016).

Composite reliability has also been found to be a good measure of the fit of the measurement model (Carlson &Herdman, 2012). According to Netemeyer (2003), composite reliability is occasionally known as construct reliability and measures the internal consistency among the items within a scale. Brunner and Sub (2005) posit that composite reliability can be viewed as 'total amount of true score variance relative to the total scale score variance'. Composite reliability is particularly relevant for SEM models since it gives an indication of how indicator variables load on their latent constructs. In this study therefore a composite reliability of above 0.7 was ideal. However as noted by Hair et al. (2007), composite reliabilities between 0.60 – 0.70 were deemed acceptable.

The measurement model (the model that demonstrates correlations between the latent variables and the indicators) was a four-factor model consisting of four latent variables with varying indicators, and random errors arising from construct

measurement. The indicators, often known as observed variables were regressed into respective latent variables.

The measurement model was validated using the 'goodness of fit' criterion under AMOS. Hair et al. (2017), postulate that AMOS is suitable for validating covariance–oriented structural models. Three categories of fit were used to test whether the measurement model fitted the sample data. The fit indices were compared with those recommended by Cheung and Rensvold shown in Table 3.1 (Cangur &Ercan, 2015).

Table 3.1: Recommended fit indices

$\chi^2 sig.$	χ^2/df	*GFI*	*AGFI*	*NFI*	*RFI*	*CFI*	*RMSEA*
$p \leq 0.05$	< 5.0	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	>0.90	> 0.90	< 0.05

Source: Hooper et al, 2008

The structural model was conceptualized as having three latent exogenous variables and one latent endogenous variable and was identified as a reflective SEM where causality flows from construct to indicators thus the indicators are reflective of the construct; when the construct changes the indicators change, but the reverse is not the case; and correlation is expected (Simonetto, 2012; Freeze and Raschike, 2007; Marakas et al, 2007). The psychological distance constructs were exogenous and were conceptualized as having direct impacts on the endogenous variable which in this case was tourist's destination choice. The validation of the structural model was conducted in much the same manner as that of the measurement model. The standardized regression weights appearing on the paths from each psychological distance construct to the destination choice construct represented the direct effects.

3.9.6 Analysis of Qualitative Data

The process begun with going through the scripts to ensure that they were all there, that all the questions had responses and that the correct questions had been asked. The data was then read through several times to draw meaning. This was followed by review of the research objectives with the intention of linking items of data to matching objectives. The data was then coded by participant nationality for the tourists and sequentially for hotel managers. The data was then categorized into the themes that emerged. Qualitative data may be analyzed using several approaches including content analysis, narrative analysis, discourse analysis and grounded theory (Creswell, 2014). This study applied content analysis because data had been collected in form of text and it constituted responses from interviewees (managers of the lodges) and tourists (for the open ended section of the questionnaire.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

In undertaking this study, the researcher took into consideration the rights and privileges of the participants, and pursued the required ethical standards that are observed when conducting research of this nature. More specifically, the researcher, through the School of Tourism Hospitality and Events Management of Moi University, sought permission to conduct the study from the National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and the Narok County Government as shown in appendix. The permit assisted the researcher to secure permission from the management of the respective lodges to gather data from international tourists. Prior to actual data collection, the researcher visited the sampled lodges to seek the consent of the managers to conduct the research, to explain the purpose of the study, and to familiarize with environment.

Through an introductory letter, the researcher sought informed consent from the sampled tourists. Furthermore, the tourists were given a guarantee of anonymity and confidentiality. Tourists were not required to share any information that could compromise their identity. Consequently, their identities in form of names and other personal details were not required. Moreover, the researcher took the responsibility of using the data gathered only within the scope of the study. Potential respondents were given the freedom to determine the time and circumstances under which data were gathered (in the privacy of their rooms) in order to guarantee their right to privacy and to ensure that their participation was voluntary.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents results of the analysis of the influence of psychological distance, based on CLT, on tourists' destination choice in the context of the Maasai Mara National Reserve. The first section gives results of data screening and clearing in terms of response rate, missing values, outliers and factor structure of the constructs. The second section focuses on a descriptive analysis of tourists' perceptions of study constructs and their experiences. The third section reports the results of inferential analysis which include validation of measurement and structural models, as well as results of hypotheses tests. Finally the section also contains discussions of the main findings

4.2 Data Screening and Cleaning

This section focuses on results of the response rate, missing values, outliers and factor structure.

4.2.1 Response Rate

The researcher settled on a sample size of 327obtained from the Sample Size Determination Table (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). Consequently, 327 questionnaires were administered to the sampled international tourists. From this number of questionnaires, 311 were fully filled and found ideal to use. The response rate was therefore computed to be 95.1% which as recommended by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) was satisfactory for the study. Among the 16that were not considered for the study were either as a result of being incomplete or were not

returned at all within the time frame given and efforts of follow up were not also successful.

4.2.2 Missing Values

Missing data is known to be common in social research and is caused by among other factors, participants refusing to answer certain questions, missing appointments, and dropping out of studies (Padgett, Skilbeck& Summers, 2014). In most analyses missing data leads to inappropriate estimates of the statistics hence the data must be effectively cleaned to remove any elements of missing data.

Three types of missing data are often advanced in existing literature (Padgett et al., 2014). Missing at Random (MAR) refers to the propensity of a data point missing, not due to the missing data but rather due to some of the observed data. Missing completely at Random (MCAR) on the other hand means that the missingness has nothing to do with the hypothetical value and with values of other variables. Thirdly, missing not at Random (MNAR) relates to a value missing due to its hypothetical value (where respondents are not willing to reveal their earnings), or missing due to other variables such as females not wanting to reveal age. The study used the MCAR approach that allows for imputation of missing values below 5% (Baraldi& Enders, 2010). For instance, case 128 had a missing value on the first social distance construct item. The percentage of the missing data was below 0.5% and hence the hot deck imputation was used to replace the value missing by looking at the trend of neighboring values.

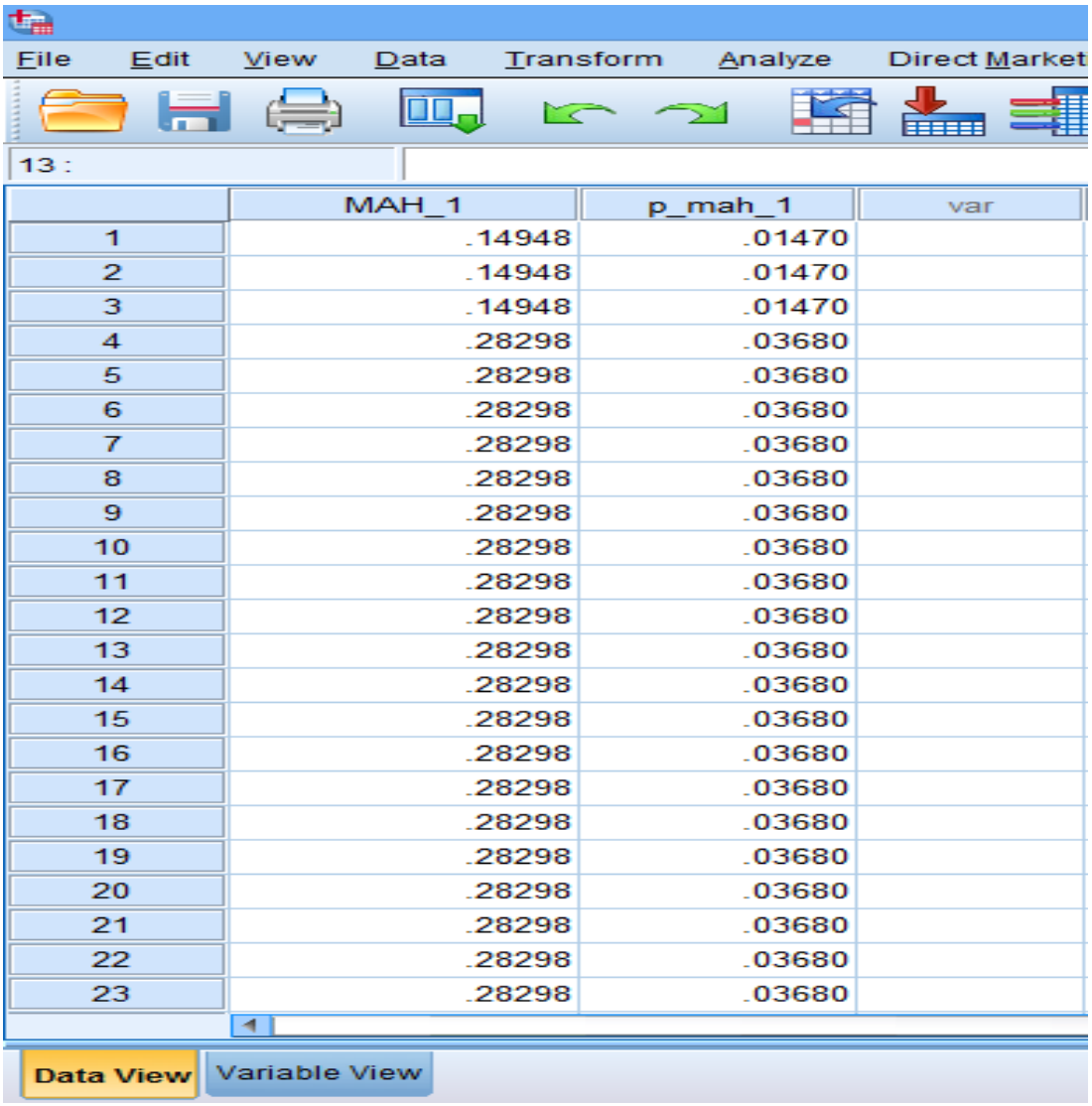
4.2.3 Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

According to Sang Kyu and Jong Hae (2017), outliers relate to extreme values that deviate from the pattern of the distribution of a given pattern. They point out that

outliers are the result of various factors which include errors in data entry and also errors in participant responses. The negative impact of outliers is that they may lead to under or overestimated results.

In order to establish the probability that outlier scores were that distant from the other scores by chance a Mahalanobis distance test was carried out.

Table 4.1 Testing for Multivariate Outliers



Source: Survey Data: Author, 2022

.

Analysis of the multivariate outliers revealed that none of the Mahalanobis distance statistics were significant at the alpha level of 0.001 as shown by the analysis screen shot of the first 23 cases presented in Table 4.1.

It means that no multivariate outliers were identified. With reference to this study the results of the Mahalanobis test imply that the mean scores of the items used to measure the temporal distance, spatial distance, social distance and destination choice did not have extreme cases in the data that would affect the results of the analysis.

Using the SPSS Explore outliers command, Box plots were generated for each of the four constructs and outliers were indicated. On the x-axis are the latent variables while the y-axis represents the distribution of the responses to the observable variables pertaining to the specific latent variable. The results were presented in figure 4.1. ; 4.2; 4.3; and 4.4.

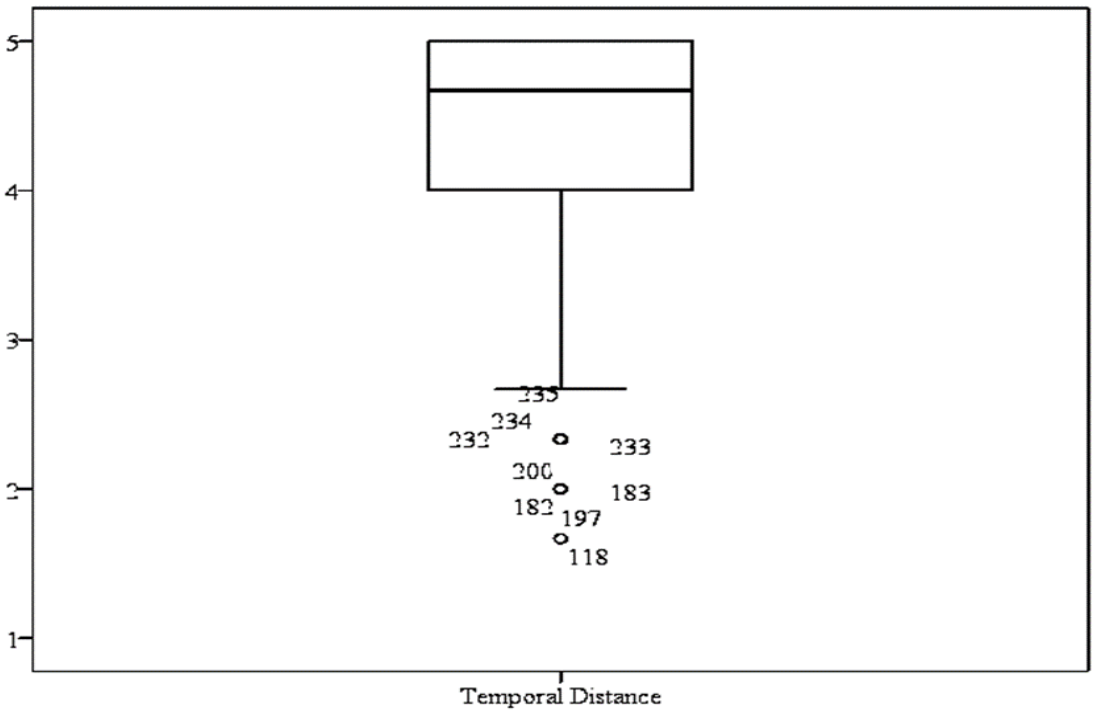


Figure 4.1 Temporal Distance Outliers

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results show that for the case of temporal distance (Fig. 4.1) there were nine outliers in cases 118, 182, 183, 197, 200, 232, 233, 234 and 235. In regard to the outliers in the spatial distance construct the results are presented in figure 4.2.

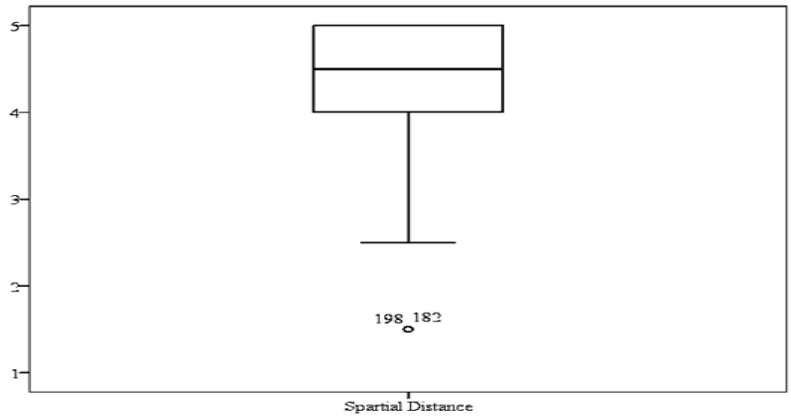


Figure 4.2: Spatial Distance Outliers

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Spatial distance construct had two outliers (figure. 4.2) in cases 182 and 198

In case of social distance construct the results showed only two outliers as shown in figure 4.3

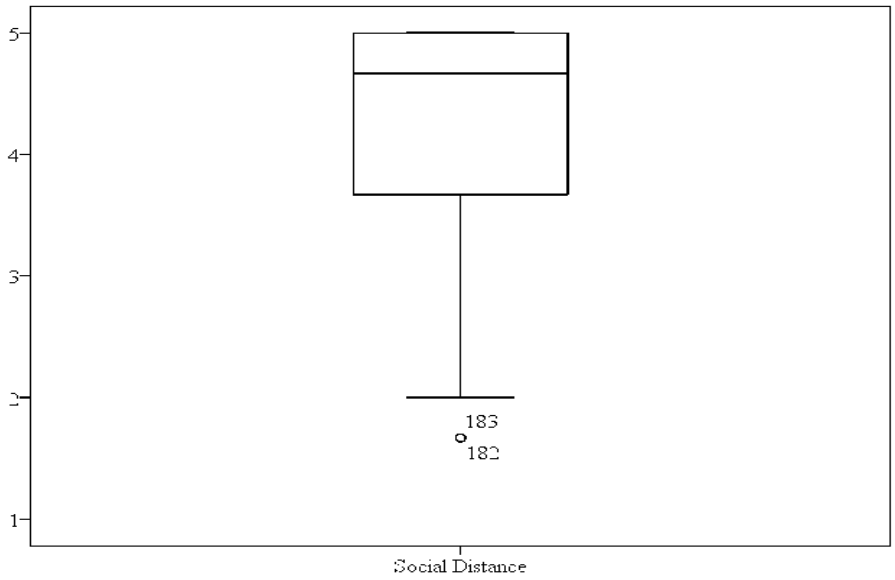


Figure 4.3. Social distance construct

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results for outliers in the social distance construct show that there were two cases 182 and 183 of outliers which had also featured in temporal distance.

Finally, the destination choice construct had one case of outliers, 160, as presented in (figure. 4.4)

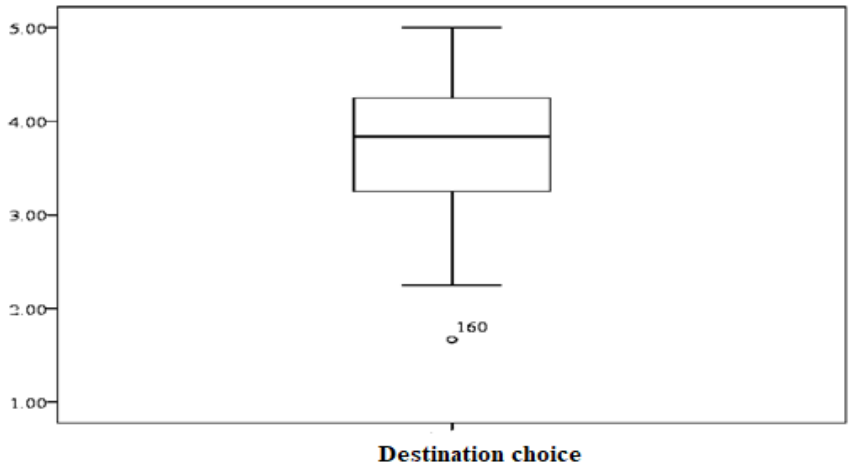


Figure 4.4: Outliers for destination choice
Source: survey data: Author, 2022

From the results it is noted that destination choice had one outlier in case 160. The results indicate that the four constructs had a total of 10 unique outliers which were subsequently deleted from the 311 cases leaving a total of 301 cases for analysis. The outliers were removed from the list of the other items for the test in order to reduce the cases of having the wrong estimates for the analysis.

4.3 Descriptive Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis focused on tourist's demographic profile, their travel profile and their perceived psychological distance and destination choice. The results were presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Demographic Profile

		Count	Table N %
Gender	Male	165	54.8%
	Female	136	45.2%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**
Age	18-29	51	16.9%
	30-39	139	46.2%
	40-49	73	24.3%
	50-59	27	9.0%
	60 and above	11	3.6%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**
Marital status	Married	105	34.9%
	Single	171	56.8%
	Other	25	8.3%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**
Education	Basic	4	1.3%
	High school	31	10.3%
	Middle level college	136	45.2%
	Bachelors	114	37.9%
	Other	16	5.3%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Tourist's demographic profile was examined in terms of gender, age, marital status and education. Choice of these characteristics was informed by a desire to determine the characteristics that are common among international tourists. Results presented in Table 4.2 indicate the following: Male tourists at 54.8% were marginally more than female tourists (45.2%). A majority (46.2%) of the tourists were aged between 30-39 years, although there were some very old tourists aged above 60 years (3.6%). Single

tourists (56.8%), were more common than those married (34.9%) and those of other marital status (8.3%). Education wise, most of the tourists had a good education background with those from middle level colleges (45.2%) edging out those with Bachelors (37.9%). This is in line with the findings of Jiang et al, (2015) who also noted that the majority of the tourists were in their middle age and single.

These results confirm that international tourists of either sex visit the Mara, with those who are youthful, and single seeming most likely to travel. Most of them have a good grounding in education. These findings lent support to other studies which have shown most tourists ranging in the age bracket 26 to 46; a large percentage are well educated, and that such demographic profile influence the perception of destination image (Zhao, Li & Jiang, 2015).

Tourists travel profile was assessed through length of trip, why choose the Mara, tour party and their source of information on Maasai Mara Reserve. Results are presented in Table 4.3

From the results, a very large proportion (75.7%) of international tourists organizes trips that last above 15 days. However, a few take 8-14 days (21.0%) or 4-7 days (3.3%). Wildebeest migration (40.5%) is the main motivation for many tourists visiting the Mara. However, the diversity of wildlife (22.2%), natural beauty of the reserve (14.0%) and the ecosystem (11.0%) account for some of the visiting tourists. Most of the tour parties (52.5%) are organized in groups. However, friends and relatives (26.6%) and spouses (12.3%) occasionally organize their own tour parties. Tour agency (53.8%) and word-of-mouth (23.2%) are the main sources of travel information for the tourists. These results are indeed critical to stakeholders in the tourism industry in the sense that they provide key statistics that can be employed to

facilitate future planning and preparation for future arrival of tourists. Besides, the results identify areas upon which future improvements in the Mara should focus.

Table 4.3: Travel Profile

		Count	Column N %
Length of trip in days	4-7	10	3.3%
	8-14	63	21.0%
	15 and above	228	75.7%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**
Why prefer Maasai Mara	Diversity of wildlife	67	22.2%
	Ecosystem	33	11.0%
	Natural beauty	42	14.0%
	Rest and relaxation	23	7.6%
	Wildebeest migration	122	40.5%
	Bonding	14	4.7%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**
Tour party	With spouse/partner only	37	12.3%
	With spouse/partner and children	26	8.6%
	Friends and relatives	80	26.6%
	Organized group/club	158	52.5%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**
Sources of Information	Internet media	69	23.0%
	Tour agency	162	53.8%
	Word of mouth	70	23.2%
	Total	**301**	**100.0%**

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

4.3.1 Descriptive Analysis of Study Variables – Temporal Distance

The constructs were explored in order to establish how tourists perceived events that varied in the various psychological distances involved during the planning and execution of the trips, and factors which were central to the choice of the MMNR as a destination. The descriptive statistics reported included minimum and maximum response scores; means and associated standard deviations, and skewness and Kurtosis statistics. On the basis of assertions by Sekaran (2010), minimum and maximum response scores showed the range of responses across various items. Mean scores on the other hand indicated typical views on the items while standard deviations measured the levels of consistency in responses. Skewness and Kurtosis values measured the distribution of the various constructs.

Temporal distance was explored to shed light on the temporal nearness and temporal farness with which events employed in the trip preparation were perceived. Respondents were asked to enumerate activities which they were engaged in order to handle the apprehension associated with the temporal distance involved, and kill down the time interval involved. Results are presented in Table 4.16. The results show that temporal distance measures depicted a normal distribution with an overall mean value of 3.70 and a standard deviation of 1.016, as determined by Skewness ranging between -0.652 to -0.197 (SE = 0.133) and Kurtosis ranging from -0.846 to 0.220 (SE = 0.265)

Both strong agreements and disagreements were recorded, and on the basis of the overall standard deviations, there were no big variances between responses among respondents indicating consistency in their response scores. Specific results revealed that tourists engaged in activities such as purchasing travel tickets much earlier, sacrificing immediate happiness, delaying booking, focusing on behavior with

important distant consequences, and focusing on immediate concerns among others, to have a feeling of the trip being temporally near. The results are presented in Table 4.4

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
I engaged in the following activities to bring the time of trip closer			**Statistic**	**SE**	**Statistic**	**SE**
Purchasing the travel ticket much earlier	3.78	.958	-.554	.133	-.054	.265
At the time of the ticket purchase I pictured Maasai Mara as a reserve of wonders	3.78	1.030	-.648	.133	.002	.265
Delaying booking believing that future outcomes could be dealt with later	3.76	.977	-.561	.133	.002	.265
Avoiding a feeling of changing my mind after purchase of the travel ticket.	3.76	.975	-.678	.133	.220	.265
Engaging in behavior with important distant consequences	3.75	.958	-.443	.133	-.268	.265
Perceiving that the trip time had reached by purchasing ticket.	3.71	1.118	-.625	.133	-.380	.265
Focusing on immediate concerns and figuring that the future shall take care of itself	3.67	.990	-.197	.133	-.846	.265
Adopting behavior influenced by immediate outcomes of my actions	3.66	1.062	-.544	.133	-.350	.265
Focusing on specific outcomes that are more important to me	3.64	1.010	-.558	.133	-.141	.265
Experiencing no difficulties at all in deciding to purchase the ticket	3.63	1.020	-.652	.133	-.025	.265
Remaining optimistic that in the near future the trip will happen.	3.62	1.094	-.613	.133	-.166	.265
Overall Response	**3.70**	**1.016**				

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

These findings are consistent with the CLT's postulation of the planning phenomenon which is seen to occur due to events in the distant future being construed at a more abstract level, while those in the near future are seen more concretely (Trope and Liberman, 2010). In purchasing tickets early, and focusing on immediate concerns, tourists are essentially trying to concretize the abstract elements of the trip so as to construe them at a lower level.

4.3.1.1 Testing for Linearity

Linearity is an assumption of regression which assumes that (a) the independent variables are collectively linearly related to the dependent variable and, (b) each independent variable is linearly related to the dependent variable (Chen et al, 2017). Partial regression plots were used to establish existence of linear relationships between the three psychological distance constructs and tourist decision making. A band of scatter suggesting a possible fitting of a straight line would then indicate linearity between the endogenous construct and exogenous constructs.

4.3.1.2 Temporal Distance –Testing for linearity

The partial regression plot presented in fig. 4.5 depicts a band of scatter showing possible fitting of a straight line, an indication that linearity existed between decision making and temporal distance.

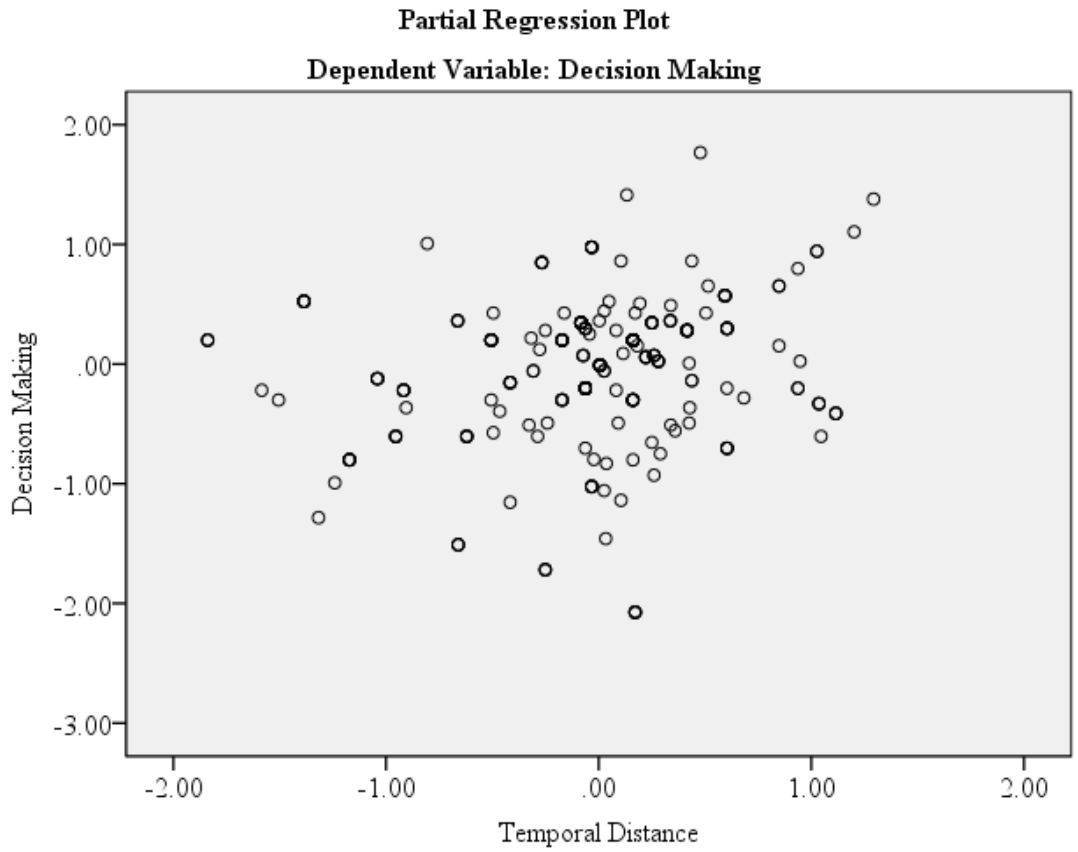


Figure 4.5: Partial Regression Plot

4.3.1.3 Factor Structure of Temporal Distance Construct

All the latent variables were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) ostensibly for the purpose of delineating factors for each construct that would be used as indicators instead of using the many items. PCA has been shown to be effective in extracting factors that explain a given degree of variance (Statistics, 2015).

Temporal distance conceptualized as one of the exogenous constructs in this study was measured using eleven items. PCA was therefore run to extract factors that could bring together a number of items, and act as indicators of the construct. Sampling adequacy and sphericity were tested on the basis that they are the two assumptions upon which PCA works (Statistics, 2015). According to Hair et al. (2017), the Kaiser

criterion was used where the KMO statistic was employed to confirm existence of sampling adequacy required to run PCA. The results were presented in Table 4.5

Table 4.5: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.753
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1181.980
	Df	55
	Sig.	.0000

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results presented in the table show that the KMO measure of sampling adequacy yielded a value of 0.753(which is above the 0.4 threshold); while Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, χ^2 (55) = 1181.980, p<0.001. This implies homogeneity of variances of the indicators under this objective hence confirming further the validity of the data collected on the construct.

Under the Kaiser criterion in which the least Eigen value was 1, three components were extracted and were retained as the three indicators of temporal distance. The three indicators explained 57.551% of the total variance in temporal distance. This is in line with the suggestions of Field (2009) that the total variance of the components under test must be at least above 50%. The results are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Total Variance Explained

	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.351	21.375	21.375
2	2.006	18.234	39.609
3	1.974	17.942	57.551

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Varimax Orthogonal rotation revealed that the factor structure of temporal distance was a simple one in which, each item loaded only on a single component and each component loaded strongly on at least two items (Table 4.7)

Table 4.7: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Construct measurement items for the Temporal Distance construct	Component		
	1	2	3
I experienced no difficulties at all in deciding to purchase the ticket	.833		
At no time after purchase of the travel ticket did, I feel like changing my mind on the anticipated trip	.748		
My day-to-day work had specific outcomes that were more important to me than having to think of a trip which was in the future	.701		
At the time of ticket purchase, I pictured Masaai Mara as a reserve of wonders	.553		
Excitement made me to purchase the travel ticket much earlier		.894	
I did not make an early booking for this trip since my view was that future outcomes could be dealt with later		.876	
I considered how things might be in the future when the trip would happen, and tried to influence them with my day-to-day behavior			.805
I was inclined to perform a behavior with important distant consequences than a behavior with less-important immediate consequences			.663
I only focused on immediate concerns and figured that the future could take care of itself			.519

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

4.3.2 Descriptive Analysis of Study Variables – Spatial Distance

The constructs were explored in order to establish how tourists perceived events that varied in the various psychological distances involved during the planning and execution of the trips, and factors which were central to the choice of the MMNR as a destination. The descriptive statistics reported included minimum and maximum

response scores; means and associated standard deviations, and skewness and Kurtosis statistics. On the basis of assertions by Sekaran (2010), minimum and maximum response scores showed the range of responses across various items. Mean scores on the other hand indicated typical views on the items while standard deviations measured the levels of consistency in responses. Skewness and Kurtosis values measured the distribution of the various constructs

Spatial distance as a construct of psychological distance was explored to establish factors which tourists use to psychologically minimize the geographical distance between their countries of origin and Maasai Mara, and in so doing process the spatial distance involved on a low level. In other words, the study sought to find out how the tourists were transcending the here. Results of this exploration are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics Spatial Distance

The Geographical Distance was made shorter by..	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistics	SE	Statistics	SE
The reserves cultural attractiveness	4.07	.820	-.868	.133	.742	.265
The recreational attractiveness	4.06	.924	-.951	.133	.714	.265
Safety conditions	4.04	.964	-1.201	.133	1.536	.265
The attractive nature of this reserve	3.97	1.159	-1.018	.133	.103	.265
The variety of wild animals	3.94	1.042	-.869	.133	.104	.265
The reserves natural beauty	3.94	1.036	-1.003	.133	.492	.265
The pleasant experience I anticipated to have in this location	3.91	.920	-.628	.133	.160	.265
The enjoyment I expected to have	3.62	1.180	-.821	.133	-.080	.265
The interesting activities on offer	3.38	1.352	-.370	.133	-1.079	.265
Overall Response	**3.87**	**1.033**				

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Results confirm that spatial distance data was normally distributed with a mean of 3.87 and a standard deviation of 1.033, as determined by skewness in the range [-1.201, -0.370], SE = 0.133 and Kurtosis in the range [-1.079, 1.536], SE=0.265. The standard deviation indicated lack of large variances, an indication of consistency in responses.

4.3.2.1 Spatial Distance Construct – testing for linearity

Specific results revealed that tourists were able to process the spatial distance between their countries of origin and the Mara on a lower level owing to among other factors; the cultural attractiveness of the reserve; its recreational attractiveness; safety conditions, its attractive nature; the variety of wild animals and its promise of pleasant experiences. The implication of these results is that using the allure of expectations and anticipated experiences in Mara, owing to the array of tourist offerings on offer, tourists from all parts of the world who visit the Mara get a subjective feeling that makes them to process spatial distance from a lower level. This is indeed consistent with definition of spatial distance advanced by Trope and Liberman (2010) indicating that spatial distance is indeed a subjective feeling that enables the individual to experience the nearness or farness of a location: establishing a linear relationship (figure 4.4).

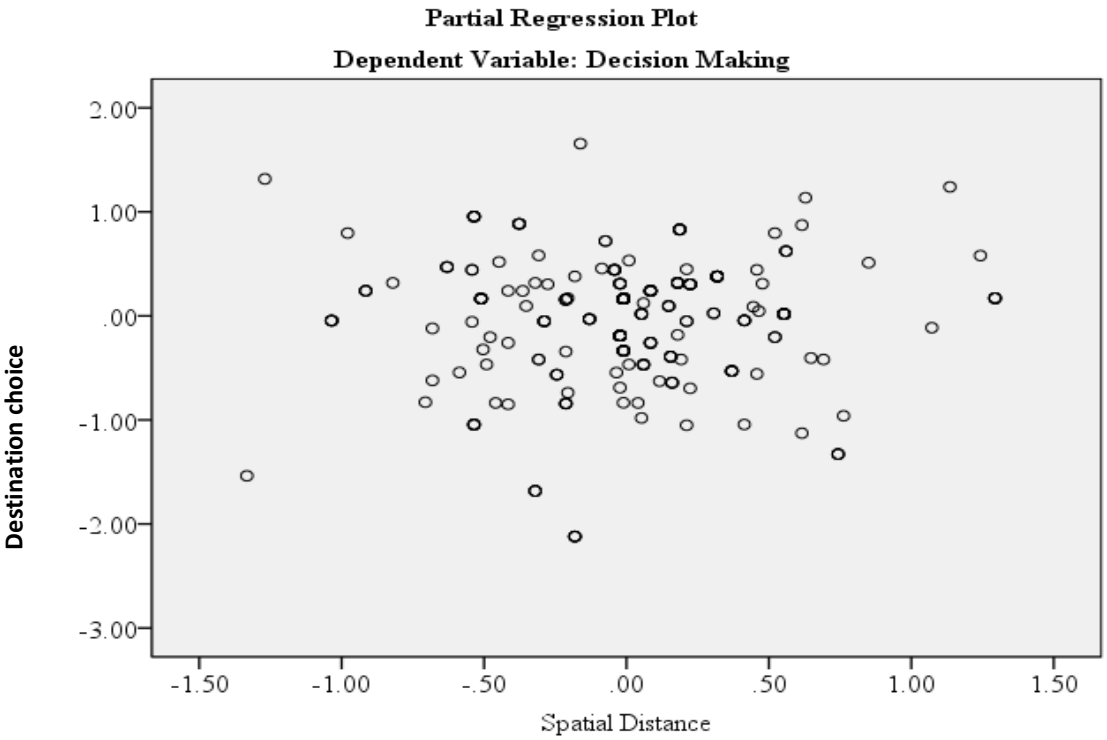


Figure 4.6: Regression Plots for Spatial Distance

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

4.3.2.2 Factor Structure for Spatial Distance Construct

Spatial distance was conceptualized as the second exogenous variable in this study. It was measured using nine items. The KMO value 0.810 and the significant Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (36) = 777.28, p<0.001, indicated sampling was adequate, and data were complete (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.810
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	777.284
	Df	36
	Sig.	.000

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Two components which explained 53.773% of the total variance in spatial distance were extracted and retained as the indicators of spatial distance (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Total Variance Explained

	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	3.086	34.289	34.289
2	1.754	19.484	53.773

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Varimax Orthogonal rotation confirmed that the structure for spatial distance was also a simple one with every component loading on only one item, and that minimum number of items for any component were two (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
Measurement items for the Spatial Distance construct	1	2
Before travel Geographical distance was made shorter by...		
the attractive nature of this reserve	.810	
the reserves cultural attractiveness	.756	
the recreational attractiveness	.703	
the reserves natural beauty	.662	
the pleasant experience I have had in this location	.654	
the variety of wild animals	.529	
During the visit interest was sustained by…….		
the interesting activities on offer		.826
the enjoyment I have had		.793

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations

4.3.3 Descriptive Analysis of Study Variable - Social distance

The constructs were explored in order to establish how tourists perceived events that varied in the various psychological distances involved during the planning and execution of the trips, and factors which were central to the choice of the MMNR as a destination. The descriptive statistics reported included minimum and maximum response scores; means and associated standard deviations, and skewness and Kurtosis statistics. On the basis of assertions by Sekaran (2010), minimum and maximum response scores showed the range of responses across various items. Mean scores on the other hand indicated typical views on the items while standard deviations measured the levels of consistency in responses. Skewness and Kurtosis values measured the distribution of the various constructs.

Social distance was explored in terms of how comfortable the tourists were in associating and mingling with locals in the Mara. This was necessary so that the space between the tourists as a social group and the Maasai as the other, and their feelings towards each other could be established. Responses for this scale were elicited on 5-point scale measuring the various levels of comfort. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Social distance

			Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Mean	**SD**	**Statistics**	**SE**	**statistics**	**SE**
Having locals as friends	3.79	1.061	-.866	.172	.332	.341
Sitting beside locals when watching wildebeest migration	3.74	1.008	-.784	.172	.314	.341
Sitting beside locals while bird watching	3.71	1.071	-.735	.172	.137	.341
Having to share hotel rooms with locals	3.70	1.040	-.521	.172	-.264	.341
Sitting beside locals inside a hot air balloon	3.66	1.111	-.800	.172	.101	.341
Taking photos with locals	3.64	1.059	-.759	.172	.300	.341
Sharing a game drive with locals around the reserve	3.62	1.054	-.555	.172	-.176	.342
Seeing locals in large groups walking around the reserve	3.57	1.156	-.639	.172	-.258	.341
Having locals take your photos	3.53	1.153	-.521	.172	-.482	.341
Inviting locals for dinner	3.53	1.096	-.727	.172	.055	.341
Having to walk around with locals in the reserve	3.15	1.280	-.268	.172	-.958	.341
Overall Response	**3.60**	**1.100**				

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Social distance was normally distributed with an overall mean score of 3.60 and a standard deviation of 1.100 as determined by skewness in the range [-0.866, -0.268], SE = 0.172 and Kurtosis in the range [-0.958, 0.332], SE = 0.341. On the basis of the overall mean score of 3.60, tourists were mostly comfortable interacting with locals in various activities. The standard deviations however portray variations in response scores. Tourists were particularly comfortable having locals as friends, sitting beside locals while watching wildebeest migration, sharing hotel rooms with locals, and

taking photos with locals among other activities. These results imply that in most cases, tourists were clearly willing to interact closely with locals, an indication that they felt secure and open with the locals, and were willing to exhibit close distance. These results tend to confirm a degree of interactive social distance between tourists and locals. Crossman (2020) has clearly underscored the fact that interactive social distance relates to social ties cultivated across two groups.

4.3.3.1 Social Distance – Testing for linearity

The partial regression plot (figure 4.6) shows an approximately linear relationship between destination choice and social distance.

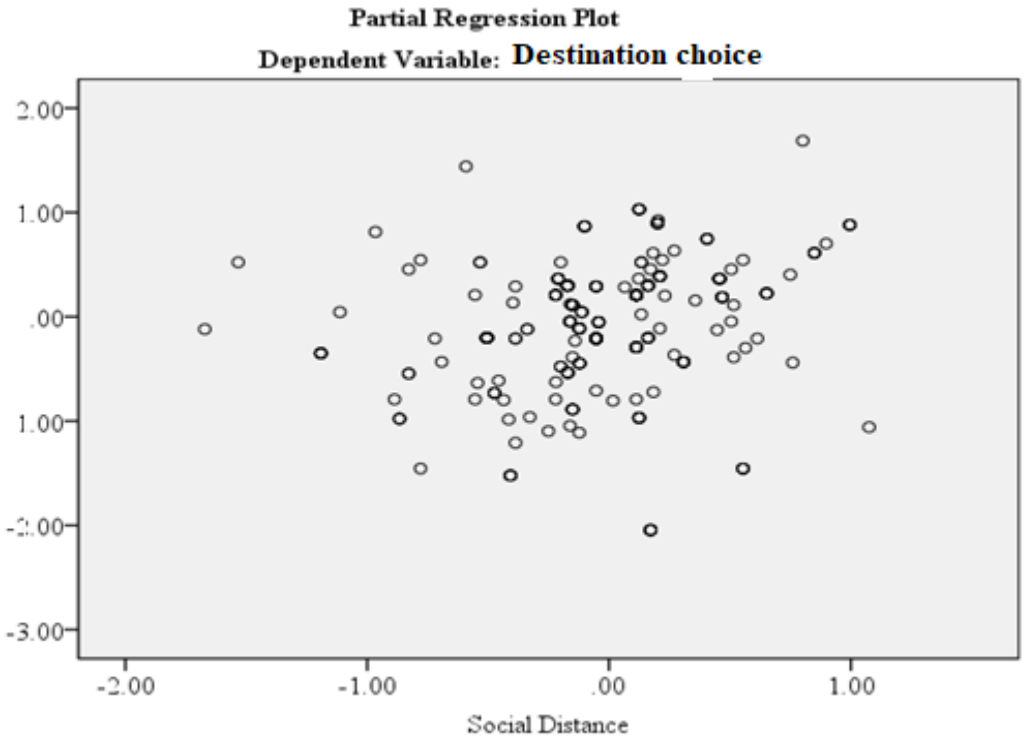


Figure 4.7: Regression Plots for Social Distance

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

4.3.3.2 Factor Structure for Social Distance Construct

Social distance was conceptualized as the third and last exogenous variable in the study. Fourteen items were developed to measure this construct. The KMO measure

of sampling adequacy was 0.836, while Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, χ^2 (91) = 1222.108, p<0.001 (Table 4.13). Data was not only adequately sampled, but it was also complete.

Table 4.13: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.836
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1222.108
	Df	91
	Sig.	.000

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Three components explaining 51.226% of the total variance in social distance were extracted and were subsequently retained as indicators of social distance (Table 4.9).

Table 4.14: Total Variance Explained

	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	2.770	19.787	19.787
2	2.548	18.197	37.984
3	1.854	13.241	51.226

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Varimax Orthogonal rotation revealed that the factor structure of the social distance construct was a simple one just as in the cases of temporal and spatial distance constructs (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Measurement items for the Social Distance construct	Component		
	1	2	3
How comfortable were you in making the decision to visit this reserve being very well aware that you would be.			
Sitting beside locals when watching wildebeest migration	.718		
Having locals as friends	.681		
Sharing a game drive with locals around the reserve	.660		
Having to share hotel rooms with locals	.567		
Sitting beside locals while bird watching	.522		
Having locals take your photos		.750	
Seeing locals in large groups walking around the reserve		.690	
Having to walk around with locals in the reserve		.626	
Taking photos with locals		.616	
Sitting beside locals inside a hot air balloon			.858
Inviting locals for dinner			.631

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

4.3.4 Descriptive Analysis - Destination Choice

Tourist destination decision making was conceptualized as the endogenous variable in this study. Tourist's decision making was explored in order to establish factors which are of importance in tourists' decision to settle on the Mara as their destination of choice. Results are presented in Table 4.16

Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics Tourist destination choice

			Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Mean	**SD**	**Statistics**	**SE**	**statistics**	**SE**
Safe destination	3.93	1.079	-.969	.172	.294	.341
Beautiful natural attractions	3.89	1.054	-.777	.172	-.074	.341
Affordable prices	3.86	1.007	-.745	.172	.134	.341
Wildebeest migration	3.85	1.035	-.616	.172	-.311	.341
Pleasant climate	3.80	1.105	-.835	.172	-.040	.341
Interesting friendly local people	3.80	1.119	-.885	.172	.246	.341
Good quality accommodation	3.79	1.008	-.517	.172	-.417	.341
Good quality tourist service	3.77	.999	-.622	.172	-.132	.341
Interesting cultural heritage	3.66	1.033	-.537	.172	-.353	.341
Famous reserve	3.59	1.088	-.555	.172	-.335	.341
Overall Response	**3.79**	**1.052**				

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The decision making construct was normally distributed with mean 3.79 and standard deviation 1.052, as determined by skewness in the range [-0.969, -0.517], SE = 0.172 and Kurtosis in the range [-0.417, -0.074], SE = 0.341. Safety of the destination, beautiful natural attractions, affordable prices, wildebeest migration, pleasant climate, interesting and friendly locals and quality services among others were identified as important factors in the decision to choose the Mara among tourists.

The results confirm that consumer behavior is at the core of tourist's decision to choose the Mara as a tourist destination. In seeking for quality services alongside satisfying experiences, tourists exhibit elements of consumer behavior such as attitude, searching and purchasing services and products, and experiences, all of which satisfy consumer needs (Cohen et al, 2014).

4.3.4.1 Factor Structure for Decision choice

Destination choice was conceptualized as the endogenous variable in this study. This construct was measured using twelve items. Sampling was found to have been adequate and data were complete KMO = 0.867, χ^2 (66) = 1296.979, p<0.001 (Table 4.17)

Table 4.17: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.867
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1296.979
	Df	66
	Sig.	.000

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Two components were extracted, and explained 49.256% of the total variance in destination choice. The two factors were retained as observed variables for the decision-making construct (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18: Total Variance Explained

	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.025	25.209	25.209
2	2.886	24.048	49.256

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Table 4.19: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
Measurement items for the Destination Choice construct	**1**	**2**
How important were these factors in your decision to visit this reserve?		
Good quality accommodation	.785	
Affordable prices	.739	
Interesting cultural heritage	.588	
Wildebeest migration	.543	
Good quality tourist service	.532	
Famous reserve	.503	
Safe destination		.835
Beautiful natural attractions		.799
Interesting friendly local people		.592
Pleasant climate		.543

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Varimax rotation revealed that the structure for the destination choice variable was a simple one in which each of the two components loaded highly only on one item; and that component loaded on a minimum of four items (Table 4.19).

4.4 Inferential Analysis

Under inferential analysis, both the measurement and structural models were validated. Following this validation, the postulated relationships between

psychological distance constructs and tourist destination choice were tested. Prior to validation and hypotheses tests, assumptions that underlie regression analysis (SEM is a second-degree regression approach) were examined. Among the assumptions tested as suggested by Hair et al., (2014) were; serial correlation, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and normality.

4.4.1 Testing for Serial Correlation

Independence of observations, also called autocorrelation or serial correlation was tested using the Durbin-Watson (DW) test. According to Hair et al. (2014), the DW test is effective in detecting possible autocorrelation, a problem involving correlation of residuals of adjacent observations, and which often interferes with multiple regressions. The results were presented in Table 4.20

Table 4.20: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.644[a]	.415	.410	.53681	2.122

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

a. Predictors: (Constant), Social distance, temporal distance, spatial distance

b. Dependent Variable: Destination choice

An examination of the model summary presented in Table 4.4.1.0 reveals that the Durbin-Watson statistic was 2.122. Following the criteria set in chapter 3; this statistic was closer to 2, an indication that there was evidence of independence of errors. The conclusion then was that there was independence of residuals as assessed by a Durbin–Watson statistic of 2.122.

4.4.2 Testing for homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity assumes that the variance is equal for all values of the predicted dependent variable. In order to the check for homoscedasticity, the studentized residuals were plotted against the unstandardized values. Homoscedasticity was then implied if the points of the plot did not exhibit a discernible pattern (Statistics, 2015). The plot presented in figure. 4.8 shows no pattern in the points, an indication that homoscedasticity assumption was met.

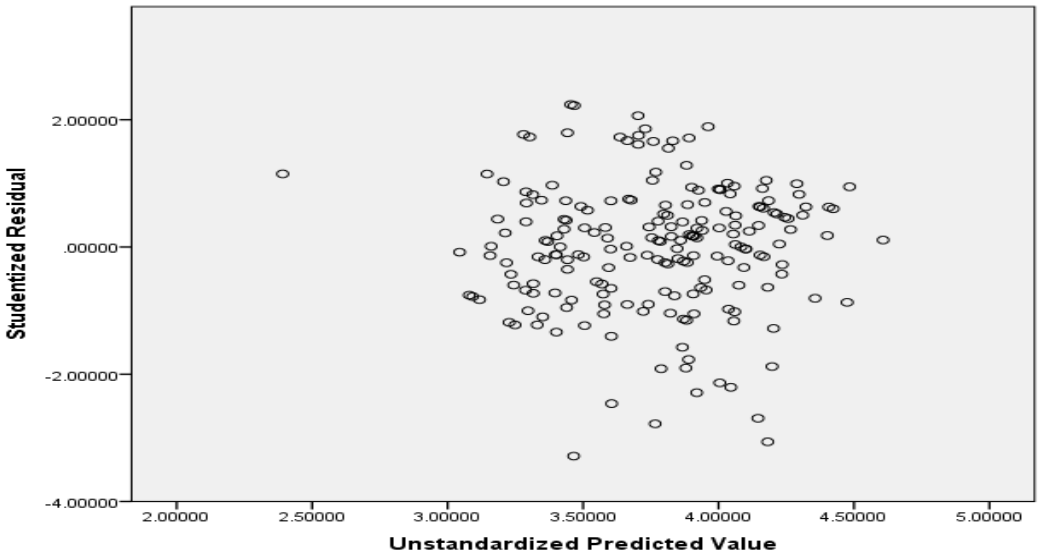


Figure 4.8: Pattern showing homoscedasticity

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

4.4.3 Testing for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is said to occur if two or more exogenous variables have a high correlation with each other (Hair et al., 2014). Under such circumstances identifying variables which contribute highly to the variance explained in the endogenous variable becomes problematic. Tolerance and VIF values were employed in this study to test for Multicollinearity. Interpretations of the results obtained were made using the criteria that tolerance values of less than 0.1 and VIF values above 5 signified

existences of Multicollinearity; while those tolerance values above 0.1 and VIF values below 5 indicated lack of Multicollinearity (Kock & Lynn, 2012).

Table 4.21: Coefficients

		Collinearity Statistics	
	Model	Tolerance	VIF
1	Temporal Distance	.704	1.420
	Spatial Distance	.547	1.830
	Social Distance	.566	1.768

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

Dependent Variable: Destination choice

Results are displayed in Table 4.21. The results of Multicollinearity test revealed that the tolerance values were well above 0.1 [0.704, 0.547, 0.566]; while the VIFs were well below 5[1.420, 1.830, 1.768]. The conclusion then was that Multicollinearity was not a concern in this study.

4.4.4 Testing for Normality

Determination of statistical significance requires that the residuals or predictive errors be normally distributed (Statistics, 2015). The normal P-P plot of standardized residuals of expected cumulative probabilities against observed cumulative frequencies was used to test normality of residuals. Normal P-P plots have been ranked among the ideal graphical techniques to test norma, M. (2012). Under this test, normality was implied if residual points were aligned along the diagonal line. Results in Fig. 4.9 confirm that normality assumption was not violated.

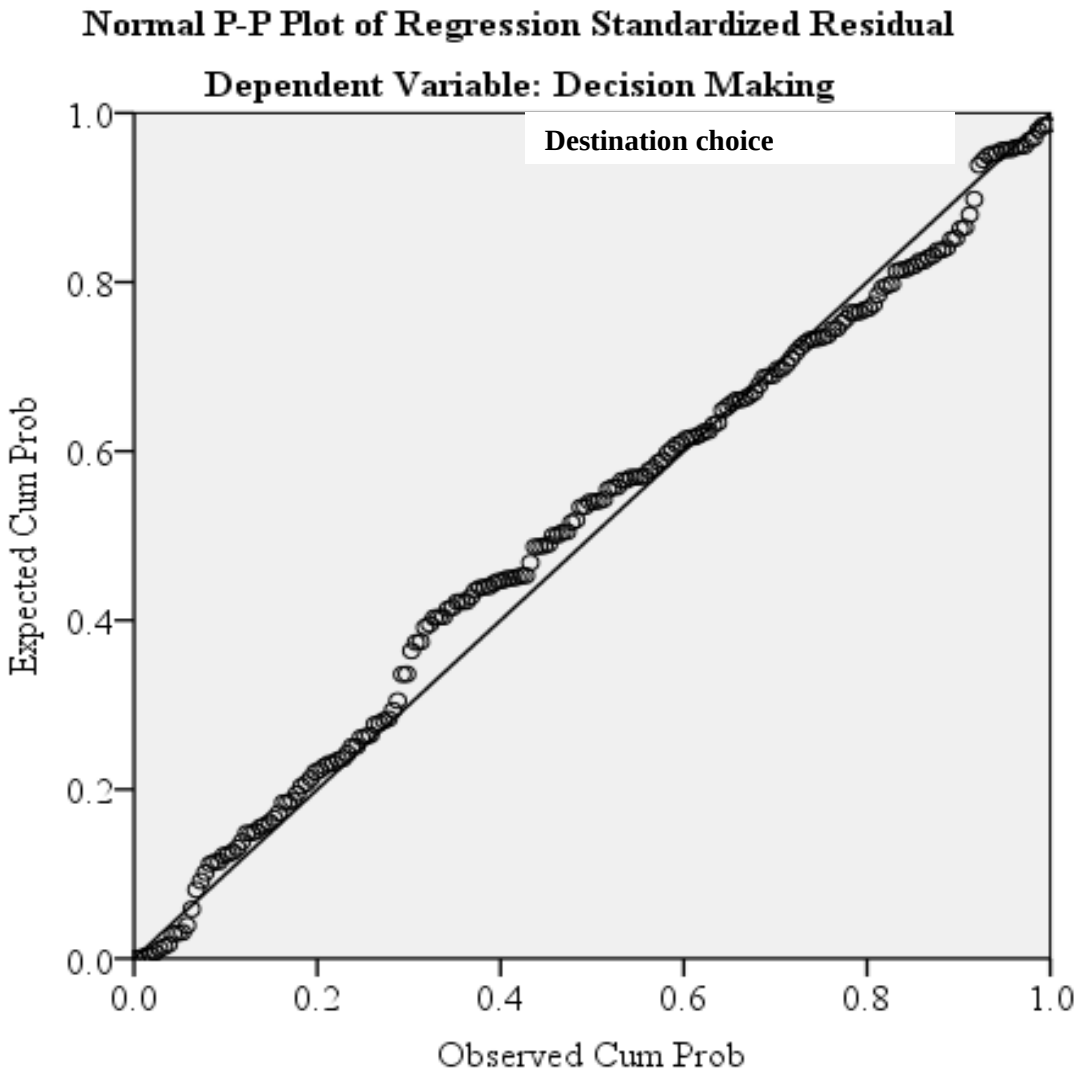


Figure 4.9: Confirming that normality assumption was not violated.
Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results show there normality was not violated given that the residual points were aligned along the diagonal line.

4.4.5 Reliability Check

Four constructs were analyzed in this study. The constructs were assessed for internal consistency among the various items. Cronbach's alpha reliability test was used to assess reliability among the constructs prior to their employment in the study. The results were presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Reliability coefficient

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Temporal distance	11	.829
2. Spatial distance	9	.783
3. Social distance	11	.851
5. Destination choice	10	.858

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results table 4.22 shows that all the four constructs were reliable and hence could be used for further analysis. Temporal distance was measured using 11 items. The 11 items exhibited a high level of internal consistency as determined by an alpha value of 0.829 as presented in Table 4.22 Spatial distance was on the other hand measured using 9 items which had a high internal consistency, $\alpha = 0.783$. Similarly, the social distance scale depicted high internal consistency among the items, $\alpha = 0.851$. Destination choice was measured using ten items. The ten items had an alpha value of 0.858, an indication of high internal consistency (the threshold of 0.6-0.7 and 0.8 is a very good level).

4.5 Validating the Measurement Model

The measurement model was a four-factor model correlating the latent constructs of psychological distance and tourist destination choice. On the basis of recommendations by Awang (2012), the measurement model was first validated for unidimensionality, achieved when factor loadings exceed 0.5. Secondly, an average variance extracted (AVE) above 0.5 and standard loadings in the excess of 0.6 were used to test convergent validity. Finally, Discriminant validity was tested using the square roots of the construct AVEs and correlation coefficients between the constructs in question. Composite reliability was also determined. Finally, the model fit was

validated by comparing default indices with those suggested by Cangur and Ercan (2015).

4.5.1 Validation of Temporal Distance Construct

Temporal distance had three indicators namely temp 1, temp 2, and temp 3. Using AMOS version 18, factor loadings were generated and examined. The results of unidimensionality check for temporal distance are presented in figure. **4.10**.

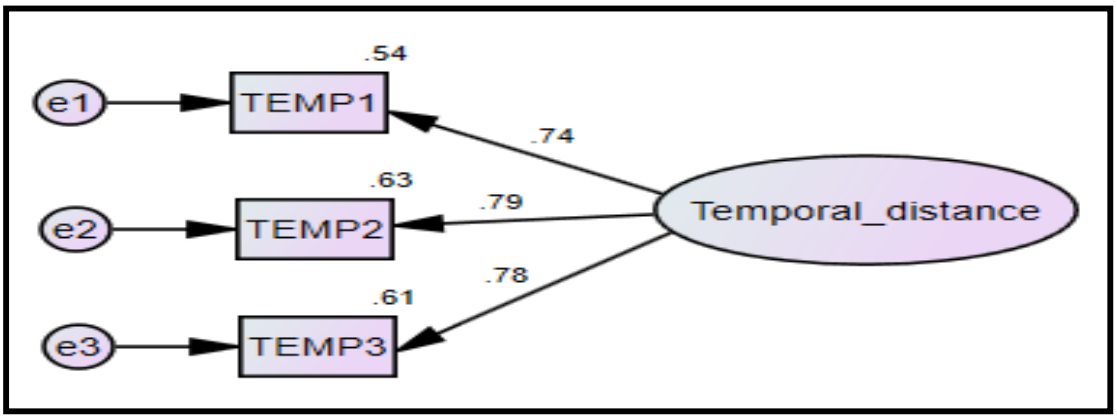


Figure 4.10: Factor loading for validation of the temporal distance construct
Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results show that all factor loadings as depicted by arrow parameters were in the excess of 0.5 indicating that the three indicators were unidimensional.

Computation of the Average variance Extracted (AVE) involved finding the ratio of sum of squared factor loadings to sum of squared factor loadings added to sum of error variances. The results were presented in Table **4.**23

Table 4.23: Construct validity of temporal distance

Construct	Items	Standardized loadings	AVE	Composite Reliability
Temporal distance	Temp1	.74	0.593	0.814
	Temp2	.79		
	Temp3	.78		

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results on Table **4.**4.6.0show that in the case of temporal distance, the AVE was computed and yielded a value of 0.593 which was above 0.5 (Hair, Sarstedt &Ringle, 2011). Moreover, the composite reliability was 0.814, confirming construct validity.

4.5.2 Validation of Spatial Distance

Two observed variables, Spar 1 and Spar, 2 were conceptualized as indicators of the spatial distance construct. Unidimensionality check affirmed that the two indicators were indeed unidimensional with all factor loadings above 0.6 (figure. **4.**11).

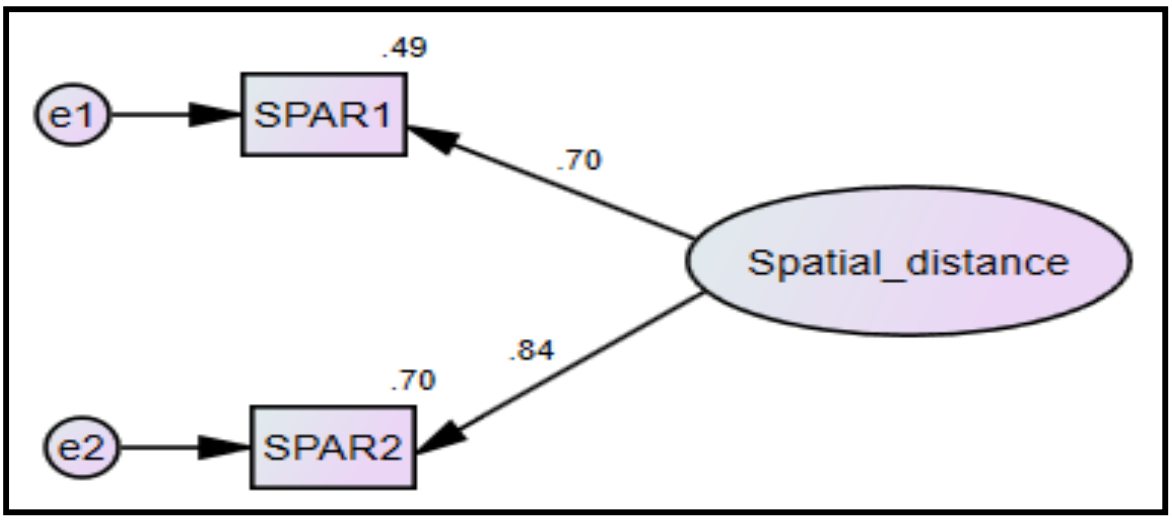


Figure 4.11: Validation of Spatial Distance

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The study also sought to determine the composite reliability for spatial distance. The results were presented in Table **4.24**

Table 4.24: Construct validity for spatial distance

Construct	Items	Standardized loadings	AVE	Composite Reliability
Spatial distance	Spar1	.70	0.598	.747
	Spar2	.84		

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results show that the composite reliability was computed as 0.747 while the AVE value of 0.598 affirmed convergent validity. The measures confirmed the validity of the spatial distance construct.

4.5.3 Validation of the Social Distance Construct

Three indicators designated SOCDI, SOCD2 and SOCD 3 were used to measure the social distance construct. The three indicators were unidimensional as determined by standardized loadings above 0.5 (Figure. **4.12**).

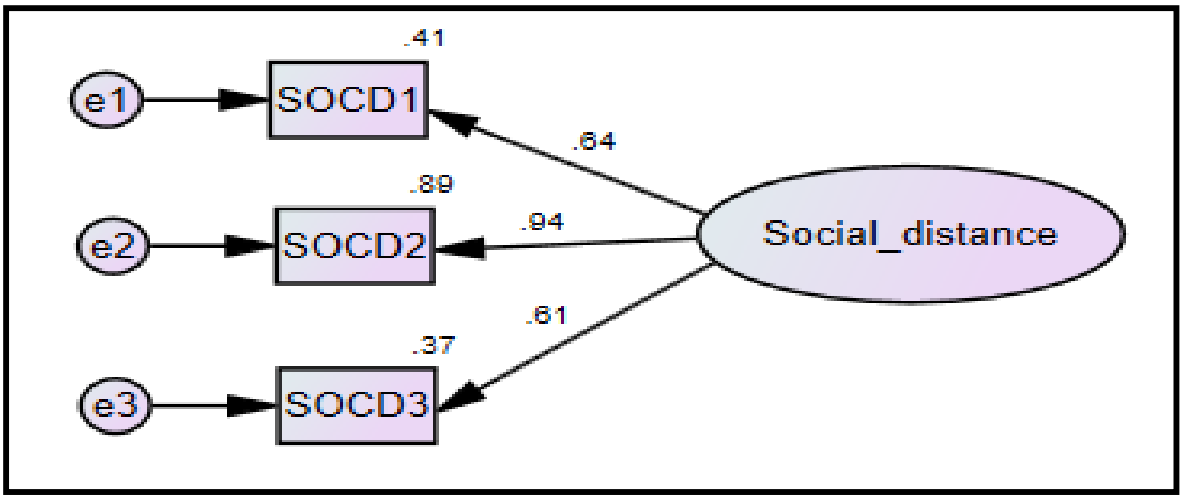


Figure 4.12: Loading for Validation of Social Distance

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

In regard to social distance the study computed both the AVE, composite reliability and convergent validity and the results were presented in table **4.25**.

Table 4.25: Construct validity of Social Distance

Construct	Items	Standardized loadings	AVE	Composite Reliability
Social distance	SOCD1	.64	0.555	0.782
	SOCD2	.94		
	SOCD3	.61		

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The study established that the composite reliability of 0.782 and an AVE of 0.555 indicated that the items used to describe social distance were reliable and therefore the construct was valid.

4.5.4 Validation of the Tourist destination choice Construct

Two observed variables designated DECMI and DECM2 were extracted as indicators of the decision-making construct. The two indicators were unidimensional as determined by standardized loadings above 0.5 (Figure. 4.13).

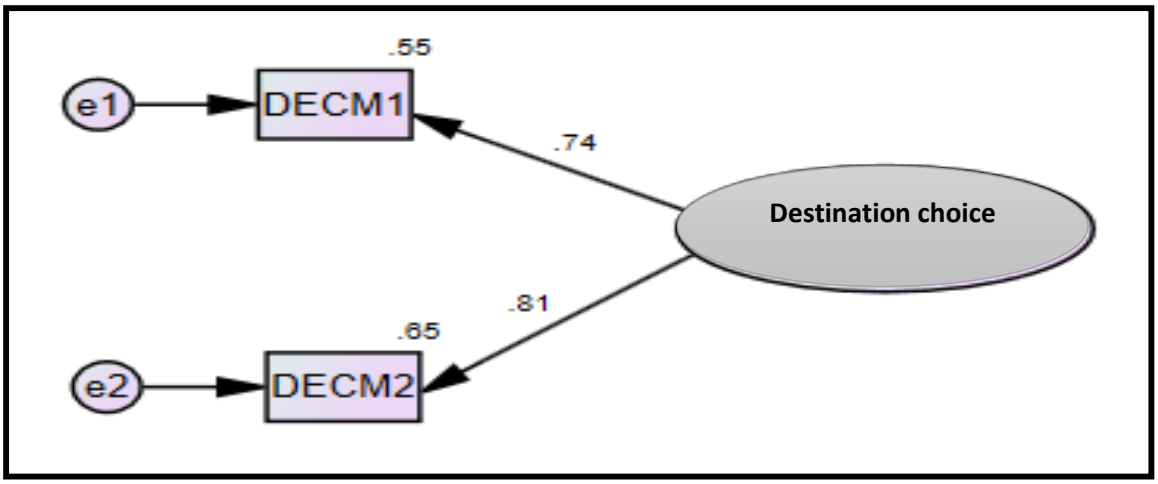


Figure 4.13: Loading for Validation of Destination Choice

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The Average Variance Extracted was 0.602, and was above the recommended minimum of 0.5 (Table 4.26).

Table 4.26: Construct validity of destination choice

Construct	Items	Standardized loadings	AVE	Composite Reliability
Decision making	DECM1	.74	0.602	.751
	DECM2	.81		

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The results show that the AVE was in excess of 0.6 indicating convergent validity; and composite reliability of 0.751. This was a confirmation of the validity of this construct.

4.6 Validation of the Measurement Model

A Four factor correlated measurement model was initially proposed. The temporal distance construct had three indicators loading highly on it; the spatial distance construct had two indicators; the social distance construct three; and the tourist destination choice construct had two indicators loading highly on it (figure. **4.14**).

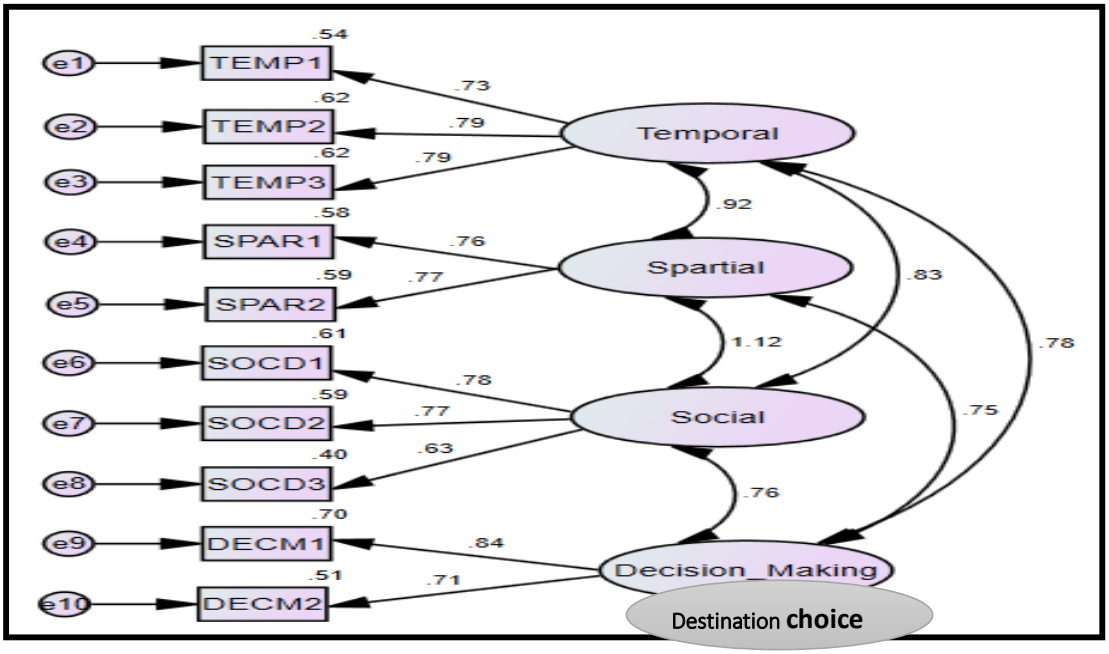


Figure 4.14: The Measurement Model with Factor Loading for the Four Constructs

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The measurement model met the discriminant validity requirement as determined by the square roots of the AVE for each construct which were larger in size than the correlations between the constructs (Table **4.27**).

Table 4.27: Correlation's Analysis

	Temporal distance	Spatial distance	Social distance	Decision making
Temporal distance	**.770**			
Spatial distance	.735**	**.773**		
Social distance	.696**	.650**	**.745**	
Destination choice	.560**	.575**	.617**	**.776**

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

The default fit indices for the proposed model were below the recommended fit indices indicting that the proposed measurement model was not a good fit to the data as shown in Table **4.28**.

Table 4.28: The Default Fit Indices

Fit indices	Recommended value	Test value
χ^2/df	<5.0	6.996
GFI	>0.90	0.896
AGFI	>0.90	0.803
NFI	>0.90	0.899
RFI	>0.90	0.843
IFI	>0.90	0.912
CFI	>0.90	0.911
TLI	>0.90	0.862
RMSEA	0.05-0.1	0.133

Source: survey data: Author, 2022

4.7 Validation of the Structural Model

The proposed structural model conceptualized direct relationships between the three psychological distance constructs and tourist destination tourist destination choice (Figure. **4.15**).

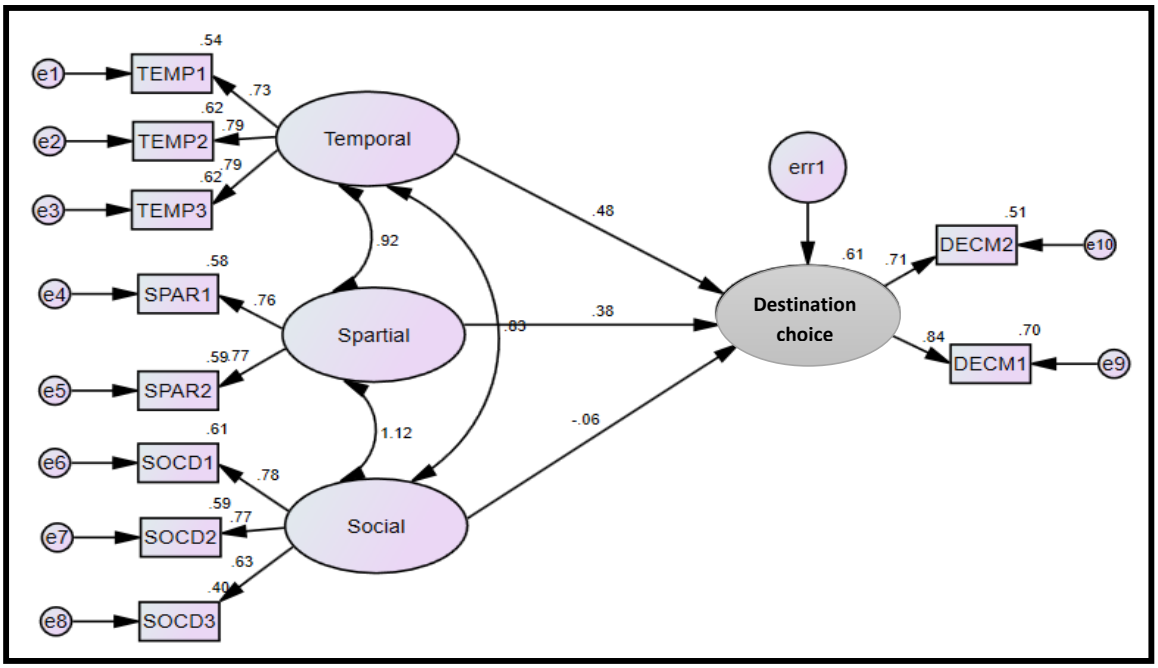


Figure 4.15: Initial Structural Model

Source: Survey Data, Author, 2022

The results in figure 4.15 show that an examination of the initial default fit indices revealed that this proposed structural model was not a good fit; χ^2/df = 6.996; GFI = 0.896; AGFI = 0.803; NFI = 0.899; RFI = 0.843; IFI = 0.912; TLI = 0.862; CFI = 0.911; RMSEA = 0.133. The results show that since most of the items under test indicated a χ^2 value above the expected threshold of 6.996 then it was noted the model was a good predictor of how the three constructs affect decision making by the tourists in selecting a tourism destination.

In order to improve the fit, the post-hoc modification indices were employed using the following suggested correlations; e2↔e7; e5↔e6; e5↔e7; e6↔e7; e4↔e6; e1↔e5; e3↔e7. The first modified structural model presented in Figure. 4.16 had several indices meeting the recommended thresholds.

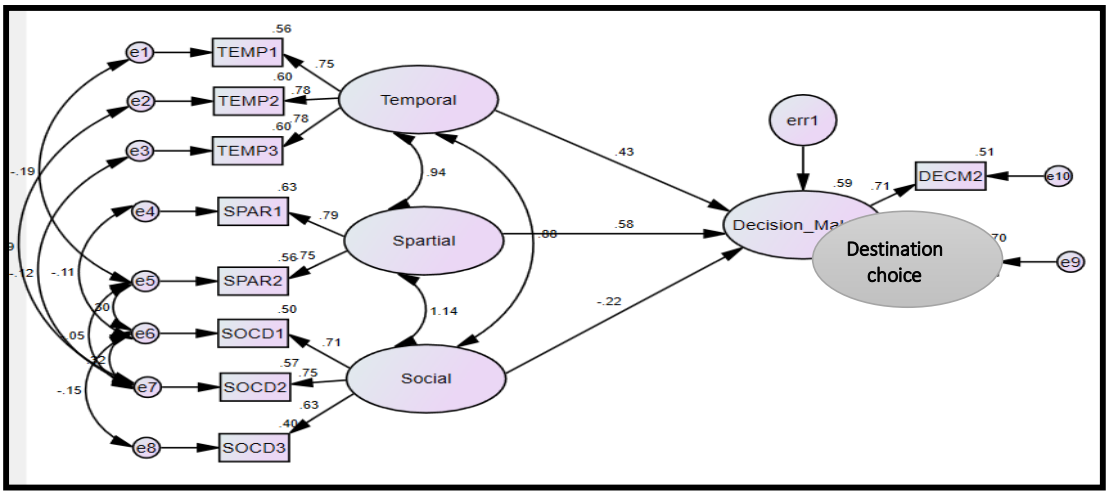


Figure 4.16: Structural Model after First Modification

Source: Survey Data, Author, 2022

The results show that though some of the items met the expected threshold with a chi square $\chi 2/df = 5.082$, GFI = 0.943; AGFI = 0.851; NFI = 0.947; RFI = 0.886; IFI = 0.957; TLI = 0.906; CFI = 0.956; RMSEA = 0.110, while some did not. Therefore, a second modified structural model was conducted by correlating the following error terms e4↔e8; e1↔e8. The results of the second modification were presented in figure 4.17.

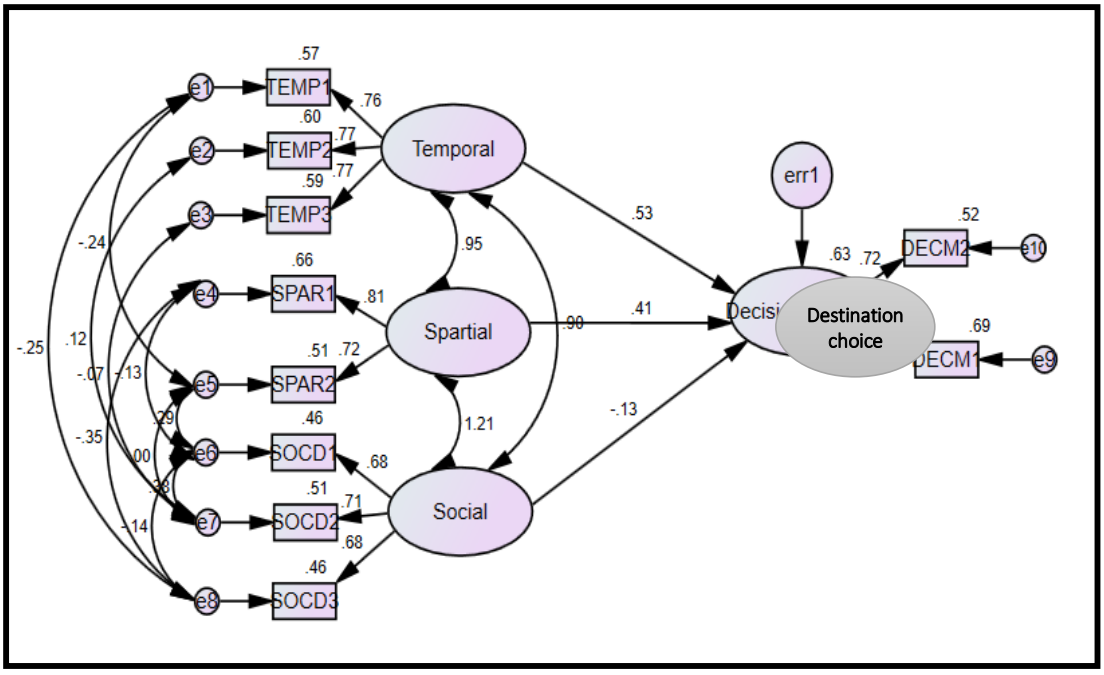


Figure 4.17: Final Structural Model

Source: Survey Data, Author, 2022

The results show that resulting second modified model was a good fit to the data as determined by the fit indices; χ^2/df = 4.237; GFI = 0.957; AGFI = 0.916; NFI = 0.960; RFI = 0.905; IFI = 0.969; TLI = 0.926; CFI = 0.969 and RMSEA = 0.035. This was therefore modeled as the final structural model (fig. 4.17). On the basis of the R^2 value of 0.63, it was clear that the three psychological distance constructs together explained 63% of the variance in tourist destination decision making. Other factors such as economic social and political factors were perhaps responsible for the remaining 37% of the variance in decision making.

4.7.1 Summarized Results of Hypotheses Tests

Three hypotheses were tested in this study. Table 4.29 presents a summary of the results.

Table 4.29: Regression Weights (Default Model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p	Result
Decision making<--- Temporal distance	.417	.139	2.990	.003	**Not Supported**
Decision making<--- Spatial distance	.277	.085	3.245	.001	**Not Supported**
"Decision making<--- Social distance"	.114	.107	1.065	.287	**Supported**

Source: Survey Data, Author, 2022

Hypothesis **$H_0$1** *postulated that temporal distance has a significant effect on tourists' destination decision making process.* Temporal distance was found to have a positive and significance effect on decision making, with an estimated value of 0.417. The probability of getting a critical ratio as large as 2.990 in absolute value is less than 0.003. In other words, the regression weight for TEMP in the prediction of DECM is significantly different from zero at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).Consequently, the regression weight for temporal distance in the prediction of tourists' destination decision making was significantly different from zero at the 0.01 level (two tailed). When temporal distance goes up by 1 unit, decision making goes up by 0.417 units. The null hypothesis was therefore not supported. This indicated that temporal distance construct had a significant effect on tourists' destination choice.

Hypothesis **$H_0$2** *presupposed that spatial distance had a significant effect on tourists' destination decision making process*. Spatial distance was found to have a positive

and significance effect on decision making, with an estimated value of 0.277. The probability of getting a critical ratio as large as 3.245 in absolute value was 0.001. The regression weight for spatial distance in the prediction of decision making was significantly different from zero at the 0.001 level (two tailed). The estimate value of 0.277 indicates that an increase of one unit in spatial distance occasions an increase of 0.277 units in decision making. The null hypothesis was equally not supported. This implied that spatial distance had a significant effect on the tourist's destination decision making process.

Hypothesis **$H_0$3** *posited that social distance had no significant effect on tourists' destination decision making process.* The probability of getting a critical ratio as large as 1.065 in absolute value was 0.287 an indication that the regression weight for social distance in the prediction of decision making was not significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). The null hypothesis was therefore supported. This indicated that social distance did not have a significant effect on tourist's destination decision making process.

4.7.2 Content Analysis

4.7.2.1 Open-ended items on questionnaire administered to tourists

Seven items on the tourist questionnaire were left open ended in order to probe incisive views among tourist with respect to various aspects in the Mara. The research objective was to establish the effects of psychological distance (temporal, spatial, and social) on tourists' destination choice. Thematic analysis was therefore used to analyze these views and a number of distinct themes emerged: the large geographical distance between the tourists' country of origin and MMNR; safety and security, advance reservations, health concerns, climate concerns, need for constant

information, interacting with the locals (culture), and suggestions for the future regarding, especially, communications from the destination to the source markets.

4.7.2.2 Temporal distance

Temporal distance reflects more on the planning aspect of tourism due to the time interval between the decision to travel and the actual travel. Actions taken during this period by the tourist are based on construal formed on the basis of information received about the destination and other related pertinent aspects. There are such issues as the appropriate timing of the trip and making reservations (like for accommodation) in advance, and even need for additional information to help with planning. Some of the responses obtained include:

> "*We booked the trip 2 months in advance and when we got here accommodation was full*" (TCH-5)- Inaccuracy of information
>
> "*My difficult experience was in settling for the best time to make the trip in order to capture the wildebeest migration spectacle*" (TIR-1)- insufficient/unclear information
> "*There were no difficulties experienced since travel agents were in charge of all arrangements*" (TCH-3) -information sufficiency
>
> "*my concern was to gather as much information on what to bring along with me, and most importantly, whether it would be safe to get out the car while in the reserve*" (TIT-1)-insufficient information.
>
> "*The follow up information that I needed was on whether the reserve had internet connectivity and the condition of the road network*" (TGR-1)- insufficient information

4.7.2.3 Spatial distance

Spatial distance denotes the geographical distance between the destination and the tourists' home country. It also denotes the physical features at the destination and the activities they portend. These could be captured in the responses obtained in this regard which included:

> "*Actually my main problem was the geographical distance. It is too far from China*" (TCH-1)- Reassuring information

4.7.2.4 Social distance

Social distance denotes the similarities and differences between the destination culture and that of the tourists' country of origin; degree to which the tourists were ready to mingle with the locals at the destination and interact with their culture. Some of the remarkable responses obtained that captured these issues included:

> *"We looked forward to the nature walk with the Maasai guide and seeing hippos. We believed it would be fascinating to watch their culture dances where they jump very high interesting to hear about the culture in a relaxed setting" (TBR-1)-Information clarity.*

> *"One of the activities I had looked forward to was purchasing some souvenirs from the reserve. I have encountered a major difference here in the buying and selling practices. At home, we are not approached by the seller. Instead, we approach the seller. Prices are usually fixed and clearly displayed, and there is no haggling. Here it is quite the opposite" (TBR-2)- Clarity of information*

4.7.2.5 Destination choice

A number of factors influence the choice to visit and they include safety and security, affordability, the climatic conditions, attractive sceneries and interesting cultural heritage. These were captured in such responses as:

> "*Actually, while I was so keen to travel, my biggest challenge was the travel advisory against visiting Kenya*" (TBR-3)-information.

> *"... I was keen to know health vaccinations and required anti-malarial injections. Moreover, I needed to know what to pack for the trip, temperature and weather expectations*" (TGR-2). –information.

> *"...I made a follow up on weather update and the political climate in the country*" (TCH-4). -information

> "*my concern was to gather as much information on what to bring along with me, and more importantly, whether it would be safe to get out the car while in the reserve*" (TIT-2). –information

> "*The follow up information that I needed was on whether the reserve had internet connectivity and the condition of the road network*" (TCH-7). –information.
>
> "*When we came, we realized that there was a lot to see and wished to reschedule but could not since we had a defined package*" (TCA-1). –clarity of information.
>
> "*..the impression that I had from the advertisements is that we would be surrounded by animals all the time everywhere. Now it happens that one can sit around for the entire day without spotting a lion! The advertisements should be more real" (TID-1).*-information clarity.

They also offered suggestions that would enrich future visits. For instance one of the commonalities in the responses was that there was need to improve the marketing programs of the reserve by revising the content to enrich the representations of the offerings and presenting them continuously to help not only in choosing the destination, but also in the preparations involved before the visit. That way future tour packages could also be enriched. They noted that whenever tourists arrive at the reserve, they realize that there is so much to see against such a limiting and tight itinerary. Other important suggestions were the need to increase the frequency of game drives, the need to protect and preserve the reserve for future generations. One of the narrations that captures these responses was:

> "*..the impression that I had from the advertisements is that we would be surrounded by animals all the time everywhere. Now it happens that one can sit around for the entire day without spotting a lion! The advertisements should be more real" (TID-1).*

4.7.2.6 Results of Interviews with Managers of lodges within the MMNR

This study sought to establish the effect of psychological distance, based on CLT, on tourists' destination choice process. According to CLT people develop construal and consequently they can evaluate or judge and make decisions concerning destinations. Tourists develop construal about the destinations on the basis of presentations made to

them through marketing communications; on the basis of which they evaluate and judge the destination. In order for tourism businesses to institute effective marketing strategies it is important that they understand the methods that are used by tourists to obtain information about the destination. This is key in managing the tourists' destination perception and eventual decision (Gany, K. B., 2017; Marais et al, 2017; McCartney et al, 2008; Haarhoff. 2018).In order to corroborate the information gathered from tourists, interviews were held with managers of star-rated lodges' in MMNR. These interviews were found essential because the managers, being key informants, possess more in-depth information about tourists' behavior for instance their preferred visiting season, preferred activities, their interactions with the locals, among others.

The interviews were conducted within star-rated lodges that were targeted for the study. The questions were themed along the career specializations of the managers, the main source markets for the tourists, the means of communications they employed when communicating with the source markets; and if the communication designs considered the temporal, spatial and social distances of the tourists. With regard to the career specializations of the managers the study established that out of the 25 managers who participated in the study , 15 of them were specialized in Tourism and wildlife, 3 in accounting, 3 in management, 2 in marketing and 2in hospitality. They gave insightful information regarding the main source markets of the tourists to the reserve, among others. They explained that the main source markets were the USA, China, India, Europe, and Canada, in order of importance. Upon examining the responses on the interview schedules a number of themes could be observed and they included enhancing online marketing and developing good documentaries and uploading them on the internet; casting nets into the emerging market of Arabia;

management of community/reserve conflict especially grazing cattle in the reserve; dealing with the challenge of poaching; improving security (to mitigate terrorism attacks); partnering with other destinations in Kenya and Africa; and introduction of other activities such as cycling with the rhino and wheelbarrow racing; protection of the reserve by controlling the developments within and around the reserve; safety and security concerns especially in the face of the constant threat of terrorism, and the future of marketing communication programs for the reserve. Some of the narrations that captured the thematic issues include:

> *"We acknowledge the importance of effective communication in this business" HTM-5 –Information.*
>
> *"We rely mainly on the efforts of KTB to market the reserve. But we also put information on the internet" (HTM-1). Information.*
>
> *"The government should come out strongly in controlling developments because some of them are interfering with the freedom of the animals" (HTM-2). Government support-accuracy of information.*
>
> *"There is need to have more antiterrorism police because the fear of terrorism is real" (HTM-3). Government support – information accuracy*
>
> *"They should let the Mara Market the Mara" (HTM-4)-ownership of information for accuracy*

As to the methods of communicating Table 4.30 below shows in order of importance the communication strategies used by the managers to present information on the MMNR; and those that tourists in the source markets use to obtain information on the destination. They intimated that the matters of temporal, spatial and social distances were not considered during communications with source markets.

Table 4.30: Preference of Communication Strategies.

Rankings	Managers	Tourists
1	Publicity	Advertising (by travel agencies)
2	Advertising	personal selling
3	Personal Selling	sales promotions
4	Sales Promotion	
5	Exhibitions	

Source: Author, 2022

The managers also stated that most of the communications were done by the parent companies based in the source markets; and by the Kenya Tourism Board (KTB). They also indicated that they also carried out campaigns all year round by advertising digitally. In order for there to be improvements in the tourism business in the MMNR the managers made various suggestions. Among them was the emphasis that the MMNR should market MMNR; training personnel in tourism and hospitality marketing and management from a business perspective; and that they should be facilitated to train marketing teams and base them in the source markets.

Table 4.31: Content analysis

	Tourists	**Lodge managers**
Temporal distance	Accuracy, sufficiency and reassurance	Clarity of information
Spatial distance	Reassuring information	
Social distance	Clarity of information	
Destination choice	Clarity of information	

Source: survey data: author, 2022

4.8 Discussions

4.8.1 Temporal Distance and Tourists' Destination Choice

Through the first objective, the study explored the effect of temporal distance on tourists' destination choice. Temporal distance is the amount of time (in the past or future) which separates an individual's present from the target event (Liu and Xu, 2015); and according to Kim et al (2016) is delineated into two components: the distant future and the near future. Specifically, the study set to examine how the time span between travel time and planning time impacts on decisions that tourists have to make with regards to choosing Maasai Mara as the destination. The descriptive analysis yielded a mean of 3.70 which is translated as affirmative responses to most of the issues raised through the questionnaire (Table 4.16).

The null hypothesis Ho1 stated that temporal distance had a significant effect on the tourists' destination choice process. Data analysis yielded an estimated regression value of 0.417; an indication that an increase in one unit of temporal distance occasions 0.417 units increase in the tourists' decision making process. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

The PCA extracted three components which together explain 57.551% of the variance in temporal distance. The three components are identifies as the distant future, the intermediate future and the near future. This is contrary to existing research findings in this area which have extracted only two components as in Kim et al (2016). This therefore constitutes a new finding that adds to theoretical literature. Tan (2018) suggested that tourist planning moves from fantasy to reality by analyzing the prior planning of a trip in the context of temporal distance and destination image attributes. He argued that trip planning is lengthy and that it often drifted from fantasy to reality. He argued that these shifts were of concern to tourists with regard to certain attributes

and proposed that there was need to allay these fears by concretizing tourists, abstractions over time. He however fell short of identifying the intermediate future as a component of temporal distance. This is corroborated in this study where, due to anxiety created by the waiting, the tourists undertake some activities to concretize the trip by purchasing the trip and the travel ticket in advance. The intermediate future component, in fact, was found to contribute 18.234% of the 57.551% explainer of the variance in the temporal distance construct.

The findings of this study concerning temporal distance, that it has a significant influence on the tourists' destination choice, are consistent with the findings of Basoglu and Jung-EunYoo (2015) that examined the effect of temporal distance on travel decisions among tourists and found out that increase in temporal distance significantly impacted on hedonic travel decisions (in which most tourists who visit MMNR engage). They also agree with the findings of Liu et al (2020) who explored the role that temporal distance and the involvement level played in buyer behavioras elicited by consumers in an online promotion activity and concluded that temporal distance was a positive and significant predictor of consumer purchase decisions of high involvement. Although this study was not in the area of tourism, it is comparable to tourists' destination choice since Garcia et al (2014) posits that tourism decisions are risky and complex; and therefore require considerable investment of resources and effort.

In another study Laran (2010) explored the influence of temporal distance on the future in the context of consumer self-control and emerged with findings that linked temporal distance to self-control. Whereas Laran's study was an experiment, in this study respondents responded in the affirmative to the statement that they sacrificed their wellbeing in the present in order to be able to pay up for the trip in future.

Studies further confirm the findings of this study that psychological distance influences the degree to which communications are convincing; and that the construal level of the communications target must be the same as that of the aired commercials for effective communication (Merve and Brayan, 2020; Nenkov, 2012).

In summary the key findings of this research with regard to the first objective are that; (1) temporal distance has a significant effect on choosing MMNR as destination for international tourists; causing the null hypothesis to be rejected, and (2) that the temporal distance construct has three indicators, the third one being the intermediate future; which was unveiled in this study.

4.8.2 Spatial Distance and Tourists' Destination Choice

The second objective entailed establishing the effect of spatial distance on tourist' destination choice process. Spatial distance is a subjective feeling which an individual experiences with regard to the nearness or farness of an object is from the individual's current location (Trope and Liberman, 2010).The null hypothesis for this construct, Ho2, stated that spatial distance had no significant influence on tourists' decision-making process. The probability of getting a critical ratio as large as 3.245 in absolute value was 0.001 upon the application of a two-tailed test, meaning that the weight of spatial distance as a predictor in the tourists' decision-making was significant. The data analysis yielded an estimate value of 0.277 indicating that a unit increase in spatial distance caused a 0.277 increase in the tourists' decision making process hence the null hypothesis was not supported. Descriptive statistics yielded a mean of 3.87 indicating that the respondents had responded to most of the statements concerning spatial; distance in the affirmative. The null hypothesis was therefore not supported. The interpretation is that tourists are able to use representations to process spatial distance at a lower level of construal, enabling them to make travel decisions. This

agrees with the study of Guo et al, (2019)which employed perspectives of spatial distance to analyze the role of psychological distance on ambiguity decision making using various dimensions of psychological distance, and found that the closer the psychological distance to time of choosing the higher the degree of avoidance of ambiguity. Travel decisions are shrouded in ambiguity given that they concern future uncertain situations.

The PCA yielded two components namely nearness and farness which is consistent with existing literature (Trope and Liberma, 2010). The two components explained 53.773% of the total variance in spatial distance (tables 4.6 and 4.7). Apparently there is not much evidence in literature of studies that focus on spatial distance and its influence on tourists' decision-making process, making this study a contributor to the same.

This study also demonstrated that spatial distance is a source of concerns to tourists and can influence their decision to travel. This is consistent with the findings of William and Bargh (2008) whose study concluded that spatial distance influences judgment of affective and emotional responses to an environment. On the other hand Kah (2016) found that spatial distance is an impediment to distant travels. One of the motivations to travel is the cost of the trip, consequently closeness in spatial distance influences offer acceptance and perception on investment on returns. This would explain why tourists factor the benefits of the trip to a distant destination into the destination choice process (Miao et al., 2019; Fatfouta et al., 2015; Schneider et al, 2020).

In conclusion the study established that spatial distance has a significant effect on making MMNR a destination of choice by international tourists, and hence the nll hypothesis was rejected.

4.8.3 Social Distance and Tourists' Destination Choice

The study also sought to establish the influence that social distance has on tourists' decision-making process. The null hypothesis Ho3 stated that social distance does not have a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process. It yielded a critical ratio of 1.065 and a an absolute value of 0.287 indicating the social distance indeed did not have a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process and therefore the null hypothesis was supported. The PCA yielded three components consistent with existing literature where they are delineated as affective, normative and interactive (Crossman, 2018).

Results of the effects of CLT on social distance have been mixed owing to various factors, including the judgment frame used (Nan, 2007); and mediation by temporal and spatial distance (Stephan et al, 2011).Fewer studies have been done on social distance and decision making compared to temporal and spatial distances (Wong and Yang, 2001). Studies have also shown that social distance is inversely related to temporal and spatial distances (Ang et al, 2009). Furthermore, the fact that in a tourism situation the hosts and visitors are not allowed enough time to complete the dynamics involved in creating bonds among people groups may be another contributor to thus outcome (Yang and Wong, 2012). Sometimes it depends on the measures that are used as in Stephan et al (2010) where politeness was used as an indicator. Politeness is considered positive and therefore construed at a high level hence was found to be enhanced by distance. In another study by Levy et al (2002) showing differences in individuals in their inclinations towards representing actions in

abstract terms as considered under the framework of behavior identification form ; demonstrated association with perception of similarity with others, empathy and willingness to help, and actual helping was positively related to social distance.

Researches on social distance that have produced results where the null hypothesis has not been supported include Wong &Yang (2011), Jang and Feng (2011), and Stephan et al (2011). On the other hand studies on social distance whose null hypothesis has been supported by the results include Jackson (2008), Ang et al (2007), and Ashioya et al (2021). Various studies have also produced inconclusive outcomes and they include Jackson (2001), Shane (1994), Padmanablan and Cho (1996), Chang and Rozenzeig (2001), Erramilli and Rao (1993). More research is therefore required on social distance and its influence on choices.

In conclusion this study found established that social distance does not have a significant effect on international tourists' decision to visit the MMNR, and thus the null hypothesis for this objective was accepted.

4.8.4 The Hotel Managers Perspective and the Tourists' Destination Choice

Given that all the international tourist arrivals come from distant countries psychological distance and CLT applies to their decision-making process with regard to the destination. However the accommodation managers acknowledge the importance of effective communication to source markets. Dellaert et al (2013) argues that mental representations made to aid tourists in making travel decisions enable them to make judgments concerning the presented options; adding that some of these representations constitute attributes, benefits, and situational variables. Together with Tax (2013) they recommend more insight into what tourists consider important in effective communications; designing online communications to help the tourists'

decision process in different contexts and; using the two suggestions above, come up with a basis for cooperating and communicating between various participants in the tourism business. Studies further confirm the findings of this study that psychological distance influences the degree to which communications are convincing; and that the construal level of the communication's target must be the same as that of the aired commercials for effective communication (Merve and Brayan, 2020; Nenkov, 2012). From the findings there is an apparent mismatch between the priority strategies used to send communications to source markets and those preferred by tourists when receiving the same. Whereas most tourists receive information through advertisements the marketers prioritize the use of publicity. This coupled with the fact that campaigns are run all year round does not only result in in effectiveness but also a waste of resources. Consideration of psychological distance and CLT will result in appropriate presentations being made at the right time to the right audience. Consequently tourists will make decisions of better quality, resulting in satisfying experiences at the destination that are likely to generate positive word-of-mouth and repeat visits. Word –of mouth has been found to be a significant determinant of purchase intention; a moderator of psychological distances thus diminishing the negative effects of the same; and effective in improving destination image especially in times of crises (Chen and Chen, 2018; Xu et al 2020; Xu et al, 2022).

Tourism has been identified as one of the flagship sectors to help realize Kenya's vision 2030. The planners of vision 2030 must have perceived tourism as a business that can earn income for the nation and improve the livelihoods of the people. For the business potential of tourism to be realized it must be customer-centric, and the institutions therein at the very least need to be headed by personnel with a training in business management.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE KEY FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

5.1 Summary of Key Findings

The main objective of this study was to establish the influence of psychological distance on tourists' destination choice. The dimensions of psychological distance of temporal, spatial and social distances were used together based on construal level theory. PCA was applied to the constructs for purposes of extracting components and reducing factors so that only those important to the constructs were maintained for analysis and measurement. On the basis of these measures it was possible to measure the influence that each construct has on tourists' destination choice. The results indicated that temporal distance and spatial distance had a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process and therefore their null hypotheses were not supported. However, social distance was found not to have a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process, causing its null hypothesis to be supported.

Table 5.1: Summary – Key findings on descriptive statistics

Ho	Hypothesis statement	Test results	Decision
Ho1	temporal distance has a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process	C.R=2.990 B=0.417;p<0.01	Not supported
Ho2	Spatial distance has a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process	C.R=3.245 B=0.277;p<0.001	Not supported
Ho3	Social distance has a significant influence on tourists' decision-making process	C.R=1.065 B=0.287;p>0.05	supported

Source: Survey data; Author, 2022

5.2 Conclusions – Quantitative analysis

The study was aimed at finding the effect of psychological distance on tourists' destination choice; applying construal level theory on three dimensions of psychological distance, namely, temporal, spatial and social distances. The studies indicate that temporal distance has a significant influence on tourists' destination choice. The study established that an increase in temporal distance caused an increase in the tourists' destination choice. The implications of these findings are that, based on CLT, increase in temporal distance causes an increase in the desirability of the destination thus increasing the chances of being chosen by the tourist. Increase in temporal distance also enables the tourist to construe the destination in abstract, simple, coherent and goal relevant, among other attributes. It is therefore easier and faster for him/her to process and decide much faster; which would be contrary in the case of temporal nearness (Trope and Liberman, 2010). However, because of the long wait between the decision to travel and actual travel, anxiety develops in the tourists' planning process in the intermediate future. This is countered by actions that help the tourist concretize the trip such as purchasing a ticket and the trip in advance (Crossman, 2018).

The study also purposed to establish the influence that spatial distance has on tourists' destination choice process the studies confirmed that spatial distance indeed has a significant influence on the tourists' destination choice; and that concretization helps the tourists to make better quality decisions since they are able to transcend from fantasy to reality, the results show that the tourists from all over the world visiting the MMNR use the allure of expectations and the anticipated experiences in the MMNR, and the array of offerings presented before them, to develop subjective feelings that enable them to process spatial distance at a lower level (Trope and Liberman, 2010).

The third construct that the study investigated was social distance and its influence on tourists' destination choice process. Results indicated positive interactions between the tourists and the locals. However, the construct was not able to garner sufficient statistical strength in order to have a significant influence on tourists' destination choice.

This study contributes to theory by revealing that temporal distance does not just have two indicators, the far future and the near future, as indicated in extant literature. Principle Component Analysis using Varimax Orthogonal rotation revealed the temporal distance construct has three indicators. This study named that indicator, the intermediate future. This item or indicator appears to present an opportunity for self-management during the length of time between the present (the proximal future) and the time of the target event (the distal future). The findings of the study also intimate that expectations for all that the destination promises enable the tourist to process decisions using a lower level construal hence being able to make more concrete decisions.

In summary, tourists' destination choice for the distant future is influenced by abstract information; while near future tourists' destination choice is influenced more by concrete information. The study also concluded that for geographically far distant destinations, destination choice was influenced more by abstract presentations while decisions for geographically near destinations were influenced more by concrete presentations. Therefore, on the basis of CLT choice of MMNR as a tourist destination was mainly driven by temporal distance and spatial distance. The study therefore confirms that psychological distance has effects on how tourists perceive

information, by proving that both temporal distance and spatial distance have significant effects on international tourists' destination choice.

5.3 Conclusions – Qualitative analysis

Effective communication is important in destination choice. Tourists need complete, clear, and sufficient information. This will help the tourist to prepare well for the trip. They will know what they need to pack, search for sure accommodation, and determine the prices of souvenirs, suitable times for watching animals and every important detail. Lodge managers also need to understand the dynamics that tourists go through when planning for trips. The also prefer information over which they have command so that they are sure the communication conveys the true picture.

5.4 Recommendations

This section constitutes recommendations for policy, tourism marketing, academia, and further research.

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effects of psychological distance, based on construal level theory, to tourists' destination choice for international tourists, visiting the MMNR in Kenya. The study advanced various recommendations to tourism policy makers, tourism marketers, academia and researchers.

To policy makers the study recommends that as a policy, marketing communication to source markets, and they must portray the true image of Kenya as a nation, and that of MMNR, or any other destination for that matter. Secondly, recognizing that tourism is a very competitive business, the image of Kenya and that of MMNR must be maintained in order to sustain a competitive edge. Thirdly, whereas the KTB may conduct marketing communications for the nation as a whole, marketing

communications for MMNR, and specific destinations within the country at large, must be left to the respective managers since they have a better understanding of the tourists from their various source markets.

For tourism marketers it is recommended that those assigned with the task of marketing communications for MMNR and other destinations, study and understand their target source markets so that they can (1) they can understand their decision-making process and how it is influenced by psychological distance and construal (2) design communications that effectively communicate the tourism offering at MMNR or any other destination to enable the tourists to make quality decisions (3) learn to vary the communications to match the level of communication to match the construal level (e.g. the distant future, the intermediate future, the near future) to aid the international tourists in the decision-making process. In summary, effective communication will increase the chances of the destination being chosen over those of the competition.

Tourism Management has become one of the important disciplines in tertiary colleges and institutions of higher learning. It is therefore recommended that the findings of this study be added to existing literature in the area of tourist destination choice for international visitors.

The study also carries recommendations to researchers. Extant literature states that the dimensions of psychological distance are temporal, spatial, social and hypothetical. This study concentrated on the first three. It is therefore recommended that a study be conducted to establish the effects of hypothecality on tourists' destination choice of MMNR. Secondly it is recommended that a study be carried out to establish the effects of moderation or mediation on the psychological distance as predictors of

tourists' destination choice. Conversely a study should also be conducted to establish the outcomes if the psychological distance dimensions were used as the moderating variables to consumer behavior decision model that comprises problem identification, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and the post-purchase evaluation. Thirdly, a study should be carried out on domestic tourists, s the current study concentrated only on international tourists. Fourthly further research is required in order to involve other stakeholders in the tourism industry such as government agencies in charge of tourism, tour operators, and the ministry of tourism. A separate research may also be conducted to involve managers from other destinations such as the coastal region. Last but not least further research is recommended on the effects of social distance on tourists' destination choice whose results remain inconclusive so far.

REFERENCES

Abooali, G., & Mohamed, B. (2011). An analysis of motivational factors affecting Middle East tourists visiting Malaysia. *Journal for Global Business Advancement*, *4*(1), 50-69.

Abooali, G., & Mohamed, B. (2012). Operationalizing psychological distance in tourism marketing. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *7*(12), 173.

Adjei, E., & Behrens, R. (2012). Travel behaviour change theories and experiments: A review and synthesis. SATC 2012.

Adom, D., Hussein, E. K., &Agyem, J. A. (2018). Theoretical and conceptual framework: Mandatory ingredients of a quality research. *International journal of scientific research*, *7*(1), 438-441.

African Mecca Safaris, 2017; https://www.africanmeccasafaris.com/travel-guide/kenya

Ahmed, T., Belanger, E., Vafaei, A., Koné, G. K., Alvarado, B., Béland, F., &Zunzunegui, M. V. (2016). Validation of a social networks and support measurement tool for use in international aging research: The International Mobility in Aging Study. *Journal of cross-cultural gerontology*, *33*(1), 101-120.

Akama, E. (2016). International tourism receipts and economic growth in Kenya 1980-2013.Akama, 2016

Akintoye, A. (2015). Developing theoretical and conceptual frameworks. In *EDMIC research workshop*. Ile-Ife: Faculty of Environmental Design and Management, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria.

Al Ghamdi, A., Samarji, A., & Watt, A. (2016). Essential considerations in distance education in KSA: Teacher immediacy in a virtual teaching and learning environment. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, *6*(1), 17-22.

Aldholay, A., Abdullah, Z., Isaac, O., & Mutahar, A. M. (2019). Perspective of Yemeni students on use of online learning: Extending the information systems success model with transformational leadership and compatibility. *Information Technology & People*.

Alexandrie, G. (2017). Surveillance cameras and crime: a review of randomized and natural experiments. *Journal of Scandinavian Studies in Criminology and Crime Prevention*, *18*(2), 210-222.

Allen, N., Haarhoff, E., & Beattie, L. (2018). Enhancing liveability through urban intensification: The idea and role of neighbourhood. *Cogent Social Sciences*, *4*(1), 1442117

Al-Msallam, S. (2020). The impact of tourists' emotions on satisfaction and destination loyalty–an integrative moderated mediation model: tourists' experience in Switzerland. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*.

Al-Tarawneh, H. A. (2012). The main factors beyond decision making. *Journal of Management Research*, *4*(1), 1-23.

Ames, H., Glenton, C., & Lewin, S. (2019). Purposive sampling in a qualitative evidence synthesis: A worked example from a synthesis on parental perceptions of vaccination communication. *BMC medical research methodology*, *19*(1), 1-9.

Amuquandoh, F. E., &Asafo-Adjei, R. (2013). Traditional food preferences of tourists in Ghana. *British Food Journal*.

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and organization review*, *3*(3), 335-371.;

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and organization review*, *3*(3), 335-371.

Ankomah, P. K., & Crompton, J. L. (1992). Tourism cognitive distance: A set of research propositions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*(2), 323-342.

Ariya, G., Sempele, C., & Wishitemi, B. (2020). An evaluation of wildlife tourism destinations' attributes, overall satisfaction and revisit Intentions: A tourist guides' perspective. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *9*(6), 1220-1237.

Armstrong, G., Adam, S., Denize, S., & Kotler, P. (2014). *Principles of marketing*. Pearson Australia.

Ashioya, B; Imbaya, B., &. Sulo, T (2021). Evaluating the effects of temporal distance on Tourists decision-making processes.

Awang, Z. (2012). *Research methodology and data analysis second edition*. UiTM Press.

Awaritefe, O. (2004). Motivation and other considerations in tourist destination choice: A case study of Nigeria. *Tourism geographies*, *6*(3), 303-330.

Ayiro, L. P. (2012). *A functional approach to educational research methods and statistics: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Edwin Mellen Press.

Bærenholdt, J. O., & Haldrup, M. (2004). On the track of the Vikings. *Tourism mobilities: Places to play, places in play*, 78-89.

Baggio, R., Pechlaner, H., Raich, F., Beritelli, P., Scott, N., & Cooper, C. (2010). Improving tourism destination governance: a complexity science approach. *Tourism Review*.

Baraldi, A. N., & Enders, C. K. (2010). An introduction to modern missing data analyses. *Journal of school psychology*, *48*(1), 5-37.

Bargeman, B., & van der Poel, H. (2006). The role of routines in the vacation decision-making process of Dutch vacationers. *Tourism Management*, *27*(4), 707-720.

Barros, C. P., & Machado, L. P. (2010). The length of stay in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *37*(3), 692-706.

Baškarada, S., &Koronios, A. (2018). A critical success factor framework for information quality management. *Information Systems Management*, *31*(4), 276-295.

Basoglu, K. A., &Yoo, J. J. E. (2015). Soon or later? The effect of temporal distance on travel decisions. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *32*(sup1), S62-S75.

Bazerman, M. H., & Moore, D. A. (2012). *Judgment in managerial decision making*. John Wiley & Sons.

Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of tourism research*, *31*(3), 657-681

Berman, M. G., Kross, E., Krpan, K. M., Askren, M. K., Burson, A., Deldin, P. J., ... & Jonides, J. (2012). Interacting with nature improves cognition and affect for individuals with depression. *Journal of affective disorders*, *140*(3), 300-305.

Bettman, J. R., & Sujan, M. (1987). Effects of framing on evaluation of comparable and noncomparable alternatives by expert and novice consumers. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *14*(2), 141-154.

Bhandari, M. P. (2014). Is tourism always beneficial? A case study from Masai Mara national reserve, Narok, Kenya. *The Pacific Journal of Science and Technology*, *15*(1), 458-483.

Bhandari, M., (1999). Tourism Raised Problems in Masai Mara National Park Narok, Kenya. *Report prepared for APEC, Nepal. 14p*.

Bigano, A., Berrittella, M., Roson, R., & Tol, R. S. (2004). *A General Equilibrium Analysis of Climate Change Impacts on Tourism* (No. 127.2004). Nota di Lavoro.

Bigano, A., Hamilton, J. M., & Tol, R. S. (2006). The impact of climate on holiday destination choice. *Climatic change*, *76*(3), 389-406.

Blackley, M. M. (2016). Going For The Goal: The Effect Of Subjective Temporal Distance On Goal Selection.

Blasco, D., Guia, J., & Prats, L. (2016). Mountain tourism supply-chain networks in cross-border settings: the case of Intercerdanya, Spain. *Mountain Tourism: Experiences, Communities, Environments and Sustainable Futures*, 235.

Bogardus, E. S. (1947). Changes in racial distances. *International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research*, *1*(4), 55-62.

Bohte, W., Maat, K., & Van Wee, B. (2009). Measuring attitudes in research on residential self-selection and travel behaviour: a review of theories and empirical research. Transport reviews, 29(3), 325-357.

Bray, J. P. (2008). Consumer behavior theory: approaches and models.

Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this" We"? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *71*(1), 83.

Bronner, F., & de Hoog, R. (2014). Vacationers and the economic "double dip" in Europe. *Tourism management*, *40*, 330-337.

Brouthers, K. D., & Brouthers, L. E. (2001). Explaining the national cultural distance paradox. *Journal of international business studies*, *32*(1), 177-189.),

Brunner, M., & SÜβ, H. M. (2005). Analyzing the reliability of multidimensional measures: An example from intelligence research. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *65*(2), 227-240.

Brzezinski, M. (2012). The Chen–Shapiro test for normality. *The Stata Journal*, *12*(3), 368-374

Cadwallader, M. (1979). Problems in cognitive distance: Implications for cognitive mapping. *Environment and Behavior*, *11*(4), 559-576.

Cangur, S., &Ercan, I. (2015). Comparison of model fit indices used in structural equation modeling under multivariate normality. *Journal of Modern Applied Statistical Methods*, *14*(1), 14.

Carlson, K. D., &Herdman, A. O. (2012). Understanding the impact of convergent validity on research results. *Organizational Research Methods*, *15*(1), 17-32.

Celik, E., Gul, M., Yucesan, M., & Mete, S. (2019). Stochastic multi-criteria decision-making: an overview to methods and applications. *Beni-Suef University Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, *8*(1), 1-11

Çelik, S., & Dedeoğlu, B. B. (2019). Psychological factors affecting the behavioral intention of the tourist visiting Southeastern Anatolia. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*.

Cesario, J., Grant, H., & Higgins, E. T. (2004). Regulatory fit and persuasion:Transfer from"feeling right.". *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *86*(3), 388

Chan, N. L., & Guillet, B. D. (2011). Investigation of social media marketing: how does the hotel industry in Hong Kong perform in marketing on social media websites?. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *28*(4), 345-368.

Chang, H., Zhang, L., &Xie, G. X. (2015). Message framing in green advertising: The effect of construal level and consumer environmental concern. *International Journal of Advertising*, *34*(1), 158-176.

Chang, S. J., & Rosenzweig, P. M. (2001). The choice of entry mode in sequential foreign direct investment. *Strategic management journal*, *22*(8), 747-776.

Chen, B., Kumor, D., & Bareinboim, E. (2017, July). Identification and model testing in linear structural equation models using auxiliary variables. In *International Conference on Machine Learning* (pp. 757-766). PMLR

Chen, C. C., Lin, Y. H., & Petrick, J. F. (2013). Social biases of destination perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, *52*(2), 240-252.

Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions?. *Tourism management*, *28*(4), 1115-1122.

Chen, C., & Chen, S. (2018). The destination competitiveness of Kinmen's tourism

Chen, F. F. (2007). Sensitivity of goodness of fit indexes to lack of measurement invariance. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, *14*(3), 464-504.

Chen, H., & Li, S. (2018). Measuring the psychological distance between an organization and its members—The construction and validation of a new scale. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *8*, 2296.

Chen, H., & Rahman, I. (2018). Cultural tourism: An analysis of engagement, cultural contact, memorable tourism experience and destination loyalty. *Tourism management perspectives*, *26*, 153-163.

Cheng, C. C., Wu H. C., &Huang, (2012). What drives supportive intentions towards a dark tourism site?. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(4), 458-474.

Cho, J. Y., & Lee, E. H. (2014). Reducing confusion about grounded theory and qualitative content analysis: Similarities and differences. *Qualitative report*, *19*(32).

Choi, J. W., Lee, C. J., & Noh, E. J. (2016). The influence of psychological distance to cultural assimilation on tourism destination. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, *9*(35), 1-9.

Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., Morrison, A. M., & Jang, S. (2012). Structure of travel planning processes and information use patterns. *Journal of travel research*, *51*(1), 26-40.

Choices, B. T. (2017). Plog Travel Personality Quiz. Acedido em março 30, 2017.

Chongwa, M. B. (2012, January). The history and evolution of national parks in Kenya. In *The George Wright Forum* (Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 39-42). George Wright Society.

Chou, H. Y., & Lien, N. H. (2012). The effects of incentive types and appeal regulatory framing in travel advertising. *The Service Industries Journal*, *32*(6), 883-897.

Chung, J. Y., & Chen, C. C. (2018). The impact of country and destination images on destination loyalty: a construal-level-theory perspective. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *23*(1), 56-67.

Cohen, S. A., Prayag, G., & Moital, M. (2014). Consumer behavior in tourism: Concepts, influences and opportunities. *Current issues in Tourism*, *17*(10), 872-909.

Cole, M. S., Bruch, H., & Shamir, B. (2009). Social distance as a moderator of the effects of transformational leadership: Both neutralizer and enhancer. *Human Relations*, *62*(11), 1697-1733.

Cook, R. L., & McCleary, K. W. (1983). Redefining vacation distances in consumer minds. *Journal of Travel Research*, *22*(2), 31-34.

Cooper, C., Archer, B., &Ruhanen, L. (2005). The positive and negative impacts of tourism. *Global tourism*, *3*, 79-102.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.

Crossman, K., (2020). Research gaps in knowledge of the impact of urban growth on biodiversity. *Nature Sustainability*, *3*(1), 16-24.

Crouch, G. I. (1994). The study of international tourism demand: A review of findings. *Journal of Travel research*, *33*(1), 12-23.

Dahiya, K. S., & Batra, D. K. (2016). Tourist decision making: Exploring the destination choice criteria. *Asian Journal of Management Research*, *7*(2), 140-153

Decorte, T., Malm, A., Sznitman, S. R., Hakkarainen, P., Barratt, M. J., Potter, G. R., ... & Asmussen Frank, V. (2019). The challenges and benefits of analyzing feedback comments in surveys: Lessons from a cross-national online survey of small-scale cannabis growers. *Methodological Innovations*, *12*(1), 2059799119825606.

Decrop, A. (2006). Vacation decision making.

Decrop, A., & Kozak, M. (2014). Consumer goals in vacation decision making. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *31*(1), 71-81.

Decrop, A., & Snelders, D. (2004). Planning the summer vacation: An adaptable process. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 1008-1030.;

Dellaert, B. G., Arentze, T., Chorus, C. G., Oppewal, H., & Wets, G. (2013). Workshop report: mental representations and discrete choice behaviour: state-of-the-art and avenues for future research. In *Choice Modelling* (pp. 107-124). Edward Elgar Publishing.)

Devine, P. G., & Sharp, L. B. (2009). Automaticity and control in stereotyping and prejudice.

Dhar, R., & Kim, E. Y. (2007). Seeing the forest or the trees: Implications of construal level theory for consumer choice. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *17*(2), 96-100.

Dickinson, J. E., Robbins, D., Filimonau, V., Hares, A., & Mika, M. (2013). Awareness of tourism impacts on climate change and the implications for travel practice: A Polish perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*, *52*(4), 506-519.

Dieke, P. U. (2020). Tourism in Africa: Issues and prospects. *Sustainable human resource management in tourism*, 9-27.

Discover Africa, 2019: https://www.atta.travel/members/discover-africa/

Djeri, L., Armenski, T., Jovanović, T., &Dragin, A. (2014). How income influences the choice of tourism destination?. *Acta Oeconomica*, *64*(2), 219-237.

Djeri, Lukrecija, Jovan Plavša, and S. Čerović. "Analysis of potential tourists' behaviour in the process of deciding upon a tourist destination based on a survey conducted in Bačka region." *Geographica Pannonica* 11.14 (2007): 70-76.

Do, T. H. N., & Shih, W. (2016). Destination decision-making process based on a hybrid MCDM model combining DEMATEL and ANP: The Case of Vietnam as a Destination. *Modern Economy*, *7*(09), 966.

Dogan, M., & Erdogan, B. Z. (2020). Effects of congruence between individuals' and hotel commercials' construal levels on purchase intentions. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *29*(8), 987-1007.

Dogan, M., & Erdogan, B. Z. (2020). Effects of congruence between individuals' and hotel commercials' construal levels on purchase intentions. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *29*(8), 987-1007.

Doody, O., & Doody, C. M. (2015). Conducting a pilot study: Case study of a novice researcher. *British Journal of Nursing*, *24*(21), 1074-1078.

Dunne, G., Hyde, K., Decrop, A., Flanagan, S., & Buckley, J. (2011). Towards a decision making model for city break travel. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*.

Elliot, S., Papadopoulos, N., & Kim, S. S. (2011). An integrative model of place image: Exploring relationships between destination, product, and country images. *Journal of travel research*, *50*(5), 520-534.

Emami, A., & Ranjbarian, B. (2015). Empirical investigation of tourists' perceived psychic distance of Iran as a tourism destination. *Iranian Journal of Management Studies*, *8*(3).

Ernst, A. F., & Albers, C. J. (2017). Regression assumptions in clinical psychology research practice—a systematic review of common misconceptions. *PeerJ*, *5*, e3323.

Erramilli, M. K., & Rao, C. P. (1993). Service firms' international entry-mode choice: A modified transaction-cost analysis approach. *Journal of marketing*, *57*(3), 19-38.

Erul, E., Woosnam, K. M., & McIntosh, W. A. (2020). Considering emotional solidarity and the theory of planned behavior in explaining behavioral intentions to support tourism development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *28*(8), 1158-1173.

Eveland Jr, W. P., Nathanson, A. I., Detenber, B. H., & McLeod, D. M. (1999). Rethinking the social distance corollary: Perceived likelihood of expsoure and the third-person perception. *Communication Research*, *26*(3), 275-302.;

Exploring consumers' buying behavior in a large online promotion activity: The role of psychological distance and involvement. *Journal of theoretical and applied electronic commerce research*, *15*(1), 66-80.

Eyal, T., Liberman, N., Trope, Y., & Walther, E. (2004). The pros and cons of temporally near and distant action. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *86*(6), 781.

Eyal, T., Sagristano, M. D., Trope, Y., Liberman, N., & Chaiken, S. (2009). When values matter: Expressing values in behavioral intentions for the near vs. distant future. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, *45*(1), 35-43.

Fatfouta, R., Schulreich, S., Meshi, D., & Heekeren, H. (2015). So close to a deal: Spatial-distance cues influence economic decision-making in a social context. *Plos one*, *10*(8), e0135968.

Feng, H., Chang, H. C., & Holt, R. (2011). Examining Chinese gift-giving behavior from the politeness theory perspective. *Asian Journal of Communication*, *21*(3), 301-317.

Fiedler, K., Jung, J., Wänke, M., &Alexopoulos, T. (2012). On the relations between distinct aspects of psychological distance: An ecological basis of construal-level theory. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*(5), 1014-1021.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2011). *Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach*. Psychology press

Fodness, D. (1992). The impact of family life cycle on the vacation decision-making process. *Journal of travel research*, *31*(2), 8-13.

Fosnacht K., Sarraf S., Howe F., Peck L. K. (2017); How Important are High Response Rates for College Surveys?

Fox, M., Hopkins, D., & Graves, J. (2021). Building research capacity in hospital-based social workers: A participatory action research approach. *Qualitative Social Work*, 14733250211048543.

Freeze, R., & Raschke, R. L. (2007). An assessment of formative and reflective constructs in IS research.

Fuchs, G., & Pizam, A. (2011). 18 The Importance of Safety an d Security for Tourism Destinations. *Destination marketing and management*, 300.

Fukukura, J., Ferguson, M. J., & Fujita, K. (2013). Psychological distance can improve decision making under information overload via gist memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *142*(3), 658.

Gany, K. B. (2017). *Visitors' Perception of Destination Attractiveness: The Case of Selected Kimberley Resorts* (Doctoral dissertation, Bloemfontein: Central University of Technology, Free State).

Gao, S.,. (2009). Rural tourism development in China. *International journal of tourism research*, *11*(5), 439-450.

García, T., López-Mosquera, N., &Barrena, R. (2014). An extension of the Theory of Planned Behavior to predict willingness to pay for the conservation of an urban park. *Journal of environmental management*, *135*, 91-99.

Garcia-Retamero, R., &Galesic, M. (2012). Doc, what would you do if you were me? On self–other discrepancies in medical decision making. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, *18*(1), 38.

Genschow, O., Hansen, J., Wänke, M., & Trope, Y. (2019). Psychological distance modulates goal-based versus movement-based imitation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *45*(8), 1031.

George, R. (2010). Visitor perceptions of crime-safety and attitudes towards risk: The case of Table Mountain National Park, Cape Town. *Tourism management*, *31*(6), 806-815.

Goeldner, C. R. (2016). Stanley C. Plog–a renowned travel market researcher. *Anatolia*, *27*(1), 120-125.

Goodman, J. K., &Malkoc, S. A. (2012). Choosing here and now versus there and later: The moderating role of psychological distance on assortment size preferences. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(4), 751-768.

Govers, R., & Go, F. M. (2009). *Tourism destination image formation* (pp. 35-49). New York, NY: Routledge.

Grand, J., Cummings, M. P., Rebelo, T. G., Ricketts, T. H., & Neel, M. C. (2007). Biased data reduce efficiency and effectiveness of conservation reserve networks. *Ecology Letters*, *10*(5), 364-374.

Gretzel, U., Mitsche, N., Hwang, Y. H., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2004). Tell me who you are and I will tell you where to go: Use of travel personalities in destination recommendation systems. *Information technology & tourism*, *7*(1), 3-12.

Gretzel, U., Sigala, M., Xiang, Z., & Koo, C. (2015). Smart tourism: foundations and developments. *Electronic Markets*, *25*(3), 179-188.

Gunther, A. (1991). What we think others think: Cause and consequence in the third-person effect. *Communication Research*, *18*(3), 355-372.

Gunther, A. C., & Thorson, E. (1992). Perceived persuasive effects of product commercials and public service announcements: Third-person effects in new domains. *Communication research*, *19*(5), 574-596.

Guo, Y., Jiang, J., & Li, S. (2019). A sustainable tourism policy research review. *Sustainability*, *11*(11), 3187.

Gyr, U. (2010). The history of tourism: Structures on the path to modernity. *Notes*, *2*(8).

Haahti, A., &Komppula, R. (2006). Experience design in tourism. *Tourism business frontiers: Consumers, products and industry*, 101-110.

Hagger, C. (2019). Health benefits of local tourism for people who have retired.

Hagger, M. S. (2019). The reasoned action approach and the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior.

Hair Jr, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., &Kuppelwieser, V. G. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM): An emerging tool in business research. *European business review*.

Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Thiele, K. O. (2017). Mirror, mirror on the wall: a comparative evaluation of composite-based structural equation modeling methods. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, *45*(5), 616-632.

Hair, J. F., Money, A. H., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). Research methods for business. *Education+ Training*.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). The use of partial least squares (PLS) to address marketing management topics. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *19*(2), 135-138.Hall, C., & Page, R. (2006). *Discrete mathematics using a computer* (pp. I-XIX). Springer.

Hamilton, J. M., & Lau, M. A. (2004). *The role of climate information in tourism destination choice*. Working Paper FNU56, Hamburg University Centre for Marine and Climate Research, Hamburg.

Hamilton, J. M., & Lau, M. A. (2005). 13 The role of climate information in tourist destination choice decision making. *Tourism and global environmental change*, 229.

Hansen, J., Alves, H., & Trope, Y. (2016). Psychological distance reduces literal imitation: Evidence from an imitation-learning paradigm. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *42*(3), 320.

Haslam, S. A., Turner, J. C., Oakes, P. J., McGarty, C., & Hayes, B. K. (1992). Context-dependent variation in social stereotyping 1: The effects of intergroup relations as mediated by social change and frame of reference. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *22*(1), 3-20.

Heitmann, S. (2011). Tourist behaviour and tourism motivation. Research themes for tourism, 31-44.

Henderson, M. D., Fujita, K., Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2006). Transcending the" here": the effect of spatial distance on social judgment. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *91*(5), 845.Henderson, J. C. (2009). Food tourism reviewed. *British food journal*.

How Far Is the Ideal Destination? Distance Desire, Ways to Explore the Antinomy of Distance Effects in Tourist Destination Choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, *59*(4), 614-630.

Hsu, T. K., Tsai, Y. F., & Wu, H. H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. *Tourism management*, *30*(2), 288-297.

http://ktb.go.ke/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/Tourism-Performance-2018-Presentation-Final2.pdf

https://repository.kippra.or.ke/handle/123456789/2796: Tourism Strategic Plan 2013-2018).

https://repository.kippra.or.ke/handle/123456789/2796:Sessional Paper 10 of 1965

Hu, J. Q., Lou, C. Y., & Wang, L. (2016). Exploration of low-carbon rural tourism in zhejiang: A Case Study of Tian Mu Village, Lin an County. In *MATEC Web of Conferences* (Vol. 63, p. 04049). EDP Sciences.

Huang, X., Li, M., Zhang, J., Zhang, L., Zhang, H., & Yan, S. (2020). Tourists' spatial-temporal behavior patterns in theme parks: A case study of Ocean Park Hong Kong. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *15*, 100411.

Huang, Y. C., Backman, S. J., & Chang, L. L. (2012). Tourism training: An investigation of virtual learning experience in the context of a virtual world. In *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2012* (pp. 227-238). Springer, Vienna.

Huete-Alcocer, N., López-Ruiz, V. R., & Grigorescu, A. (2019). Measurement of satisfaction in sustainable tourism: A cultural heritage site in Spain. *Sustainability*, *11*(23), 6774.

Huybers, T. (2003). Modelling short-break holiday destination choices. *Tourism Economics*, *9*(4), 389-405.

Hyde, K. F., & Lawson, R. (2003). The nature of independent travel. *Journal of travel research*, *42*(1), 13-23.

Irsha, M. The Analysis of The Push Pull Motivation Factor and The Expectation of International Tourist in Ramayana Ballet Prambanan Yogyakarta. *Gadjah Mada Journal of Tourism Studies*, *1*(1), 33-44.

Isaak, K. (2018). The Influence of Psychological Distance on Consumer's Willingness to Pay.

Izadi, H. (2015). Food tourism: opportunity for sustainable development of rural areas in Iran. *Rural Research*, *6*(1).

Jackman, M.. (2020). Distance matters: the impact of physical and relative distance on pleasure tourists' length of stay in Barbados. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *80*, 102794.

Jackson, J. B., Kirby, M. X., Berger, W. H., Bjorndal, K. A., Botsford, L. W., Bourque, B. J., ... & Warner, R. R. (2001). Historical overfishing and the recent collapse of coastal ecosystems. *Science*, *293*(5530), 629-637.

Jackson, J. E. (2005). Varimax rotation. *Encyclopedia of biostatistics*, *8*.

Jackson, L. A. (2008). Residents' perceptions of the impacts of special event tourism. *Journal of Place Management and development*.

Jagosh, J., Pluye, P., Macaulay, A. C., Salsberg, J., Henderson, J., Sirett, E., ... & Green, L. W. (2011). Assessing the outcomes of participatory research: protocol for identifying, selecting, appraising and synthesizing the literature for realist review. *Implementation science*, *6*(1), 1-8.

Janakiraman, N., & Ordóñez, L. (2012). Effect of effort and deadlines on consumer product returns. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *22*(2), 260-271.

Jang, S. S., & Feng, R. (2007). Temporal destination revisit intention: The effects of novelty seeking and satisfaction. *Tourism management*, *28*(2), 580-590.

Jiang, M., Li, C., Li, K., & Liu, H. (2021). Destination prediction based on virtual poi docks in dockless bike-sharing system. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems*, *23*(3), 2457-2470.

Joo, D., Tasci, A. D., Woosnam, K. M., Maruyama, N. U., Hollas, C. R., & Aleshinloye, K. D. (2018). Residents' attitude towards domestic tourists explained by contact, emotional solidarity and social distance. *Tourism Management*, *64*, 245-257.

Jungkeun ,K, Kim, P. B., Kim, J. E., &Magnini, V. P. (2014). Application of construal-level theory to promotional strategies in the hotel industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, *55*(3), 340-352.

Kagunda, R. (2016). *Characteristics of out-migrants from Nyeri, Murang'a and Kiambu counties in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University Of Nairobi).

Kah, J. A., Lee, C. K., & Chung, N. (2010). Evaluating travel website motivational communication using a structural equation modelling approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *12*(6), 787-802.

Kah, J. A., Lee, C. K., & Lee, S. H. (2016). Spatial–temporal distances in travel intention–behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *57*, 160-175.

Kamau, F., Waweru, F. K., Lewa, P., & Misiko, A. J. (2015). The effects of the marketing mix on choice of tourist accommodation by domestic tourists in Kenya. *International Journal of Novel Research in Marketing Management and Economics*, *2*(2), 25-34.

Kapoor, M. C. (2016). Types of studies and research design. *Indian journal of anaesthesia*, *60*(9), 626.

Karl, M. (2018). Risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making: Tourist and destination perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*, *57*(1), 129-146.

Kenya Ministry of Tourism (2007): http://www.bibalex.org/search4dev/files/284922/117217.pdf

Kharouf, H., Biscaia, R., Garcia-Perez, A., & Hickman, E. (2020). Understanding online event experience: The importance of communication, engagement and interaction. *Journal of Business Research*, *121*, 735-746.

Kieser, M., & Wassmer, G. (1996). On the use of the upper confidence limit for the variance from a pilot sample for sample size determination. *Biometrical journal*, *38*(8), 941-949.

Kihara, C. (2010). Understanding the Travel Motivation among Youth Travelers in Kenya: The 'Push' and 'Pull' Paradigm.

Kim, D. H., & Song, D. (2019). Can brand experience shorten consumers' psychological distance toward the brand? The effect of brand experience on consumers' construal level. *Journal of Brand Management*, *26*(3), 255-267.

Kim, H., Schnall, S., & White, M. P. (2013). Similar psychological distance reduces temporal discounting. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *39*(8), 1005-1016.

Kim, J., Kim, P. B., Kim, J. E., &Magnini, V. P. (2016). Application of construal-level theory to promotional strategies in the hotel industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, *55*(3), 340-352.

Kim, K., Zhang, M., & Li, X. (2008). Effects of temporal and social distance on consumer evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *35*(4), 706-713.

Kim, S., Jin, Y., & Reber, B. H. (2020). Assessing an organizational crisis at the construal level: how psychological distance impacts publics' crisis responses. *Journal of Communication Management*, *24*(4), 319-337.

Kivunja, C., &Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of higher education*, *6*(5), 26-41.

Kock, N., & Lynn, G. (2012). Lateral collinearity and misleading results in variance-based SEM: An illustration and recommendations. *Journal of the Association for information Systems*, *13*(7)

Koestantia, T., Nuryanti, W., Suwarno, N., Prayitno, B., &Femina, D. (2014). The distribution pattern of creative industries and the spatial system of tourist destinations in Indonesia: The case of Bandung. *International Journal of Architecture and Design*, *25*(2), 1140-1148.

Komppula, R. (2005). Pursuing customer value in tourism–a rural tourism case-study. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, *3*(2), 83-104.

Kotzé, M. (2018). The influence of psychological capital, self-leadership, and mindfulness on work engagement. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *48*(2), 279-292.

Kozak, M., Crotts, J. C., & Law, R. (2007). The impact of the perception of risk on international travellers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *9*(4), 233-242.

Kramer-Schadt, S., Niedballa, J., Pilgrim, J. D., Schröder, B., Lindenborn, J., Reinfelder, V., ... & Wilting, A. (2013). The importance of correcting for sampling bias in MaxEnt species distribution models. *Diversity and distributions*, *19*(11), 1366-1379.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *30*(3), 607-610.

Krešić, D., &Prebežac, D. (2011). Index of destination attractiveness as a tool for destination attractiveness assessment. *Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, *59*(4), 497-517.

Kumar, B. (2012). Theory of planned behavior approach to understand the purchasing behavior for environmentally sustainable products.

Kumar, K. (1989). *Conducting key informant interviews in developing countries* (p. 1). Washington DC: Agency for International Development.

Kwak, S. K., & Kim, J. H. (2017). Statistical data preparation: management of missing values and outliers. *Korean journal of anesthesiology*, *70*(4), 407-411.

Kyalo, J., &Katuse, P. (2013). Kenya's destination image: perceptions of Kenya as a premier destination of Africa.

Kyung, E. J., Menon, G., & Trope, Y. (2010). Reconstruction of things past: Why do some memories feel so close and others so far away?. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*(1), 217-220.

La Corte, V., & Piolino, P. (2016). On the role of personal semantic memory and temporal distance in episodic future thinking: The TEDIFT model. *Frontiers in human neuroscience*, *10*, 385.

La Corte, V., Sperduti, M., Abichou, K., &Piolino, P. (2019). Episodic memory assessment and remediation in normal and pathological aging using virtual reality: a mini review. *Frontiers in psychology*, *10*, 173.

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2006). Predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism management*, *27*(4), 589-599.

Landau, M. J., Meier, B. P., & Keefer, L. A. (2010). A metaphor-enriched social cognition. *Psychological bulletin*, *136*(6), 1045.

Lantos, G. P. (2015). *Consumer behavior in action: Real-life applications for marketing managers*. Routledge.

Lapsley, D. K., & Stey, P. C. (2011). Id, ego, and superego. *Encyclopedia of human behavior*, *2*.

Laran, J. (2010). Choosing your future: Temporal distance and the balance between self-control and indulgence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *36*(6), 1002-1015.

Latimer, A. E., & Martin Ginis, K. A. (2005). The importance of subjective norms for people who care what others think of them. *Psychology & Health*, *20*(1), 53-62.

Law, J. (2004). *After method: Mess in social science research*. Routledge.Laws, E. (1995). *Tourist destination management: issues, analysis and policies*. Routledge

Leader, G. M., Kuman, K., Gibbon, R. J., & Granger, D. E. (2018). Early Acheulean organised core knapping strategies ca. 1.3 Ma at Rietputs 15, Northern Cape Province, South Africa. *Quaternary International*, *480*, 16-28.

Lee, C. F., Huang, H. I., & Yeh, H. R. (2010). Developing an evaluation model for destination attractiveness: Sustainable forest recreation tourism in Taiwan. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *18*(6), 811-828.

Lee, H. A., Guillet, B. D., Law, R., & Leung, R. (2012). Robustness of distance decay for international pleasure travelers: A longitudinal approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *14*(5), 409-420.

Lee, H., Yang, S. B., & Chung, N. (2021). Out of sight, out of cancellation: The impact of psychological distance on the cancellation behavior of tourists. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *90*, 101942.

Lee, R., & Lockshin, L. (2012). Reverse country-of-origin effects of product perceptions on destination image. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(4), 502-511

Lee, S. A., & Crunk, E. A. (2022). Fear and psychopathology during the COVID-19 crisis: neuroticism, hypochondriasis, reassurance-seeking, and coronaphobia as fear factors. *OMEGA-Journal of Death and Dying*, *85*(2), 483-496.

Lee, S. J. (2019). The role of construal level in message effects research: A review and future directions. *Communication Theory*, *29*(3), 319-338

Leiser, D., Azar, O. H., & Hadar, L. (2008). Psychological construal of economic behavior. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *29*(5), 762-776.

Levy, B. R., Slade, M. D., & Kasl, S. V. (2002). Longitudinal benefit of positive self-perceptions of aging on functional health. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, *57*(5), P409-P417.

Li, Haoran, and Chuanci Cai. "Experiment on Destination Choice Game." In *Green, Smart and Connected Transportation Systems*, pp. 553-561. Springer, Singapore, 2020.

Li, L., Chen, X., Li, Z., & Zhang, L. (2013). Freeway travel-time estimation based on temporal–spatial queueing model. *IEEE Transactions on Intelligent Transportation Systems*, *14*(3), 1536-1541.

Li, Z., Zhang, S., Liu, X., Kozak, M., & Wen, J. (2020). Seeing the invisible hand: Underlying effects of COVID-19 on tourists' behavioral patterns. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *18*, 100502.

Liberman, N., & Förster, J. (2011). Estimates of spatial distance: A construal level theory perspective. *Spatial dimensions of social thought*, 109-128.

Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (1998). The role of feasibility and desirability considerations in near and distant future decisions: A test of temporal construal theory. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *75*(1), 5.

Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (2008). The psychology of transcending the here and now. *Science*, *322*(5905), 1201-1205.

Liberman, N., Sagristano, M. D., & Trope, Y. (2002). The effect of temporal distance on level of mental construal. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, *38*(6), 523-534.

Liberman, N., Trope, Y., & Stephan, E. (2007). Psychological distance.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Denzin, N. K. (Eds.). (2003). *Turning points in qualitative research: Tying knots in a handkerchief*. Rowman Altamira.;

Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism management*, *29*(3), 458-468.

Liu, H. (2014). Understanding destination choice from a cultural distance perspective.Liu, Q., Zhang, X., Huang, S., Zhang, L., & Zhao, Y. (2020).

Liu, Y., & Xu, J. (2015). The effect of temporal distance and social distance on the choice of consumers' preferences. *Modern Economy*, *6*(02), 275.

Lopes, S. D. F. (2011). Destination image: Origins, developments and implications. *PASOS. Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, *9*(2), 305-315.

López-Duarte, C., & Vidal-Suárez, M. M. (2010). External uncertainty and entry mode choice: Cultural distance, political risk and language diversity. *International business review*, *19*(6), 575-588.

Ma, G., Jia, J., Ding, J., Shang, S., & Jiang, S. (2019). Interpretive structural model based factor analysis of BIM adoption in Chinese construction organizations. *Sustainability*, *11*(7), 1982.

Maasai Mara Science and Development Initiative, 2015; https://maasaimarascience.org/fileadmin/projects/masaimara/MMSDI_Policy_Paper_Final.pdf

Maglio, S. J. (2020). Psychological distance in consumer psychology: Consequences and antecedents. *Consumer Psychology Review*, *3*(1), 108-125.

Mago, S. (2019). Challenges of rural tourism development in Zimbabwe: A case of the Great Zimbabwe-Masvingo district. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *3*(2), 1-12.

Mago, S., Musasa, G., &Matunhu, J. (2013). The impact of globalization on business and economic development in Zimbabwe. *The Journal of Business Economics and Environmental Studies*, *3*(2), 31-37.

Malmqvist, J., Hellberg, K., Möllås, G., Rose, R., & Shevlin, M. (2019). Conducting the pilot study: A neglected part of the research process? Methodological findings supporting the importance of piloting in qualitative research studies. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *18*, 1609406919878341.

ManojT, M., & Tsai, C. I. (2012). Psychological distance and subjective experience: How distancing reduces the feeling of difficulty. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(2), 324-340.

Mansfeld, Y. (1992). Group-differentiated perceptions of social impacts related to tourism development. *The Professional Geographer*, *44*(4), 377-392.

Manyara, G., Jones, E., & Botterill, D. (2006). Tourism and poverty alleviation: The case for indigenous enterprise development in Kenya. *Tourism Culture & Communication*, *7*(1), 19-37.

Marais, M., Du Plessis, E., & Saayman, M. (2017). Critical success factors of a business tourism destination: Supply side analysis. *Acta Commercii*, *17*(1), 1-12.

Marakas, G., Johnson, R., & Clay, P. F. (2007). The evolving nature of the computer self-efficacy construct: An empirical investigation of measurement construction, validity, reliability and stability over time. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, *8*(1), 2.

March, R. S., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). *Tourism behaviour: travellers' decisions and actions*. Cabi Publishing.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (2003). Culture, self, and the reality of the social. *Psychological inquiry*, *14*(3-4), 277-283.

Martínez, S. C., & Alvarez, M. D. (2010). Country versus destination image in a developing country. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *27*(7), 748-764

Masconi, K. L., Matsha, T. E., Echouffo-Tcheugui, J. B., Erasmus, R. T., & Kengne, A. P. (2015). Reporting and handling of missing data in predictive research for prevalent undiagnosed type 2 diabetes mellitus: a systematic review. *EPMA Journal*, *6*(1), 1-11.

Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*. Longman.

Mawioo, M. J., & Kagiri, A. W. (2015). Strategic Factors Influencing the Destination Choice for Domestic Tourists in Kenya. *International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR) ISSN*, *4*(11), 279-285.

Mazanec, J. A. (2005). Tourism research in a nutshell: "The tourism knowledge map". *Tourism Review*.

Mbuthia, D. (2020). *The challenge of negotiating between national and sub-national identities through heritage-making in post-devolution Kenya: with the example of Mukurwe wa Nyagathanga cultural site* (Doctoral dissertation, Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour).

McCartney, G., Butler, R., & Bennett, M. (2008). A strategic use of the communication mix in the destination image-formation process. *Journal of Travel Research*, *47*(2), 183-196.

McCrae, R. R. (2017). *The Five-Factor Model across cultures*. Praeger/ABC-CLIO.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa Jr, P. T. (1994). The stability of personality: Observations and evaluations. *Current directions in psychological science*, *3*(6), 173-175.

McDonald, R. I., Chai, H. Y., & Newell, B. R. (2015). Personal experience and the 'psychological distance'of climate change: An integrative review. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *44*, 109-118.

McGibbon, J. (2006). Differential Experiences of Ski Tourism in the Tirolean Alps. *Tourism consumption and representation: Narratives of place and self*, 140.

Mckercher, B., & Lew, A. A. (2003). Distance decay and the impact of effective tourism exclusion zones on international travel flows. *Journal of Travel Research*, *42*(2), 159-165.

McKercher, B., Packer, T., Yau, M. K., & Lam, P. (2003). Travel agents as facilitators or inhibitors of travel: perceptions of people with disabilities. *Tourism Management*, *24*(4), 465-474.

McLeod, D. M., Eveland Jr, W. P., & Nathanson, A. I. (1997). Support for censorship of violent and misogynic rap lyrics: An analysis of the third-person effect. *Communication Research*, *24*(2), 153-174.

Meethan, K. (2006). Introduction: Narratives of place and self. *Tourism consumption and representation: Narratives of place and self*, 1-23.

Meethan, K., Anderson, A., & Miles, S. (Eds.). (2006). *Tourism, consumption and representation: Narratives of place and self*. CABI.

Meirick, P. C. (2005). Rethinking the target corollary: The effects of social distance, perceived exposure, and perceived predispositions on first-person and third-person perceptions. *Communication Research*, *32*(6), 822-843.

Miao, J. Zhu, X., Sun, T., Yuan, H., & Hu, Z., (2019). Exploring group movement pattern through cellular data: A case study of tourists in Hainan. *ISPRS International Journal of Geo-Information*, *8*(2), 74.

Mogilner, C., Aaker, J. L., & Pennington, G. L. (2008). Time will tell: The distant appeal of promotion and imminent appeal of prevention. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *34*(5), 670-681.

Mohajan, H. K. (2017). Two criteria for good measurements in research: Validity and reliability. *Annals of SpiruHaret University. Economic Series*, *17*(4), 59-82.

Moisander, J., &Valtonen, A. (2006). *Qualitative marketing research: A cultural approach*. Sage.

Molina, A., Gómez, M., & Martín-Consuegra, D. (2010). Tourism marketing information and destination image management. *African journal of Business management*, *4*(5), 722.

Monteith, M. J. (1993). Self-regulation of prejudiced responses: Implications for progress in prejudice-reduction efforts. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *65*(3), 469.

Montinari, N., & R, Michela. (2013). *Social preferences under risk: the role of social distance* (No. 2013-050). Jena Economic Research Papers.

Moore, K., Smallman, C., Wilson, J., & Simmons, D. (2012). Dynamic in-destination decision-making: An adjustment model. *Tourism Management*, *33*(3), 635-645.

Morintat, S., & Wainaina, L. Effect of Corporate Governance on Performance of Kenya's State Corporations in Mombasa County; A Case of Kenya Ferry Services Limited.

Mossberg, L. (2007). A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian journal of hospitality and tourism*, *7*(1), 59-74.

Moutinho, L. (2000). Trends in tourism. *Strategic management in tourism*, *3*, 16.

Mungai, M. (2013). Exploring Motivations and Factors Impacting upon Destination Choice of the UK Residents: Reflecting on Kenyan Tourism. In *Information and Knowledge Management* (Vol. 3, No. 7, pp. 10-17).

Munyiri, E. K. (2015). Vulnerability and adaptation of the tourism sector to climate change in Nairobi, coast and central tourist circuits in Kenya. *Unpublished Dphil Thesis, Kenyatta University, Kenya*.

Murray, A., Bagby, J., & Sulak, T. (2010). Research 101: Understanding. *Montessori Life*.

Muthee, L. W. (1991). *The ecological impacts of tourism in the Masai Mara National Reserve, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation).

Mutinda, R., & Mayaka, M. (2012). Application of destination choice model: Factors influencing domestic tourists destination choice among residents of Nairobi, Kenya. *Tourism Management*, *33*(6), 1593-1597.

Myers, G. (2011). *African cities: alternative visions of urban theory and practice*. Zed Books Ltd..

Nachtigall, C., Kroehne, U., Funke, F., & Steyer, R. (2003). Pros and cons of structural equation modeling. *Methods Psychological Research Online*, *8*(2), 1-22.

Nan, X. (2007). Social distance, framing, and judgment: A construal level perspective. *Human Communication Research*, *33*(4), 489-514.

National Tourism Strategy 2013-2018 https://repository.kippra.or.ke/bitstream/handle/123456789/2796/MEACT-National-Tourism-Srategy-2013-2018.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Ndivo, R. M., Waudo, J. N., & Waswa, F. (2012). Examining Kenya's tourist destinations' appeal: The perspectives of domestic tourism market. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, *1*(5), 1-7.

Nejati, M., Mohamed, B., & Omar, S. I. (2014). Locals' perceptions towards the impacts of tourism and the importance of local engagement: A comparative study of two islands in Malaysia. Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal, 62(2), 135-146.

Nenkov, G. Y., & Gollwitzer, P. M. (2012). Pre-versus postdecisional deliberation and goal commitment: The positive effects of defensiveness. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*(1), 106-121.

Ng, S. I., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2009). The influence of cultural similarity and individual factors on visitation. *TEAM Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, *6*(1), 68-81.

Noy, C. (2008). Sampling knowledge: The hermeneutics of snowball sampling in qualitative research. *International Journal of social research methodology*, *11*(4), 327-344

Nussbaum, S., Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (2006). Predicting the near and distant future. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *135*(2), 152.

Nussbaum, S., Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2003). Creeping dispositionism: the temporal dynamics of behavior prediction. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *84*(3), 485.

Nyasha, S., & Odhiambo, N. M. (2020). Does remittance inflow granger-cause economic growth in South Africa? A dynamic multivariate causality test. *The Review of Black Political Economy*, *47*(1), 86-103.;

O'Connor, D. A., Meade, B., Carter, O., Rossiter, S., & Hester, R. (2014). Behavioral sensitivity to reward is reduced for far objects. *Psychological science*, *25*(1), 271-277.O'Dell, T.,(2005). *Experiences capes: Tourism, culture and economy*. Copenhagen Business School Press DK.

Odunga, P. O. (2005). *Choice of attractions, expenditure and satisfaction of international tourists to Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation).

Odunga, P. O., & Maingi, S. W. (2011). The wildlife tourism market to Kenya (2002–2003). *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *28*(1), 62-80.

Omare, M., Kiage, O., Akama, J., & Sulo, T. (2019). Socioe conomic factors hindering domestic tourism consumption in Kenya: the case of Nakuru, Mombasa and Nairobi towns.

Onchwati, J., Sommerville, H., & Brockway, N. (2010). Sustainable tourism development in the Masai Mara National Reserve, Kenya, East Africa. *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment139*, 319-330.

Ondicho, T. G. (2010). *Tourism, power and politics: the challenges of Maasai involvement in tourism development: a dissertation presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Anthropology at Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand* (Doctoral dissertation, Massey University).

O'sullivan, O. P. (2015). The Neural Basis of Always Looking on the Bright Side. *Dialogues in Philosophy, Mental & Neuro Sciences*, *8*(1).

Ottichilo, W. K. (2000). *Wildlife dynamics: an analysis of change in the Masai Mara ecosystem of Kenya*. Wageningen University and Research.Owiyo, V. (2018). *Strategic determinants of destination competitiveness: A case of Western tourist circuit, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation).

Padgett, C. R., Skilbeck, C. E., & Summers, M. J. (2014). Missing data: the importance and impact of missing data from clinical research. *Brain Impairment*, *15*(1).

Padmanablan, P., & Cho, K. R. (1996). Ownership strategy for a foreign affiliate: An empirical investigation of Japanese firms. *MIR: Management International Review*, 45-65.

Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S. M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N., & Hoagwood, K. (2015). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. *Administration and policy in mental health and mental health services research*, *42*(5), 533-544.

Panhwar, A. H., Ansari, S., & Shah, A. A. (2017). Post-positivism: An effective paradigm for social and educational research. *International Research Journal of Arts & Humanities (IRJAH)*, *45*(45).

Park, H. S., Dailey, R., & Lemus, D. (2002). The use of exploratory factor analysis and principal components analysis in communication research. *Human Communication Research*, *28*(4), 562-577.

Pearce, P. L. (2014). Tourism motivations and decision making. *The Wiley Blackwell companion to tourism*, 45-54.

Pederson, L. L., Wanklin, J. M., Bull, S. B., & Ashley, M. J. (1991). A conceptual framework for the roles of legislation and education in reducing exposure to environmental tobacco smoke. *American journal of health promotion*, *6*(2), 105-111

Pennington, G. L., & Roese, N. J. (2003). Regulatory focus and temporal distance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *39*(6), 563-576.

Pérez-Nordtvedt, L., Khavul, S., Harrison, D. A., & McGee, J. E. (2014). Adaptation to temporal shocks: Influences of strategic interpretation and spatial distance. *Journal of management studies*, *51*(6), 869-897.

Perloff, R. M. (1989). Ego-involvement and the third person effect of televised news coverage. *Communication research*, *16*(2), 236-262.

Perloff, R. M. (2002). The third-person effect. In *Media effects* (pp. 499-516). Routledge.

Peštek, A., &Činjarević, M. (2014). Tourist perceived image of local cuisine: the case of Bosnian food culture. *British Food Journal*.

Phillimore, J., & Goodson, L. (2004). Progress in qualitative research in tourism: Epistemology, ontology and methodology. In *Qualitative research in tourism* (pp. 21-23). Routledge.

Pickens, Maryellen. "Employees' Experiences with Cyberbullying in the Workplace: A Phenomenological Study." PhD diss., University of Phoenix, 2017.

Polman, E. (2012). Effects of self–other decision making on regulatory focus and choice overload. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *102*(5), 980.

Poria, Y., Reichel, A., & Biran, A. (2006). Heritage site management: Motivations and expectations. *Annals of tourism research*, *33*(1), 162-178.

Prasad, A. A., & Kumar, R. S. (2022). Challenges and opportunities of brand corporate social responsibility classification: A review, new conceptualization and future research agenda. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*.

Praveenkumar, R., Lee, K., Lee, J., & Oh, Y. K. (2015). Breaking dormancy: an energy-efficient means of recovering astaxanthin from microalgae. *Green Chemistry*, *17*(2), 1226-1234.

Praveenkumar, S. (2014). Tourism Marketing and Consumer Behaviour.

Price, V., Tewksbury, D., & Huang, L. N. (1998). Third-person effects on publication of a Holocaust-denial advertisement. *Journal of Communication*, *48*(2), 3-26.

Qiu, R. T. &Masiero, L., (2018). Modeling reference experience in destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *72*, 58-74

Qiu, R. T., Masiero, L., & Li, G. (2018). The psychological process of travel destination choice. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *35*(6), 691-705.

Ragavan, N. A., Subramonian, H., & Sharif, S. P. (2014). Tourists' perceptions of destination travel attributes: An application to International tourists to Kuala Lumpur. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *144*, 403-411.

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Iranmanesh, M., Seyfi, S., Ari Ragavan, N., & Jaafar, M. (2022). Effects of perceived value on satisfaction and revisit intention: Domestic vs. international tourists. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 13567667221086326.

Razali, N. M., & Wah, Y. B. (2011). Power comparisons of shapiro-wilk, kolmogorov-smirnov, lilliefors and anderson-darling tests. *Journal of statistical modeling and analytics*, *2*(1), 21-33.

Rehman, A. A., & Alharthi, K. (2016). An introduction to research paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, *3*(8), 51-59.

Reisinger, Y., & Crotts, J. C. (2010). Applying Hofstede's national culture measures in tourism research: Illuminating issues of divergence and convergence. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(2), 153-164.

Reisinger, Y., & Mavondo, F. (2005). Travel anxiety and intentions to travel internationally: Implications of travel risk perception. *Journal of travel research*, *43*(3), 212-225.

Rhodes, R. E., & Dickau, L. (2012). Experimental evidence for the intention–behavior relationship in the physical activity domain: A meta-analysis. *Health Psychology*, *31*(6), 724

Richardson, S. L., & Crompton, J. L. (1988). Cultural variations in perceptions of vacation attributes. *Tourism Management*, *9*(2), 128-136.

Riley, R. W., & Love, L. L. (2000). The state of qualitative tourism research. *Annals of tourism research*, *27*(1), 164-187.

Ringle, C. M., Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Jaafar, M., &Ramayah, T. (2017). Urban vs. rural destinations: Residents' perceptions, community participation and support for tourism development. *Tourism management*, *60*, 147-158.

Ringle, C., Da Silva, D., & Bido, D. (2015). Structural equation modeling with the SmartPLS. *Bido, D., da Silva, D., & Ringle, C.(2014). Structural Equation Modeling with the Smartpls. Brazilian Journal Of Marketing*, *13*(2).

Ritchie, J. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2003). *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective*. Cabi.

Rosendahl, T., & Gottschalk, P. (2015). Tourist attractions in Norway: An exploratory study of market communication strategies. In *Marketing in transition: Scarcity, globalism, & sustainability* (pp. 17-22). Springer, Cham.

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2013). Essential research methods for social workers. *Belmont, CA: Brooks, Cole*.

Rubin, R. B., Rubin, A. M., Graham, E., Perse, E. M., & Seibold, D. (2010). Third-Person Effect. In *Communication Research Measures II* (pp. 420-423). Routledge.

Ryan, C., & Glendon, I. (1998). Application of leisure motivation scale to tourism. *Annals of tourism Research*, *25*(1), 169-184.

Ryu, K., Han, H., & Jang, S. S. (2010). Relationships among hedonic and utilitarian values, satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the fast-casual restaurant industry. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*.

Saito, C. S., & Strehlau, V. L. (2018). Tourist destination choice: A bibliometric study. *Revista Eletrônica de Negócios Internacionais (Internext)*, *13*(1), 17-31.

Saj, A., Fuhrman, O., Vuilleumier, P., & Boroditsky, L. (2014). Patients with left spatial neglect also neglect the "left side" of time. *Psychological science*, *25*(1), 207-214.

Sander, H. A., Ghosh, D., van Riper, D., & Manson, S. M. (2010). How do you measure distance in spatial models? An example using open-space valuation. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, *37*(5), 874-894.

Santos, V., Ramos, P., Sousa, B., Almeida, N., & Valeri, M. (2021). Factors influencing touristic consumer behaviour. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*.

Saraniemi, S., &Kylänen, M. (2011). Problematizing the concept of tourism destination: An analysis of different theoretical approaches. *Journal of travel research*, *50*(2), 133-143.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). Research methodology for business students. *Harlow: Pearson Education limited*.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). Research methods for business students (5th edn).

Schiffman, L. G., &Kanuk, L. L. (2014). *Consumer Behavior*. New Jersey: Prentice

Schiffman, L. G., Kanuk, L. L., & Wisenblit, J. (2010). Consumer behavior. Global edition. *Pearson Higher Education, London*, *12*(2), 113-120.

Schneider, I. K., Stapels, J., Koole, S. L., & Schwarz, N. (2020). Too close to call: Spatial distance between options influences choice difficulty. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *87*, 103939

Schoonenboom, J., & Johnson, R. B. (2017). How to construct a mixed methods research design. *KZfSS Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*, *69*(2), 107-131.

Sector Plan for Tourism 2013-2017: http://vision2030.go.ke/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/SECTOR-PLAN-FOR-TOURISM-2013-2017.pdf

Sekeran, U., (2010). Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative methods. *Australia: John Wiley & Sons*.

Selten, R. (2001). Rethinking rationality. *Bounded rationality: The adaptive toolbox*, *1*, 12.

Sema, P. (2013). Does social media affect consumer decision-making. *Johnsons and Wales University, Feinstein Graduate school. Retrieved October*, *25*, 2014.

Seyidov, J., &Adomaitienė, R. (2016). Factors influencing local tourists' decision-making on choosing a destination: a case of Azerbaijan. *Ekonomika*, *95*(3), 112-127.

Shane, S. (1994). The effect of national culture on the choice between licensing and direct foreign investment. *Strategic management journal*, *15*(8), 627-642.

Shar, P., & Mukhovi, S. M. (2019). Benefits of protected areas to adjacent communities: the case of Maasai Mara National Reserve in Kenya.

Shenkar, O. (2001). Cultural distance revisited: Towards a more rigorous conceptualization and measurement of cultural differences. *Journal of international business studies*, *32*(3), 519-535.

Sherif, C. W. (1973). Social distance as categorization of intergroup interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25*(3), 327–334. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0034232

Shi, D., Yi, B., Zhang, B., & Yu, D. (2022). Travelling to an unusual destination: Chinese tourists' preferences for visiting North Korea. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-17.

Shi, W., Tang, L., Zhang, X., Gao, Y., & Zhu, Y. (2016). How does word of mouth affect customer satisfaction?. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*.

Shin, S., Chung, N., Kang, D., & Koo, C. (2017). A test of the psychological distance effect for online travel reviews based on construal-level theory. *Asia Pac. J. Inf. Syst*, *27*(4), 216-232.

Signé, L. (2022). Keynote Address: Unlocking Africa's Potential in a Time of Competition between Rising and Global Powers.

Simonetto, A. (2012, May). Formative and reflective models to determine latent construct. In *46th scientific meeting of the italian statistical society* (pp. 1-4).

Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. *Tourism management*, *26*(6), 815-832.

Smallman, C., & Moore, K. (2010). Process Studies of Tourists' Decision-Making. *Annals of tourism research*, *37*(2), 397-422.

Smith, M. G., Witte, M., Rocha, S., & Basner, M. (2019). Effectiveness of incentives and follow-up on increasing survey response rates and participation in field studies. *BMC medical research methodology*, *19*(1), 1-13.

Smitten, J. (2019). Refining Your Qualitative Approach in Healthcare Simulation Research. In *Healthcare Simulation Research* (pp. 79-83). Springer, Cham.

Soderberg, C. K., Callahan, S. P., Kochersberger, A. O., Amit, E., & Ledgerwood, A. (2015). The effects of psychological distance on abstraction: Two meta-analyses. *Psychological bulletin*, *141*(3), 525.

Sousa, C. M., & Bradley, F. (2008). Cultural distance and psychic distance: refinements in conceptualisation and measurement. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *24*(5- 6), 467-488.

Stabler, M. J., Papatheodorou, A., & Sinclair, M. T. (2009). *The economics of tourism*. Routledge.

Statistics, L. (2015). Principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS Statistics. *Statistical tutorials and software guides*.

Stephan, E., Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (2010). Politeness and psychological distance: a construal level perspective. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *98*(2), 268.

Stephan, E., Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (2011). The effects of time perspective and level of construal on social distance. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, *47*(2), 397-402.

Stephan, W. G., Renfro, C., & Davis, M. D. (2008). The role of threat in intergroup relations.

Su, M. M., & Wall, G. (2010). Implications of host-guest interactions for tourists' travel behaviour and experiences. Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal, 58(1), 37-50.

Subedi, D. (2016). Explanatory sequential mixed method design as the third research community of knowledge claim. *American Journal of Educational Research*, *4*(7), 570-577.

Sun, Q., Liu, Y., Zhang, H., & Lu, J. (2017). Increased social distance makes people more risk-neutral. *The Journal of social psychology*, *157*(4), 502-512.

Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (2003). Consumer Behavior in Tourism. Burlington: MA.

Tabachnick, B. G., &Fidell, L. S. (2013). Using multivariate statistics: International edition. *Pearson2012*.

Taljaard, M., Chaudhry, S. H., Brehaut, J. C., Weijer, C., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2015). Mail merge can be used to create personalized questionnaires in complex surveys. *BMC research notes*, *8*(1), 1-6.

Tam, B. T. (2012). Application of contextual approach for measuring tourism destination attractiveness. *Journal of Science, 70*(1), 217-226.

Tan, N. & Liu, R., (2021). A Spatial Improved-kNN-Based Flood Inundation Risk Framework for Urban Tourism under Two Rainfall Scenarios. *Sustainability*, *13*(5), 2859.

Tan, S. K., Kung, S. F., &Luh, D. B. (2013). A model of 'creative experience'in creative tourism. *Annals of tourism research, 41*, 153-174.

Tan, W. K. (2017). Repeat visitation: A study from the perspective of leisure constraint, tourist experience, destination images, and experiential familiarity. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *6*(3), 233-242.

Tan, W. K. (2018). From fantasy to reality: a study of pre-trip planning from the perspective of destination image attributes and temporal psychological distance. *Service Business*, *12*(1), 65-84.

Tan, W. K. (2020). Destination selection: Influence of tourists' personality on perceived travel constraints. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *26*(4), 442-456.

Tan, W. K., & Wang, W. J. (2021). The application of information values and construal level theory for examining low cost carrier advertisements. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *90*, 101957.

Tan, Z., & Liu, Y. (2018). The influence of psychological distance on ambiguity decision making: A perspective based on the construal level theory. *Psychology*, *9*(05), 997.

Tang, L., & Jang, S. (2014). Information value and destination image: Investigating the moderating role of processing fluency. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *23*(7), 790-814.Tax (2013)

Taylor, H. L., Jacobs Jr, D. R., Schucker, B., Knudsen, J., Leon, A. S., & Debacker, G. (1978). A questionnaire for the assessment of leisure time physical activities. *Journal of chronic diseases*, *31*(12), 741-755.

Telegraph Travel (2018): https://www.telegraph.co.uk/travel/tours/ultimate-itineraries/

Theodorakis, I. G., & Painesis, G. (2018). The impact of psychological distance and construal level on consumers' responses to taboos in advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, *47*(2), 161-181.

Thompson, Debora and Rebecca Hamilton (2015), "The Effect of Information Processing Mode on Consumers' Responses to Comparative Advertising," *Journal of Consumer Research,* 32, 530-40.

Thyne, M., Watkins, L., & Yoshida, M. (2018). Resident perceptions of tourism: The role of social distance. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(2), 256-266.

Thyne, M., Watkins, L., & Yoshida, M. (2018). Resident perceptions of tourism: The role of social distance. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(2), 256-266.

Thyne, M., Woosnam, K. M., Watkins, L., & Ribeiro, M. A. (2022). Social distance between residents and tourists explained by residents' attitudes concerning tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, *61*(1), 150-169.

Trafimow, D. (2009). The theory of reasoned action: A case study of falsification in psychology. *Theory & Psychology*, *19*(4), 501-518.

Trautmann, S. T. (2019). Distance from a distance: the robustness of psychological distance effects. *Theory and Decision*, *87*(1), 1-15.

Trautmann, S. T., & van de Kuilen, G. (2012). Prospect theory or construal level theory?: Diminishing sensitivity vs. psychological distance in risky decisions. *Acta psychologica*, *139*(1), 254-260.;

Travers, C. J., Morisano, D., & Locke, E. A. (2015). Self-reflection, growth goals, and academic outcomes: A qualitative study. *British journal of educational psychology*, *85*(2), 224-241.

Tremblay, M. A. (1957). The key informant technique: A nonethnographic application. *American Anthropologist*, *59*(4), 688-701.

Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2003). Temporal construal. *Psychological review*, *110*(3), 403.

Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2010). Construal-level theory of psychological distance. *Psychological review*, *117*(2), 440.

Trope, Y., Liberman, N., &Wakslak, C. (2007). Construal levels and psychological distance: Effects on representation, prediction, evaluation, and behavior. *Journal of consumer psychology*, *17*(2), 83-95.

Tsourgiann.,Dahiya, K. S., & Batra, D. K. (2015). Tourist decision making: Exploring the destination choice criteria. *Asian Journal of Management Research*, *7*(2), 140-150.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of tourism research*, *17*(3), 432-448.

UNCTAD, 2017: unctad+2017+information+economy+report&oq=UNCTAD%2C 2017&aqs=chrome.4.69i57j0i512j0i22i30l5.22996j0j

UNEP-WCMC, IUCN and NGS (2018). Protected Planet Report 2018. UNEP-WCMC, IUCN and NGS: Cambridge UK; Gland, Switzerland; and Washington, D.C., USA.

UNWTO (2011). Tourism highlights (2013 Edition). https://tourlib.net/wto/WTO_highlights_2013.pdf

UNWTO, 2022: https://www.unwto.org/un-tourism-news-fitur-edition-2022:

Vallacher, R. R., & Wegner, D. M. (1989). Levels of personal agency: Individual variation in action identification. *Journal of Personality and Social psychology*, *57*(4), 660.

Van Acker, V., Van Wee, B., & Witlox, F. (2010). When transport geography meets social psychology: toward a conceptual model of travel behaviour. Transport Reviews, 30(2), 219-240.

Van Boven, L., Kane, J., McGraw, A. P., & Dale, J. (2010). Feeling close: emotional intensity reduces perceived psychological distance. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *98*(6), 872.

Van Lange, P. A., & Huckelba, A. L. (2021). Psychological distance: How to make climate change less abstract and closer to the self. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *42*, 49-53.

Van Vuuren, C., &Slabbert, E. (2011). Travel behavior of tourists to a South African holiday resort. *African Journal for Physical Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, *17*(si-1), 694-707.

Vargas-Sánchez, A. (2016). Exploring the concept of smart tourist destination. *Enlightening Tourism. A Pathmaking Journal*, *6*(2), 178-196.

Vengesayi, S. (2003). A conceptual model of tourism destination competitiveness and attractiveness.

Verma, R., Plaschka, G., & Louviere, J. J. (2002). Understanding customer choices: A key to successful management of hospitality services. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *43*(6), 15-24.

Verma, T., Rebelo, L., & Araújo, N. A. (2019). Impact of perceived distances on international tourism. *PloS one*, *14*(12), e0225315.

Wakslak, C. J., Nussbaum, S., Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (2008). Representations of the self in the near and distant future. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *95*(4), 757.

Walpole, M. J., & Thouless, C. R. (2005). Increasing the value of wildlife through non-consumptive use? Deconstructing the myths of ecotourism and community-based tourism in the tropics. *Conservation Biology Series-Cambridge-*, *9*, 122.

Walpole, M. J., Karanja, G., Sitati, N. W., & Leader-Williams, N. (2003). *Wildlife and people: Conflict and conversation in masai mara, kenya*. London: International Institute for Environment and Development.;

Wang, C., Zhang, J., Cao, J., Hu, H., & Yu, P. (2019). The influence of environmental background on tourists' environmentally responsible behaviour. *Journal of environmental management*, *231*, 804-810.Cao, J., Zhang, J., Wang, C., Hu, H., & Yu, P. (2020).

Wanjala, J. (2015). *Cultural factors influencing consumer choice for holiday destination among local tourists in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Waryszak, R. Z., & Kim, H. (1995). Psychographic segmentation of tourists as a predictor of their travel behaviour: an exploratory study of Korean tourists to Australia. Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 2(4), 5-19.

Watkins, L., & Yoshida, M. (2018). Resident perceptions of tourism: The role of social distance. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *20*(2), 256-266.

Wee-Kheng Tan, (2017). Repeat visitation: A study from the perspective of leisure constraint, tourist experience, destination images, and experiential familiarity. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *6*(3), 233-242.

Wee-Kheng Tan, (2019). The consequences of online information overload confusion in tourism.

Werner, C., & Schermelleh-Engel, K. (2009). Structural equation modeling: Advantages, challenges, and problems. *Introduction to structural equation modeling with LISREL*.

White, K., (2011). It's the mind-set that matters: The role of construal level and message framing in influencing consumer efficacy and conservation behaviors. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *48*(3), 472-485.

White, K., MacDonnell, R., & Dahl, D. W. (2011). It's the mind-set that matters: The role of construal level and message framing in influencing consumer efficacy and conservation behaviors. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *48*(3), 472-485.

White, K., MacDonnell, R., & Dahl, D. W. (2011). It's the mind-set that matters: The role of construal level and message framing in influencing consumer efficacy and conservation behaviors. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *48*(3), 472-485.

White, N. R., & White, P. B. (2007). Home and away: Tourists in a connected world. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *34*(1), 88-104.

Whitehead, A. L., Sully, B. G., & Campbell, M. J. (2014). Pilot and feasibility studies: is there a difference from each other and from a randomised controlled trial?. *Contemporary clinical trials*, *38*(1), 130-133.

Williams, L. E., &Bargh, J. A. (2008). Keeping one's distance: The influence of spatial distance cues on affect and evaluation. *Psychological Science*, *19*(3), 302-308.

Wilson, J., Crisp, C. B., & Mortensen, M. (2013). Extending construal-level theory to distributed groups: Understanding the effects of virtuality. *Organization Science*, *24*(2), 629-644.

Wilson, R. ,Zwickle, A., Bruskotter, J. T., & Singh, A. S., (2017). The perceived psychological distance of climate change impacts and its influence on support for adaptation policy. *Environmental Science & Policy*, *73*, 93-99.

Wong, J. C., Yang, J. Z., & Liu, Z. (2022). It's the Thoughts That Count: How Psychological Distance and Affect Heuristic Influence Support for Aid Response Measures During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Health Communication*, 1-9.

Wong, J., Goh, Q. Y., Tan, Z., Lie, S. A., Tay, Y. C., Ng, S. Y., & Soh, C. R. (2020). Preparing for a COVID-19 pandemic: a review of operating room outbreak response measures in a large tertiary hospital in Singapore. *Canadian Journal of Anesthesia/Journal canadien d'anesthésie*, *67*(6), 732-745.

Wong, S., & Lau, E. (2001). Understanding the behavior of Hong Kong Chinese tourists on group tour packages. *Journal of travel research*, *40*(1), 57-67.

World Travel Awards (2020): https://www.worldtravelawards.com/

Woyo, E., & Slabbert, E. (2021). Tourism destination competitiveness: a view from suppliers operating in a country with political challenges. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, *24*(1), 3717.

Wright, T. A., & Sweeney, D. A. (2016). The call for an increased role of replication, extension, and mixed-methods study designs in organizational research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *37*(3), 480-486.

Wu, B., (2018). How country image affects tourists' destination evaluations: A moderated mediation approach. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *42*(6), 904-930.

Wu, H. C., Cheng, C. C., & Ai, C. H. (2018). A study of experiential quality, experiential value, trust, corporate reputation, experiential satisfaction and behavioral intentions for cruise tourists: The case of Hong Kong. *Tourism management*, *66*, 200-220.

Wu, L., Zhang, J., & Fujiwara, A. (2011). Representing tourists' heterogeneous choices of destination and travel party with an integrated latent class and nested logit model. *Tourism Management*, *32*(6), 1407-1413.

Xu, J. B., Yan, L., & Pratt, S. (2022). Destination image recovery with tourism mascots. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *25*, 100732.

Xu, M., Kim, S., & Reijnders, S. (2020). From food to feet: Analysing A Bite of China as food-based destination image. *Tourist Studies*, *20*(2), 145-165.

Yan, G., So, S. I., Morrison, A. M., & Sun, Y. H. (2007). Activity segmentation of the international heritage tourism market to Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *12*(4), 333-347.

Yang, Y., & Wong, K. K. (2012). A spatial econometric approach to model spillover effects in tourism flows. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(6), 768-778.

Yiamjanya and Wongleede(2016). Tourist decision making: Exploring the destination choice criteria. *Asian Journal of Management Research*, *7*(2), 140-150.

Yu, C. H. (2009). Book review: Creswell, J., & Plano Clark, V.(2007). Designing and conducting mixed methods research. Thousand oaks, CA: sage. *Organizational Research Methods*, *12*(4), 801-804.;

Yudkin, D. A., Pick, R., Hur, E. Y., Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (2019). Psychological distance promotes exploration in search of a global maximum. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *45*(6), 893-906.

Zauberman, G., & Lynch Jr, J. G. (2005). Resource slack and propensity to discount delayed investments of time versus money. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *134*(1), 23.

Żemła, M. (2016). Tourism destination: The networking approach. *Moravian Geographical Reports*, *24*(4), 2-14.

Zhang, Y., Li, X. R., &Su, Q. (2017). Does spatial layout matter to theme park tourism

Žukauskas, P., Vveinhardt, J., &Andriukaitienė, R. (2018). Philosophy and paradigm of scientific research. *Management Culture and Corporate Social Responsibility*, *121*.

Zygmunt B., (2013). *The individualized society*. John Wiley & Sons.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Introduction Letter

ASHIOYA BELINDA (SBE/DPHIL/003/09)
P.O Box 861,
Narok.

Dear Respondent,

RE: DATA COLLECTION

I am a student at Moi University, Pursuing the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the School of Tourism Hospitality and Event Management. I am currently conducting a study on theeffect of psychological distance on tourists' decision-making process among tourists visiting the Maasai Mara National Reserve.

Kindly do not write your name on the questionnaire. The information given will be treated as confidential. Please tick on the squares against the response that best describes your views and opinion in regard to the statement. You are requested to be very objective in providing your response. Kindly, note that this research is being done for academic purposes only.

Thanks in advance.

Yours Faithfully,

ASHIOYA BELINDA (SBE/DPHIL/003/09)

Appendix II: Tourists Questionnaire

SECTION ONE: PERSONAL DETAILS

Please Provide Your Personal Details under this Section by ticking in the appropriate space (√)

i. Please indicate your Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
ii. What is your nationality?
……..

ii) Please indicate your Age bracket

18- 29 years [ ] 30 – 39 years [ ] 40 – 49 years [ ] 50 years and above

iii) Please indicate your marital status

Single [ ] Married [ ] Others (Specify) _____

iv) Please indicate your education background

Basic [ ] High School [ ] Midlevel College [ ] Bachelors [ ] others (specify) _____

v) How did you get to Know about the Maasai Mara? Through:

Advertisement [ ]publicity [ ]friends and family [ ]a campaign with giveaways[ ]exhibitions[ ]

SECTION TWO: SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

This section provides statement items defining the specific objectives which are based on the four constructs of the study; that is temporal, special, social distances and destination choice by the tourists visiting the Maasi Mara National Reserve. The statements are designed on a 5Likert scale as shown.

Objective One: Effect of Temporal Distance on Destination Choice

This section has eleven statement items defining the relationship between temporal distance and destination choice among tourists visiting the MMNR. You are requested to give your personal views on the level of agreement based on the 5Likert scale provided. Where 1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Moderately Agree, 4 - Agree , 5 – Strongly Agree

	Statement items	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	I engaged in the following activities to bring the time of trip closer					
2	Purchasing the travel ticket much earlier					

3	At the time of the ticket purchase I pictured Maasai Mara as a reserve of wonders					
4	Delaying booking believing that future outcomes could be dealt with later					
5	Avoiding a feeling of changing my mind after purchase of the travel ticket.					
6	Engaging in behavior with important distant consequences					
7	Perceiving that the trip time had reached by purchasing ticket.					
8	Focusing on immediate concerns and figuring that the future shall take care of itself					
9	Adopting behavior influenced by immediate outcomes of my actions					
10	Focusing on specific outcomes that are more important to me					
11	Experiencing no difficulties at all in deciding to purchase the ticket					

(i) Explain any difficulties that you experienced while deciding to travel to the Mara……
……
……
……
……

(ii) After you had made your decision did you require any more information to help you in your preparations?
……
……
……
……
……
……

(iii) What was your biggest challenge as you prepared to travel to the Mara?
……
……
……
……
…….

(iv) What do you feel about your travel schedule? ...
……
.

Objective Two: Effect of Spatial Distance on Destination Choice of Tourists

This section has nine statement items that seek to assess the effect of spatial distance on destination choice of tourists visiting the MMNR. You are requested to give your opinion on the various statements on the level of agreement based on the 5Likert scale provided. Where 1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Moderately Agree, 4 -Agree, 5 – Strongly Agree

	The Geographical Distance was made shorter by...	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	The reserves cultural attractiveness					
2	The recreational attractiveness					
3	Safety conditions					
4	The attractive nature of this reserve					
5	The variety of wild animals					
6	The reserves natural beauty					
7	The pleasant experience I anticipated to have in this location					
8	The enjoyment I expected to have					
9	The interesting activities on offer					

(i) What did you think when you considered the distance between your home country and the Mara?

……
……
……
……
……

(ii) How did you manage to make arrangements for such matters as hotel accommodation?

……
……
……
……
……

(iii) Are the activities in availed to you meeting your expectations?

……
……
……
……
……

(iv) Is everything going as per plan?

……
……
……
……
……
……

(v) Now that you are here do you wish that somehow you could reschedule your itinerary?

……
……
……
……
……

Objective Three: Effect of Social Distance on Tourists Destination Choice

This section has eleven statement items that seek to define the relationship between social distance and tourist's destination choice. You are requested to provide your opinion based on the fiveLikert scale to indicate the level of your agreement based on the following levels. 1-Not Comfortable at All ; 2- Some How Comfortable ; 3- Moderately Comfortable ; 4- Comfortable and 5- Very Comfortable

	Statement items	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	Sitting beside locals when watching wildebeest migration					
2	Having locals as friends					
3	Sharing a game drive with locals around the reserve					
4	Having to share hotel rooms with locals					
5	Sitting beside locals while bird watching					
6	Having locals take your photos					
7	Seeing locals in large groups walking around the reserve					
8	Having to walk around with locals in the reserve					
9	Taking photos with locals					
10	Sitting beside locals inside a hot air balloon					
11	Inviting locals for dinner					

(i) What can you say about the similarities and differences between you culture and the one at the Mara?

……

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

Dependent Variable: Tourists Decision-Making

Please give your opinion based on the scale provided on the level of importance regarding the statements items and destination making process. 1- Not Important At All; 2- Not Important; 3 – Somehow Important; 4- Important and 5- Very Important.

	Factors of importance in tourists' decision-making	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1	Safety of the destination					
2	Beauty of natural setting					
3	Affordability					
4	Expectation of witnessing wildebeest migration					
5	Pleasant climate					
6	Interesting friendly local people					
7	Good quality accommodation					
8	Good quality tourist service					
9	Interesting cultural heritage					
10	Famous reserve					

(i) Is it difficult to make the decision to travel?

……
……
……
……

(ii) What are some of the challenges that you encounter while making such a decision?

……
……
……
……

……
……

(iii) Generally, what do you think can be done about the advertisements so you're your future experiences here can be even better?

……
……
……
……
……

THANK YOU

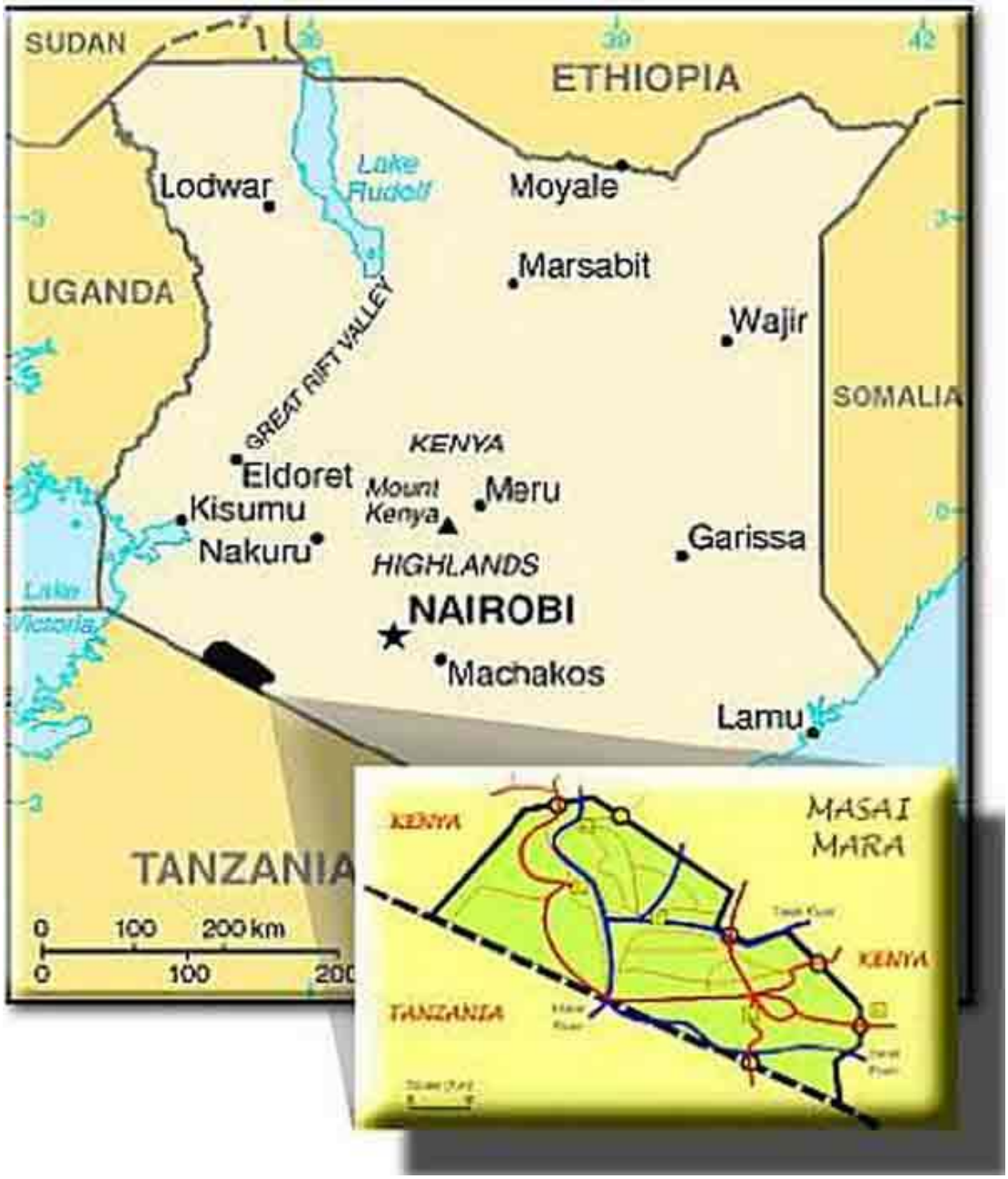
Appendix III: Interview Schedule for Hotel Managers

SERIAL NO…….. DATE …….. TIME ……..

1. What is your training background?
   This question is aimed at helping to determine sensitivity to business decisions made by themselves or other entities; given that tourism is a business
2. Which are your main sources of tourists?
   This question aimed at establishing that the tourism business in the Mara relies on international visitors
3. How much command do you have over the marketing presentations that go out to the source markets about the destination?
   This question assesses the involvement of the managers in the marketing programs
4. In your view do these presentations consider timing; for example the time between the time the tourist expected to make a decision and the time they are expected to travel?
   This question was aimed determining if the marketing presentations consider temporal distance.
5. In your view do the presentations paint a vivid picture of the Mara?
   The question is aimed at finding out if the presentations portray how the Mara really is and what actually takes place there.
6. Do these communications then seem to take into account the physical distance between the source markets and the Mara?
   This question is supposed to determine if spatial distance is considered in the presentations
7. Do you think the presentations consider the differences between the cultures of the tourists and that of the locals?
   This question is intended to reveal if social distance is considered during marketing presentations to the source markets.

THANK YOU

Appendix IV: A Map of Maasai Mara Game Reserve



Appendix V: Research Permit from NACOSTI

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MS. BELINDA ASHIOYA KISIA
of MOI UNIVERSITY, 0-20500 Narok,has
been permitted to conduct research in
Narok County

on the topic: *INCORPORATING CONSTRUAL LEVEL THEORY IN THE TOURIST CONSUMER DECISION MODEL FOR THE TOURISTS VISITING THE MAASAI MARA NATIONAL RESERVE*

for the period ending:
11th February,2018

.....
Applicant's Signature

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/17/51177/14430
Date Of Issue : 13th February,2017
Fee Recieved :Ksh 2000

.....
Director General
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officer will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2) hard copies and one (1) soft copy of your final report.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

RESEACH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No.A 12795

CONDITIONS: see back page

Appendix VI: Letter from NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone:+254-20-2213471,
2241349,3310571,2219420
Fax:+254-20-318245,318249
Email:dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
when replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No. **NACOSTI/P/17/51177/14430**

Date: **13th February, 2017**

Belinda Ashioya Kisia
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900-30100
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"Incorporating Construal Level Theory in the Tourist Consumer Decision Model for the tourists visiting the Maasai Mara National Reserve,"*** I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Narok County** for the period ending **11th February, 2018.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Narok County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Narok County.

The County Director of Education
Narok County.

Appendix VII: Letter from the County Government of Narok

COUNTY GOVERNMENT OF NAROK
DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM AND WILDLIFE

County Headquarters
Mau-Narok Road, Narok Town
P.O Box 898 -20500
Narok, Kenya.

Tel: 020 26888929
Direct Line: 020 2688903
Email:ictdpt@gmail.com
Website: www.narok.go.ke

When Replying Quote:

NCG/MIN/T/W/VOL.1/65

DATE: 19TH September 2016

To.

BELINDA ASHIOYA KISIA
MASAAI MARA UNIVERSITY
P.O BOX 861
NAROK.

RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

This is to inform you that your application to conduct research at the Mara National reserve have been considered.

You will begin your study as from November 2016 for a period of three months, you are required to cater for your accommodation while in the field you are also asked to lias with our officers at the Mara meanwhile provide a copy of your proposal to the Mara office.

Kindly abide with the Park rules and regulations.
I wish you well in your research study.

COUNTY GOVERNMENT OF NAROK
CHIEF OFFICER
19 SEP 2016
TOURISM & WILDLIFE
P.O. BOX 500, NAROK.

AGNES KIU
CHIEF OFFICER
TOURISM AND WILDLIFE

Appendix VIII: Letter from The University

MOI UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF TOURISM, HOSPITALITY AND EVENTS MANAGEMENT
DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Telephone 0208001263
Fax No. (053) 43047
Telex No. **MOIVARSITY** 35047
Email: mudot@mu.ac.ke

Box 3900
ELDORET
Kenya

Our Ref: MU/TC/TOU/MTM/33

8th August 2016

The Executive Secretary
National Commission for Science,
Technology and Innovation
P O Box 30623 - 00100
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: APPLICATION FOR A RESEARCH PERMIT – BELINDA ASHIOYA KISIA – SBE/D.PHIL/003/09

Reference is made to the above named who is applying to the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation for a Research Permit.

Ms. Kisia is a student at Moi University undertaking a Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D) degree in Tourism Management in the School of Tourism, Hospitality and Events Management. She has completed defending her Research Proposal titled ***"Incorporating Construal Level Theory in the Tourist Consumer Decision Model for the Tourists visiting the Maasai Mara National Reserve."***

Any assistance accorded to her will be highly appreciated by this institution.

Yours faithfully

HEAD, DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT
MOI UNIVERSITY
P.O. BOX 3900 ELDORET 30100

DR. BEATRICE IMBAYA
HEAD, DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT
BI/wra

Appendix IX: Sample Size Determination Table

Table 3.1

Table for Determining Sample Size of a Known Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	1000000	384

Note: N is Population Size; S is Sample Size *Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970*

Appendix X: Star-Rated Lodges in MMNR

1. Neptune Mara Rianta Luxury Camp
2. Olarro Plains
3. AA lodge Maasai Mara
4. Mara Leisure Camp
5. Azure Mara Haven
6. Fig Tree Camp
7. Mara Ngeche Safari Camp
8. Keekorok Lodge
9. Olare Mara Kempinski
10. Sarova Mara Game Camp
11. Mara Chui Eco resort
12. Osero Lodge
13. andBeyond Bateleur Camp
14. Governor's Il Moran Camp
15. Il Moran Lodge
16. Ngerende in the Wild
17. Angama Mara
18. Mara Explorer Camp
19. Sanctuary Olonana
20. and Beyond KichwaTembo
21. Elewana Sand River
22. Entumoto Safari Camp
23. Mara Interpids Safari Camp
24. Maji Moto Eco Camp
25. Base Mara Camp
26. Karen Blixen Camp
27. Kandili Camp

28. Julia's River Camp
29. Royal Mara Safari lodge
30. Mara Eden Safari Camp
31. Mara Crossings Camp
32. Losokwan Camp
33. Zebra Plains Mara Camp
34. Mara Bush Tops Luxury Camp
35. Ngerende Island Lodge
36. MahaliMzuri
37. Fairmont Mara Safari Club
38. Serena Safari Lodge

Appendix XI: Publications

Title: AN INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL DISTANCE ON TOURIST DECISION-MAKING PROCESS: A CASE OF TOURISTS VISITING THE MAASAI MARA NATIONAL GAME RESERVE has been published as indicated below.

International Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Review eISSN: 2395-7654, Vol 8, No 1, 2021, pp 51-61 https://doi.org/10.18510/ijthr.2021.814
Link to download: https://giapjournals.com/ijthr/article/view/ijthr.2021.814

Title: EVALUATING THE EFFECT OF TEMPORAL DISTANCE ON TOURISTS' DECISION-MAKING PROCESS has been published as indicated below:

Journal of Tourism Management Research ;2021 Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 117-126.
ISSN(e): 2313-4178 ;ISSN(p): 2408-9117 ; DOI: 10.18488/journal.31.2021.82.117.126
© 2021 Conscientia Beam. All Rights Reserved.
Link to download: https://archive.conscientiabeam.com/index.php/31/article/view/2890