



The role of perceived ethics in the decision-making process for responsible tourism using an extended model of goal-directed behavior

Myung Ja Kim* · Joo Yeon Park* · Choong-Ki Lee** · Jin Young Chung***

College of Hotel & Tourism Management, Kyung Hee University, Seoul 02447, Republic of Korea

Department of Tourism Management, Kyung Hee University, Seoul 02447, Republic of Korea

College of Hotel & Tourism Management, Kyung Hee University, Seoul 02447, Republic of Korea

Division of International Business, Incheon National University, Incheon 22012, Republic of Korea



The purpose of this study is to examine the decision-making process for responsible tourism (RT) using a theoretical framework of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior (MGB). Because ethics is essential to protect the natural environment, respect the local culture, and benefit local communities that are significantly important for RT, this study also investigates the role of perceived ethics in the decision-making processes of responsible tourists by incorporating the three ethics into the original MGB. A quota sampling method was employed based on gender, age, and residential district, and the data were analyzed using a partial least squares-structural equation modeling approach. Results suggest that perceived ethics (economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concerns) has a significant effect on attitudes toward, desire for, and behavioral intention to participate in RT. Subjective norms and anticipated emotions have significant impacts on the desire for RT, and perceived behavioral control over RT also influences both desire and behavioral intention. In particular, desire is an important antecedent in predicting behavioral intention of responsible tourists. This study contributes to extending knowledge of responsible tourist behavior and identifies the significant role of perceived ethics in RT. Further, this study provides managerial implications to RT stakeholders (e.g., locals, tourism businesses, tourists).

Key words: Perceived ethics, Responsible tourism, Desire, Behavioral intention, Model of goal-directed behavior

1. Introduction

Today people are increasingly concerned about the socio-cultural, economic, and environmental impact of tourism, which leads to extensive discussions about traveling responsibly and sharing travel benefits with local communities. This emerging form of tourism or another way of traveling (i.e., protocol) is called responsible tourism (RT). Following a notion of social responsibility, ethics is essential to RT because its goal is to create better

places for residents to live and better places for tourists to visit by protecting the environment, respecting local cultures, benefiting local communities, reducing pollution, and enhancing experiences (Caruana et al., 2014, Goodwin & Francis, 2003).

RT is conceptually similar to sustainable tourism, ethical tourism, ecotourism, and other forms of socially conscious tourism practices (Caruana et al., 2014). However, RT suggests that priority should be given to local people in creating better places and improving the quality of life (Responsible Travel, 2015). Moreover, RT minimizes environmental problems, so it can help remedy the negative environmental impacts created by both tourists and the tourism industry (Responsible Travel, 2015). Recent studies on RT focus on attitudes and behavior (e.g., Frey & George, 2010), practical application (e.g., Mihalic, 2016), and tourists' perceptions (Caruana et al., 2014; Grimwood

† (Corresponding author) Assistant professor, College of Hotel & Tourism Management, Kyung Hee University, e-mail: silver@khu.ac.kr

* Graduate student, Department of Tourism, Kyung Hee University, e-mail: jparrot@naver.com

** Professor, College of Hotel & Tourism Management, Kyung Hee University, e-mail: cklee@khu.ac.kr

*** Assistant professor, Division of International Business, Incheon National University, e-mail: jchung@inu.ac.kr

et al., 2015). Similarly, ethics and attitudes about environmental concerns (Spash, 1997), perceived values, ethics, attitudes toward sustainability (Manning, Valliere, & Minter, 1999), and climate change (Rossen, Dunlop, & Lawrence, 2015) have been major topics in past studies about sustainable tourism. With regard to ethical tourism, ethical tourism education (Tribe, 2002), characteristics of responsible tourists (Goodwin & Francis, 2003), and the role of hedonism (Malone, McCabe, & Smith, 2014) have been discussed in the literature.

Despite the recent popularity of RT in practice (e.g., UNWTO Global Code of Ethics for Tourism), what makes individuals likely to travel responsibly is still under-researched in the literature (UNWTO, 2015). Thus, a theoretical framework to comprehend the antecedents of responsible tourist behavior needs to be developed and further empirically tested to better understand how to get people more interested in preserving local culture and heritage, protecting environmental resources, and supporting local economies. Furthermore, studies on RT have been extensively conducted on ethics (Tribe, 2002), social responsibility (Frey & George, 2010), and ethical consumption (Goodwin & Francis, 2003). In recent years, researchers have been widely interested in RT, particularly from the social psychological perspective (Caruana et al., 2014; Grimwood et al., 2015; Lee & Jan, 2015; Malone et al., 2014; McCombes, Vanclay, & Evers, 2015; Mihalic, 2016). Nonetheless, there have been very few studies on responsible tourists' decision making process with perceived ethics using the Model of Goal-directed Behavior (MGB). In this respect, the purpose of this study is to predict behavioral intention of responsible tourists using the extended MGB (EMGB).

To fill the gap between what is practiced and what is in the literature, this study first conceptualized the dimensions of perceived ethics in relation to responsible tourism because ethics is believed to be one of the underlying factors affecting socially responsible behavior (e.g., Goodwin & Francis, 2003). Then the structural relationships among the antecedents of responsible tourist behavior were empirically tested. In this study, one of the frequently cited psychological theories, the Model of

Goal-directed Behavior (MGB) was employed as a theoretical framework. The MGB suggests that attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and positive/negative anticipated emotions are associated with desire, which in turn affects behavioral intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Accordingly, attitudes, desire, and behavioral intention for RT were measured in this study and the structural model fit indices were evaluated.

The findings of this study will contribute to the body of knowledge by identifying the role of perceived ethics in RT. Also, the MGB can be broadened and deepened because the inclusion of the new variable of perceived ethics provides more explanatory power than the original model, and the model is extended to the new setting of RT. The present study also provides managerial implications to RT stakeholders including tourism businesses, local communities, destination marketing organizations, and governments.

II. Literature review

1. Responsible tourism

As briefly discussed earlier, RT indicates a certain type of tourism that has an objective of minimizing negative social, economic, and environmental impacts, which is intimately consistent with what sustainable tourism, ethical tourism, and ecotourism direct toward. RT is defined as "making better places for people to live in and better places for people to visit, requiring that operators, hoteliers, governments, local people, and tourists take responsibility and action to make tourism more sustainable" (Responsible Tourism Partnership, 2015, p. 1). From a contemporary perspective on philosophy and ethics, the theory of justice primarily involves fairness in the notion of social justice and the means to maximize rewards for the disadvantaged (Rawls, 1971). Rawls (1985) proposed a theory of justice that explains justice as fairness. Based on Rawls' concept of fairness, RT has been established in tourism research and practice (Korea Tourism Organization, 2011). RT has become an emerging market as consumer trends related to

this lifestyle and ethical consumption spread to tourism (Goodwin & Francis, 2003). Since a more responsible form of tourism was envisioned by some scholars in the 1980s (e.g., Krippendorf, 1987), RT has been one of the most significant examples of sustainable tourism (Bramwell et al., 2008; Sörensson & von Friedrichs, 2013).

Responsibility encompasses both an individual behavioral dimension (i.e., having a duty to deal with something or of having control over someone) and an ethical dimension (i.e., a moral obligation to behave correctly towards or in respect of) (Oxford English Dictionary, 2016). Literally, RT directs our attention to individuals' actions, which are determined by others to be right or wrong (Blackstock et al., 2008). Tribe (2002) accordingly argues that ethical actions based tourism (i.e., ethical tourism) would be a subset of RT and is used to signify a more general approach than sustainable tourism. As ethics rapidly becomes a mainstay of tourism studies and industries, ethical considerations and matters underpin the idea of RT (Fennell & Malloy, 2007). Honey and Stewart (2002) suggest that responsible travel to natural areas conserves the environment and enhances the welfare of residents. Ecotourism involves socially responsible and environmentally protective tourism, which is a growing in interest (d'Amore, 1993).

In recent years, researchers have documented RT in terms of responsible management intention (Frey & George, 2010), corporate social responsibility (Mihalic, 2016), tourist identities (Caruana et al., 2014), ethical consumption (Malone et al., 2014), and touristic norms (Grimwood et al., 2015). Despite positive attitudes toward RT management, resource constraints negatively influence the relationship between businesses' goals and what actually is achieved (Frey & George, 2010). A well-integrated responsibility-sustainability model comprising the three stages of awareness, agenda, and action can provide insight into continuously implementing more economic, environmental, and socio-cultural value-driven RT (Mihalic, 2016).

Tourists' perceptions of RT are delineated according to the extent to which they display inner- versus outer-directed goals and the degree of involvement in RT as a cultural

identity (Caruana et al., 2014). According to Malone et al. (2014), hedonism plays a role in rationalizing and reinforcing current and intended ethical behavior because emotionally charged experiences are powerful motivators of tourists' ethical choices. Grimwood et al. (2015) exemplify the power of responsibility in tourism to normalize particular types of truth, dismiss the existence of others, and highlight social privilege and disenfranchisement.

Furthermore, a high level of environmental knowledge is associated with a stronger environmental sensitivity, which, in turn, is associated with stronger environmentally responsible behavior toward tourism destination by tourists (Cheng & Wu, 2015). RT makes more enjoyable experiences for tourists through more meaningful connections with local people as well as a greater understanding of local, cultural, social, and environmental issues (McCombes et al., 2015). Pro-environmental activities, ecotourism experiences, and interpretations of environmental issues enhance tourists' environmental attitudes and site-specific environmentally responsible behavior, thereby reducing adverse environmental effects (Lee & Jan, 2015). Although altruistic motivations are related to the greatest commitment to and investment in RT initiatives, economic benefits appear to be the most attractive exogenous driver of change that pushes people to take up RT practices (Carasuk, Becken, & Hughey, 2016). Therefore, this study aims to investigate individuals' behavioral intention to participate in RT.

2. Perceived ethics

Aristotle argues that ethical aims are "living well and eudaimonia," a Greek word that is interpreted as "well-being, happiness, or human flourishing" (Irwin, 1999, p. 15). Perceived ethics is defined as "a set of concepts and principles that guide us in determining what behavior helps or harms sentient creatures" (Paul & Elder, 2005, p. 2). Ethical judgments are "either individually or culturally specific so what is right for one person or society is not necessarily right for another" (Fennell & Malloy, 1999, p. 931). Using an ethical theory of deontology and teleology with a locus of analysis constructs, Malloy and Fennell (1998a) suggest emerging socio-cultural,

economic, and environmental codes of ethics and tourism for ecological, socio-cultural, and economic categories. According to Payne and Dimanche (1996), there are four areas of tourism ethics: local environments, community needs and characteristics, fairness in employment, and special attention to target tourists.

Specifically, encouraging people to become involved in nature experiences develops conservation ethics related to ecotourism (Beaumont, 2001). Virtue ethics offers potential for supplementing existing theories of rightness and obligation in sustainable tourism as well as for conceptualizing the meaning of good tourism (Jamal, 2004). Environmental ethics is concerned with the collective action of humans towards nature, including the extent of human moral obligation to the environment (Holden, 2005). As in sustainable tourism, ecotourism, and pro-poor tourism, RT emphasizes ethics that include fairness, equity, and justice for disadvantaged local groups, including poor, minority, and indigenous populations (Jamal & Camargo, 2014).

Recently, Goodwin and Francis (2003) have advocated ethical guidelines of RT to conserve the environment, esteem local cultures, advantage local communities, save natural resources, and decrease pollution. Travelers' ethical intention for RT differs with respect to their perceived levels of environmental, economic, and socio-cultural ethics (Cho, Cho, & Lee, 2012). Tearfund (2002) has suggested the following ethical codes for responsible tourists: read about the cultural, social, and political background of the place and people the tourists are visiting; be equipped with basic words and phrases in the local language; buy local products and services; pay a fair price for goods or services; be sensitive to the local culture; request permission when taking photographs of people or of individuals' homes; avoid conspicuous displays of wealth; make no promises to local people that you cannot keep; minimize your environmental impact; and slow down to enjoy the differences.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2015) has presented global codes of ethics for tourism: contributing to mutual understanding and respect; acting as a vehicle for fulfillment; considering sustainable

development; becoming a contributor to the cultural heritage enhancement; performing beneficial activities for host communities; awareness of the obligations of stakeholders; the right to tourism; the liberty of tourist movements; and the rights of workers and entrepreneurs. As the ecotourism industry grows, the need for ethical conduct in economic and socio-cultural perspectives becomes increasingly important for ecotourism to survive and prosper (Malloy & Fennell, 1998b). Perceived ethics regarding the environment is deterministic to the balance of the tourism-environment relationship because environmental concern has a greater influence in sustainable tourism (Holden, 2009). Perceived ethics related to ecotourism resources is important since more people than ever flock to the seemingly nature-friendly activities of birding, hiking, and backpacking (Krakoff, 2003). In line with the aforementioned literature, perceived ethics in this study is composed of economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concerns as a formative construct.

3. MGB and EMGB

From a social psychology perspective, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) has been a paradigm for the estimation of behavioral intention based on the three constructs of attitude, subjective norms, and behavioral intention, which were derived from the theory of attitude (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) includes perceived behavioral control in the TRA, which increases the predictive power of the TRA (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen & Driver, 1992). The MGB expands the TPB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) by including desire as an essential mediator and incorporating the effects of anticipated emotions as a form of forward-looking counterfactual thinking for goals (Taylor, 2007). The MGB accounts for a larger proportion of variance in intention and instrumental behavior than the TPB does (Leone, Perugini, & Ercolani, 2004).

Building on the MGB, Perugini and Conner (2000) propose the EMGB by including two additional variables, goal desirability and goal feasibility, which have been

recognized as central to representing goal-directed behaviors. The EMGB is the most comprehensive model because it provides additional ladders over the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). The EMGB is superior to the original MGB because it better predicts tourists' behavioral intention (Lee et al., 2012; Richetin et al., 2008). The EMGB is related to the utilitarian notion that individuals act because they would ultimately like to accomplish certain goals, which vary from the solid goals described above to higher-level end goals, for example, getting recognition and social status (Farag & Lyons, 2010).

In recent years, the EMGB has been extensively documented in various disciplines. For example, Dijst, Farag, and Schwanen (2008) found that travel behavior was reasonably well-explained by the EMGB in comparison to two competing models. By incorporating goal-perceived feasibility and eavesdropping, the EMGB shows that older respondents had a lower intention than younger respondents to have a conversation over a mobile phone when travelling by train (Tillema, Schwanen, & Dijst, 2009). By including perceptions of responsible gambling strategy, the EMGB reveals that desire had the strongest relationship with casino visitors' intention to gamble, followed by positive anticipated emotion in the responsible gambling context (Song et al., 2012b). Using the EMGB (incorporating experience and involvement towards wine tourism) results in better understanding wine tourists' intention to participate in a tour (Lee, Bruwer, & Song, 2015). According the EMGB (including knowledge and social embeddedness), airline consumers' level of knowledge of sustainable consumption influences intention to participate in UNICEF's Change for Good and voluntary carbon offsetting programs (Kim, Yun, & Lee, 2014). Another study based on the EMGB (i.e., including two vital constructs in bicycle tourism - environmental connectedness and environmental behavior) demonstrated that the decision-making process for bike travel is highly explained (Meng & Han, 2016). In this respect, the EMGB would best fit this study setting, and be expected to theoretically contribute to broadening the knowledge of RT by incorporating perceived ethics.

Tourism scholars have demonstrated the predictive power of the EMGB for environmentally-friendly festival

visitors (Song et al., 2012a), oriental medicine festival visitors (Song, You, Reisinger, Lee, & Lee, 2014), and senior users of mobile devices (Kim & Preis, 2016). Song et al. (2012a) add three concepts of perceived customer effectiveness, environmental concerns, and environmentally-friendly tourism behaviors, which form significant causal relationships with desire. Song et al. (2014) incorporate two constructs of oriental medicine images of festival sites and the perception of oriental medicine, resulting in significant relationships with attitude toward attending a festival. Kim and Preis (2016) include three constructs of usefulness, enjoyment, and prior knowledge, which have a positive impact on seniors' attitude that influences desire and behavioral intention toward the use of mobile devices. Based on the literature, this study utilizes the EMGB to examine behavioral intention toward RT by incorporating perceived ethics (i.e., economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concern).

4. Hypothesis development

Relationship between perceived ethics and attitude. Attitude is defined as "the degree to which the person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the behavior in question" (Ajzen & Driver, 1992, p. 208). Behavioral beliefs influence attitudes toward a behavior because attitude develops from the beliefs individuals hold about the object (Ajzen, 1991). With regard to ethics and attitude, environmentally concerned individuals are more likely to answer positively with regard to environmental goods and services, implying that perceived ethics influences attitude (Spash, 1997). Manning et al. (1999) find that environmental concern explains roughly 60% of the variation for attitudes toward national forest administration, indicating that environmental concern has an effect on attitude. Additionally, a value orientation has a more unique contribution to attitude toward an organization and measured outcomes compared with a compliance orientation, implying that ethics is closely related to attitude (Weaver & Treviño, 1999). Moreover, EMGB research has shown that airline consumers' knowledge of sustainable concerns significantly influences their attitudes towards

participation in voluntary carbon offsetting and UNICEF's Change for Good (Kim et al., 2014). In line with the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₁: Perceived ethics has a positive influence on attitude toward RT.

Relationship between perceived ethics and desire. Desire is defined as "the motivational state of mind wherein appraisals and reasons to act are transformed into a motivation to do so" (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001, p. 86). In the decision-making process, desire mediates between attitude, subjective norms, anticipated emotions, and perceived behavioral control as well as behavioral intention (Leone et al., 2004). From a philosophical ethics perspective, moral judgments are closely related to desire-like states of mind (Eriksson, 2014). Climate change skepticism, which is primarily found among right-wingers, is predicted not only by morality aimed at maintaining the social classes but also individually by morality concerned on the right to liberty, implying that individuals' perceived ethics affects their desire toward certain behavior (Rossen et al., 2015). Moreover, the two moral constructs of lower binding and higher individualizing have been shown to predict the desire for Scottish independence, showing that perceived ethics is associated with desire (Lewis & Brown, 2015). In addition, environmental ethics has a significant effect on environmental behaviors, which in turn influence desires for bicycle travel as a leisure-time choice in the EMGB (Meng & Han, 2016). Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₂: Perceived ethics has a positive influence on desire toward RT.

Relationship between perceived ethics and behavioral intention. Individual behavioral intention is highly determined by positive estimations of the behavior in question and the perception which significant referents think that one should perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, anticipated emotions, and desire influence actual behavior through the formation of behavioral intention (Kim et al., 2012). Regarding ethics and behavioral intention, individual

ethical tendencies have been found to be indicators of the behavioral intention to implement cloud computing (Ratten, 2013). If a behavior is judged as being ethical, people are more likely to have an intention to perform the behavior, whereas if a behavior is judged as being unethical, people are less likely to have an intention to become involved in the behavior (Nguyen & Biderman, 2008). In addition, a perceived ethical value is related to a number of employee outcomes, along with ethical awareness, employee integrity and commitment, and inclination to deliver bad news, indicating that perceived ethics is related to behavioral intention (Weaver & Treviño, 1999). For example, responsible gambling norms have a positive effect on behavioral intentions for responsible gambling in the EMGB (Song et al., 2012b). Based on the literature review above, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₃: Perceived ethics has a positive influence on behavioral intention toward RT.

Relationship between attitude and desire. The relationship between attitude and desire has been found to be significantly related to each other in the contexts of regulation and effort (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Perugini & Conner, 2000) and overseas travel (Kim et al., 2012). The EMGB has showed that attitude is also associated with desire (Perugini & Conner, 2000). For example, attitude toward bodyweight regulation positively influences the desire to diet, and attitude toward study effort highly influences the desire to study (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). In a mud festival, people's attitude toward visiting the festival affects their desire to visit the festival (Song et al., 2012a). Additionally, attitude toward wine tourism has a positive influence on desire to participate in a wine tour using the EMGB (Lee et al., 2015). As for environmental perceptions of bicycle travelers, attitude significantly influences desire to travel by bike in the near future according to the EMGB (Meng & Han, 2016). Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₄: Attitude has a positive influence on desire toward RT.

Relationship between subjective norms and desire. A subjective norm is defined as "the perceived social pressure

to perform or not to perform [a] behavior” (Ajzen & Driver, 1992, p. 208). Normative beliefs are composed of the underlying antecedents of subjective norms by which significant referent people or groups approve or disapprove the performance of a given behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Based on two studies on regulation and effort, both subjective norms have significant effects on the desire to act (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Subjective norms have a significant effect on desire in the MGB with regard to a software training program (Leone et al., 2004). In addition, subjective norms have a significant impact on desire to shop for media products (books, music, and DVDs) online and in-store in the EMGB, which helps explain consumer behavior (Dijst et al., 2008). Subjective norms significantly influence desire to participate in voluntary carbon offsetting programs to protect the environment (Kim et al., 2014). In line with the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₅: Subjective norms have a positive influence on desire toward RT.

Relationship between anticipated emotions and desire. Anticipated emotions are defined as a specific form of counterfactuals, called prefactuals, that are hypothesized to affect the desire to perform a given action (Perugini & Conner, 2000). Positive and negative anticipated emotions are dynamic, self-regulatory, and based on contingent appraisals of the consequences of alternative outcomes, which are the predicted affective consequences of failure and success rather than on solid evaluations (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). Positive anticipated emotion has been found to have a positive effect on desire in the context of drinking fizzy soft drinks (Richetin et al., 2008). In the context of using a bicycle for daily travel necessities, positive anticipated emotion has a positive impact on desire to use a bicycle in a big city (Passafaro et al., 2014). In the context of responsible gambling, negative anticipated emotion has a positive effect on desire to participate in casino gambling in the EMGB (Song et al., 2012b). In addition, negative anticipated emotion has been found to positively and significantly influence desire in the context of studying efforts (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Positive

and negative anticipated emotions highly influence the desire to visit an oriental medicine festival (Song et al., 2014). Based on the literature review, the following hypotheses are formulated:

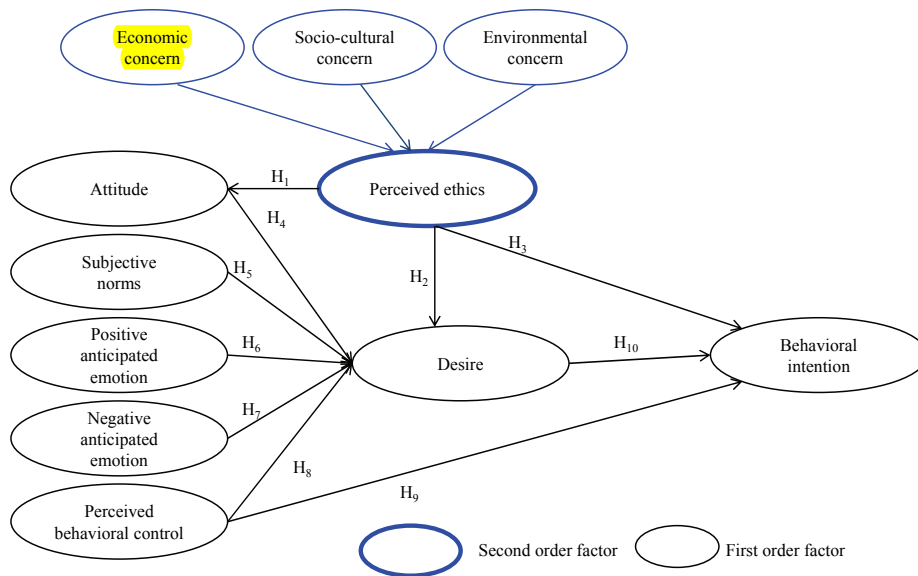
H₆: Positive anticipated emotion has a positive influence on desire toward RT.

H₇: Negative anticipated emotion has a positive influence on desire toward RT.

Relationships among perceived behavioral control, desire, and behavioral intention. Perceived behavioral control is defined as “the perceived ease or difficulty of performing a [sic] behavior and it is assumed to reflect past experience as well as anticipated impediments and obstacles” (Ajzen & Driver, 1992, p. 208). Control beliefs enhance perceived power for perceived behavioral control, which is also posited to have a direct influence on behavior to the extent that it corresponds to actual behavioral control (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). Perceived behavioral control has a significant effect on desire in the context of dieting and studying (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004) and senior tourism (Kim & Preis, 2016). Additionally, perceived behavioral control was found to have a positive effect on behavioral intention in terms of a mud festival (Song et al., 2012a) and an oriental medicine festival (Song et al., 2014). In the context of mobile device usage for tourism by seniors, perceived behavioral control has significant effects on desire and behavioral intention to continuously use the devices for tourism products and services (Kim & Preis, 2016). In environmental perceptions of bicycle travelers’ decision-making process, perceived behavioral control has a significant effect on desire to travel by bike (Meng & Han, 2016). With regard to responsible gambling, perceived behavioral control has a positive impact on behavioral intention to participate in casino gambling in the near future (Song et al., 2012b). Based on the literature, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H₈: Perceived behavioral control has a positive influence on desire toward RT.

H₉: Perceived behavioral control has a positive influence on behavioral intention toward RT.



Note: Blue lines are formative indicators and black lines are reflective indicators

Figure 1. Proposed research model

Relationship between desire and behavioral intention. Desire provides energizing and transformative roles for the determinants of decision making and represents the most proximal determinant of intention so that desire precedes intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). In the context of overseas travel, desire for international tours highly and positively impacts the behavioral intention to travel internationally (Kim et al., 2012). In the context of a mud festival, desire has a significant effect on the behavioral intention to revisit the festival (Song et al., 2012a). In addition, the desire to revisit an oriental medicine festival has an effect on the behavioral intention to revisit the festival (Song et al., 2014). Furthermore, the desire to adopt mobile devices for travel products and services has a positive impact on the behavioral intention to use the devices for tourism (Kim & Preis, 2016). In the context of travelling by train, desire has a significant effect on behavioral intention to use mobile phones for conversations or short message services (Tillema et al., 2009). Based on the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₁₀: Desire has a positive influence on behavioral

intention toward RT.

Based on the literature review above, a research model is proposed to investigate the relationships among perceived ethics, attitude, subjective norms, anticipated emotions, perceived behavioral control, desire, and behavioral intention to RT (see Figure 1).

III. Methodology

1. Measurement

A list of measurement instruments was generated from the literature pertaining to RT and MGB. All constructs were measured with multiple-item perceptual scales employing pre-validated instruments from prior literature and were reworded to fit the context of RT when necessary. Specifically, a variable of economic concern was composed of four items adapted from research by Cho et al. (2012). To measure socio-cultural concern, four items were adapted from research conducted by the UNWTO (2015). Five items were adapted from prior research (Goodwin & Francis, 2003) to measure environmental concern. To

measure attitude, five items were adapted from previous research (Ajzen & Driver, 1992).

To measure subjective norms, four items were adapted from previous research by Ajzen (1991). To measure positive anticipated emotion, four items were adapted from research by Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). To measure negative anticipated emotion, four items were adapted from previous research (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). To measure perceived behavioral control, five items were derived from previous literature (Perugini & Conner, 2000). Desire was measured using four items adapted from research by Kim et al. (2012). Four items were adapted from prior research (Song, et al., 2014) to measure behavioral intention. All of the items were measured on 5-point Likert scales ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Six items pertaining to socio-demographics were included in this study.

The questionnaire was first written in English, and then the researchers, who were proficient in both languages, translated it into Korean. Next, Korean scholars who were fluent in both languages compared the Korean version with the original version to verify any discrepancies between them. No translation bias was observed, but some items were somewhat reworded to fit this study. For content validity, two academic professionals in tourism related to RT and MGB were asked to appraise whether these items were appropriate to measure RT. Then, we asked five Ph.D. candidates in the area of tourism to evaluate these items in the context of RT. A pilot test was conducted to seven RT industry managers to evaluate whether these items were suitable. On the basis of their comments, we slightly revised some of the measurement items and finalized the questionnaire. A pretest was then administered to 20 individuals who had experienced RT by asking whether the items were easy to understand. Several items that were related to economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concern were reworded to be easier to understand. Through these procedures, three items were deleted (i.e., one item each of subjective norms, negative anticipated emotion, and desire), resulting in a total of 40 items.

2. Data collection

In this study, an online survey was employed to collect the data. Quite a few previous studies have demonstrated that an online survey is able to efficiently reach a broad population of consumers with similar interests because the Internet facilitates the collection of rapid and cost-effective responses from online users (Kim, Chung, & Lee, 2011).

The study by Kang and Moscardo (2006) indicates that age and gender significantly influence attitudes toward responsible tourist behavior, resulting in differences in individuals' perceptions of responsible tourist behavior. Kim and Weiler (2013) show that respondents in the high environmental attitude group were more likely to be older and female, whereas the low environmental attitude group are more likely to be younger and male. Age and gender also have different impacts on supporters for management policies related to specific responsible environmental behavior (i.e., not climbing cliffs and removing beach litter) (Kim, 2012). Accordingly, in this study, a quota sampling method was employed using residential district, gender, and age over 20 years old based on the Korean Statistical Information Service (2015).

Macromill Embrain (www.embrain.com), a highly ranked Internet survey firm in Korea, was employed to collect the data. This online survey firm adopts rigorous procedures. First, each respondent is cross-checked by using their real names and membership identification. Second, based on the online system of the survey company, the data are collected to increase survey validity. The firm deletes respondents who complete the questionnaire faster than the standard time required. Because online surveys are conducted on the Internet through self-reporting without any interviewers, there might be some insincere respondents who just want a reward (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2008). They may spend less time answering the survey than other respondents, and a significant difference may exist in the answers for that group (Embrain, 2016). These responses are deleted from the data set. Third, a rotational function is used for multiple-choice items, showing that each respondent has a different series of questions to reduce response bias. Fourth, respondents are automatically

warned before proceeding to the next page if multiple-choice questions are answered by clicking the same number repeatedly. Finally, each respondent is traced by his or her real name and membership identification to prevent panel members from participating in similar surveys for a certain time period.

The online survey was administered over one-week period from April 22 to April 29, 2015. A complicated structural equation model normally requires approximately 500 samples for analysis (Hair et al., 2006; Stevens, 2009). To secure the required sample, the online survey firm randomly sent an email to 10,000 members (20 years old and over) from the survey firm's national database of 1,080,933 panel members using a quota sampling method. Of those who were sent the messages, a total of 1,511 panel members actually opened the e-mail invitation for the survey. Of the 1,511 panel members who opened the invitation, 673 respondents completely finished the survey, generating a response rate of 44.5%. All 673 questionnaires were used for the analysis since no outliers and missing data were found (Hair et al., 2006).

3. Data analysis

Utilizing a component-based approach, partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to analyze the data in this study. PLS-SEM has been broadly used in theory testing and confirmation. This approach is also appropriate to examine whether relationships exist and to suggest useful propositions for further testing (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003). Applying a principal component analysis by multiple regression employing an ordinary least square, the PLS-SEM method estimates the total variance and evaluates factors as simple linear combinations (composites) of the items (Chin et al., 2003).

PLS-SEM is better applicable to a complex model than traditional SEMs (Hair et al., 2012). In particular, complex models comprising formative (causal) and reflective (consequent) constructs are now common in behavioral research, but they are often misspecified in covariance-based SEMs, resulting in erroneous tests (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). PLS-SEM is suitable for a research model with both

reflective (first order) and formative indicators (second order) (Hair et al., 2006; Kline, 2011). Furthermore, a bootstrap re-sampling process using the PLS approach is performed when data do not meet the standards of multivariate normality (Chin et al., 2003; Stevens, 2009).

This study has three reasons for using PLS-SEM to analyze the data. First, the research model of this study is quite complex and complicated with 12 constructs and 10 hypotheses. Second, formative and reflective indicators are included in this study. Third, the data of this study do not meet the standards of multivariate normality. Thus, SmartPLS software 3.2.3 was used to analyze the structural model as well as the measurement model (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2016).

To minimize common method bias, we took precautions using several procedural remedies that counterbalance or offset each of these specific effects (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). First, introduction in the survey included statements assuring respondents of anonymity and a description of the general purpose of the study. Second, questions were presented with mixed orders so that the questions pertaining to the same dimension would not be presented adjacent to each other. Third, to decrease the respondents' apprehension, we stated that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions. Fourth, to ensure response validity, the definition of RT was provided at the beginning of the survey questionnaire, along with illustrations of responsible travel. Fifth, the survey consisted of three sections: the first section included general information, the second section included measurement items related to the research model, and the third section included personal questions on demographic characters. Finally, we rotated the sequence of the survey items so that every respondent received the survey items in different sequences.

As a statistical test for common method bias, Harman's single factor test was performed to confirm whether the data had common method variance or not (Podsakoff et al., 2003). All of the self-reported items were entered into an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). If a single factor emerges or one factor accounts for more than 50% of the variance in the variables, common method variance is present. The

EFA results showed that six factors appeared, with the major factor accounting for 41.36% of the variance. We also conducted another test, one with seven factors specified and another with only one factor specified (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995). If method variance is a significant problem, a simple model (i.e., single factor model) should fit to the data as well as a more complex model (e.g., the hypothesized model). The hypothesized model yielded a better fit to the data than the simple model. Further, the hypothesized model over the simple model was statistically significant; for example, the difference in the Chi-square statistics between the single factor model and the hypothesized model was significant ($\chi^2(4726.8)/df(23)=205.5, p<.001$). Accordingly, these two statistical tests provide evidence that common method bias was not a threat in this study.

IV. Results

1. Profile of the respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents closely matched the proportions of the population in terms of residential district, gender and age as indicated by the Korean Statistical Information Service (2015). As shown in Table 1, a total of 49.8% of all respondents accounted for male, while females constituted 50.2% of the respondents. Of the respondents, 23.0% were aged 60 and over, followed by those aged 40-49 (21.2%), 50-59 (20.1%), 30-39 (18.9%), and 20-29 (16.8%). Respondents who had attended universities and earned university degrees accounted for 61.4% of the total respondents, followed by middle school and high school educational levels (21.1%) and college-level education (17.5%). Married respondents (66.0%) outnumbered those who were single (32.1%), divorced (10.0%), and other (.4%). Almost half of the respondents (48.8%) reported a monthly income larger than 4 million Korean won (US\$1 is equivalent to 1,138 Korean won). Office workers accounted for 28.1% of the sample, followed by homemakers (18.9%), professional/technician (15.3%), and business persons/self-employed (9.4%).

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of respondents

Characteristics	N(673)	%(100)
Gender		
Male	335	49.8
Female	338	50.2
Age		
20 - 29	113	16.8
30 - 39	127	18.9
40 - 49	143	21.2
50 - 59	135	20.1
60 and over	155	23.0
Educational level		
Middle/high school	142	21.1
College	118	17.5
University	343	51.0
Graduate school	70	10.4
Marital status		
Single	216	32.1
Married	444	66.0
Divorced	10	1.5
Other	3	.4
Monthly household income		
Less than 2.00 million KRW*	97	14.4
2.00 - 3.99 million KRW	248	36.8
4.00 - 5.99 million KRW	203	30.2
6.00 - 7.99 million KRW	78	11.6
8.00 and over million KRW	47	7.0
Occupation		
Professional/technician	103	15.3
Business person/self-employed	63	9.4
Service worker	49	7.3
Office worker	190	28.1
Civil servant	22	3.3
Home maker	127	18.9
Student	61	9.1
Retiree	21	3.1
Other	37	5.5

Note: * US\$1=1,138 KRW (Korean Won)

2. Measurement model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the measurement model by dropping items that shared high degrees of residual variance with other items (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992; Babin & Boles, 1998). As a result of this process, six items were dropped, and the remaining 34 items were used for the analysis (see Table 2). Also, we performed a Chi-square test for differences between the original CFA model and amended CFA models. Significant differences

were found between the original CFA model with 40 items and amended CFA model with 34 items ($\chi^2(968.88)/df(213)=4.549$, $p<.05$). The results indicate that the hypothesized model, containing 34 indicators, yielded a better fit to the data than the original model of containing 40 indicators. Therefore, we excluded the six items based on the CFA result in order to significantly improve the research model. The measurement model was evaluated to validate

all constructs in the research model.

Validity assessments in terms of reliability, convergent, and discriminant were performed. As shown in Table 3, the Cronbach's α of each construct was greater than .70, indicating internal consistency and validating the reliability (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Furthermore, convergent validity was confirmed since each factor loading and composite reliability (CR) of the constructs were greater than .70, and

Table 2. Results of confirmatory factor analysis

Factor	Item	Factor loading
Economic concern	1. While traveling, eating at local restaurants contributes to the local economy.	.878
	2. While traveling, buying local products economically helps the local people.	.881
	3. While traveling, staying in local accommodations contributes to the regional economy.	.811
Socio-cultural concern	1. While traveling, the traditional culture of locals should be respected.	.851
	2. While traveling, when taking photos of local people, their consent should be obtained in advance.	.842
	3. While traveling, unethical behaviors (e.g., prostitution, child labor, sweatshop labor) should not be conducted.	.861
Environmental concern	1. While traveling, walking or cycling to reduce CO ₂ emission helps to protect the environment.	.842
	2. While traveling, reducing disposable products (e.g., plastic knives, forks, spoons or Styrofoam cups) contributes to the protection of the environment.	.872
	3. While traveling, conserving natural resources (e.g., electricity, water) contributes to the protection of the environment.	.867
Attitude	1. RT is an affirmative behavior.	.857
	2. RT is a beneficial behavior.	.863
	3. RT is a valuable behavior.	.850
	4. RT is an essential behavior.	.856
	5. RT is a legitimate behavior.	.852
Subjective norms	1. Most people who are close to me agree with my participation in RT.	.919
	2. Most people who are close to me support my participation in RT.	.939
	3. Most people who are close to me understand my participation in RT.	.902
Positive anticipated emotion	1. If I participate in RT, I will be excited.	.858
	2. If I participate in RT, I will be glad.	.900
	3. If I participate in RT, I will be happy.	.891
	4. If I participate in RT, I will be satisfied.	.857
Negative anticipated emotion	1. If I fail to participate in RT, I will be disappointed.	.930
	2. If I fail to participate in RT, I will be sad.	.887
	3. If I fail to participate in RT, I will be sorry.	.864
Perceived behavior control	1. I am financially able to participate in RT.	.808
	2. I have enough time to participate in RT.	.881
	3. I have an opportunity to participate in RT.	.888
Desire	1. I hope to participate in RT.	.856
	2. I am eager to participate in RT.	.927
	3. I am enthusiastic in my desire to participate in RT.	.900
Behavioral intention	1. I will participate in RT.	.843
	2. I am willing to participate in RT.	.894
	3. I will attempt to participate in RT.	.881
	4. I intend to invest time and money to participate in RT.	.859

Note: Seven items from the initial measurements were deleted after conducting the factor analysis

Table 3. Reliability and discriminant validity

Construct	α	CR	AVE	Correlation of the constructs									
				(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)		
(1) Perceived ethics	.881	.888	.514	.717									
(2) Attitude	.911	.934	.738	.714	.859								
(3) Subjective norms	.909	.943	.846	.613	.743	.920							
(4) Positive anticipated emotion	.899	.930	.768	.526	.634	.590	.876						
(5) Negative anticipated emotion	.875	.923	.800	.136	.230	.256	.450	.894					
(6) Perceived behavioral control	.823	.895	.739	.242	.209	.317	.406	.395	.860				
(7) Desire	.875	.923	.801	.448	.540	.563	.719	.529	.480	.895			
(8) Behavioral intention	.890	.924	.752	.447	.555	.561	.694	.491	.491	.855	.867		
Mean				4.148	4.145	4.033	3.756	2.962	3.393	4.160	3.643		
Standard deviation				.493	.567	.592	.610	.760	.747	.567	.649		

Note: All boldfaced diagonal elements appearing in the correlation of the constructs matrix indicate the square roots of AVEs.

α =Cronbach's α ; CR=Composite reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted

each average variance extracted (AVE) of all constructs was greater than .5 (Hair et al., 2006). Discriminant validity was also confirmed because the square root of the AVE for each construct was larger than each correlation coefficient (Bhattacharjee & Sanford, 2006).

Formative indicator is a variable measuring an assumed cause of or a component of a latent construct that is possible to vary independently of, or even inversely with, one another as a composite construct (i.e., second order factor) (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Moreover, a formative measurement theory is modeled based on the assumption that the measured variables cause the construct as indices where each indicator is a cause of the construct (Hair et al., 2006). It is also possible to represent either reflective or formative measurement without the strict identification requirement for estimating composites in PLS-SEM (Chin, 1998). This formative approach also allows identifying the multitude of attributes, including specific dimensions in the tourism field (Ahrholdt, Gudergan, & Ringle, 2017). Therefore, in this study, perceived ethics is measured as a formative construct of a composite factor, including three dimensions. Accordingly, the average values of sub-constructs (i.e., economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concern) were used as indicators for the formative construct as a second-order factor (i.e., perceived ethics).

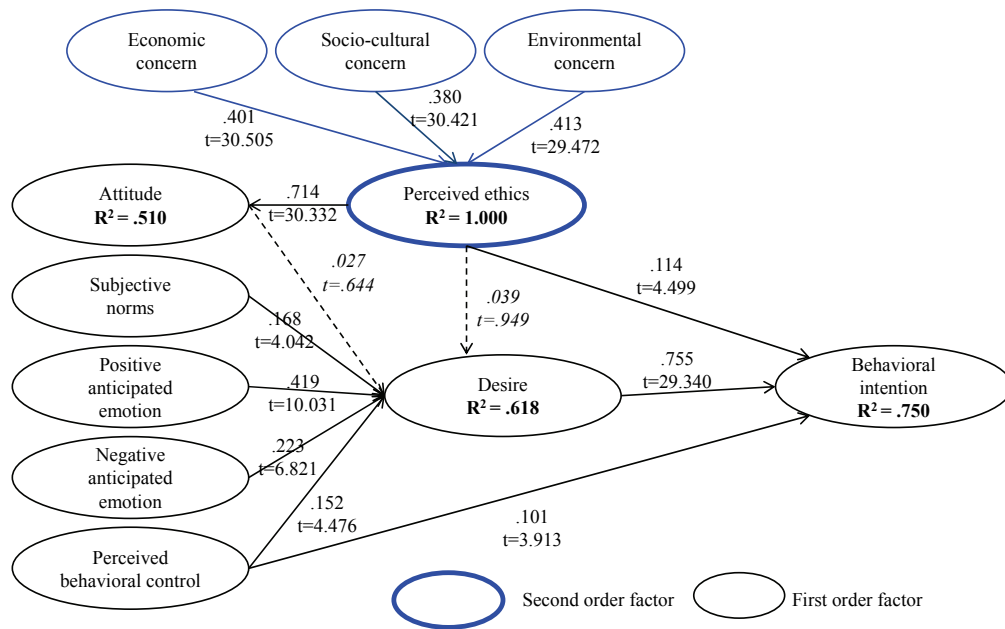
To verify the validity of the formative construct, this study examined item weights that could be explained as beta (β) coefficients by a standard regression (Kuan & Bock, 2007). Figure 2 shows the weights as well as

t-statistics for the formative construct. Each indicator weight of the formative construct had significant t-statistics.

3. Structural model

Using the PLS-SEM, the proposed research model was evaluated. R^2 was calculated for perceived ethics, attitude, desire, and behavioral intention to RT to estimate the predictive power of the research model (see Figure 2). R^2 indicates the sum of variance represented by the exogenous variables that are interpreted in a similar manner as the multiple regression results (Hair et al., 2006). The path estimates as well as t-statistics were calculated for the proposed relationships using a bootstrapping technique (Stevens, 2009). To evaluate the pattern of statistics' sampling distributions, bootstrapping is a non-parametric approach that involves large numbers of re-sampling (Chin et al., 2003). To estimate whether the impacts were significant, a bootstrap re-sampling process was conducted. Bootstrapping of 1,000 re-samples indicated satisfaction of all paths, weights, and loadings at $p < .05$, with the exception of H_4 (Hair et al., 2012; Henseler et al., 2014). The results are shown in Table 4.

As shown in Figure 2 and Table 4, perceived ethics has significant effects on attitude ($\beta = .714$, $t\text{-value} = 30.332$, $p < .001$) and behavioral intention ($\beta = .114$, $t\text{-value} = 4.499$, $p < .001$). Therefore, H_1 and H_3 are supported. Desire is significantly influenced by subjective norms ($\beta = .168$,



Note: Blue lines are formative indicators and black lines are reflective indicators

Figure 2. Results of the estimated research model

Table 4. Standardized structural estimates and tests of the hypotheses

Hypothesis	Path	Estimate	t-value	p-value	Result
H ₁	Perceived ethics → Attitude	.714	30.322	<.001	Supported
H ₂	Perceived ethics → Desire	.039	.949	n.s.	Not supported
H ₃	Perceived ethics → Behavioral intention	.114	4.499	<.001	Supported
H ₄	Attitude → Desire	.027	.644	n.s.	Not supported
H ₅	Subjective norms → Desire	.168	4.042	<.001	Supported
H ₆	Positive anticipated emotion → Desire	.419	10.031	<.001	Supported
H ₇	Negative anticipated emotion → Desire	.223	6.821	<.001	Supported
H ₈	Perceived behavioral control → Desire	.152	4.476	<.001	Supported
H ₉	Perceived behavioral control → Behavioral intention	.101	3.913	<.001	Supported
H ₁₀	Desire → Behavioral intention	.755	29.340	<.001	Supported
Formative indicators	Economic concern → Perceived ethics	.401	30.505	<.001	
	Socio-cultural concern → Perceived ethics	.380	30.421	<.001	
	Environmental concern → Perceived ethics	.413	29.472	<.001	
R ² : Coefficient of determination (variance explained)					
Perceived ethics: 100.0%; Attitude: 51.0%; Desire: 61.8%; Behavioral intention: 75.0%					

Note: n.s.=Non significant

t-value=4.042, p<.001), positive anticipated emotion (β =.419, t-value=10.031, p<.001), and negative anticipated emotion (β =.223, t-value=6.821, p<.001). Therefore, H₅, H₆, and H₇ are supported. Perceived behavioral control has

a positive impact on desire (β =.152, t-value=4.476, p<.001) and behavioral intention (β =.101, t-value=3.913, p<.001), supporting H₈ and H₉. Behavioral intention is significantly affected by desire (β =.755, t-value=29.340,

$p < .001$), supporting H_{10} . In addition, perceived ethics is significantly influenced by economic concern ($\beta = .401$, $t\text{-value} = 30.505$, $p < .001$), socio-cultural concern ($\beta = .380$, $t\text{-value} = 30.421$, $p < .001$), and environmental concern ($\beta = .413$, $t\text{-value} = 29.472$, $p < .001$). However, perceived ethics ($\beta = .039$, $t\text{-value} = .949$, $p < .05$) and attitude ($\beta = .027$, $t\text{-value} = .644$, $p < .05$) have insignificant effects on desire, thus rejecting H_2 and H_4 .

V. Conclusion and implications

Since the responsible travel movement began more than thirty years ago, RT has been perceived as alternative tourism that can benefit locals, tourism businesses, and tourists (Responsible Travel, 2015). This study dealt with the factors that would lead people to travel responsibly, and particularly, focused on how the ethics perceived by responsible tourist is associated with their behavior. To this end, this study developed a theoretical framework of the EMGB to examine the antecedents of responsible tourist behavior as well as to identify the role of ethics in RT.

Results suggest that perceived ethics has a positive impact on attitude and behavioral intention in the context of RT. Perceived ethics was found to be multidimensional, including environmental, economic, and socio-cultural concern. Subjective norms and positive as well as negative anticipated emotions have significant and positive effects on desire for RT. Perceived behavioral control has a significant and positive effect on desire and behavioral intention as well, which is consistent with findings in previous studies (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Song et al., 2012a). Additionally, desire had a greater effect on behavioral intention toward RT than any other variables (Song et al., 2014); that is, desire plays a significant role as a mediator between subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, emotions, and behavioral intention to RT. This finding indicates that the concept of desire is of importance to increase behavioral intention to participate in responsible tourism.

1. Theoretical implications

This study theoretically contributes to the body of knowledge about RT by identifying the multi-dimension of ethics, which is important to RT. That is, this study found that perceived ethics is composed of three different dimensions (economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concern) and plays an important role in responsible tourist behavior. Therefore, this study contributes to deepening our knowledge of ethics associated with RT. As Jamal and Camargo (2014) pointed out, few studies have attempted to examine the relationship between ethics and sustainability-based tourism, including RT, so the concept of ethics should be discussed more seriously in the literature on RT.

From the theory-development perspective, the present study can also contribute to deepening and broadening the original theory of MGB (Manning et al., 1999; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Rossen et al., 2015; Weaver & Treviño, 1999). This study broadened the original MGB by introducing the new concept of ethics in RT and deepened it by discovering new relationships between variables in the model. Findings of this study help extend the theory of MGB to the new area of RT.

Additionally, the explanatory power of approximately 74.8% of the variation suggests that the EMGB developed in this study is a powerful framework for predicting the antecedents of responsible tourist behavior. Contrary to our expectation, perceived ethics has an insignificant effect on desire. This might be attributable to the fact that economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concerns are not associated with volitions as desires whereas ethics is more closely related to attitude and behavioral intention to RT. In addition, attitude does not have a positive effect on desire for RT. This finding might be attributable to the fact that RT has many cognitive issues (e.g., economic, socio-cultural, environmental concern) rather than affective features of attitude associated with desire. Also, it could be possible that the relationship between attitude and desire fades away because of the strong relationship between perceived ethics and attitude.

In sum, currently ethical factors are becoming more important in RT than ever before (Goodwin & Francis,

2003). In this respect, this study is the first to develop the theoretical framework of the augmented model with the EMGB by incorporating perceived ethics for traveling responsibly. In particular, this study applied the formative construct for perceived ethics with the three dimensions of economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concerns. Accordingly, this study contributes to extending ethics to multi-dimensions. Moreover, perceived ethics is closely associated with a concern for ecotourism and environmental resources (Krakoff, 2003). Consequently, this research is a cornerstone of testing the role of environmental concern as a formative indicator for perceived ethics in RT because the results of this study revealed that environmental concern was a highly significant factor of perceived ethics for RT.

2. Practical implications

The findings provide several practical contributions for locals, tourism businesses, and tourists. For examples, it is important for locals and tourism businesses to foster the perceived ethics of tourists to enhance attitude and behavioral intention toward RT. Considering the strong influence of environmental concern, local residents and tourism marketers may need to promote environmental experiences to responsible tourists (e.g., using local services, walking/cycling rather than taking a motor vehicle, and participating in local events or activities). Additionally, tourism marketers can emphasize that purchasing local products, eating at local restaurants, and staying in local accommodations benefit local residents, thereby evoking economic concern of responsible tourists.

The highest relationship between perceived ethics and attitude implies that tourism stakeholders should reinforce perceived ethics for their affirmative, beneficial, valuable, essential, and legitimate attitude toward RT. Also, the finding on the significant relationship between perceived ethics and behavioral intention suggests that RT stakeholders should promote tourists' economic, socio-cultural, and environmental concern for them to participate in RT. The significant impact of subject norms on desire also suggests that tourism practitioners should encourage the advocates of RT to promote RT by word of mouth both

offline and online (such as using social media). This could help increase desire, which in turn affects the behavioral intention toward RT.

The significant relationship between positive anticipated emotion and desire suggests that tourism marketers need to make tourists feel positive, excited, and happy about traveling responsibly. Perceived behavioral control was found to be closely related to desire for and behavioral intention toward RT. Tourism marketers may need to understand that the desire for and intention toward RT are dependent on tourists' volitional control, such as sufficient money, time, or opportunities, when choosing and promoting a target market. Thus, tourism marketers may need to promote RT so that individuals have a desire for RT because behavioral intention can be predicted by the desire for RT. Tourism marketers should encourage tourists to be enthusiastic in their desire to participate in RT.

In addition, local governments and the tourism industry could develop educational programs and interpretive services related to the ethics of RT, which would motivate people to travel responsibly. For instance, an educational program hosted by an interpretive guide may address socio-cultural concerns, including respecting traditional culture in local communities, obtaining local people's consent before taking photos of them, and not practicing unethical behaviors (e.g., prostitution, exploitation of child labor and sweatshop labor). Additionally, these programs can promote environmental concern, including walking or cycling to reduce CO₂ emissions, reducing disposable products (e.g., plastic knives, forks, and spoons or Styrofoam cups), and conserving natural resources (e.g., electricity, water).

With regard to practical implications for RT stakeholders, the RT components make superior products and services that can attract tourists to purchase. For example, the RT product can have particular advantages with many ethical factors (economic, socio-cultural, and environmental). RT managers may benefit by emphasizing ethics, and environmental experience in particular, since ethics positively influences attitude and behavioral intention for responsible tourists. Accordingly, RT vacations that offer particularly high quality engagement with local communities and environments can

enhance environmental experiences as a growing sector of the tourism market. Furthermore, global threats of climate change, degradation of natural resources, and significant socio-economic inequalities are forcing companies and individuals to reevaluate the importance of and the impacts on the natural, social, and economic environments (Frey & George, 2010). Therefore, implementing ethical RT provides more benefits to both tourists and residents by preserving natural, social, and economic environments.

3. Limitations and future research directions

Like other studies, the current study has some limitations that might provide directions for future research. Future study would apply this research model to other contexts to confirm the generalizability of the results of this study. In addition, future study should conduct multi-group analysis to examine potential differences in RT between groups with low and high levels of perceived ethics. Such research would help researchers to more explicitly understand behavioral intention to travel responsibly in terms of the degree of perceived ethics. Third, it is also suggested that future study can further extend the MGB by adding constructs, such as prosocial behavior, ethical judgement, and the benefits of RT, to better understand of antecedents of RT.

This study includes both respondents who had experienced (39.4%) and non-experienced RT (60.6%). In order to provide more insightful implications to the tourism industry, future study may need to take the differences between people who have experienced and those who have never experienced RT into account. Survey respondents of this study were given some visual information (e.g., 13 pictures and cartons related to RT) prior to the survey, and approximately one-fourth of them had some prior knowledge on RT (23.5%) and 70.3% of all respondents had experienced some types of responsible consumption including fair trade. Accordingly, it is recommended that future studies include only those who have prior knowledge on RT, have ever experienced RT, and/or have participated in responsibility-related consumption.

Although an online survey may have some advantages

over other survey methods, it has also several concerns (Evans & Mathur, 2005; Ilieva, Baron, & Healey, 2002; Wright, 2005).

First, it is questionable whether the sample collected from the online survey could represent the study population: in other words, the online survey is less coverage than any other survey methods (e.g., face to face, telephone, mail surveys) (Lee, Kim, & Mjelde, 2016). Second, a response rate of online surveys is relatively low as compared to other survey methods (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Third, a significant disadvantage of online surveys is related to the confidentiality of the survey participants: mail or paper surveys give respondents the choice of being anonymous, whereas emails always disclose the sender's identity (Ilieva et al., 2002). Therefore, future research may employ other survey methods to compare them with online survey in RT.

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