



# **Tourism Planning and Destination Marketing, 2nd Edition**

This book twins the topics of tourism planning and destination marketing in a unique way that delivers great value to practitioners, scholars, and students. Drawing upon case studies and other research from around the globe, it is a must-read source for all those with a serious interest in destination management. This innovative text strikes a good balance between the positive and negative impacts of tourism and provides up-to-date insights for those involved with hotels, events, restaurants, spas and well-being, enterprise digitalization, and other aspects of the sector.

–Prof Alastair M. Morrison, PhD, Research Professor, School of Management and Marketing Greenwich Business School, University of Greenwich, London, United Kingdom.

This title is relevant to those interested and engaged in the planning, marketing and promotion of destinations. This excellent and timely contribution offers a wealth of thought-provoking examples of contemporary tourism development as well as critical insight into the future challenges and opportunities facing the industry. It discusses about changing patterns of tourist behavior, structural changes in the industry, new forms of sustainable tourism and on cutting edge digital strategies. The text makes a valuable and timely addition to the literature and is a must-read for those yearning for deeper knowledge and insight.

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A timely update to this useful insight into planning and destination marketing. Wide range of international case studies and experiences, demonstrating the multiple levels of planning and marketing for tourism destinations that are required, and how ingenuity and gumption can help governments and industry alike be innovative.

–Xavier Font, Professor, University of Surrey, and Editor in Chief, Journal of Sustainable Tourism.

# Tourism Planning and Destination Marketing, 2nd Edition

EDITED BY

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United Kingdom – North America – Japan – India – Malaysia – China

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INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

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- International Conference on E-Society, E-Learning and E-Technologies – ICSLT
- International Conference on Education and Service Sciences – ICES
- International Conference on Education and Training Technologies – ICETT
- International Conference on Education Development and Studies – ICEDS
- International Conference on Educational Technology – ICET
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# Preface

“Destination marketing” is a term that is widely used in the travel industry. In plain words, it involves the promotion of specific locations including countries, regions, cities, holiday resorts, and/or tourist attractions. The rationale behind this marketing notion is to increase awareness about a destination (or destinations) among prospective visitors, and to encourage them to plan itineraries and to book their travel and accommodation requirements (Camilleri, 2018a). Destination management organizations (DMOs) and travel businesses rely on tourism planning as well as on well-crafted strategies to appeal to market segments and niches.

In many cases, policymakers and practitioners are adopting customer-centric digital marketing tactics to lure local and international visitors to their destination(s) (Camilleri & Kozak, 2023; Camilleri et al., 2023). Very often, their promotional activities generate positive outcomes for their country’s economy, for the benefit of a wide array of businesses (including to enterprises in non-tourism sectors) as well as for local residents.

However, at times, unsound tourism planning and destination marketing endeavors may also result in an unforeseen influx of tourists, who can possibly cause undesirable consequences to host destinations, in terms of their impact on society and on the natural environment. Arguably, over-crowding as well as an unsustainable surge in tourism will probably require the development of additional infrastructure and resources to cater for more visitors (Camilleri, 2018b). Over-tourism could influence the quality of life of local inhabitants and may have a negative effect on the conditions of the host country’s attractions. It could possibly lead to increased emissions, pollution, litter, and to the loss of natural ecosystems (Mtapuri et al., 2021).

Debatably, there are opportunities as well as challenges for travel, tourism, and hospitality practitioners who are engaged in the marketing and promotions of destinations. In this light, the second edition of Emerald’s *Tourism Planning and Destination Marketing* adds value to the first edition of this authoritative book. Like its predecessor, it also provides a strong pedagogical base for advanced postgraduate students, researchers, and aspiring practitioners. It presents informative, interesting, and timely contributions from leading academics – hailing from diverse backgrounds. This book features real-life case studies as well as theoretical and empirical investigations on different aspects of the tourism industry.

Chapter 1 is focused on tourist behavior. Cruz-Milán (2024) appraises Dr Stanley C. Plog's venturesomeness concept, as he reviews empirical research based on Plog's (1974) personality-based psychographic model. This author synthesizes relevant literature that describe the travelers' personality traits and attitudes that induce them to visit destinations. He presents a discussion on this topic, outlines managerial implications for tourism practitioners, and puts forward future research directions to academia.

Chapter 2 elaborates on the seasonality of tourism. Cardona and Sánchez-Fernández (2024) present a comparative analysis between the Balearic Islands and the Canary Islands. They evaluate the demand for these Spanish destinations and identify the impacts and consequences of seasonality issues. In conclusion, they articulate the implications of their contribution and outline recommendations for future research.

Chapter 3 sheds light on the overall short- and medium-term effects generated by the Milan Expo event over a nine-year period. Sainaghi and Mauri (2024) report that this event has resulted in a significant increase in tourism figures to the Northern Italian city. These authors indicated that all classes of hotels experienced higher occupancy levels. They found that the hotel rates were higher for upscale and economy hotels when compared to midscale hotels, while in terms of percentage the economy hotels have registered the largest increase in revenue.

Chapter 4 raises awareness on "coopetition" as this business-related notion is increasingly being used in the academic literature, to describe the cooperation and competition among different entities, including those operating within the tourism industry. Rusko (2024) argues that more researchers are exploring coopetition in the context of tourism planning and development. This author advances theoretical implications as he discusses about coopetitive networks and on how the relationships with different stakeholders (including with competitors) could add value to tourism destinations.

Chapter 5 investigates the sustainability prospects of small hospitality businesses that are focused on local food and beverage items, within the Italian, Spanish, and Swedish contexts. Brozović et al. (2024) put forward a conceptual framework that clearly identifies the opportunities and challenges for the development of food and beverage tourism. The authors imply that small hospitality businesses are intrinsically linked to the local heritage of destinations. They suggest that enterprises can differentiate themselves if they specialize in indigenous foods and delicacies. At the same time, they could contribute to the cultural enrichment and to the sustainability of their country's tourism product.

Chapter 6 discusses about sustainable tourism in South Africa. Mtapuri et al. (2024) elaborate on sound initiatives that can promote responsible and environmentally sustainable tourism development. The authors identify opportunities and challenges for the future. In conclusion, they imply that there is scope for policymakers to allocate financial resources to practitioners to encourage them to foster eco-friendly services, to engage in knowledge sharing activities to improve competences in the sector, and to introduce new incentives that facilitate community-based tourism.

Chapter 7 explores the effects of an unexpected Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic on a luxury hospitality business, in a Southern Italian context. Campo et al. (2024) evaluate the marketing strategies adopted by a five-star hotel during COVID-19. The authors reported that despite the upscale hotel received less bookings during the crisis, the management opted to continue pursuing its differentiation strategy and brand positioning, by continuing offering service quality as well as enhanced hygiene and sanitation facilities, in order to deliver customer-centric experiences to their valued guests.

Chapter 8 clarifies how digital interventions may be employed in the Japanese spa and well-being industry context. Billore (2024) builds on the theoretical lenses related to the service dominant logic and to the value creation notion, as she puts forward a conceptual model that may be useful for practitioners operating cultural enterprises. The author implies that there is scope for the wellness businesses to continuously ameliorate their customer services, by enhancing their value creation in terms of technical and innovative services, as well as through empathetic designs and results-oriented approaches.

Chapter 9 raises awareness on art hotels. Addis et al. (2024) commend that such hospitality businesses are clearly differentiating themselves from traditional hotels, as they strive to promote cultural tourism. The authors identify the segments of travelers including art-infused travelers, art-seeking travelers, art-indifferent travelers, and art-blind travelers, who are currently availing themselves of the art hotels' services. In conclusion, the authors outline managerial implications and put forward research avenues in this promising area of study.

Chapter 10 recontextualizes the organization of events. Monda et al. (2024) review the extant literature on this topic. The authors formulate definitions and describe key characteristics of events. Afterward, they discuss about the benefits and risks of promoting events through social media networks.

Chapter 11 assesses the attributes and features that can lure visitors to tourist destinations. Prakash et al. (2024a) clearly distinguish the differences between common places vis-à-vis destinations with attractions and amenities, that could appeal to different tourists. The authors discuss about the theoretical implications of their research. They use descriptive case studies to raise awareness on the sense of place, place DNA, place identity, placemaking, and experience-scape.

Chapter 12 is related to the promotion of religious tourism in "Incredible India". Bhadeshiya and Prajapati (2024) shed light on some of India's holy temples and sacred places. These authors outline existing policy initiatives and schemes that can support the development of the religious tourism market (in addition to other markets). In conclusion, they identify possible challenges and discuss on possible opportunities related to tourism planning.

Chapter 13 describes the key elements of destination marketing. Prakash et al. (2024b) elaborate about the importance of destination leadership in order to ensure that independent tourism businesses are delivering appropriate levels of service quality that exceed expectations of tourists, at all times. The authors imply that different interactive marketing channels including social media and mobile

applications, among others, can be utilized to improve the visitors' experiences, and to reach prospective travelers.

Chapter 14 explains how destination marketers could use digitization strategies to attract tourists. Prakash et al. (2024c) put forward a theoretical model that is intended to encourage revisit intentions to destinations. The authors maintain that marketing superstructures (in terms of a destination marketing mix, segmentation, and data analysis), as well as information, communication technologies (ICT) like databases, extranet, multichannel delivery platforms, and business intelligence ought to be used to reach more customers in the digital age.

This authoritative book is a valuable resource for industry practitioners like consultants, senior executives, and managers who work for destination management organizations, hotels, restaurants, inbound/outbound tour operators or travel agents, as well as for academic researchers and students who are aspiring to pursue a career in tourism and hospitality.

This title features case studies from real-life businesses and a thorough review of the relevant academic literature. It describes different tourism marketing strategies that are related to cultural tourism, events tourism, food tourism, religious tourism as well as spa and wellness tourism, among others, as they may be utilized by destination managers. At the same time, it comprises discursive contributions that elaborate about critical matters that affect the tourism industry, including consumer (or tourist) behavior; the planning, organization, and implementation of responsible tourism practices in different contexts; crisis management; marketing environment issues affecting the long-term sustainability of destinations like seasonality factors; as well as the utilization of smart tourism technologies and digital marketing channels, among other topics.

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## Chapter 1

# A Review of Empirical Research on Plog's Psychographics in Tourism

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### Abstract

One of the most well-known, seminal models in the tourism field is the one proposed 50 years ago by Stanley C. Plog. His venturesomeness model has been widely cited in journal articles, textbooks, and has also been used as a reference for planning and designing tourism marketing projects. However, empirical research using Plog's psychographics has yielded varied results, some of which have corroborated his model, while others have found partial or no support for some postulates. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to offer an exhaustive review of 47 studies in the literature which have employed Plog's venturesomeness concept to examine travelers' personality traits, attitudes, and behavior, synthesizing empirical findings and drawing conclusions from the cumulative results. A discussion of the model's contribution to the current body of knowledge, managerial implications for tourism practitioners, and directions for future research are presented.

*Keywords:* Venturesomeness; allocentrism; psychocentrism; psychographics; personality; tourist typology

### Introduction

The venturesomeness concept introduced in the tourism literature by Dr. Stanley C. Plog has been widely cited and subject to academic scrutiny for decades (Goeldner, 2016; Hashimoto, 2014; Ryan, 2020). His psychographic model represents a foundational, noteworthy scholarly contribution to the theory of consumer behavior in tourism (Woodside, 2017). In addition, Plog's venturesomeness concept has been used as a reference for planning and designing tourism infrastructure projects and marketing campaigns (Cruz-Milán, 2017). However, Plog's

framework has often been “uncritically accepted” by researchers even though the travel industry has changed considerably since the model was introduced, calling further academic examination (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012, p. 204). While some works have corroborated Plog’s psychographic model, others have only found partial or no support for it. Hence, the following research question guides this work: What is the support that Plog’s framework has received from empirical investigations in the literature?

In order to answer such question, this chapter identifies 47 studies, from the earliest to the most recent, that have used Plog’s concept of venturesomeness to examine travelers’ personality traits, attitudes, and behavior. Based on the review of the studies’ objectives, research settings, and analytical methods, their overall findings are synthesized and major conclusions are drawn. Additionally, a discussion of the venturesomeness model’s contribution to the understanding of tourist’s psychology and behavior, managerial implications, and future research directions is presented. Importantly, this chapter provides an integrated, updated view of the body of knowledge generated over the years from numerous investigations in a variety of study contexts in relation to Plog’s theoretical tenets and propositions. Therefore, this work adds to the travel and tourism literature by evaluating empirically-derived insights about a central, influential model in the field as a way to support its advancement and theory building (Calder et al., 2019; Corley & Gioia, 2011; Hunt, 2010).

## **Background**

Plog’s psychographic model was first published as a journal article titled “Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity” in *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* (Plog, 1974). The article was based on a 1972 speech delivered by Plog to the Southern California Chapter of the Travel Research Association (now the Travel and Tourism Research Association). The core concepts of the psychographic model originated in 1967 as part of a consulting project assigned to Plog’s market research company Behavior Science Corporation (BASICO) with the purpose of recommending what airlines, airframe manufacturers, and other companies could do to broaden their travel market base and turn more nonflyers into flyers. Plog’s research consisted of a qualitative phase of face-to-face, two-hour personal interviews with flyers and nonflyers, followed by quantitative tests using a national sample of 1,600 in-home surveys. The result from that and other related projects was the delineation of a personality-based, psychographic typology of travelers classified along a bell-shaped, normally distributed continuum with allocentrics on one end of the curve and psychocentrics on the other.

The term allocentric comes from the root words “allo” (varied in form) and “centric,” meaning a focus of one’s interest patterns on varied activities. According to Plog (2008), allocentrics have “active, self-confident, inquisitive personalities who want to reach out and explore the world around them” (p. 78), since they feel that what happens to them is largely under their own control and are, thus, comfortable making choices that involve some degree of variation, adventure, or risk. Allocentrics like to make decisions quickly and easily,

experiment with life, try to be early adopters (of new technology and products), read more (books, magazines, newspapers) and watch less TV than most people, exercise regularly, generally feel higher energy levels than others, and rush to finish daily activities quickly even if there is no hurry (Cruz-Milán, 2022a). Conversely, the term psychocentric comes from the root “psyche” (self) and “centric,” meaning the centering of one’s thoughts or concerns on the small problem of one’s life. Psychocentrics have “a tendency to be somewhat timid, less exploring, and less confident individuals” exhibiting a “more dependable, predictable behavior patterns” (Plog, 2008, p. 79) because they are prone to believe that what happens to them is largely beyond their control and, thus, try to make safe, consistent choices by preferring popular things.

Psychocentrics usually think too much and worry about making decisions, prefer a life of routines, structure and ability, tend to be late adopters (of technology and new products), watch more TV (popular shows, sitcoms, or “soaps”) and read less books than most people, do not participate much in exercise, may feel a little less energetic than others, and try to avoid rushing in daily activities (Cruz-Milán, 2022b). In the center of the psychographic curve, mid-centrics are those travelers that have a balanced combination of both personality traits. According to Plog (1974), most members of the population are classified as mid-centrics, but some lean to one side or the other on the spectrum (near-allocentrics or near-psychocentrics) without reaching completely the extremes.

Based on Plog’s (1974) model, tourism destinations typically evolve through the psychographic curve appealing to the different travelers in his typology. Accordingly, the first tourists to “discover” a new place are allocentrics, who prefer visiting nontouristy, novel destinations that are unfamiliar to most people. Allocentrics start spreading word of mouth about the exotic place they visited, which gradually attracts a larger number of near-allocentrics to the underdeveloped area where tourism infrastructure is still limited. As the destination becomes more popular, the continuing increase of tourist arrivals stimulates further development of higher-priced hotels, restaurants, shops, scheduled tours, and other tourist-oriented business that attract mid-centrics. At this point, the destination has become highly commercialized with a well-established image that brings mass tourism. Allocentrics are then turned off by the destination because it has lost its sense of novelty and unique atmosphere, while the numbers of near-allocentrics decrease and near-psychocentrics increase. The area eventually loses market positioning, total tourist arrivals get reduced over the years, and psychocentrics become the main segment of visitors, given their preference for well-known destinations with plenty of the services, facilities, and activities that they are familiar with at their places of residence. However, because psychocentrics constitute a small proportion of the overall tourism market and do not travel so frequently, the destination receives fewer visitors than before and loses its popularity. According to Plog, this usually leads to heavy price discounting and promotional efforts to remain competitive, which contributes to the decline and demise of the destination.

Plog (1979) incorporated an energy dimension to his psychographic model, which he further developed and referred to as energy-lethargy in a book published years later (Plog, 1991b). According to Plog, travelers' energy levels complement the personality types to explain tourism behavior, particularly about the kind of activities tourists carry out at destinations. In a second book, Plog (1995) re-labeled allocentrics as "venturers," psychocentrics as "dependables," mid-centrics as "centrics," and provided a psychographic scale to differentiate traveler types. In a journal article in *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, Plog (2001) provided an updated review of his original model along with greater details on the characteristics of the different personality types. In an article in the *Journal of Travel Research*, Plog (2002) referred to his psychographic model as the "venturesomeness" concept, and used data from a large annual tracking survey ( $n = 7,961$ ) to show venturesomeness as a better predictor of travel behavior than demographic variables. In another book, Plog (2004) presented the Destination Positioning Matrix (DPM) in which he elaborated that in addition to venturesomeness, tourists' destination choices also depend on a match with the range of activities available at a destination (involving versus relaxing), resembling the energy level dimension described in Plog (1991b). After years of providing consulting services to the industry, Plog sold his market research firms and cofounded Best Trip Choices (<https://besttripchoices.com/>), "a company that uses his travel personality system to help tourists select destinations suited to their personalities" (Plog, 2011, p. 45). Stanley C. Plog continued to write occasionally as author of book chapters until he passed away on February 16, 2011 (Goeldner, 2016).

## Research on Plog's Model

### *Studies Reviewed*

Tourism and marketing scholars have empirically studied the validity of Plog's concepts from various perspectives and thematic interests. Those investigations have provided varying degrees of support, yielding mixed, and often inconsistent results. In order to recognize, compare, and contrast the results, a review of the publicly available research using the allocentrism-psychocentrism model was carried out based on an extensive search by this chapter's author through major academic databases (e.g., Web of Science, Google Scholar), conducted over a span of 10 years since pursuing his doctoral studies. Hence, Table 1.1 provides a list of 47 studies in the literature which have employed Plog's concepts during the last decades to empirically examine travelers' personality traits, attitudes, and behavior. Other studies that focused on tourism geography and destination life-cycles, on the impacts of tourism development on destinations, works with purely qualitative, theoretical or conceptual approach, or in languages other than English were out of the scope of this review. Table 1.1 displays the publications' authors, years, and descriptions of their research (characteristics, objectives, contexts, and findings) presented in chronological order, from the earliest to the most recent.

Table 1.1. Empirical Research on Plog's (1974) Personality-Based Psychographic Model.

Author(s) and Year	Study Sample	Analysis	Used Original Scale by Plog	Found Support
Williams et al. (1986)	Attendants ( $n = 130$ ) at a national travel-related convention in the United States	Canonical correlation analysis	No	Yes
<p>This was the first published report of an empirical study that aimed “to provide a preliminary test of Plog’s allocentric-psychocentric travel personality continuum as an antecedent of travel destination preferences” (Williams et al., 1986, p. 80). Based on a survey that measured personality and travel preferences (for Africa, South Pacific Islands, Japan, Great Britain, Hawaii, Miami Beach, and a major amusement park), statistical analyses to differentiate personality and travel style of respondents were conducted. The authors found that allocentrics have a higher preference for destinations such as a primitive South Pacific island, while psychocentrics have a higher preference for places such as major amusement parks. Results also suggested that respondents inclined to visit allocentric places may enjoy relaxed, psychocentric experiences. Similarly, tourists may visit a psychocentric destination but chose to experience it in an allocentric way, possibly because of limited time, budget, or other constrains.</p>				
Lee-Hoxter and Lester (1987)	College students in the United States ( $n = 33$ )	Pearson correlation analyses	No	No
<p>This is the first of two journal publications that sought to explore the personality correlates of Plog’s dimension of psychocentrism-allocentrism and tourists’ holiday destination choice. In this first study, participants were classified as allocentrics or psychocentrics based on the 16 PF personality scale (Cattell et al., 1970), and also ranked their preferences to travel to different tourism destinations, including three psychocentric destinations (Toronto, Nassau, and Maui) and three allocentric destinations (Cairo, Lima, and Moscow). Findings showed that destination rankings were not correlated to the expected personality types.</p>				
Lee-Hoxter and Lester (1988)	College students in the United States ( $n = 78$ )	Pearson correlation analyses	No	No
<p>In this second study, participants’ personality dimensions of neuroticism and extraversion were measured using the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck &amp; Eysenck, 1970). As in Lee-Hoxter and Lester (1987) participants were asked about their intentions to travel to a list of foreign places (including three psychocentric destinations and three allocentric destinations) and reported how they liked to spend time while on vacations in order to be categorized according to Plog’s typology. The investigators expected that psychocentrics would display higher neuroticism and introversion scores, but the study results did not support the associations predicted.</p>				

(Continued)

Table 1.1. (Continued)

Author(s) and Year	Study Sample	Analysis	Used Original Scale by Plog	Found Support
Hakam et al. (1988)	Airport passengers ( $n = 363$ ) visiting Singapore	EFA, cluster analysis	No	Partially
<p>Investigated cross-national lifestyles profiles of tourists visiting Singapore. International tourists visiting the country (from North America, Europe, Australia, New Zealand, and Japan) were surveyed about their preferred attributes when deciding on a country for vacations as well as lifestyle travel preferences according to Plog's (1974) typology. The analysis showed a skewed distribution with a majority of tourists classified as allocentrics (budget world travelers and novelty seekers) and some as mid-centrics (general purpose tourists). In this regard, the authors noted that the lack of psychocentric profiles was likely due to the absence of short-distance travelers.</p>				
Hakam and Leong (1989)	Foreign visitors and local consumers ( $n = 1,072$ ) in Singapore	EFA, MANOVA $t$ -tests, chi-square tests	No	No
<p>Assessed the similarities and differences between tourists and local residents in their attitudes and repatronage intentions toward food vending places in Singapore, including the comparison of effects accounted for by Plog's (1974) psychographic traits. The analysis revealed that allocentrics held more favorable attitudes and higher repatronage intentions for outlets such as enclosed food centers, food courts, and Parisian-style restaurants. Thus, the findings pertaining to the allocentric-psychocentric personality traits in the study were contrary to the authors' expectations.</p>				
Brayley (1990)	Survey to a sample ( $n = 431$ ) of adult residents in Texas	Multiple regression analysis, $t$ -tests	No	Partially
<p>A doctoral dissertation that was conducted to compare market segmentation strategies by analyzing the destination preferences and vacation travel behaviors of subgroups of tourists in Texas, differentiated on the basis of demographic and psychographic variables, including Plog's (1974) personality-based traits. Research results demonstrated that psychocentric segments place greater value on shopping and commercial facilities and price levels than allocentrics do. Contrary to the expectations, demographic variables were found more effective than Plog's psychographics in predicting vacation destination attractiveness. However, the results showed that tourists' allocentrism-psychocentrism contributed most to the prediction of travel frequency to specific vacation areas, in line with Plog's (2002) postulates.</p>				

Smith (1990a, 1990b)	Respondents in France, West Germany, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, Hong Kong, Japan, and Singapore ( $n = 1,500$ )	Cross-tabulation analysis, $t$ -tests, chi-square tests	No	No
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Nearly 20 years after the allocentrism-psychocentrism concept was developed, the author noted that Plog’s model had become popular and widely cited in tourism textbooks, but “no independent verification of Plog’s model” had appeared at the time in the tourism literature, requiring rigorous testing “to be accepted as a field of serious and legitimate scholarly inquiry” (Smith, 1990a, p. 40). Therefore, this investigation used survey data sets of travelers from various countries collected by Tourism Canada and the US Travel and Tourism Administration. Based on Plog (1974) and McIntosh and Goeldner (1986), the author developed a tourism personality index score relating to traveler’s motivations and criteria used in selecting specific destinations. Participants also reported destination preferences that were classified according to Plog’s typology: allocentrics, mid-centrics, and psychocentrics. Results showed a consistency in the top five preferred destinations across all three psychographic groups in any given country, contrary to the expected pattern of the allocentrism-psychocentrism typology. Shortly after, a rejoinder by Plog (1990) criticized that Smith (1990a) had gone into some fundamental research design flaws. Specifically, Plog pointed out that Smith’s study did not use the original personality-based psychographic scale to capture the variations along the allocentrism-psychocentrism continuum. Plog commented that although his instrument was developed for proprietary purposes, he provided full disclosure of it to researchers and academics who requested it. Following a suggestion by Plog (1990), a reply by Smith (1990b) reported a comparison of the study participants’ personality types based on their preferred travel styles and arrangements (all-inclusive packages, guided tours, independent travel, etc.). Such analysis indicated only two out of 25 cross-tabulations with statistically significant differences, suggesting no differences in preferred travel styles. In turn, a final rejoinder note by Plog (1991a) pointed out that Smith (1990b) had not addressed the most fundamental issue he previously raised in Plog (1990), namely that his original scale was not utilized at the start of the research, and, therefore, the sample population could not be properly classified to reflect his psychographic typology.

Nickerson and Ellis (1991)	Alumni of a Western university in the United States ( $n = 171$ )	EFA, CB-SEM	Yes	Yes
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Examined the extent to which Plog’s psychographic model of allocentrism-psychocentrism and energy traveler types could be explained using Fiske and Maddi’s (1961) activation theory. A scale to measure allocentrism-psychocentrism was developed from a proprietary instrument by Plog, the questionnaire used by Williams et al. (1986), and participant’s ratings of the likelihood of taking an allocentric or psychocentric vacation after presenting them two possible travel scenarios. Levels of energy and activation were assessed through scenarios (high versus low energy activities) and various measurements drawn from the psychology literature (e.g., the Eysenck Personality Inventory). The statistical analysis found support for the dimensions of Plog’s model by correlating them with dimensions in the activation theory, but a significant correlation between allocentrism-psychocentrism and energy brought into question Plog’s assertion that personality and energy levels are independent, or orthogonal.

(Continued)

Table 1.1. (Continued)

Author(s) and Year	Study Sample	Analysis	Used Original Scale by Plog	Found Support
Tarlow and Muehsam (1992)	Airport passengers and other groups (e.g., students, retirees, prisoners) in the United States ( $n = 331$ )	EFA, ANOVA	Yes	Partially
Ralston (1993)	College students and members of retirement communities in the United States ( $n = 413$ )	EFA, ANOVA	Yes	Partially

Motivated by the debate between Smith (1990a, 1990b) and Plog (1990, 1991a), Tarlow and Muehsam (1992) explored the psychographic characteristics among population groups to determine differences in patterns of behavior. Plog's psychographic profiles across all subjects in the sample approximated a normal distribution, but some subgroups were slightly more allocentric than psychocentric. Factor analysis on respondents' characteristics yielded three factors: decisiveness, cosmopolitanism, and flexibility. Results showed statistically significant differences accounted for by demographic variables only on the cosmopolitan factor. Further, cosmopolitanism (measured with survey items of independence and worldliness) was the factor component of allocentrism-psychocentrism which contributed more explanatory power to understand patterns of tourist preference.

Conducted her doctoral dissertation to identify the influence of need for affiliation on travel motivations, using Plog's psychographics as a variable in the study. Participants were grouped according to Plog's typology (allocentric, mid-centric, and psychocentric), need for affiliation level (low, neutral, and high) based on Mehrabian's (1970) Affiliative Tendency Scale (MATS). The analysis of motivations using Driver's (1977) Recreation Experience Preferences (REP) generated five factors: escape and rest, nature appreciation, social contact, family togetherness, and nostalgia. A comparison of groups revealed allocentrics as higher on escape-related motivations (e.g., "to experience the unknown"), while psychocentrics were higher on social contact (e.g., "to be with people having similar interests") and family togetherness motivations (e.g., "so the family could spend some time together"), which led the author to consider her findings as inconsistent with Plog's theory. However, Plog (1995) noted that psychocentrics "tend to be much more of a social person" (p. 35) who distinctively "measure high on social needs" (Plog, 2004, p. 137), in such a way that Ralston's (1993) results indeed yield some support to Plog's model.