A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH TO THE BEER TOURISM PHENOMENON

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Abstract

Purpose: Beer is the most consumed alcoholic beverage worldwide, and beverages play a crucial role in dining. During the last few years, beer tourism has become an attractive tourism segment. However, despite the growing body of literature on craft beer, the relationships within the tourism sphere still need to be explored from a broader perspective.

Study design/methodology/approach: Using data from a self-administered survey, quantitative methods were applied to shed light on such relationships. Specifically, a PLS-SEM model was proposed, and between-group differences tests were carried out, including U Mann-Whitney and multigroup analyses (PLS-MGA).

Findings: The above methods demonstrated the existence of a contextual construct ("*Context*") that helps explain the personal behaviours towards beer ("*Personal*") before further analysing the beer and tourism relationships. Moreover, the effects of such personal behaviour on the preparation of the trip ("*PreTrip*") and the attitudes after the trip ("*PostTrip*") were also corroborated. Plus, partial differences between groups were found regarding the preferred type of beer and the origin of the tourists, while sex and frequency of consumption retrieved non-significant results.

Originality/value: This work stands out as the first one to comprehensively address the latent relationships between beer and tourism, and one of the first to include general beer consumers in the sample, not limiting it to craft beer consumers.

Keywords: Beer; Beer Tourism; PLS-SEM; Tourism; Tourist behaviour

INTRODUCTION

During the last decade, gastronomic tourism has increasingly received more attention from scholars due to the tourists' search for experiences linked to the culture and identity of the tourist destination (Pavlidis and Markantonatou, 2020). Concurrently, the evolution of these gastronomic experiences has resulted in more complex activities offered to tourists, aiming to involve them with the locals and participating in co-creation (Dixit and Prayag, 2020), and specially focusing on the enhancement of local products and foods, usually protected by Geographical Indications (Pamukcu et al., 2021) or similar seals. Such a development of the gastronomic tourist offer triggers an even more pronounced interest in studying this phenomenon, proving its beneficial effects on local development (Privitera et al., 2018). Besides, the interest inherent in studying tourists' dynamics regarding local gastronomy is not only limited to scholars but also may interest public and private stakeholders, given that providing high-quality gastronomic experiences may lead to higher satisfaction and loyalty towards a given tourist destination (Berbel-Pineda et al., 2019).

In this context, research in gastronomic tourism can be divided into many subtopics that complement the general understanding of this tourism industry. Among them, the beverages and their role in the gastronomic tourism sphere have received little attention apart from the abundant wine tourism literature, which has monopolised the beverages and tourism research (Martínez-Navarro and Sellers-Rubio, 2024). However, while much has been studied about wine, beer has remained severely understudied, even though it is the most consumed alcoholic beverage in many European (Spaggiari et al., 2020) and OECD (OECD, 2021) countries. In fact, this area of research is relatively new and primarily focuses on the craft beer industry development (Durán-Sánchez et al., 2020), analysing breweries (Dudic et al., 2020) and craft beer consumers (Ferreira Da Silva and Frizon, 2021). However, these studies are primarily based on a particular case study of a city or brewery, mainly in a descriptive fashion and with limited impact in the beer sphere. Besides, little research has been published in high-quality international journals. As a consequence, the relationship between beer and tourism is relegated or, in some cases, tangentially addressed. Hence, the core of scientific literature strictly focusing on such a relationship is still scarce, being limited to the analysis of beer festivals (Beckman et al., 2020) —which usually do not differentiate between tourists and locals, and only cover a specific event—, ale trails (Feeney, 2017) —which are scarce, underdeveloped and hardly prove their utility in terms of territorial cohesion and economic development— and in very few cases, distinguishing among wine and beer tourists (Stone, 2023). In fact, Stone's (2023) research note sparked the study question of this paper, as it unveils the likely complexity of a phenomenon that is usually studied in isolation.

Thus, considering the above, there is a substantial gap in research that ought to be addressed. Moreover, only 15% of the beer produced worldwide is exported (Bieleková and Pokrivcák, 2020). Hence, those beer brands are primarily sold in each country and might be potentially associated with their gastronomic image, as they are hardly exported. Therefore, beer consumers may find it interesting to travel to taste beer where it is originally produced. Such a relationship between beer and travel could be considered to lie under the concept of beer tourism, which is defined as "*visitation to breweries, beer festivals and beer shows for which beer tasting and experiencing the attributes of the beer region are the prime motivating factors for visitors*" (Plummer et al., 2005). Strictly interpreting this definition, craft beers might be a better fit for it since they offer a wider range of types and flavours,

even fruity ones (Fanari et al., 2019), and they intend to be dissociated from industrial beers in an elite and local-based fashion (Lechuga-Besné and Godínez-Guerrero, 2021). However, according to Haddad et al. (2024), craft beers are not the preferred option for craft beer consumers on a regular basis, but they would preferably consume them in pubs (Aquilani et al., 2015). That reported behaviour seems contradictory, as craft beer connoisseurs would be expected to consume craft beers regularly. However, it demonstrates the claims of Lechuga-Besné and Godínez-Guerrero (2021), who found craft beer consumer give more importance to the extrinsic values of the beer, namely, elite consumption, locally produced and their organoleptic properties.

In consequence, those beers associated with certain countries are industrial, mass-produced beers that hold an imaginary of those destinations. Some of these countries are well-established and could be considered —together with complementary motivations (Stone, 2023)— as beer destinations, as is the case of Germany, Belgium, or Czechia (Swinnen and Garavaglia, 2018), which hold a strong tradition in beer brewing. In fact, the beer culture in Belgium is registered as Intangible Cultural Heritage (UNESCO, 2016). Nevertheless, most countries whose beer is not perceived as outstanding or a pull factor for tourists may also see their gastronomic image affected by the image portrayed by their flagship industrial beers, and many consequences regarding their post-trip behaviour may derive from that. This assumption has not been found yet in the extant scientific literature on beer, and the similarities with the wine tourism industry may be biased, given the greater development of the sector and the recognition of brands associated with a specific territory, as in the case of Bordeaux (Scorrano et al., 2018).

Therefore, understanding the underlying dimensions of the beer tourism phenomenon constitutes the principal study question of this work. It deserves to be analysed separately from gastronomic tourism because of the scarce attention that beverages, apart from wine, have received in the scientific literature. Additionally, because beer is the most widely consumed alcoholic beverage, its presence in many cultures and its characteristics differ from those of wine —including affordability, popularity, and penetration into all social classes, among others. Hence, the relationships needed to prove the above study question are defined as the hypotheses for this research. These are the contributions of this paper, which significantly add to the scarce literature on beer tourism. Hence, after this brief introduction, the hypotheses are developed. Straightforwardly, the materials and methods are explained, and the results are commented on. Finally, the findings are discussed, and some conclusions are drawn.

Hypotheses development

Considering the above, defining the dimensions that may underlie the proposed study question is crucial. Since previous related work does not explicitly address it from the same perspective, extrapolations ought to be made from Memorable Tourist Experience (MTE) literature applied to gastronomy and beer tourism literature —craft beer consumers, beer festivals, breweries/taprooms and ale trails— to shed some light on defining these dimensions. Hence, a sensible starting point should be defining the context in which people engage in consuming beer, analysing it separately from their socioeconomic profiles, and not limiting the scope to craft beer consumers (Stone, 2023). In this sense, three

fundamental questions arise: Why do you drink beer? Where do you drink it? And who do you drink with?

Among them, a certain degree of overlapping exists since most of the cited studies just partially address them as a contextual part of other craft beer or MTE analyses. Regarding the last question, little research, even among the wine tourism literature, addresses it differentiating between categories such as alone, family or friends (Stone et al., 2018; Ferreira Da Silva and Frizon, 2021; Gajic et al., 2021; Arellano-Covarrubias et al., 2022), but merges it with the "why" question, assuming that "socialisation" may embed friends or relatives too (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Sthapit, 2017; Hodge et al., 2020; Badu-Baiden and Kim, 2022). Surprisingly, pleasure in consumption and the places where to eat or drink are scarcely represented (Stone et al., 2018; Ferreira Da Silva and Frizon, 2021; Steinbach et al., 2023). All in all, these three variables combined should be aimed at defining the context of the individuals who drink beer before enquiring further into beer and tourism relationships. This paper is the first to comprehensively gather these scattered contextual factors, empirically contrasting their coherence as a whole single construct and within a model. Consequently, while the basic questions should retain their individuality, they also conform to the same dimension, which leads them to become part of a whole under the construction of a higher dimension – the methodological approach to these relationships is addressed in the next section. Thus, this assumption hypothesises, based on the cited previous works, that such a context is a necessary previous step to define personal behaviours regarding beer consumption and the behaviour after travelling, which leads to the following:

> *H1. The individuals' context for consuming beer positively affects their personal behaviour towards beer.*
>
> *H2. The individuals' context for consuming beer positively affects the post-trip behaviour regarding local beer consumption*.

Straightforwardly, such personal behaviour towards beer may be reflected in several elements that emanate from it. Within the extant literature on beer and tourism and craft beer consumption, but also in the gastronomic MTE, those elements repeatedly appear as enjoyment in consumption (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2019), sense of higher knowledge about beer (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Koch and Sauerbronn, 2019; Carrillo and Barbieri, 2024), and willingness to try new things (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Sthapit, 2017; Dudic et al., 2020), among others. These elements, as stated by these authors, typically originate from previous studies in wine tourism, which adapt existing survey questions. Regarding the elements displayed above, enjoyment and knowledge are widely present, commonly through the implementation of the Wine Involvement Scale (Brown et al., 2007) or similar measurement tools, which may also include novelty (Park et al., 2008). Reasonably, these attitudes towards beer may seem to have a relation to the travel experience, both before and after the trip itself, since they may shape its planning (Taylor and DiPietro, 2019; Kesgin et al., 2022), but also their actions after it —which has not yet been studied from this perspective in the sphere of beer tourism.

Nevertheless, somehow similarly, these factors have been addressed concerning how tourists perceive local food —not specifically beer— and how they behave after the trip (Choe & Kim, 2018; Soltani et al., 2021; Mohammad et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2023). Similarly, in the wine tourism literature, these effects on post-trip behaviour also appear.

Sometimes, recommending the product arises as a consequence of the loyalty developed to a given brand (Tasci & Back, 2025). However, other behaviours, such as repurchase, may be directly measured and assessed in relation to the memorability of the experience in a certain winery (Sthapit et al., 2024). These authors detect a series of values that form the attitudes towards local food that subsequently affect their post trip behaviour. In a similar vein, Anía-Melón et al. (2021) also proved that how tourists engage in tourist experiences is an antecedent of MTE and affect their post trip behaviour. Similarly, Yilmaz & Yilmaz (2020) demonstrated that the latter affects destination image. In fact, as displayed by Yilmaz & Yilmaz (2020), the personal dimensions affect both the pre and post trip constructs. Therefore, given all the above, the following hypotheses are presented. These hypotheses combine what is known on the sphere of the MTE, food consumption and destination engagement together with the scattered behavioural indicators which are present in the craft beer literature, as shown above:

> *H3. The personal behaviour towards beer has a positive effect in the preparation of the trip concerning local beer engagement.*
>
> *H4. The personal behaviour towards beer positively affects the post-trip behaviour regarding local beer consumption and recommendation of the tourist destination.*

Next, Hypothesis 5 expresses a topic somehow similarly addressed in previous literature, but even in wine tourism studies, the approach considering pre-visit behaviour is scarce. It analyses the relationship between pre-trip and post-trip behaviour. Some authors treat pre-trip behaviour as the existence of previous knowledge about the cellars (Prayag et al., 2021), while others define it as the expectations, knowledge, and attitudes towards the winery and its brand (Nella & Christou, 2014). Thus, similarly and adapted to the beer tourism context, the core idea lies in how the preparation of the trip for engaging in beer-related experiences —not only gastronomic activities— may affect the behaviour of the tourists after leaving the destination. At this point, much of the literature bases its results on gastronomic MTE through dealing with the memorability of the tourist experience after a culinary one (Hernández-Mogollón et al., 2020). However, when it comes to beer-related studies, the scope is narrowed to revisiting the breweries in which the experience took place (Murray and Kline, 2015; Taylor et al., 2020), likely attendance at the same beer festival (Beckman et al., 2020; Hermann et al., 2021) or the possibility of transferring visitors from the beer festival to local breweries if the festival experience is found satisfactory (Manis et al., 2020). The results of these studies showed positive results regarding revisit to their facilities (brewery and festival) and transferring festival visitors to visiting local breweries. Nonetheless, they take place in a specific place and event, limiting their generalizability to broader contexts, and it should be further analysed, as Taylor et al. (2020) pointed out. However, in addition, the memorability of the experience in beer-related environments is present within the previous research (Bachman et al., 2021; Stone, 2023), and the consequent likelihood of looking for the products and repurchasing them also arises (Boger et al., 2019; Guerra-Tamez et al., 2021; Tong, 2022; Carrillo and Barbieri, 2024), providing satisfactory results but, again, for limited contexts and small samples. All in all, these authors agree that a positive experience when consuming local beer may lead to positive effects for the tourist destination through the post-trip behaviour of the tourists, namely, recommendations, revisiting and repurchasing —even importing— the tasted products. These findings are in line with recent literature on tourist behaviour, which demonstrate the

same extent (Cao et al., 2023) that is suggested in beer tourism related literature. Consequently, we pose the following hypothesis should be tested:

> *H5. Preparing the trip concerning local beer engagement positively affects the post-trip behaviour regarding local beer consumption and recommendation of the tourist destination*.

Lastly, while these hypotheses provide substantial insight into the intersection of beer consumption and tourism, it is also of the highest interest to analyse whether there are differences among groups of similar individuals. These differences should be assessed through commonly used control variables such as sex and origin —national and international— but also controlled by frequency in beer consumption and the preferred beer type. Unfortunately, there is a substantial lack of literature addressing these control variables for similar purposes. Only sex has been considered, and the results are consistently non-significant regarding differences between men and women (Rivaroli et al., 2020; Bachman et al., 2021; Arellano-Covarrubias et al., 2022). Consequently, given the importance to address the heterogeneity of the consumers and, specifically, among beer consumers, these differences between groups constitute also a series of hypotheses to be tested, namely:

> *H6. There are differences in the relationship between beer and tourism dimensions by sex*.
>
> *H7. There are differences in the relationship between beer and tourism dimensions by origin*.
>
> *H8. There are differences in the relationship between beer and tourism dimensions by frequency of consumption*.
>
> *H9. There are differences in the relationship between beer and tourism dimensions by preferred type of beer*.

METHODOLOGY

To contrast the hypotheses stated above, a questionnaire was created based on slightly similar ones found in the previous literature (Steinbach et al., 2023; Stone, 2023), together with the concepts cited within the hypotheses' development section. The questionnaire, displayed in Annex 1, was distributed face-to-face and online in August 2024. A pilot test was carried out with 30 respondents, and after confirming its correctness, it was openly distributed to individuals —among the general population over 18 years old— who drink beer. After cleaning the data, 525 valid and complete responses were retrieved, exceeding the minimum threshold of 385 responses at 95% confidence level, standard deviation of 0.5, and ±5% margin of error. It should be noted that the geographical context is limited to Spain.

Thus, first of all, a descriptive analysis was performed on the resulting database, including mean, standard deviation —when quantitative variables— and count and percentage distribution for the rest of them. Besides, the Shapiro-Wilk W test was carried out to check the absence of normality for most variables. Skewness and kurtosis results are omitted but are available upon request. These results are shown in Table 1. Moreover, U Mann-Whitney

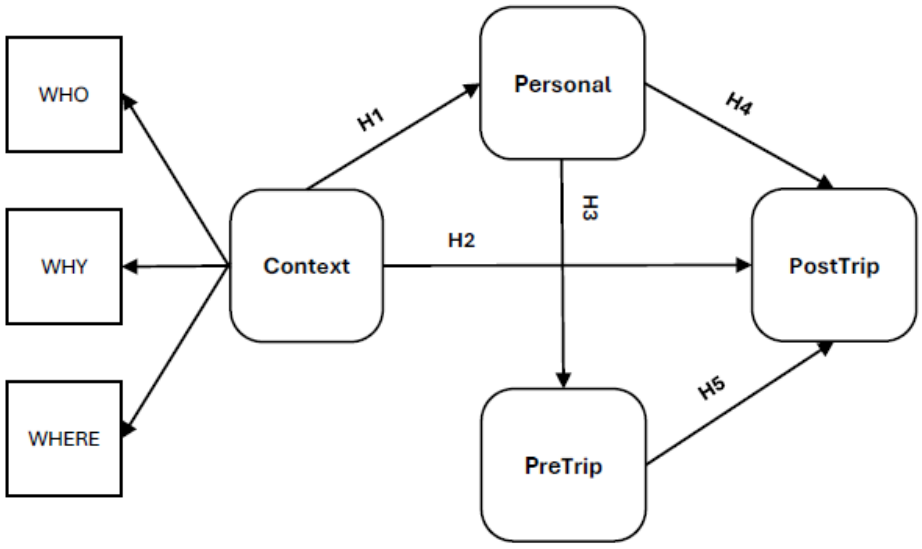
tests were used to unveil whether these between-group differences exist to further support the analysis of Hypotheses 6 to 9 and considering the lack of normality in most variables. In the case of normally distributed variables, t-tests were applied. All these descriptive analyses were run using Stata statistical software (StataCorp. 23).

Finally, the proposed hypotheses are jointly contrasted through a PLS-SEM model. Specifically, the structural model aims to contrast Hypotheses 1 to 5, while Hypotheses 6 to 9 correspond to several Multigroup Analysis (MGA) for each comparing variable. The resulting model is portrayed in Figure 1. These analyses were run using the *SEMinR* package (Ray et al., 2021) in R (R Core Team, 2021).

Regarding these analyses, two issues need to be pointed out. First, the construct "*Context*" is a high-order construct (HOC) whose lower-order constructs (LOCs) are "*Where*", "*Why*", and "*Who*". This is justified by the nature of the LOCs, considering that their indicators are not interchangeable within the same construct named "Context", but they do form it separately. Plus, the previous evidence gathered in the "Hypotheses development" subsection suggests theoretical support for modelling a higher-order model.

Thus, following the extant works on HOCs, the one included in this model is a Type I – Reflective-Reflective model which is the most used type and supported by psychometric theory (Sarstedt et al., 2019; Becker et al., 2023; Hair et al., 2024). The existence of this HOC is also relevant since the associated values for their analysis may be considered as corresponding to it —in italics. Particularly, HTMT values were manually checked following the Sarstedt et al. (2019) procedure. Finally, there is still some debate regarding the validity of HOCs. Some authors argue that HOCs do not exist, and their use entails significant risks regarding reliability and validity (Lee & Cadogan, 2013; Mikulic, 2022). They also uphold that LOCs' indicators should all be part of the same construct, given that they should perfectly correlate (Mikulic, 2022). However, other authors as Temme and Diamantopoulos (2016) or de Oliveira Santos (2022) maintain that the nature of LOCs-HOCs implies differences in between the sets of indicators that form the LOCs, not necessarily being highly correlated and allowing to provide a more detailed explanation of a complex dimension (HOC) that needs to be addressed to other non-directly measurable constructs (LOCs). The second point of view in the debate has majority support among academics, and it is widely used across disciplines. The latest and most used books on PLS-SEM still include these models (Hair et al., 2024).

Figure 1. Proposed model.



Source: Authors

RESULTS

Starting with the descriptive analysis of the sample, Table 1 summarises the main descriptive statistics for all variables by the four control variables stated: sex, origin, frequency of consumption and type of beer. Abbreviations for variables can be found in Annex 1. For practical purposes, a couple of transformations were made to run these analyses and the MGA. On the one hand, frequency of consumption is adapted from four categories to two, namely, casual consumer —once a month/special occasions and one to two times a week— and frequent consumer —at least three times a week and daily. On the other hand, the type of beer is transformed from three categories to two, merging craft beer and exotic beer —a particular kind of craft beer.

The results show that the central inequality lies between Spanish respondents and foreigners, but for both cases, there is enough representativeness (393 and 132, respectively) to allow robust statistical analyses. Regarding the sex of the individuals, both men and women are equally represented, but men stand out among frequent drinkers (65.48%) despite only 39.85% of them declaring it. Besides, it is also worth highlighting that within the four divisions displayed in Table 1, the most common income range is consistently medium income (€1.300 to €3.500). Regarding the average trips by year, they are slightly higher for foreigners, men, frequent drinkers and craft beer consumers, slightly above 3.6 trips by year. In addition, the average age is above 40 in all subcategories, but for foreigners, it drops to an average of 35.33 years old. Also, the preferred type of beer shows exciting results, as traditional beer prevails over craft beer, but this figure is less skewed for foreigners.

Concerning the average values for all quantitative variables, there are two visible groups of variables about their average scores. First, about the contextual items which represent drinking to reduce anxiety or stress (*Why_2*), for economic reasons (*Why_4*) and drinking alone (*Who_1*), they score substantially lower than the rest of the variables within this

section and do not differ between subgroups. In fact, considering the divergent behaviour of both "Why" variables, they are dropped from further analyses, considering they may be affected by the interpretation of skewed answers because of their "negative" nature (Tourangeau and Yan, 2007). Secondly, all variables related to personal behaviour towards beer —apart from *Knowledge*—, pre-trip preparation and post-trip attitudes score consistently lower than three. However, there are some exceptions to remark.

On the one hand, the Knowledge variable illustrates that the self-reported knowledge about beer is medium (scores about four out of seven) among the categories, even for craft beer and frequent drinkers. On the other hand, the systematically low values reported for the "travel and beer" questions seem to present differences between subgroups for some items. Specifically, the most significant differences —despite not being huge— seem to be regarding the country of origin and the type of beer consumed. Subsequent analysis may delve into that onwards. Lastly, about these variables, the normality of the distribution was measured, but only "*Who_2: Usually drinks with family*" presented a normal distribution, according to the results of the Shapiro-Wilk W test.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics by origin and sex

	Origin		Sex		Frequency		Type of beer	
Variable	**Spanish**	**Foreigners**	**Men**	**Women**	**Casual**	**Frequent**	**Traditional**	**Craft**
Sex	[0] 49.87 [1] 50.13	[0] 53.03 [1] 46.97			[0] 43.96 [1] 56.04	[0] 65.48 [1] 34.16	[0] 47.85 [1] 52.15	[0] 57.52 [1] 42.48
Origin			[0] 73.69 [1] 26.31	[0] 76.06 [1] 23.94	[0] 71.70 [1] 28.30	[0] 81.99 [1] 18.01	[0] 83.06 [1] 16.94	[0] 54.90 [1] 45.10
Age	46.68 (13.53)	35.33 (12.84)	45.21 (14.24)	42.40 (14.11)	42.34 (14.07)	47.16 (14.06)	44.90 (14.51)	41.21 (13.20)
Income	[1] 19.08 [2] 68.96 [3] 11.96	[1] 35.60 [2] 50.76 [3] 11.64	[1] 15.04 [2] 66.54 [3] 18.42	[1] 31.66 [2] 62.16 [3] 6.18	[1] 22.58 [2] 65.59 [3] 11.83	[1] 24.84 [2] 61.44 [3] 13.72	[1] 25.00 [2] 64.56 [3] 10.44	[1] 19.25 [2] 63.98 [3] 16.77
YTrips	3.16 (2.41)	3.65 (2.62)	3.65 (2.74)	2.91 (2.11)	3.14 (2.36)	3.60 (2.68)	3.15 (2.43)	3.61 (2.54)
TBeer	[1] 78.63 [2] 21.37	[1] 47.73 [2] 52.27	[1] 66.92 [2] 33.08	[1] 74.90 [2] 25.10	[1] 70.05 [2] 29.95	[1] 72.67 [2] 27.33		
Freq	[1] 66.41 [2] 33.59	[1] 78.03 [2] 21.97	[1] 60.15 [2] 39.85	[1] 78.76 [2] 21.24			[1] 68.55 [2] 31.45	[1] 71.24 [2] 28.76
Why_1	3.98 (2.11)	4.74 (1.99)	4.09 (2.08)	4.26 (2.15)	4.33 (2.12)	3.81 (2.06)	4.18 (2.16)	4.16 (1.99)
Why_2	1.63 (1.25)	2.33 (1.63)	1.96 (1.45)	1.66 (1.31)	1.64 (2.24)	2.20 (1.63)	1.75 (1.38)	1.96 (1.41)
Why_3	4.87 (1.94)	4.34 (2.11)	5.06 (1.89)	4.41 (2.05)	4.46 (2.04)	5.37 (1.76)	4.68 (2.03)	4.88 (1.91)
Why_4	1.86 (1.44)	2.30 (1.63)	1.90 (1.40)	2.04 (1.60)	2.07 (1.59)	1.76 (1.27)	1.97 (1.54)	1.99 (1.41)
Where_1	3.21 (2.07)	3.23 (2.08)	3.57 (2.08)	2.85 (1.99)	2.78 (1.92)	4.20 (2.06)	3.22 (2.12)	3.21 (1.93)
Where_2	4.78 (2.04)	4.87 (2.08)	4.94 (1.96)	4.67 (2.13)	4.78 (2.10)	4.87 (1.96)	4.76 (2.06)	4.92 (2.02)
Where_3	4.38 (1.96)	3.86 (1.99)	4.22 (1.89)	4.28 (2.06)	4.19 (1.96)	4.39 (2.00)	4.39 (1.95)	3.91 (2.00)
Where_4	4.82 (1.88)	4.94 (1.92)	4.83 (1.87)	4.88 (1.91)	4.87 (1.91)	4.81 (1.86)	4.87 (1.93)	4.80 (1.81)
Who_1	2.04 (1.69)	2.42 (1.83)	2.5 (1.86)	1.76 (1.50)	1.89 (1.57)	2.70 (1.93)	2.08 (1.73)	2.28 (1.72)
*Who_2**	4.25 (1.98)	3.77 (1.99)	4.21 (1.89)	4.05 (2.10)	3.90 (2.02)	4.66 (1.82)	4.20 (2.00)	3.97 (1.98)
Who_3	5.46 (1.62)	5.68 (1.65)	5.58 (1.55)	5.44 (1.70)	5.47 (1.67)	5.61 (1.53)	5.55 (1.57)	5.41 (1.75)
Know	3.60 (1.77)	3.76 (1.86)	4.12 (1.73)	3.15 (1.73)	3.37 (1.74)	4.25 (1.76)	3.37 (1.70)	4.30 (1.84)
Enjoy	1.94 (1.50)	2.61 (1.90)	2.34 (1.77)	1.86 (1.45)	1.91 (1.49)	2.55 (1.85)	1.83 (1.38)	2.79 (1.99)
Influ	2.11 (1.64)	3.09 (2.02)	2.72 (1.90)	1.98 (1.59)	2.11 (1.62)	2.91 (2.03)	2.02 (1.55)	3.17 (2.06)

First	1.97 (1.61)	2.5 (1.83)	2.44 (1.85)	1.76 (1.42)	1.99 (1.62)	2.35 (1.79)	1.83 (1.46)	2.77 (1.98)
Dispo	1.71 (1.33)	2.61 (1.98)	2.26 (1.76)	1.61 (1.26)	1.67 (1.32)	2.53 (1.90)	1.71 (1.37)	2.50 (1.86)
Brands	1.99 (1.48)	2.85 (1.97)	2.59 (1.81)	1.82 (1.37)	1.95 (1.48)	2.80 (1.86)	1.95 (1.47)	2.83 (1.90)
Places	1.60 (1.28)	1.98 (1.64)	1.93 (1.58)	1.45 (1.11)	1.5 (1.12)	2.13 (1.78)	1.44 (1.09)	2.31 (1.79)
Shop	2.28 (1.78)	2.74 (2.01)	2.79 (1.97)	2 (1.64)	2.15 (1.69)	2.96 (2.08)	2.00 (1.62)	3.35 (2.03)
Activ	1.62 (1.31)	2.10 (1.57)	1.95 (1.53)	1.53 (1.20)	1.61 (1.27)	2.05 (1.60)	1.53 (1.22)	2.27 (1.64)
OSatisf	2.02 (1.58)	2.39 (1.73)	2.34 (1.69)	1.88 (1.53)	1.97 (1.54)	2.44 (1.78)	1.80 (1.36)	2.87 (1.95)
Return	2.04 (1.52)	2.80 (1.85)	2.60 (1.78)	1.85 (1.39)	2.00 (1.50)	2.73 (1.84)	2.00 (1.51)	2.76 (1.82)
Recom	2.34 (1.63)	3.37 (1.97)	2.93 (1.81)	2.25 (1.69)	2.39 (1.72)	3.07 (1.82)	2.32 (1.61)	3.27 (1.98)
Repurch	2.71 (1.87)	3.72 (1.89)	3.26 (1.94)	2.67 (1.87)	2.85 (1.96)	3.22 (1.83)	2.67 (1.82)	3.68 (2.00)
Memor	2.84 (1.93)	3.95 (2.08)	3.53 (2.02)	2.70 (1.94)	2.87 (1.99)	3.69 (1.99)	2.81 (1.91)	3.86 (2.10)

Note: In brackets, percentages for categorical and dummy variables. In round brackets, standard deviations, next to the mean values, for quantitative variables.

Note 2: *represents normality; the rest of the variables do not follow a normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk W).

Source: Authors

Further analyses can be performed after running the previous descriptive analyses and considering their evidence. In this sense, the proposed model displayed in Figure 1 was analysed through Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). The model contains hypotheses H1 to H5, as indicated above. Following the procedure illustrated by Hair et al. (2019), several tests were carried out to corroborate the reliability and validity of the measurement and structural models. Starting with the measurement model, Table 2 compiles the most commonly used metrics, apart from the indicator loadings, which are compiled in Annex 2. The assessment of the indicator loadings is expected to be higher than 0.707, but values around 0.6 are also acceptable for exploratory analysis —as is the case of this study. Considering these thresholds, most items do fulfil the conservative threshold. Exceptions were found for "*Why_1: Social reasons*" and "*Where 1: Home*", whose loadings are below 0.6. However, for the purposes of the study, they were kept as they added contextual information to the model.

Straightforwardly, internal consistency reliability was measured. The classical approach through Cronbach's Alpha —which should be higher than 0.7— suggests that all constructs are well defined, apart from the Lower-Order Construct (LOCs) "*WHY*". Nevertheless, Cronbach's Alpha is known for being too conservative, so composite reliability (ρ_C) (Jöreskog, 1971) —which is more liberal— is also provided to draw an interval for the internal consistency reliability of the constructs. According to this metric, values between 0.60 and 0.70 are acceptable, which matches the results obtained for all constructs. To provide further details on this metric, Dijkstra and Henseler's (2015) ρ_A is also displayed in Table 2, which has the same thresholds. Consequently, it could be argued that all constructs are internally consistent, despite "*WHO*" —which is at the limit of the thresholds of AVE and ρ_C— and "*WHY*" —which lacks internal consistency. However, following Hair et al. (2022), they are kept in the model since they have theoretical support, and their removal may compromise the integrity of the model. Consequently, these constructs need to be carefully interpreted when generalising their implications, as they are theoretically relevant but empirically weak.

Table 2. Validity and reliability measures

	Cronbach's Alpha	**Composite reliability (ρ_C)**	**AVE**	**Dijkstra and Henseler's ρ_A**
Context	*.804*	*.885*	*.719*	*.805*
Personal	.869	.906	.660	.881
PreTrip	.904	.929	.724	.905
PostTrip	.932	.951	.831	.933
WHO	.493	.746	.496	.478
WHY	.227	.680	.545	.370
WHERE	.702	.821	.541	.713

Note: Italics used for higher-order construct values.
Source: Authors

Next, convergent validity is assessed through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of all constructs' indicators. Having a threshold of 0.5, results displayed in Table 2 show that all constructs fulfil it, although the LOCs do present values at the bare minimum. Lastly, it is needed to measure whether the constructs are different among them, that is, through the discriminant validity. Following the most recent trends, as suggested by Henseler et al.

(2015), the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratios of the correlations (Voorhees et al., 2016) are performed. Table 3 compiles the results, showing that the constructs are significantly distinct - values below 0.9 are acceptable, while 0.85 is a more conservative threshold.

Table 3. HTMT criterion

	Context	**Personal**	**PreTrip**
Personal	*0.500*		
PreTrip	-	0.898	
PostTrip	*0.441*	0.792	0.795

Note: Italics used for higher-order construct values.
Source: Authors

Lastly, the structural model should be assessed. Table 4 displays the methods applied. On the one hand, the statistical significance of the path coefficients was calculated through bootstrapping with 10,000 subsamples. All relationships show statistically significant paths at 99%, and their values are noticeably high. Consequently, hypotheses H1 to H5 are contrasted and validated. Additionally, pseudo-R^2 and adjusted pseudo-R^2 were calculated for intermediate constructs and the final construct —*PostTrip*— were calculated. In all cases, the values are significantly higher than the minimum threshold of 0.1, being relatively high for *PreTrip* and *PostTrip* (Hair et al., 2022).

Considering these results (Table 4), the model explains a substantial proportion of the variance and therefore has sufficient explanatory power. Regarding the relationships between constructs, although all are statistically significant, some paths exhibit higher values than others. In this sense, H2 (β=.112) shows a weak effect, indicating that the contextual factors may complement the personal dimension (H1, β=.407) in defining the rest of the relationships rather than directly affecting the post-trip behaviour. That is even clearer in H4 (β=.325), as the effect of contextual factors on post-trip behaviour triples through the mediation of the personal dimension. However, in both cases (H2 and H4), the reported path coefficient values are weak. Therefore, caution is advised when interpreting these relationships both theoretically and practically, emphasising their validity for the sample and context of this paper, but acknowledging likely differences for others yet to be studied. Concurrently, the model presents higher effects for the sequence involving H3 (β=.809) and H5 (β=.434), suggesting that the individuals' attitudes strongly shape the preparation for the trip and that such a preparation significantly affects the post-trip behaviour. Although the theoretical relevance is prominent, as it incorporates these relationships into a wider model, the practical implications – discussed below – are very relevant and justified by the strong coefficients.

Table 4. Path coefficients

	Personal	**PostTrip**	**PreTrip**
Context	*.407****	*.112****	
Personal		.325***	.809***
PreTrip		.434***	
R^2	.166	.596	.655
Adjusted R^2	.164	.593	.654

Note: Italics used for higher-order construct values.
Note 2: p_value: ***<0.01
Source: Authors

Thus, taking into account the above results, which validate the model and its relationships, hypotheses H6 to H9 can be addressed. These hypotheses stated differences in the prior relationships because of sex, origin, frequency of consumption and preferred type of beer. Testing these hypotheses could be performed through two methods. On the one hand, simple comparisons could be performed using U Mann-Whitney tests for between-group differences in non-normally distributed variables and t-tests for those normally distributed ones. On the other hand, Multigroup Analysis (MGA) drawn from PLS-SEM estimations deepens in these analyses of differences. Table 5 summarises the results of the first ones, showing that most variables present differences between groups by the four control variables. Given the statistically significant differences in the mean values between these groups, MGA is justified in checking for further evidence of such differences, as these variables form the constructs validated above.

Table 5. Differences between groups through U Mann-Whitney and t tests

Variable	Sex	Origin	Freq	Type
Age	2.156**	7.762***	-3.680***	2.678***
TripsY	3.388***	-1.953**	-2.047**	-2.568**
WHY_SocialR	-0.889	-3.543***	2.653***	0.101
WHY_Anx	3.117***	-5.364***	-4.658***	-2.362**
WHY_Pl	3.629***	2.486**	-4.961***	-0.967
WHY_Econ	-0.533	-3.088***	1.680*	-0.575
WHERE_Home	4.166***	-0.065	-7.327***	-0.276
WHERE_Bar	1.094	-0.465	-0.203	-0.772
WHERE_Rest	-0.460	2.514**	-1.026	2.487**
WHERE_Events	-0.451	-0.691	0.427	0.560
WHO_Alone	5.882***	-2.639***	-5.783***	-1.885*
*WHO_Family**	*0.8766*	*2.3982***	*-4.0845****	*1.2092*
WHO_Friends	0.887	-1.393	-0.797	0.600
Knowledge	6.185***	-0.829	-5.052***	-5.299***
Enjoyment	3.448***	-4.023***	-4.419***	-5.577***
InflWhere	5.184***	-5.341***	-4.715***	-6.512***
FirsToTry	4.850***	-3.615***	-2.544**	-6.197***
DispoAlcohol	4.561***	-4.856***	-5.815***	-5.292***
OverallSatisf	5.563***	-4.506***	-5.980***	-5.563***
BeerBrand	4.587***	-2.380**	-4.478***	-6.516***
Place	5.318***	-2.508**	-4.674***	-7.908***
BuyBeer	4.065***	-4.294***	-3.589***	-6.382***
Activities	3.880***	-2.463**	-3.259***	-6.590***
Return	5.377***	-4.528***	-4.585***	-4.926***
Recom	4.822***	-5.423***	-4.459***	-5.223***
LookForIt	3.661***	-5.364***	-2.545**	-5.500***
Memories	4.840***	-5.280***	-4.491***	-5.298***

Note: *represents normality; *t* tests —in italics— apply.
Source: Authors

In this vein, Table 6 compiles the results of the MGA analyses. Following Henseler et al. (2009), only those p-values above 0.95 or below 0.05 could be understood as statistically significant results at 95%. Similarly, results above 0.99 are statistically significant at 99% and so on. Hence, the results show no statistically significant differences by sex or

frequency of consumption for any of the relationships in the model. Conversely, H1 was found to have differences by origin of the tourists (95%), being higher for foreigners, and by preferred type of beer (99%). Regarding only differences by origin, H2 (95%) and H5 (90%) report that the strength of the relationship for foreigners is higher for the former and for Spaniards for the latter. Also, H3 only reported differences by preferred type of beer, but at 90%.

Table 6. MGA by sex, origin, frequency of consumption and preferred type of beer

	H1. Context -> Personal	H2. Context -> *PostTrip*	H3. Personal -> PreTrip	H4. Personal -> *PostTrip*	H5. PreTrip -> *PostTrip*
Sex					
Men	.4019	.1229	.8179	.3354	.4117
Women	.3894	.1039	.7773	.3069	.4470
p	.4360	.3804	.1537	.3861	.6314
Origin					
Spanish	.3972	.1022	.7931	.2784	.4804
Foreigners	.5035	.2337	.8268	.3541	.3141
p	.9669	.9555	.8405	.7157	.0917
Frequency					
Casual	0.3643	0.1098	0.7994	0.3209	0.4392
Frequent	0.4239	0.1316	0.8050	0.3096	0.4340
p	0.8239	0.6453	0.5777	0.4583	0.4795
Type of beer					
Traditional	0.3717	0.0988	0.7667	0.3108	0.4326
Craft	0.5554	0.1714	0.8145	0.3105	0.4133
p	0.9991	0.8451	0.8999	0.4997	0.4322

Source: Authors

The above MGA results are of the highest interest as they reflect isolated differences between groups. Therefore, it entails that the heterogeneity among consumers is not as significant as expected. The lack of statistical significance for sex and frequency of consumption has substantial theoretical implications, as illustrated by a shift in consumption, which is further discussed in the next section and has relevant implications for both academics and practitioners. Besides, the significant differences between groups based on tourists' national origin and beer preferences suggest that cultural motives may be at play. Consequently, attention should be given to cultural aspects rather than contextual factors, both in theoretical advancements in research and in segmentation strategies.

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the relationship between beer and tourism from a holistic point of view, including the sampling of craft beer drinkers and traditional and non-frequent consumers, which has been barely done within the beer tourism literature. Besides, it delved into unexplored topics in the academic literature which relates to beer and tourism, which include analysing the contextual factors of beer consumers, their behaviour towards beer before a trip, their attitudes while planning it, and their behaviour after travelling,

including revisiting, repurchasing, recommending and the memorability of the experience. All these relationships and variables entail a novel and unique approach to the study question in the extant literature. Moreover, building on these and the control variables, differences between groups were analysed to provide further evidence of the beer consumers while travelling.

The results of the estimations of the model revealed that all established relationships were statistically significant, hence validating hypotheses H1 to H5. Strong relationships were found between the context of the individuals and their personal behaviour towards beer (H1: .407) and between the attitudes while preparing for a trip and the post-trip behaviour (H5: .434). Regarding the high coefficient found for H1, it is especially relevant because it allows a deeper understanding of what affect the personal dimensions that subsequently affect other dimensions in the model. Plus, it helps gathering up several elements dispersed in the literature into a meaningful relationship, thus having important theoretical implications for advancing in the beer consumption and tourism understanding. Conversely, the validation of H5 with such a high coefficient entails that the relationship between these constructs is consistent with previous evidence in tourist behaviour literature (Cao et al., 2023), as suggested by other beer-related works (Boger et al., 2019; Guerra-Tamez et al., 2021; Tong, 2022; Carrillo and Barbieri, 2024). Hence, apart from the theoretical relevance of this finding, it presents practical implications for the stakeholders as they may want to engage with potential beer tourists while they are preparing their trip to obtain positive post trip interactions such as revisits or recommendations of the destination regarding beer.

Then, the most significant effects were found between the personal behaviour towards beer and the preparation for the journey (H4: .809). This finding is of relevance from a theoretical and practical point of view. On the one hand, because it adds to the literature specific evidence of the personal dimensions in the pre-trip stage, as suggested by Yilmaz & Yilmaz (2020), involving that how tourists engage with beer will strongly determine how they plan their trip. Despite this may be considered a truism, its statistical support is crucial for developing a comprehensive model. On the other hand, it delves into the claims presented above, as it is of interest to policymakers who aim to develop a tourist destination as beer tourism destination or develop the beer tourism niche segment as complementary offer of the destination. In other words, policymakers would be interested in investing in better displaying beer-related information of the destination (beer brands, places to drink beer, where to buy and beer related activities) so tourists highly involved in beer may be better informed and actually travel to the destination, enjoying an enhanced experience.

Also, statistically significant but with noticeably lower effects were the relationships between the individuals' context and the post-trip behaviour (H2: .112), as well as the personal attitudes and the post-trip behaviour (H3: .325), the latter in line with Taylor and DiPietro (2019) and Kesgin et al. (2022) claims. These results significantly contribute to the literature, as H1 and H2 were barely present, apart from their indicators, and lacked statistical support for their relationships. All in all, the relationships stated in H2 and H3 ought to be interpreted carefully due to their low coefficients. That is, these both hypotheses being validated adds to the extant body of literature from a theoretical perspective, but further analyses ought to be made in order to infer practical implications from them.

In addition to the above relationships, the results contribute to the theoretical corpus of literature by forming a construct involving previously scattered indicators, such as enjoyment in consumption (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2019), sense of higher knowledge about beer (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Koch and Sauerbronn, 2019; Carrillo and Barbieri, 2024), and willingness to try new things (Kraftchick et al., 2014; Sthapit, 2017; Dudic et al., 2020). In fact, it is proven that they do form a latent construct which can be named as personal behaviour towards beer. That is of particular theoretical relevance as expands on what local food-related studies already included (Choe & Kim, 2018; Soltani et al., 2021; Mohammad et al., 2022; Gupta et al., 2023), but adapted to the beer context.

Apart from validating the proposed model, this study also aimed to discover whether there might exist differences between groups among the main sociodemographic variables —sex and country of origin— and the two control variables proposed —frequency of consumption and preferred type of beer. These constituted hypotheses H6 to H9 and were tested through between-groups tests and MGA. While between-groups tests shed some light on likely differences between groups for each variable, MGA specified which ones were consistent for the whole model. Previous research has barely addressed these types of differences. Only Rivaroli et al. (2020), Bachman et al. (2021), and Arellano-Covarrubias et al. (2022) consider that men and women may behave differently towards beer. However, they did not find significant differences depending on the respondents' sex. This study was consistent with their results, not finding differences by sex but neither by frequency of consumption.

Nevertheless, differences were found for some hypotheses in the model. Thus, in relation to the origin of the beer consumers, foreign drinkers presented higher effects in H1 while H2 and H5 reported differences between nationals and foreigners, being the relationship stronger in H2 for foreigners and in H5 for Spaniards. Since no previous literature addresses it, it has remained as a future line of research as stated by Xu et al. (2023). Therefore, these findings are notably relevant from a theoretical perspective. However, they are also important in practice as the place of origin of the tourists is crucial for stakeholders. Thus, foreigners' context has a stronger relationship with their behaviour towards beer (H1) and their post-trip behaviour (H2), meaning that specific campaigns aiming at them should focus more on factors such as who they drink with, where they drink beer and why they drink. Conversely, regarding H5, Spanish citizens post-trip behaviour is more strongly influenced by their pre-trip preparation, involving that tailored campaigns should aim at providing them with more detailed information about beer brands, places to consume beer in the destination and where to buy it, as well as their availability and beer-related activities.

Finally, craft beer drinkers also present higher coefficients for H1, but for H3 reported barely significant differences by preferred type of beer. In this vein, while the results for H1 also suggests tailored campaigns for craft beer consumers, the results for H3 should be carefully interpreted as the contribution should remain in the theoretical sphere. Further studies may delve into it for clarifying whether the low statistical significance is true for other geographical contexts. Additionally, the above results may help practitioners design beer-related experiences, as consumer behaviour towards beer and travel is influenced by tourists' national origin and beer preferences, rather than sex and frequency of consumption. That information suggests that cultural motives may be at play, and so are tailored experiences which involve engaging with tourists' cultural background or disrupting their conceptions about Spanish beer through innovative pairings.

Accordingly, this work provides several pieces of original evidence that complement the scarce body of literature currently available concerning the relationships between beer consumption and tourism. A few comparisons with the previous literature can be discussed adequately since this paper introduces novel approaches to the study question and several hypotheses that were not previously stated. Strong support was found in the statements that partially match the outlined hypotheses. The relationships drawn in the model suggest that there might be room to explore beer tourism from a more holistic perspective, broadening the sample and considering more dimensions in the study, which are drawn as future research lines. The mere existence of significant relationships between the different stages of the preparation of a trip is crucial for many interested parties. All in all, the main theoretical implication of this paper is the proposition and empirical corroboration of a comprehensive model of the beer tourism phenomenon, summarising and compiling existing knowledge in the area of research, and providing comparisons between groups based on key characteristics.

First, scholars may find statistical support for assuming certain relationships that underlie consumer behaviour. Specifically, the relationships between consumption habits and the preparation for the trip are crucial to understanding further connections, such as the preparatory process to the post-trip behaviour. Secondly, both scholars and private stakeholders such as brewers, pub owners, or tourist agents may benefit from accurately knowing who the potential beer tourists are or, more generally, those consumers who are more prone to engage in beer-related activities. Identifying differences between groups helps narrow down. The results discard differences by sex and frequency of consumption, which widely broadens the market to more consumers. In addition, the partial differences in preferred types of beer support the fact that the intensive research on craft beer is very limited in describing beer tourism or, at least, beer consumption in the tourism sphere. Lastly, public destination managers may find these results helpful for non-established beer destinations. Public policies that promote them might assist in diversifying the tourist offer and boost alternative leisure spaces, such as brewpubs, in non-touristic areas. Additionally, enhancing the presence of Spanish beer alongside flagship dishes may add value to the Spanish gastronomy landscape through new pairings and recipes.

In conclusion, this paper significantly contributes to the extant literature by contrasting the above-stated hypotheses. However, some limitations arose despite the authors' best efforts to carry out a comprehensive study. Firstly, the study was conducted only in Spain, surveying national and international respondents. The geographical context may influence the generalisability of the findings, primarily because Spain is not a well-known brewing country. However, other factors may have influenced the results. On the one hand, beer is culturally attached in Spain to leisure time, socially enjoyed in terraces, and strongly linked to good weather. In fact, the latter entails that soft lagers are the preferred type of beer consumed, especially on sunny days. On the other hand, the Spanish beer market is controlled by four big beer companies (Mahou San Miguel, Grupo Damm, Heineken España, and Hijos de Rivera), which produce 94.6% of the Spanish beer; three of them with majority Spanish capital (Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación, 2025). These companies' flagship products are lager beers, which are widely available nationwide. They are mostly mutually exclusive in bars and restaurants, significantly reducing the presence of other beer brands or craft beers.

Second, despite the sample comprising 525 complete responses, 132 were foreigners. While this figure is valid enough for most statistical analyses and running PLS-SEM, there might be differences concerning the country of origin, as German and Czech citizens — countries with well-known brewing traditions— may answer differently. However, addressing that was out of the scope of this study since it would require a sufficient sample of respondents from these countries. In this vein, the study would greatly benefit from being replicated in well-known beer destinations, such as Belgium, Germany, or Czechia. That would enable cross-cultural comparisons and substantially enrich the extant beer-related literature.

Thirdly, the reported data showed low average values. Hence, despite the statistical significance of the above analyses, caution is advised for practitioners. That is, the relationships stated do occur, but they are true for a relatively reduced share of the population. Therefore, marketing strategies should aim to increase that share, along with doubling efforts to reinforce the message delivered to those beer tourists. Specifically, substantive efforts should be made from a cultural perspective to strengthen Spain's image as a potential beer destination. Nevertheless, all these limitations are promising lines of future research, including cross-cultural validation of the above results, as well as longitudinal studies on the phenomenon analysed. Also, it would be of high interest to include other variables as the willingness to pay for craft and industrial beers, the preference for alcohol-free or low alcohol beer, or dietary restrictions such as gluten-free beer. Overall, this comprehensive study draws significant findings that may help scholars undertake further research and practitioners make informed decisions.

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ANNEX 1

Annex 1. Variables, items and codes.

Variable	Items	Code
Sex	0 — Man; 1 — Woman	Sex
Origin	0 — National ; 1 — International	Origin
Income	0 — Less than €1.300 ; 1 — Between €1.300 and €3.500 ; 2 — More than €3.500	Income
Trips by year	Quantitative	YTrips
Tye of preferred beer	1 — Traditional ; 2 — Craft beer ; 3 — Exotic/rare	TBeer
Frequency of consumption	1 — Once a month/ special occasions ; 2 — One to two times a week ; 3 — At least three times a week ; 4 — Daily	Freq
Why do you usually drink beer?	Social reasons	Why_1
	Reduce anxiety or stress	Why_2
	Pleasure in consumption	Why_3
	Economic reasons	Why_4
Where do you usually drink beer?	Home	Where_1
	Bar/pub	Where_2
	Restaurants	Where_3
	Social events	Where_4
Who do you usually drink beer with?	Alone	Who_1
	Family	Who_2
	Friends	Who_3
How much do you know, in general, about beer?		Know
I travel to enjoy memorable drinking experiences		Enjoy
I often influence my friends about where to drink while on a trip		Influ
I want to be the first of my friends to try new drinks		First
The availability of alcoholic beverages is important to me when choosing a destination (e.g., affordable prices, few restrictions, variety…)		Dispo
Prior to travelling to a destination, I seek out detailed information about:	…its beer brands	Brands
	…the traditional places to drink beer (e.g., Biergarten, pubs, breweries…)	Places
	…where to buy beer	Shop
	…activities such as visits to breweries, beer tastings, pub crawls…	Activ
My drink experiences are important to the overall satisfaction of my trip		OSatisf
Having satisfactory drink experiences on a trip, makes me more likely to	…return to the destination	Return
	…recommend the destination	Recom
	…look for those beverages at my home country	Repurch
	…have positive memories about my trip	Memor

Source: Authors

ANNEX 2

Annex 2. Indicator loadings.

Constructs	Indicators	Loadings	Constructs	Indicators	Loadings
WHO	Who_1	.653***	Personal	Know	.665***
	Who_2	.741***		Enjoy	.856***
	Who_3	.716		Influ	.873***
WHY	Why_1	.443***		First	.818***
	Why_3	.946***		OSatisf	.833***
WHERE	Where_1	.512***	PreTrip	Brands	.871***
	Where_2	.809**		Places	.863***
	Where_3	.78***		Shop	.863***
	Where_4	.8***		Activ	.846***
Context	WHO	.827***		Dispo	.81***
	WHY	.829***	PostTrip	Return	.908***
	WHERE	.887***		Recom	.945***
				Repurch	.871***
				Memor	.921***

Note: p_value: ***<0.01

Source: Authors