Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure

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Edited by

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Preface

In Melbourne, Australia, during 5–8 January 2003, a very successful Third Symposium on the Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure (CPTHL) was held and hosted at La Trobe University. This followed successful symposia held in Hilo, Hawaii (August 1998), and Vienna, Austria (July 2000). In Melbourne, 26 papers, selected on the basis of a competitive paper review process by four reviewers, were presented spanning a broad variety of different CPTHL topics. Based upon the discussions that took place in Melbourne, authors revised their papers before submitting them for review one further time prior to publication in this volume.

The symposium brought together tourism, hospitality and leisure researchers from around the world to report research, share ideas, and advance consumer psychology and consumer behaviour theory in this important economic sector. In this sector, consumption is characterized by almost infinite choice, multi-stage and high-involvement decision processes, fragmented service encounters, multi-dimensional product attributes, globally diverse consumers, and complex social, cultural, ecological and political environments. As such, the tailored development and application of consumer psychology and consumer behaviour theory to tourism, hospitality and leisure presents interesting challenges and exciting possibilities.

The success of the Third Symposium was due to the efforts of a number of people. First, I am very grateful to my colleagues and Symposium Co-chairs: Professor Richard Purdue, Professor of Tourism Management at the University of Colorado at Boulder; Professor Harry Timmermans, Professor of Urban Planning at Eindhoven University of Technology in The Netherlands; and Professor Muzaffer Uysal, Professor of Tourism Management at Virginia Tech. Their input to the symposium, and their efforts in evaluating papers, chairing sessions and assisting authors with the completion of their papers, was critical to the success of the symposium. It was a joy and honour to work with such highly respected international figures in this field. I would also like to acknowledge the work of Richard Mitchell, Lisa Damevski and other staff in the Faculty of Law and Management at La Trobe University who assisted with some aspects of the Symposium and its organization. In particular, Megan Morrow provided important support. Rebecca Stubbs at CABI Publishing was most helpful throughout the whole process of publication. All of the authors contributed significantly to the success of the Symposium through both their scholarly and social input. I would finally like to thank my wife, Linda, and children, Amanda, Vanessa and Scott, for their patience and loving support, which has made the task of organizing the Symposium and editing this book that much more satisfying and rewarding.

Montreal 2005

The Fourth Symposium on the Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure is to be held in July 2005, in Montreal, Canada, organized by Professor Arch G. Woodside, Professor of Marketing, Carroll School of Management, Boston College and hosted at the École des HEC/HEC School of Management. Further details on the symposium will be available by contacting Professor Woodside at woodsiar@bc.edu.

Geoffrey I. Crouch
Melbourne, March 2003

Chapter one
Building Foundations for Understanding the Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure

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Introduction

The field of consumer research generally, and consumer psychology and behaviour more specifically, has, in this *age of consumption*, attracted growing interest from marketing scholars and practitioners, psychologists, social scientists, government policy makers, competition and consumer regulators, consumer advocacy groups, and of course consumers themselves – the general public. A knowledge of how consumers think, feel, and behave is the crux of this growing interest since it enables the description, analysis, prediction, and control or influence of consumers, consumer systems, and the consumption environment. Both positive and normative aims are behind the interest in consumers and the research that this interest is stimulating. A positive orientation seeks to examine and understand what is, whereas a normative approach is aimed at determining what ought to be.

The industries and activities that comprise the tourism, hospitality and leisure sectors of the economy represent one of the largest and fastest growing segments of consumer spending. Yet, despite a developing body of research, our knowledge and understanding of the consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure (CPTHL) is not yet commensurate with the economic and social significance of the phenomenon. Indeed, CPTHL research is embryonic and is somewhat scattered across many fields of study and their respective scholarly research journals. However, as noted by Woodside (2000, p. 1), there is growing evidence of the emergence of CPTHL research as a separate scientific field in terms of academic journals, university degree programmes and scholarly conferences, including the symposium that has led to this volume and the earlier publications in this series (Woodside *et al.*, 2000; Mazanec *et al.*, 2001).

We are therefore now at a stage when the foundations for developing an understanding of CPTHL are being formed, and the soundness of these foundations will shape the path of future research, and the discoveries and successes it produces.

Dimensions of Psychology

To put CPTHL research into context, we first consider the various elements that form the psychology discipline. The field of psychology, at its most basic, is concerned with understanding human behaviour. Since many factors can influence, shape or drive human behaviour in a wide variety of contexts, the discipline of psychology is quite broad. One way of organizing this complexity is to sort the field into three dimensions as illustrated in Fig. 1.1.

The first dimension concerns the principal branches of psychology. Examples of these overlapping and interconnected fields include the following:

- *Cognitive psychology* – a classic definition of cognitive psychology describes it as referring 'to all processes by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered, and used' (Neiser, 1967). Hence cognitive psychology deals with topics such as *perception* (attention and recognition), *memory* (encoding and storing, retrieving and forgetting, the organization of knowledge, and information processing), *language* (linguistic knowledge, reading and writing), and *thinking*, (reasoning, problem-solving and intelligence).

- *Environmental psychology* – concerns the relationship between human behaviour and the physical environment. This branch of psychology addresses the perception and cognition of natural and built environments (Bell *et al.*, 1990). It deals with issues such as arousal, stimulation, stress, adaptation, approach–avoidance behaviour, environmental design, way-finding, and work versus leisure environments.

- *Social psychology* – this branch is an amalgam of sociology and psychology. It addresses the ways in which individuals are influenced in their behaviour by other individuals or groups. Hence, social psychology is concerned with social status or class, peer groups, cultural norms and
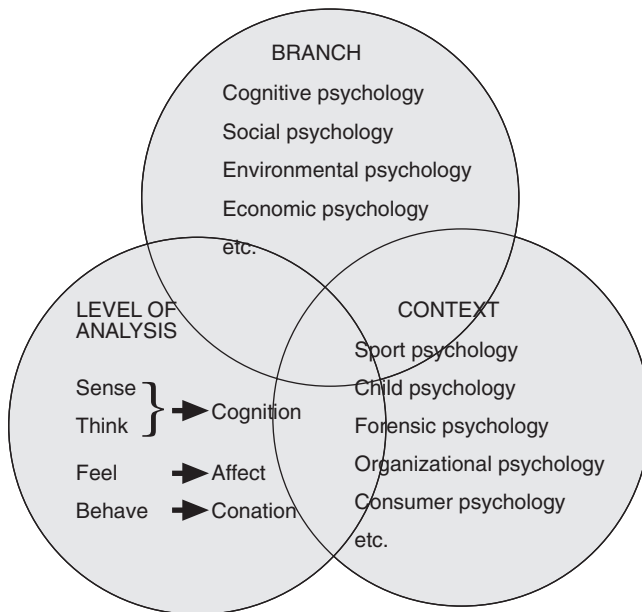
Fig. 1.1. Dimensions of psychology.

social rules, family and reference groups, etc. It also draws upon the field of cultural anthropology.

- *Economic psychology* – this interdisciplinary branch of psychology links cognitive and social psychology with economics. Warneryd (1988, in Crotts and van Raaij, 1994) defines it as a 'discipline that studies the social–psychological mechanisms that underlie the consumption of products and services and other economic behaviour. It deals with consumer preferences, choices, decisions and factors influencing these behaviours as well as the consequences of decisions and choices in the satisfaction of needs.'

The level of analysis in Fig. 1.1 constitutes the second dimension. In psychology, one might differentiate between how individuals sense, think, feel and behave. At the level of the senses, psychology focuses on biology and physiology in order to understand the physical workings of the body and the brain. In terms of thinking, psychology stresses cognition, learning, involvement, reasoning and intelligence. To understand feelings, psychology addresses motivations, attitudes, personality, emotions, moods, beliefs and the role of affect. Finally, to understand human behaviour, psychology examines the influence and role of lifestyle, intentions, persuasion, decision making, choice and satisfaction, among other factors.

A third dimension recognizes different contexts in which psychology might be studied. For example, one might study sports psychology (how can athletes, and sportsmen and women improve their performance through the application of psychological principles), child psychology (how can the behaviour of children be understood and managed), forensic psychology (how psychology can assist in solving legal problems), and organizational psychology (how can an organization such as an enterprise get the best performance from its employees). In this book we are, of course, interested in another context: that of consumer psychology specifically in tourism, hospitality and leisure (THL) settings. Thus, we are interested in understanding how the principles and theories from cognitive, environmental, social and

economic psychology inform an understanding of the behaviour of THL consumers. As such, knowledge of consumer psychology is fundamental to the successful development, management, and marketing of THL environments and businesses.

The Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure

Mullen and Johnson (1990, p. 1) define consumer psychology 'as the scientific study of the behaviour of consumers'. Foxall (1990) and Foxall and Goldsmith (1994) emphasize the significance of the *cognitive consumer* as a basis for this scientific understanding of consumer behaviour in that 'consumer choice is portrayed as an ego-involving sequence of cognitive, affective, and conative changes which precede and predetermine the purchase/no purchase outcome' (Foxall 1990, p. 9). Figure 1.2 illustrates a conceptual model of this sequence.

A common way of conceptualizing consumer psychology is to consider the three primary stages of the consumption or purchase process: pre-purchase, purchase and acquisition, and post-purchase (Arnould *et al.*, 2002). In each of these stages, THL behaviour is unique. Specifically, when compared to most retail products, the THL pre-purchase stage tends to occur much further in advance, frequently involves making purchase decisions from great distances, and involves making decisions between intangible, highly symbolic alternatives. The choice of destination(s) and the mix of activities to be undertaken during the vacation involves a complex and time-consuming set of decisions to choose and *assemble* the desired product prior to departure. Indeed, many tourists derive a considerable part of the pleasure of their experience from these activities leading up to their trip.

The purchase and acquisition stage includes the trip itself which generally represents the core benefit for the consumer. Usually a trip is very high in experiential and hedonic characteristics, and is complex in terms of the number of individual, interdependent activities that create the overall vacation
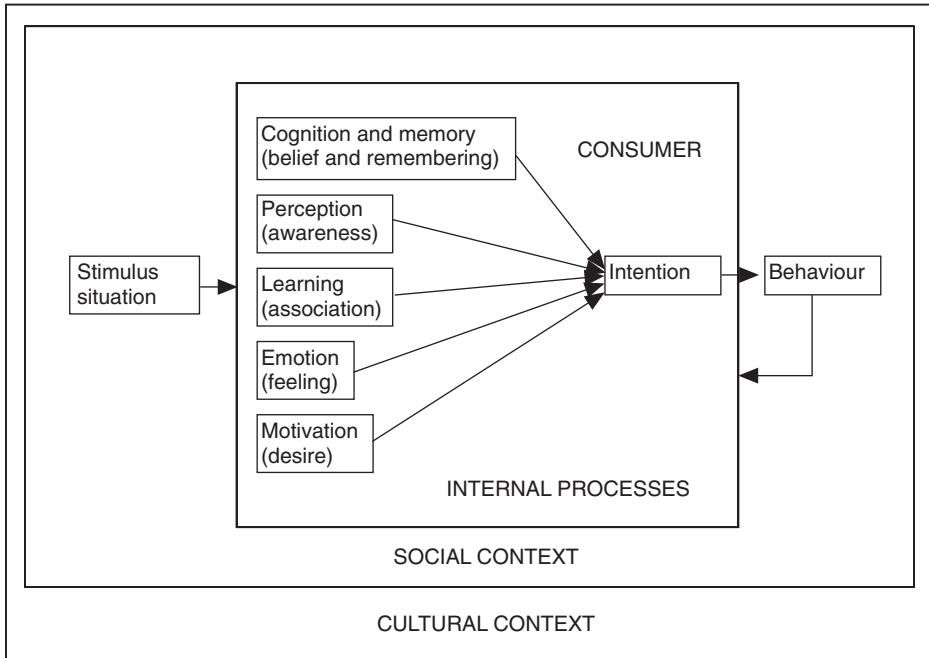
Fig. 1.2. Elements of consumer psychology. Adapted from Mullen and Johnson (1990).

experience. Furthermore, the consumer must travel, typically with a group of other people, to the 'factory' (the THL setting) to consume the product and is heavily involved in a highly customized production process. The consumption process may or may not involve the use of guides and other travel assistance.

The post-purchase stage is also of vital interest to THL developers and managers, as many tourists continue to gain a great deal of pleasure from their purchase after they return home in the form of 'dinner-table stories', the giving of souvenirs, the sharing of photographs with family and friends, and life-long memories. The post-trip stage also influences their sense of satisfaction, likelihood of returning to the destination, and the word-of-mouth passed on to other potential visitors. For many consumers, the THL places they have visited and the activities in which they participate have symbolic value in the presentation of the self to friends and colleagues.

Furthermore, as the consumption of THL takes people out of their normal environ-

ment, the principles of environmental psychology have particular relevance. Travellers must cope with unfamiliar physical and social environments. They must learn how to get around, and how to do simple things, such as buying a train ticket, which they take for granted at home but find more problematic when travelling. Strange or different physical environments and visually appealing locations may, of course, also represent one of the most compelling motivations for visiting a destination. Hence, an understanding of environmental psychology can be of great assistance to tourism practitioners.

Travel also often takes people out of their own culture, so an understanding of cross-cultural behaviour in tourism is important, both for the tourists as well as employees in tourism industries whose job it is to serve and satisfy the visitor (Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Cross-cultural issues can be the cause of problems and misunderstandings. They can also produce some of the most rewarding, memorable and satisfying experiences of the journey.

Thus, the context of THL behaviour is unique. This uniqueness provides both a challenge and an opportunity. The challenge involves appropriately applying and understanding the implications of emergent consumer psychology concepts and theories to this unique context. The opportunity is to extend and contribute to the understanding of consumer psychology both in the THL context and in general by focusing on this contextual uniqueness.

A substantive body of existing CPTHL research has evolved over the past 20 years. More than anyone, Mayo and Jarvis (1981), in their seminal work, promoted the study of the psychology of leisure travel by examining cognitive and affective drivers, and social influences. Their book addressed in turn the role of perception, learning, personality, motivation, attitudes and group influences. Other important contributions to the field include the selection of papers in Johnson and Thomas (1992) that span issues such as typologies of tourist roles, motivation, symbolic consumption, market segmentation, destination image and satisfaction. The research reported in Uysal (1994) variously addresses visitor expectations, the behaviour of package versus non-package tourists, cross-cultural issues, travel motivation, tourists' knowledge and consumer attitudes. Ross (1998) examined both the *individual tourist*, in terms of motivation, personality, attitudes and environmental influences, as well as *societal and organizational contexts*, such as destination images, tourism industry employee factors and social impacts, in deriving an overarching model of tourist behaviour that emphasizes a social network perspective.

Tourist satisfaction was the subject of the book by Ryan (1995). Satisfaction measurement has attracted a great deal of interest in the business world in recent years and there has been a significant effort among tourism researchers to apply this thinking to, or develop tourism-specific theories for, the analysis of tourist satisfaction. A further collection of research studies published in Pizam and Mansfield (1999) ranged across consumer behaviour topics including destination choice and decision-making, information search, consumer loyalties, destination image,

expectations, satisfaction, cognitive distance, perceptual mapping, cross-cultural behaviour, family life cycle influences and lifestyles. Linguistic knowledge and influences – a component of cognitive psychology – received an in-depth analysis in Dann's (1996) treatise titled *The Language of Tourism: a Sociolinguistic Perspective*. Dann contends that, 'so pervasive and essential is the language of tourism that, without it, tourism itself would surely cease to exist. In the absence of a sociolinguistic basis, the world's largest industry would simply grind to a halt…' (p. 249). Finally, Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) have produced possibly the first textbook focused specifically on consumer behaviour in the context of tourism, but which provides limited coverage of the psychological basis of consumer behaviour.

This growing body of literature is helping to build the foundations for understanding the consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure. Through this book and the associated symposium, it has been our aim to contribute to progress in this direction.

Structure and Overview of the Book

The following chapters have been grouped according to one or more common themes or characteristics. The chapters cover a broad range of consumer psychology topics and a variety of international contexts and backgrounds. Each chapter is the product of scholarly research by authors who are diverse not only in geographical origin but also in their academic backgrounds and settings. The authors share an interest in understanding how consumers think, feel, behave, and react to the uniqueness of the THL experience.

Part 1 – Attitudes, Emotions and Information Processing

Chapter 2: Risk perceptions, expectations, disappointments and information processing tendencies

This chapter by Sara Dolničar examined the choice behaviour of guests staying in one- and

two-star Austrian hotels. Hotels in this class typically do little research to understand their customer. The chapter investigates customer behaviour in comparison with tourists staying in higher-class hotels.

Chapter 3: Consumer emotions and their evaluation of service encounters

The complex role that consumer emotions play in influencing the evaluation of an airline experience is the subject of this chapter by Sandra and John Gountas. The study concludes that leisure airline passengers' emotions prior to and during a flight are related to service provision and the passengers' overall satisfaction ratings.

Chapter 4: Social distance and residents' attitudes towards tourism

Maree Thyne and Andreas Zins employed the Guttman scaling method to investigate resident attitudes towards tourism in New Zealand and Austria as a function of social distance. The scale was found to work well but produced more fruitful results in the case of Austria. The chapter suggests improvements so that this scaling method for attitude measurement provides enhanced results.

Part 2 – Motivation and Learning

Chapter 5: Motivation for domestic tourism

This chapter investigates the role of 'push' and 'pull' consumer motivations in the domestic tourism industry of Saudi Arabia. Such research in developing countries and Islamic cultures has received little research attention in the past. Bogari, Crowther and Marr find that religion and culture play a critical role.

Chapter 6: Environmental learning by eco-tourists

Chapter 6 examines the extent to which environmental education and learning forms a substantive part of the operation and marketing of ecotourism operators in Australia. Based on a content analysis of advertising material, Price finds that environmental education plays a minor role and that operators who capitalize on this shortcoming may achieve a competitive advantage.

Part 3 – Consumption Systems

Chapter 7: Domestic leisure travel purchase and consumption systems

Based on an analysis of unit-record data from the Australian National Visitor Survey, this chapter by Cowley, Spurr, Robins and Woodside investigates the potential application of Quick Clustering to construct cognitive maps of tourist consumption behaviour. They show that the method has the potential to reveal important relationships that might otherwise be missed in other analytical approaches.

Chapter 8: Tourist activity planning in congested urban tourism environments

Han, Dellaert, van Raaij and Timmermans combine an activity-based approach to analysing tourists' behaviour with a game-theoretic methodology to study the interaction between tourists, and tourism information offices. They assess the value of this approach as part of an Internet-based tourist information system.

Chapter 9: First-time and repeat visitor activity patterns

In this chapter, first-time and repeat visitor activity patterns to a theme park are analysed. Kemperman, Joh and Timmermans find that these two groups of customers differ particularly in terms of the order of activities followed. Results from this type of analysis have the potential to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of theme park operations.

Part 4 – Decision and Choice

Chapter 10: Tourist perceptions and motivations

Tourist consumer behaviour in the Algarve, Portugal, is examined with respect to the relationship between pre-decision, decision and post-purchasing consumer behaviour. Through factor analysis, Correia and Crouch reveal the principal images and motivations that drive tourism to this region.

Chapter 11: Choice and consumption of association convention sites

Crouch and Louviere employ discrete choice modelling to assess the factors which influence the selection of host destinations for association conventions. Through the design of a choice experiment they find strong evidence that convention planners in the Australian domestic conventions industry take into consideration a number of important variables or site attributes.

Chapter 12: Social interaction and information search in travel decision making

The dynamics of information search and social interaction are investigated by Huan and Beaman. They note that this element of travel decision making has received little attention to date, but they argue that better models and better data collection and analysis will follow from improvements in the way in which these factors are understood.

Chapter 13: Vacation decision making

A vacation is, in part, planned in advance, but many travel decisions are made on tour. Hyde investigates this duality in trip decision making and finds that pre-trip planning is more deliberate and purposeful (cognitive), whereas decision making that occurs on tour is more impulsive (hedonic).

Chapter 14: Personality and leisure constraints in vacation choice

In this chapter, McGuiggan argues that vacation choice models have typically ignored the role of individual personality, and constraints or barriers to participation in travel. On this basis, a conceptual model, including several research propositions, is formulated and put forward for testing, contending that the model ought to produce stronger relationships between personality and tourist choice.

Chapter 15: Effects of holiday packaging on consideration and choice

Using an experimental approach, Rewtrakunphaiboon and Oppewal study the effects of holiday packaging on the likelihood of destination consideration and intention to visit. They find statistically that packaging can have a positive impact on choice, and show that the experimental approach offers important advantages with respect to the design of package attributes.

Part 5 – Experience and Satisfaction

Chapter 16: Antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction

Customer satisfaction has become a major research theme in marketing generally, and in this chapter Ekinci and Sirakaya investigate customer satisfaction in the context of a restaurant setting. One of the main debates in this area of research concerns the order of the causal chain linkages connecting satisfaction, quality, attitude and behaviour. Ekinci and Sirakaya contribute to this debate.

Chapter 17: Destination satisfaction

The determinants of first-time and repeat-visitor satisfaction of visitors to Orlando, Florida, are investigated in this study by Fallon and Schofield. Using principal component analysis, they find that first-time visitor satisfaction was influenced primarily by accommodation

and hospitality factors, whereas repeat-visitor satisfaction was governed more by secondary attractions such as shopping and restaurants.

Chapter 18: Visitor, staff and management ethical beliefs and expectations

Ross investigates, in this chapter, the role of ethical beliefs and values on staff–visitor interactions and the overall level of success of the organization. He looks at the ethical values of tourism industry employees and how these compare to the ethical expectations of management and of visitors.

Chapter 19: Expressive and instrumental factors in measuring visitor satisfaction

The objective of the research reported in this chapter by Uysal and Williams was to investigate whether visitor satisfaction could be predicted on the basis of both instrumental factors (i.e. functional factors such as convenience, accessibility and quality) and expressive factors (i.e. affective constructs such as beauty, scenic wonders, quaintness, etc.). Their study found that motivation moderates the importance of these two groups of factors.

Part 6 – Market Segmentation

Chapter 20: Profiling airline web users

There is today a great deal of interest in the use of customer websites in marketing. Chen and Jang contribute to this field in a study of airline web users that examines preferred website attributes as determinants of market segmentation. They find two major market segments, which they label *Bargain Seekers* and *Utilitarians*.

Chapter 21: Data-driven market segment trends

This study by Dolničar considers some of the advantages of data-driven, or a posteriori, approaches to market segmentation. Because data-driven market segmentation derives mar-

ket segments using criteria that cannot be predetermined ahead of the trip, the tracking of such segments is problematic. This chapter suggest how this problem might be addressed.

Chapter 22: Sustainable tourism and stakeholder groups

A detailed case study of Colorado ski communities is presented by Perdue in Chapter 22. Three resort community populations, guests, resort employees and residents, are studied to reveal eight stakeholder groups. The behaviour and attitude of these groups is analysed using quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

Part 7 – Attraction and Loyalty

Chapter 23: Cultural determinants of tourist destination loyalty

By comparing US, Japanese and Chinese tourists in Hawaii, Caneen investigates, in this chapter, the effect of culture and nationality on intention-to-return. He finds distinct differences and suggests a number of implications for destination marketing.

Chapter 24: Conceptualization of tourism destination loyalty

Niininen and Riley, in this chapter, seek to build a stronger foundation for understanding and analysing the concept of destination loyalty. To this end, they develop a conceptual model of destination loyalty, which recognizes the role of personality, optimum stimulation level, attitudes toward repetitive holidays, vacation barriers and repeat behaviour.

Part 8 – Image and Interpretation

Chapter 25: Tourists' judgements in measuring comparative destination performance

In a study of British tourists visiting Turkey and Mallorca, Kozak tests an approach

designed to measure the performance of international tourist destinations in terms of their perceived competitive position. He concludes that self-reported judgements can help to diagnose competitive positions with implications for destination management and marketing.

Chapter 26: Cross-cultural behaviour research on destination image

Kozak used analysis of variance and factor correspondence analysis to analyse differences in destination image attributes of Valencia, Spain, in a survey of visitors from Belgium, Britain, France, Germany and The Netherlands. Kozak *et al.* show that images vary significantly and that important insights into the motivations for travel by different cultures can assist in the development of destination marketing strategies.

Chapter 27: Journeys of the imagination: a cultural tour route

Using an environmental psychology perspective, Oliver employed a route-mapping technique to elicit information about tourists' knowledge of an organized group tour route before and after the trip. Her qualitative and quantitative approach demonstrates how changes occur in this knowledge, particularly in its magnitude. The chapter emphasizes the value of research focuses on destination-image formation during the critical pre-purchase period.

Conclusions

CPTHL is a fertile field for research. As the global tourism industry has grown, interest in understanding the tourism consumer has become paramount to the success of tourism enterprises, travel destinations and host communities. It is also a vital input to tourism policy, planning for sustainable tourism development and government programmes for economic development and destination marketing. Yet the bulk of tourism consumer studies focus on tourists *en masse*. They tend to emphasize aggregate tourism statistics and the determinants of demand, with particular focus on demographic, macro-economic and socio-cultural trends. A minority of this consumer research attempts to understand the psychology of the tourist or of the host community residents.

Mayo and Jarvis (1981), who pioneered the study of CPTHL, argued that 'by focusing on the individual rather than the "average" – and by understanding this traveller in psychological instead of merely demographic terms – new insights into travel behaviour will be possible' (p. xiii). Furthermore, because of its uniqueness, insights into travel behaviour will also contribute to the more general understanding of consumer behaviour. The following chapters in this book continue this quest.

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Chapter two
Profiling the One- and Two-star Hotel Guests for Targeted Segmentation Action: a Descriptive Investigation of Risk Perceptions, Expectations, Disappointments and Information Processing Tendencies

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Abstract

Identifying the target segment is the basis of developing efficient market segmentation strategies, and efficient market segmentation is vital in an industry that is becoming increasingly competitive, as in the case of international tourism. In Austria, hotels in higher-star grading categories have addressed this need through systematic market research designed to identify the needs of their consumers. Not so the hotels in the one- and two-star category: these typically do not segment the market and tend to assume that increasing their star grading will lead to increased market demand instead of investigating the specific needs of tourists who very consciously choose low-star graded hotels. This chapter aims to examine this a priori segment with regard to issues that are known to influence choice behaviour, namely expectations, disappointments with past experiences and perceived risk, while taking into account information need and processing habits. The ultimate purpose of the study is to stimulate development of a segment-oriented marketing strategy for one- and two-star hotels should this guest segment differ significantly from that comprising tourists staying in higher-graded hotels.

Introduction and Foundations

Within the tourism industry, a priori market segmentation (Mazanec, 2000) has become the most widespread strategic marketing concept practically applied. Various tourist characteristics can be used for this purpose. From the perspective of the accommodation sector, one of the most interesting criteria for grouping tourists is the category of hotel chosen. The assumption that guests who frequent the same hotel category are more homogeneous with respect to their judgements towards accommodation than guests choosing other hotel categories is the reason that this grouping criteria is of relevance.

Being aware of the judgements of the segment that is served by the specific business

empowers a hotel to make adaptations (in product and service offered, advertising strategy, choice of distribution channels, pricing policy, etc.) customized to attract and satisfy the market segment targeted. Such matching of expectations of the target market segment favours inclusion into a consumer's consideration set (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Moutinho, 2000a) as well as offering the potential to increase guest satisfaction through low deviation from expectations and experiences (Moutinho, 2000b) and thus generating loyalty and repeat business (Decrop, 2001). Such strategies also decrease consumer dissatisfaction resulting from the attribution of negative feelings to external factors, and leading to attitudinal and behavioural change unfavourable to the particular company or destination (Decrop, 2001).

Consequently, maximum understanding of the targeted market segment increases the probability of market success probability, making any attempt to gain insight into the 'mind of the market segment' more than worthwhile. The components of the 'tourists' minds' that are of particular interest in this study include the kind of information sought when preparing to choose a hotel, the information processed in the course of making such a decision, the risks perceived when choosing an unknown hotel, the expectations with regard to the one- and two-star category and finally prior disappointments experienced. These factors were chosen because they help the tourism industry to determine the central concerns of the market segment under consideration as well as deduce managerial consequences from them, as it has been widely shown that these factors influence travel and/or travel decision behaviour (the influence of past experiences has been shown by Mazursky, 1998; compare references Sönmez and Graefe, 1998; King and Woodside, 2001; of perceived risk by Goodrich, 1991; Um and Crompton, 1990; Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998; of dis/satisfaction by Decrop, 2001). The information needed for and processed during the actual hotel decision making process is relevant for the communication strategy of the hotel. Thus, knowing which information is needed and processed during the hotel decision making process helps the one- and two-star hotels to include relevant information in their brochures or on their homepages (communication match with the target segment chosen). Risks perceived are extremely useful for hotels in determining communication strategy and product design, and expectations and disappointments allow hotel management to minimize the expectation–experience gap that is crucial for either a satisfactory experience potentially leading to repeat visits and loyalty, or perceived dissatisfaction leading to negative attitudes and behavioural change toward the hotel and maybe even demotion to one- and two-star hotel status.

The reasons for investigating the a priori segment of guests staying in one- and two-star hotels are twofold: (i) all the issues mentioned so far have widely been studied both in consumer behaviour literature as well as in the field of tourism research. However, these topics and the consequences for the tourism industry resulting from these findings have – to the author's knowledge – never focused on the segment of hotel guests staying in low-star category hotels. This fact can be well illustrated in exploring studies that aim to identify the most important hotel attributes from the guest perspective. Among 20 studies (Lewis, 1984a,b; Cadotte and Turgeon, 1988; Wind et al., 1989; Saleh and Ryan, 1991, 1992; Anath et al., 1992; Barsky and Labagh, 1992; McCleary et al., 1993; Pannell Kerr Forster Associates, 1993; Weaver and Oh, 1993; Clow et al., 1994; Schaefer et al., 1995; Tsaur and Tzeng, 1995; Griffin et al., 1996; Gundersen et al., 1996; Hartline and Jones, 1996; Bowen and Shoemaker, 1998; Dube and Renaghan, 1999a,b, 2000a,b) that in essence pursue this goal,[1] 40% do not study any particular group of travellers, 25% focus on business travellers, 10% explore both four-star hotel guests and intermediaries and one study investigates hotel attribute importance in the three-star, the luxury and the mature traveller segments. (ii) In the Austrian lodging industry the finding that segmentation is a profitable concept is not generally accepted. Systematically, four- and five-star hotels are well aware of this fact and

act accordingly, whereas one- and two-star hotels in particular do not lay any importance on segment understanding. This is due to two main factors: first, hotels in the one- and two-star category do not have organizational structures that allow for strategic management. This can be described as a 'structural problem' of the lodging industry. Second, there is a tendency for every hotel to aspire towards gaining an additional star. The one- and two-star businesses thus feel inferior within the lodging industry instead of taking advantage of their market opportunities ('star greediness problem').

The aim of this chapter is to examine the make-up of visitors to Austria who choose to stay in one- or two-star graded accommodation to improve: (i) understanding of this group and (ii) evaluation of the distinctness of this group as a target segment. If distinct profiles emerge, the one- and two-star hotels use such information to build up a strong brand, which consequently would weaken the 'star greediness problem'. The 'structural problem' could be solved in a second step by providing central market research and strategic marketing support for member hotels.

Exploring the One- and Two-star Hotel Guests in Austria

Six hundred and fourteen interviews were conducted on the basis of hypothesis-oriented quota sampling within the following categories: season (248 respondents were questioned during the winter season of 2001, 366 in the summer months, the sample size of the one- and two-star guest amounting to 147), country of origin, city or non-city destination, business or vacation travel purpose and star grading categories. The interview took about 15 min and was conducted in the hotels in which the guests stayed with permission of the owners. Each respondent was instructed to answer the question only with regard to his or her present travel purpose and for the star category of the hotel at which they were staying at that time. The exact questions and results are provided in the following subsections.

Pre-choice information search and information processing during decision making

Two questions were posed in order to investigate what kind of information is sought before the hotel selection process, and what kind is processed during decision making. The first question requires the respondents to provide an answer without support of the interviewer and is formulated in the following manner: 'Think of a hotel decision for a vacation/business trip. You have to choose one of two hotels. Both hotels are unknown to you at this point. Which information do you collect in order to take this decision?'

The answers were recorded according to the rank of the item as assigned by the respondent. If a respondent answered the question by indicating 'Price, location and cleanliness', price would be coded '1', location '2' and cleanliness '3'. Results are provided in Table 2.1. The first column gives the percentage of respondents choosing each particular factor, the median rank is computed only on the basis of the respondents stating the issue. The last two columns include minimum and maximum rank.

The results indicate that price is the factor named most often (83% give price as relevant information and, for most of these respondents, price is top of the list). Slightly more than two-thirds name the location and/or the surroundings of the hotel, almost two-thirds the room, the latter two aspects typically ranked second in the lists of the respondents. The remaining issues are named by less than one-third of the respondents. An interesting observation is that the star category is named by only 14% of the respondents, but among these guests, the star category seems to play an important role, as the median rank is 2 and even the maximum rank of 4 is lower than is the case for the leading three factors.

The second question approaches the issue from a more applied perspective. Respondents are given copies of pages from a hotel guide for two hotels. They are asked to look at the descriptions carefully and make a decision regarding which one of these two hotels they would book. After

Table 2.1. Unaided statements of pieces of information needed for decision making (rank coded).

	% Stated	Median rank	Minimum rank	Maximum rank
Price	83%	1	1	5
Location/surroundings	65%	2	1	5
Room	56%	2	1	5
Food and drink	29%	4	1	9
Reachability	27%	3	1	7
Staff (friendliness…)	24%	4	1	9
Hotel equipment	24%	3	1	8
Star category	14%	2	1	4
Technical equipment in the room	10%	3	2	5
Pool	9%	5	2	8
Garages/parking possibility	7%	5	3	8
Picture/looks	7%	6	1	8
That everything works	7%	5	1	10
Sauna	4%	5	3	8
Workout room	3%	4	2	6

making their decision, the page from the hotel guide is removed and respondents are asked to tell the interviewer which pieces of information they remember, both for the 'booked' and the 'rejected' hotel. The ranking of hotel information resulting from this question is provided in Fig. 2.1.

The picture and the star category are foremost, with 63% and 54% of the respondents remembering this information for the hotel they decided to choose in the interview setting and 47% each for the hotel rejected in this process (the chi-squared test does not support the hypothesis that the differences between the chosen and the rejected hotel are significant, rendering a P-value of 0.324, although the sum of all pieces of information differs strongly). The name is remembered by half of the respondents that booked the hotel, the price by 41%.
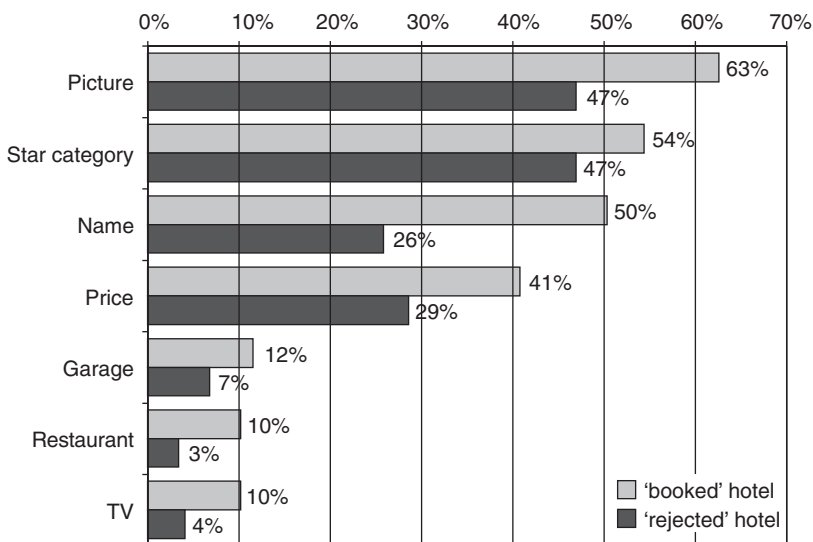
Fig. 2.1. Information remembered after the hotel choice process.

Factors of perceived risk

Tackling the issue of relevant hotel factors from a different perspective includes asking guests which aspects they consider to be most risky when booking a hotel in a specific star category. The question was formulated as follows: 'There is not a single room available in your favourite hotel any more. You are therefore in the situation of having to book a room in a hotel that you have no prior experience with. What factors are you most uneasy about?'

One hundred and twenty-three out of the 147 respondents in the one- and two-star sample (84%) answered this open-format question. Among those, 86% listed two or three factors of perceived risk. The frequency table for all statements given by at least 5% of the total sample (147) is provided in Table 2.2.

Location, price and cleanliness represent the top three risks perceived. Among those respondents who stated risks when questioned (123), more than half named 'location', and more than one-third named either

'price' and 'cleanliness'. The concerns of this group of visitors thus strongly centre around fundamental product components or 'hard facts', as compared to 'soft facts' such as service quality and friendliness.

One concern dominates the list of perceived risks among the one- and two-star guests: location. As 'location' implies a wide variety of aspect, respondents were additionally asked to answer the following question:

> During this particular stay, is it very important, important, not so important or absolutely not important …
> … that the hotel is easy to reach from the airport or train station?
> … that the hotel is easy to reach by car?
> … that the hotel is located near sites important to you (ski lift, conference centre, etc.)?
> … that the hotel is close to nature?
> … that the hotel is located in the centre of the city?
> … that the hotel is located in a quiet region?'

The distribution of answers is provided in Table 2.3. The numbers indicate the percentage of respondents indicating each particular

Table 2.2. Risks perceived by one- and two-star hotel guests.

Worried concerning …	Frequency	Percentage of total sample
Location	64	44
Price	46	31
Cleanliness	41	28
Food	21	14
Staff/friendliness	20	14
Room	14	10
Bathroom	12	8
Furniture/equipment	12	8
Service	11	7
Bed	7	5
Quietness	7	5

Table 2.3. Importance of location factors.

	Easy to reach from airport/ train station	Easy to reach by car	Located near important sites	Close to nature	Located in centre of the city	Located in a quiet region
Absolutely not important	14%	23%	7%	12%	16%	3%
Not so important	25%	14%	20%	33%	18%	18%
Important	20%	30%	44%	31%	37%	43%
Very important	40%	32%	29%	24%	30%	35%

agreement level with regard to the location factors investigated. It becomes apparent from these results that the segment of one- and two-star hotel guests is interested in locations that are easy to reach from the airport or train station. The second most important component of the location is quietness; approximately one-third of these tourists consider it to be very important that the hotel can comfortably be reached by car and that they are close to the centre of the city.

Expectations

The investigation on the expectations of one- and two-star hotel guests was undertaken from two perspectives. On the one hand, there was a direct question, aimed at revealing what the visitors expect from 'their' usual hotel star category. ('So you have a lot of experience with hotels within the … star category. What do you expect from …-star hotels?'). On the other hand, respondents were asked to state in open-question format their reasons for dissatisfaction with this particular star category. ('What were – for you personally – the main reasons for dissatisfaction in …-star hotels?').

The answers to the first question (percentages provided in Table 2.4) are dominated by one factor: 40% of the respondents express expectations in the area of cleanliness or hygiene (both in the hotel and in the room).

The remaining statements are almost negligible in comparison: 7% expect a bathroom, a shower, the location and the service to be good; 6% expect good food, and the price issue is named by 8% of the respondents, with half of them verbalizing the issue as 'cheap', half of them emphasizing the 'value for money' perspective.

Disappointments

Past disappointments with hotel experiences within these star grading categories very well mirror the expectations discussed above. Again the issue of hygiene and cleanliness is named most frequently. Contrarily, the price seems to be more dominant in the minds of tourists staying in one- and two-star hotels before the stay in the form of expectations: only 3% of the respondents state that they have been disappointed by the fact that the price was too high. The detailed list of all disappointments (categorized) is provided in Table 2.5.

Contrasting 'low-' and 'high-star-category' guests

A number of significant contrasts compared to 'higher' hotel categories are revealed: with regard to the unaided statement of pieces of information needed for the hotel decision, the star category is stated significantly more

Table 2.4. Most frequently stated expectations of one- and two-star hotel guests.

Expectation	Frequency	Percentage of all respondents
Cleanliness/hygiene	54	40
Bathroom	11	7
Shower	11	7
Good location	10	7
Good service	10	7
Good food	9	6
TV	8	5
Cheap	6	4
Friendly	6	4
Comfortable	6	4
Good value for money	6	4

Table 2.5. Reasons for disappointments.

Reason for disappointment	Frequency	Percentage of all respondents
Hygiene/cleanliness	36	24
Food	20	14
Room	19	13
Staff	17	12
Bed	10	7
Noise	9	6
Bathroom	8	5
Service	6	4
Too expensive	5	3
Technical equipment	3	2

often among guests of higher-star categories than among guests staying at one- and two-star places (Pearson chi-squared *P*-value = 0.000 with 6% of the one-star, 16% of the two-star, 28% of the three-star, 34% of the four-star and 38% of the five-star guests actively searching for this piece of information). The contrary is true for the price information (chi-squared *P*-value of 0.000, about 80% of all guests staying in the one- and two-star category ask for the price information, only 67% in the three-star category, followed by 55% in the four- and 27% in the five-star hotels). Other significant differences include the inquiry whether there is a sauna and a gym in the hotel (independent questions, *P* = 0.000 for both chi-squared tests) with 19% of the five-star hotel guests asking for both pieces of information and only less than 10% in all other hotel categories.

The comparison of information remembered after the simulated hotel choice during the interview reveals that guests staying in five-star hotels pay significantly more attention to hotel features like sauna (*P* = 0.000) and gym (*P* = 0.010), whereas far more one- (52%) and two-star guests (37%) remember the price (*P* = 0.030).

Differences with regard to perceived risks are detected in a purely descriptive manner, because the expected cell frequency does not allow for statistical testing: the quality of the bed, the food quality, hygiene, cleanliness and price seem to be perceived as risky more often in the one- and two-star hotel category, whereas quality in general, security and the

star category are the major concerns for guest choosing high-star categories.

Differences with respect to expectations mirror perceived risks expressed by respondents (again, cell frequency is too low due to the large number of expectations stated): cleanliness is mentioned most often among guests choosing the one-star category (17% state this particular issue). Furthermore, guests staying in low categories more often name food, the furnishings of the room, location, TV, minibar, air conditioning and escalator, attached bathroom, comfort and good value for money. Guests choosing accommodation in high-star graded hotels expect their stay to be quiet, they count on high quality in general, good food, sauna, gym, perfect service, good ambience, parking facilities and business infrastructure more often. The expectations verbalized by guests from low-star categories in general are less abstract than in the case of guests in higher-star categories. This is supported by the differences detected in the field of prior disappointments: cleanliness and food quality have often led to dissatisfaction among guests in low-star hotel categories, whereas disappointments in high-star categories – if articulated at all – typically concern intangible human components of the product, especially the human factor.

This contrasting perspective indicates that the one- and two-star hotel guests do represent a profiled and distinct market segment that can very well be targeted by an appropriate product and that could be marketed using the star grading as a brand system.

Conclusions

The main aim of the study presented was to determine whether a distinct market segment exists that could be targeted by the one- and two-star category hotels. A data set including 614 interviews (147 of which were conducted in one- and two-star hotels) formed the empirical basis for the investigation. The main limitation of the study is the small sample size within the one- and two-star hotel category (that resulted from major field work difficulties due to the small size of the hotels and the fact that these accommodations are not open all year). Descriptive analysis of the one- and two-star guest segment renders the following results:

- Price is the one factor stated most often to be relevant information for choosing a hotel, followed by location and the room condition. Among those respondents that stated the star category, this particular piece of information is mostly placed in the second position, thus indicating that there is potential for a one- and two-star branding endeavour.
- The picture (photo printed in the hotel guide) and the star category are remembered most often after making the actual hotel choice.
- The top three risks perceived are location, price and cleanliness, where location mostly indicates reachability and quietness.
- The top expectations include cleanliness and hygiene, the bathroom, the location and service.
- Disappointments have mostly been encountered with regard to hygiene, cleanliness, food and the room in the one- and two-star hotel grading category.

Significant differences between the guests staying in one- and two-star hotels and guests staying in higher categories could be detected with regard to all criteria studied: pieces of information needed for the hotel decision, information remembered after the simulated hotel choice, perceived risks, expectations and disappointments, thus supporting the assumption that a distinct market segment exists that could be targeted by hotels of this grading category, providing a better match between demand and supply than can be achieved by trying to upgrade the hotel to higher-star categories.

Acknowledgement

Note

[1]Although various perspectives are taken, such as importance for the choice of a hotel, influence on the intention to revisit and loyalty generation, customer satisfaction etc.

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Chapter three
The Influence of Consumers' Emotions on their Service Product Evaluation

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Abstract

There is a lack of research on the role of emotions in consumers' product evaluation. Much of the services evaluation literature focuses on the tangible and intangible aspects of the services and their effects on consumer satisfaction. However, these effects are contingent upon a wide range of factors, including the duration of the service, the individual's personality, natural preferences and their emotional states prior to, during and after the service encounter. The leisure airline industry provides an ideal setting to study the effects of the aforementioned factors. This chapter reports the findings of a study that currently comprises more than 1400 cases and focuses on the influence of emotions on service evaluation. The findings indicate that leisure airline passengers' emotions prior to and during the flight are related to the service provision, and that emotions are related to the passengers' overall satisfaction rating for the services received.

Introduction: Emotions and Services Satisfaction

Many authors have noted that more research is needed into the effects of emotions and/or mood state on consumer behaviour (Gardner, 1985; Dube and Morgan, 1998; Fournier and Mick, 1999; Holbrook and Gardner, 2000; Howard and Gengler, 2001). In her paper on mood states and consumer behaviour, Gardner (1985, p. 281) remarked, 'Individuals often try to anticipate each others' moods prior to interactions and to read each others moods during encounters.' This is something that most people instinctively understand from their personal interactions. However, this dynamic is not always considered in service encounters research. Gardner (1985) goes on to point out that mood-state knowledge may be salient to understanding consumer behaviour. Service encounters are complex and evoke a range of emotional responses as well as cognitive evaluation (Derbaix and Pham, 1991; Rust *et al.*, 1995; Price *et al.*, 1999).

Clearly, it would be useful if a service provider understands the level of impact that a particular mood state has on the consumers' service evaluations. In the case of an airline, it would be useful to understand the influence

of positive or negative emotions on the consumer, and to develop strategies to anticipate and respond to mood states as part of the normal service process and in service recovery.

The consumption of many services is often connected with leisure or discretionary income. In this case, the consumption act may be more highly charged with affective connotation than in the consumption of non-discretionary products. Price *et al.* (1999) described the service encounter provided by flight attendants (airlines) as a low-affect, social/public distance extended duration service. However, leisure airline services are high-affect service encounters. This is due to the proportionally high level of discretionary income expenditure, the frequently lengthy anticipation of the service experience and the individual's expectation of the product benefits.

Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) work on environmental psychology identified three variables that describe affective response to environments. These are pleasure, arousal and dominance (PAD). Pleasure is described and measured by expressions such as happy, pleased and satisfied. Arousal is described by the extent to which the consumer is stimulated, e.g. fear, curiosity, etc. Dominance is concerned with the individual's feeling of control over the situation being experienced. As an example, air travel is likely to be a situation over which a consumer feels very little or no control, and which may evoke a range of emotions and mood state responses.

Clearly, in the case of a leisure flight (also known as a charter flight in some regions) consumers could easily be happy but a little fearful (of flying), while feeling moderately aware of their lack of control over the situation. On the other hand, consumers may have experienced a long delay before departure, leaving them displeased, anxious and acutely aware of their lack of control over the situation. The different combinations and intensities of emotions may affect both the consumer's behaviour during product consumption and his or her overall satisfaction.

The duration of leisure or charter flights may range from less than an hour to 23 h from one side of the world to the other. The air travel experience includes the actual flight, as well as check-in at the airport, wait-

ing in the airport to board the aircraft, etc. This allows time for changes in mood state/emotions to develop. Holbrook and Gardner (2000) distinguished between mood and emotion by referring to mood as constantly evolving general affective states felt by individuals and to emotion as specific affective responses prompted by particular consumption experiences. This method differentiates between a milder, more diffuse-feeling state (mood) that may influence and/or reflect what is happening around the consumer and a more intense, object-specific-feeling state (emotion) that responds to particular consumption activities. This would seem to suggest that one (mood) might be a precursor to the other (emotion).

When using the example of leisure air travel, it is probably also useful to consider the issue of emotional contagion or emotional infection. Travelling in an aircraft with other people in close proximity is likely to foster some spreading of positive or negative emotions. Howard and Gengler (2001) examined the relationships between 'receivers' and 'senders' of a happy emotion. This notion may be considered in terms of the relationships between the service provider and consumers, as well as the relationships between the consumers themselves. Furthermore, Neumann and Strack (2000) have highlighted the differences between expectations for mood versus emotional contagion.

There has been much written about the impact of expectation and anticipation on leisure travellers (Shiv and Huber, 2000). Emotional contagion may be induced by others known to, or with, the consumer at the time of consumption or by total strangers in a densely populated environment such as an aircraft. Arnould and Price (1993) considered that affective interactions were useful in fully understanding satisfaction with a service experience. These interactions may be between service provider and consumer, possibly also including the interactions with other consumers.

Holbrook and Gardner (2000, p. 166) ask, 'If moods are output variables that characterize important affective consequences of consumer behaviour, how do these moods change in response to the progression of con-

sumption experiences? If the consumer begins in a particular mood, what accounts for alterations in this mood? By what process do moods develop over time?' The most important question is 'How do these moods, emotions, and processes affect the consumer's level of satisfaction?'.

Plutchik (1980) and Russell (1978) connected satisfaction and emotional state, with satisfaction being more specific in connotation than dissatisfaction. This suggests that dissatisfaction and its antecedents are more complex than the factors that result in satisfaction. Plutchik's scale of emotions is measured using the following triads of objectives (Sheth *et al.*, 1999):

> Fear: threatened, frightened, intimidated
> Anger: hostile, annoyed, irritated
> Joy: happy, cheerful, and delighted
> Sadness: gloomy, sad, and depressed
> Acceptance: helped, accepted, and trusting
> Disgust: disgusted, offended, unpleasant
> Anticipation: alert, attentive, curious
> Surprise: puzzled, confused, startled

Izzard (1977) developed the Differential Emotional Scale (DES II) which consists of ten emotions which incorporate Plutchik's eight primary emotions of Fear, Anger, Joy, Sadness, Acceptance, Disgust, Anticipation and Surprise but also include Contempt, Guilt and Shame as discrete emotions. What is interesting is that neither researcher identified the opposite emotion to Disgust, which is Dignity: self-respect, pride and self-assurance. Many consumers are concerned about being valued and respected by being acknowledged and appreciated as valued customers.

Havlena and Holbrook's (1986) study, comparing Mehrabian and Russell's and Plutchik's scales, used 20 individuals to produce descriptions of their consumption experiences in a number of contexts including church, athletics, entertainment, dining, hobbies, fashion and security. A total of 149 'real descriptions' were produced and analysed by two groups of ten judges drawn from MBA students at a major American university, concluding that Mehrabian and Russell's framework is more robust than Plutchik's. However, as pointed out by Hair *et al.* (1995), the use of student samples limit the generalization of this conclusion.

The following propositions were developed from the literature review:

P1 Positive and negative emotions are related, respectively to positive and negative service evaluation.
P2 Emotional states are antecedents of levels of reported satisfaction.
P3 Emotional contagion influences other customers' emotional states during extended-duration service.

Methodology

The first stage of this study included secondary research on published material and an internal database from previous customer satisfaction questionnaires from a major leisure airline in the UK. The second stage involved primary qualitative research using focus groups from two major market segments in the south and north of England. Two sets of focus groups were conducted with past customers from the leisure airline's database. The selection of all the participants was via stratified random probability methods. The first set of eight focus groups took place during June 2000 in London and Manchester, UK. Each focus group comprised between eight and ten participants. The second round of the qualitative research comprised four focus groups with eight to ten participants in each group, and took place during February 2001 in London and Manchester. The participants were selected from the airline's database of past passengers and represented the airline's 'typical' passengers in gender, age, party composition, occupation (social group) and service experienced in the range of all flight sectors and service levels. A semi-structured research guide was used to examine/identify the affective, tangible and temporal aspects of the service encounter and the evaluation criteria applied by past consumers.

Qualitative research findings from the focus groups' discussions

Most of the participants in the 12 focus groups (*n*=110) mentioned similar issues about, and criteria for, service evaluation. The findings are grouped in Table 3.1. The

Table 3.1. Service criteria.

Hygiene factors	Service/empathy	Psychological factors
Aircraft	Personalization	Perception of airline
Cabin appearance	Assurance	Previous experience
Crew appearance	Responsiveness	Expectations
Food	Service level	Confidence
Entertainment		Personality types
In-flight magazine		Tolerance
Children's amenities		Crowding
On-board shopping		Emotions/mood state
In-flight magazine		

Customer's personal characteristics	Situation specifics	Temporal factors
Age	Party composition	Check-in duration
Gender	Flight sector	Flight delays
Marital status	Purpose of travel	Flight duration
Income	Other passengers	In- or out-bound flight
Occupation	Service delays	
Nationality	Changes to expected service	
Physical size	Weather conditions	

emotions and mood states of the passengers appeared to be very important in their evaluation of the overall service, as did the temporal aspects. Longer flights, take-off delays and waiting at the check-in desk seemed to trigger mood responses that affected overall satisfaction.

Travelling companions and other passengers also seem to influence the individual's mood, emotions and attitude towards the flight attendants and their service provision. The focus groups indicated interactions between service levels received, duration and other people's moods and behaviours may result in mood or emotional changes. In combination with the literature review, the focus group findings led to the development of the field research propositions.

The survey instrument

As with Liljander and Strandvik's study (1997), the SERVQUAL dimensions of Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, Empathy and Tangibles have been used, in the construction of the new questionnaire. The items within these dimensions partly

express concerns repeatedly raised during the focus group conducted by the researcher. However, these dimensions do not address fully the other aspects of the seven categories identified by the focus group research. In order to ameliorate the deficit, the questionnaire was developed to measure service quality, expectations, the existence and impact of emotions during service consumption, individual personality traits and other psychological factors derived from perceptions of past and present service experiences, the service provider's image and personal space needs.

Plutchik's (1980) emotions scale was used to measure the impact of emotions and changes in emotions over a period of time. This scale was chosen because of the similarity of expression used by Plutchik with that of the focus group participants. The adjectives *frightened, irritated, happy, sad, trusting, offended, curious* and *confused,* from Plutchik's scale, were used frequently by the focus participants to express their emotions or mood state and were thus deemed appropriate for use in the quantitative survey. Furthermore, unlike Mehrabian and Russell's scale (Havlena and Holbrook, 1986), Plutchik's scale includes Anticipation or Expectancy, which has been

considered an important influence on a leisure traveller's or tourist's evaluation of a service (Tribe and Snaith, 1998; Weiermair and Fuchs, 1999).

Although Izzard's (1977) DES II has been found to be robust for measuring emotions during consumption, the focus group participants did not refer to these emotions (Contempt, Guilt and Shame); as such, their inclusion was considered inappropriate for this particular setting.

The structure of the airline flight satisfaction questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of five main sections:

- The first section had 28 positively worded items concerned with the participants' perception of the airline, empathy with the crew, general attitudes towards flying as a form of travel and feelings of confidence in the product.
- The second section was concerned with the participants' expectations and the factors that may have contributed towards those expectations.
- The third section was designed to measure the differences in emotions before and during the flight, and identify the causes of change. A question on overall satisfaction was included.
- The fourth section consisted of personality-type orientation statements.
- The fifth section was concerned with the demographic profile of the participants.

Item measurement scales

Parasuraman (1995) examined service quality as a function of the expectation–performance gap. SERVQUAL was subsequently designed to measure the difference between expectation and performance. There is debate about the usefulness and validity of this method (Carman, 1990; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Peter *et al.*, 1993 etc.). Cronin and Taylor (1992) asserted that their performance-based scale (SERVPERF) was more efficient than the difference-based scale (SERVQUAL). For the

purpose of this research, a compromise between measuring performance only and measuring the difference between expectations and perceived service was deemed appropriate. The reasons for this decision are:

- Exploring how expectations are formed and whether they affect perceived service quality and satisfaction is undeniably useful to the service provider.
- The research hypotheses require a mixture of performance assessment and gap analysis to be confirmed or disconfirmed.
- The practical aspects of the empirical research for data collection lend themselves more easily to a mix of performance and gap analysis.

The items are scored using a ten-point Likert scale with anchors of strongly disagree and strongly agree. The ten-point scale was chosen for its ease of use and because ten-point scales have previously been shown to have a high predictive and convergent validity (Parasuraman, 1995). The ten-point scale allows the participants to express their evaluation with a greater degree of differentiation.

Data Collection Method

The sample was from the same UK leisure airline's customer base used for the exploratory focus groups. In total, 5000 questionnaires were distributed on a range of short- and long-haul leisure or charter flights to different destinations mostly departing from the UK during the months of October, November and December 2001. The sampling method used was a probability, stratified random method drawing from all the flights available from all the UK regional airports and including all flight sectors for short- and long-haul destinations. This method allows full representation of all geographic and demographic characteristics of the UK leisure flight market.

Of the 5000 questionnaires distributed during the outbound flights by the designated crew members, 1773 were returned, a return rate of 35%. However, 346 of these questionnaires were deemed unusable either because of missing values or due to the respondent being under 16 years of age. After

the data cleaning process, there were 1427 usable questionnaires, i.e. 28% of the number distributed.

Generally, the quality of responses was very comprehensive. However, a small number of respondents had left a few questions unanswered. For example, according to the respondents' comments, a missing explanation/response was often due to the lack of personal experience; therefore, no comment/answer was provided. More specifically, for question 6, 'Air 2000 staff members have the power to solve problems' – if the respondent had not encountered any problems, they felt unable to answer the question. Similarly, for question 29, 'My expectations of the airline's service are influenced by:…', the respondents sometimes rated only the options that applied to them, leaving the others blank. This is not considered a problem as the options can easily be isolated for the purpose of analysis; alternatively, it is possible to infer a value from the values on other variables (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996).

It is reasonable to assume that if respondents gave a value of 10 to their expectations being influenced by brochures, a value of eight to TV programmes and no value to the other options, that the other options were not perceived to be a significant influence on their expectations of the airline's service, which should not bias the conclusions in any way. Similarly, this situation applies to questions 30a/d, 'This flight, today has met my expectations of…,'; question 32a/h; 'Just before I got on this flight, I felt:…'; question 33a/h, 'I now feel (at this moment):…'; question 34a/h, 'My feelings have changed because of:…'; and the personality items in questions 37 and 38. It is assumed that, in many cases, the respondents elected to answer only the items that are important to them, due to the consistency of their response pattern.

Research Findings

In order to identify the salient patterns related to the emotional issues and service satisfaction, the pre- and during flight emotions were factor analysed. Oblique factor rotation was used, as it is more flexible than orthogonal methods. The oblique method, Equimax, is more realistic because it determines the factors according to the underpinning theoretical constructs, assuming inter-correlations between the factors, which is appropriate for this case. The factors produced using Equimax should allow meaningful interpretation (Hair *et al.*, 1995).

Four factors emerged and were grouped by negative and positive emotional states (Table 3.2). Factor 1 relates to the Displeasure and Confusion emotions and produced lower values for the pre-flight and higher for during the flight service experiences. For example, the factor 1 loading scores for the question 'displeasure/offended before the flight' is 0.66, as opposed to the feelings of 'displeasure/offended' during the flight, which is higher, 0.80. Likewise, the statement 'Before the flight I felt irritated' with a factor loading of 0.53 and during the flight experience the score for 'I now feel irritated' is higher at 0.69.

In factor 2, regarding Sadness and Fear, the values of the statements just before the flight tend to be higher than the values expressed during the flight service experience. For example, the statement 'Just before I got on this flight I felt sad' produced a factor loading score of 0.73, as opposed to the statement of 'I now feel sad' with a lower score of 0.60.

Factor 3, questions related to Happiness and Trust, followed a similar pattern to factor 1. The pre-flight factor loading score is higher at 0.83 for 'Before I got on this flight I felt happy', as opposed to the lower score of 0.72, for 'I now feel happy.'

Factor 4, dealing with the issues of Curiosity, produced identical factor loading scores of 0.83, for the emotions/feelings of curiosity before and during the flight.

The correlations of the four factors related to the emotional states and overall satisfaction produced some interesting findings. Table 3.3 indicates that the strongest correlation with overall satisfaction is with the positive emotions of felt happiness and trust. The highest negative correlation is with the negative emotions of displeasure/offended, irritated and puzzled/confused.

Table 3.2. Factor analysis of all the emotions before and during the flight service experience.

	Factor loadings
Factor 1: Displeasure and Confusion	
Just before I got on this flight I felt displeased/offended	0.66
I now feel displeased/offended	0.80
Just before I got on this flight I felt irritated	0.53
I now feel irritated	0.69
Just before I got on this flight I felt puzzled/confused	0.54
I now feel puzzled/confused	0.60
Coeff. alpha	0.84
Variance explained (%)	19.1
Eigenvalue	3.05
Factor 2: Sadness and Fear	
Just before I got on this flight I felt sad	0.73
I now feel sad	0.60
Just before I got on this flight I felt frightened	0.72
I now feel frightened	0.71
Coeff. alpha	0.79
Variance explained (%)	17.5
Eigenvalue	2.80
Factor 3: Happiness and Trust	
Just before I got on this flight I felt happy	0.63
I now feel happy	0.72
Just before I got on this flight I felt trusting	0.84
I now feel trusting	0.83
Coeff. alpha	0.80
Variance explained (%)	15.9
Eigenvalue	2.55
Factor 4: Curiosity	
Just before I got on this flight I felt curious	0.83
I now feel curious	0.83
Coeff. alpha	0.70
Variance explained (%)	11.1
Eigenvalue	1.77

Extraction method: principal component analysis; rotation method: Equimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Two factors emerged concerning reasons for reported emotional change. These are shown in Table 3.4.

Tables 3.5 and 3.6 show the correlations between the pre- and during consumption emotions and overall satisfaction with the service. There is a positive correlation between positive emotions and overall satisfaction, and a negative correlation between negative emotions and satisfaction. It is interesting to note that trust is the only emotion that remained unchanged for pre- and during consumption stages. Curiosity decreased slightly during consumption but the remaining emotions increased in strength during the flight experience stages.

In order to identify whether there are any significant relationships between the emotions and the reasons for the changes and the overall perception of satisfaction, a correlation analysis was carried out (Table 3.7).

Overall, the most pronounced reasons for influencing satisfaction are 'my feelings changed because of the in-flight service and check-in services, my travelling companion's positive mood and being close to other people'.

Table 3.3. Correlations between the four emotions factors and overall satisfaction.

	Pearson correlation	Sig. (two-tailed)
Factor 1 (Displeasure and Confusion) and overall satisfaction	−0.355	0.000
Factor 2 (Sadness and Fear) and overall satisfaction	−0.010	0.766
Factor 3 (Happiness and Trust) and overall satisfaction	0.515	0.000
Factor 4 (Curiosity)	0.036	0.266

Table 3.4. Factor analysis of the reasons for reported emotional changes.

Factor 1: Intangible service characteristics and other people's influence	
My feelings have changed because of the check-in service	0.86
My feelings have changed because of the in-flight service	0.85
My feelings have changed because of my companion's positive mood	0.82
My feelings have changed because of being very close to other people	0.63
Coeff. alpha	0.83
Variance explained (%)	37.4
Eigenvalue	2.61
Factor 2: Other passengers behaving badly and boredom	
My feelings have changed because of other people behaving badly	0.74
My feelings have changed because of my becoming bored during the flight	0.79
My feelings have changed because of other reasons	0.75
Coeff. alpha	0.67
Variance explained (%)	27.0
Eigenvalue	1.89

Table 3.5. Correlations: reported emotional state prior to consumption and overall satisfaction.

	Pearson correlation	Sig. (two-tailed)
Just before I got on this flight I felt happy	0.385	0.000
Just before I got on this flight I felt irritated	−0.188	0.000
Just before I got on this flight I felt curious	0.027	0.380
Just before I got on this flight I felt frightened	−0.003	0.923
Just before I got on this flight I felt trusting	0.424	0.000
Just before I got on this flight I felt displeased/offended	−0.222	0.000
Just before I got on this flight I felt puzzled/confused	−0.158	0.000
Just before I got on this flight I felt sad	−0.138	0.000

Table 3.6. Correlations: reported emotional state during the flight and overall satisfaction.

	Pearson correlation	Sig. (two-tailed)
I now feel happy	0.596	0.000
I now feel irritated	−0.397	0.000
I now feel curious	0.005	0.875
I now feel frightened	−0.103	0.001
I now feel trusting	0.424	0.000
I now feel displeased/offended	−0.405	0.000
I now feel puzzled/confused	−0.209	0.000
I now feel sad	−0.251	0.000

Table 3.7. Correlations between the reasons for emotional change and overall satisfaction.

	Pearson correlation	Sig. (two-tailed)
My feelings have changed because of the in-flight service and because of the check-in service	0.776	0.000
My feelings changed because of the in-flight service and because of my travelling companion's positive mood	0.612	0.000
My feelings have changed because of the check-in service and because of my travelling companion's positive mood	0.596	0.000
My feelings have changed because of being very close to other people and because of my travelling companion's positive mood	0.503	0.000
My feelings changed because of the in-flight services and because of being very close to other people	0.409	0.000

Discussion

Proposition 1: 'Emotions are related to positive and negative evaluations of services', is supported partially. The negative emotional states of feeling displeased and confused indicated a statistically significant negative correlation of $r = -0.355$. The positive emotions of Happiness and Trust produced a strong positive correlation of $r = 0.515$, indicating that they are factors influencing the overall satisfaction. However, the other two factors of Sadness and Fear, and Curiosity did not produce any significant correlations.

It appears that only the strongest emotional states of Displeasure, Confusion, Happiness and Trust are critical influences in the overall perception of satisfaction. This may be due to the consumer's attribution and perception of equity with the service transaction since it could be argued that whilst displeasure, confusion, happiness and trust are likely to be in the sphere of the service provider's influence the other emotions may exist independently.

Proposition 2: 'Emotional states are antecedents of levels of reported satisfaction'. This is supported partially by the findings on the emotional states before and during the flight services and overall satisfaction. The emotions prior to the flight with the highest positive correlations are: 'I felt happy', $r = 0.385$, and 'I felt trusting', $r = 0.424$. The significant negative correlations that influence satisfaction are: 'I felt displeased/offended', $r = -0.222$; 'I felt irritated' $r = -0.188$; 'I felt puzzled/confused', $r = -0.158$; and 'I felt

sad', $r = -0.138$. The effect of emotions during the service delivery/interaction is greater in significance with service delivery, according to the correlations on Table 3.6. The positive emotions of happiness is $r = 0.596$ and trusting is $r = 0.424$ (the same as the pre-flight score). The increase in the correlation between feeling happy and satisfaction before and during the flight is nearly double.

The negative emotional states also increased during the flight. The feeling of being irritated has a correlation of $r = -0.397$; 'I now feel displeased/offended', $r = -0.405$; 'I now feel puzzled/confused', $r = -0.209$; and 'I now feel sad' is $r = -0.251$.

The impact of the service experience on consumers' emotions and satisfaction evaluation is clear and indicates real potential for intervention and recovery practices having positive outcome.

The most important priority is the on-board service quality provision, but the pre-flight service experiences are also significant in the overall perception of satisfaction. Customers need a 'seamless', efficient service for all stages of the service transactions. Each stage of the service transaction has a degree of influence and the overall cumulative experience influences the overall satisfaction level.

Proposition 3: 'Emotional contagion influences other customers' emotional states during extended duration service'. This is supported by the findings shown in Table 3.7. The pre- and during flight services are highly correlated with the influences of travelling companions' positive mood, $r = 0.612$ and $r = 0.596$ respectively. The influence of the travelling

companions' positive mood and being close to other people produced a correlation of $r = 0.503$. The in-flight service experience and the feeling of being close to other people produced a correlation of $r = 0.409$. All correlations are significant with high scores. This indicates that the social aspects/factors are significant and, therefore, the service managers need to think about the social needs and influences of others as well as the passengers as individuals.

Further analysis of the data shows that the intangible aspects of service, i.e. the 'people' who are delivering the service, are more important to overall satisfaction than the tangible aspects such as the physical environment. These findings also confirm the assumptions made at the exploratory stage of research.

The implication of the results for practitioners is that the aspects of service that influence emotions prior to, and during, consumption need to be carefully identified and monitored, as emotions have a significant impact on consumers' satisfaction levels. This means that the traditional comparison standards paradigm may be inadequate as a single method for understanding what contributes to and influences satisfaction (Fournier and Mick, 1999).

It is necessary to consider industry-specific issues. In the case of leisure airlines, competition is intense. There are many competitors offering almost identical products. The airlines are often part of vertically and horizontally integrated companies, which are complex in structure, placing constraints on the scope of product development and delivery.

These issues are exacerbated by the traditional pricing strategy of this industry, which leaves the airlines operating on very low profit margins. Most airlines are dependent on economies of scale. The extended duration nature of the total service from decision making through to purchase through to consumption means that there are numerous points in the process at which an extraneous element may interfere with the airline's ability to influence the consumer's overall evaluation.

In summary, the study has shown that there are very strong relationships between the consumers' emotions and perceived satisfaction, and that these vary with different aspects of services and are, in some part, influenced by other consumers as well as service providers. The next stage of the research will attempt to measure the extent of this influence more precisely.

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Chapter four
Validating a Guttman-type Social Distance Scale for Explaining Residents' Attitudes towards Tourism

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Abstract

Research explaining host-community residents' attitudes towards tourism receives continuous attention and its scope is broadening constantly. This study aims at contributing to the body of knowledge about the systematic variation and change of these attitudes. For this reason, the concept of social distance is introduced into the tourism context. As a first attempt, a Guttman-type scale with Thurstone characteristics was developed and purified in two countries: New Zealand and Austria. In both countries, independent surveys were conducted to validate the scale formation. Results with regard to the scale properties are encouraging, though improvements and more cross-validation has to be done. The contribution to explaining residents' attitudes was very fruitful in the Austrian but less clear in the New Zealand example. Whether different stages of tourism development are responsible for these differences cannot be entirely concluded from only two surveys.

Introduction

The sustainable tourism literature has proposed and tested the effects of a broad scope of factors on residents' opinions and attitudes towards tourism. Individual characteristics, community features, as well as factors covering relationships between the residents and the community, can be responsible for perceiving more or less negative and positive impacts from tourism activities. It is the aim of this chapter to investigate whether another personal factor has the strength to contribute to this explanation: social distance.

Although social distance is not a new issue in the social sciences, it entails an innovation within tourism literature. This chapter focuses on the theoretical anchors of the concept and the careful steps of scale development. The technical concept follows Guttman's and Thurstone's suggestions, resulting in a uni-dimensional, hierarchical and cumulative scale with almost equal intervals. The procedure and outcome of the

development of a social distance measurement instrument are compared between two countries: New Zealand and Austria. External validity was investigated by correlational analyses with the perceived impacts from tourism and attitudes towards future tourism development.

Theoretical Concepts

Social distance

Over the past 65 years, the concept of social distance has been adapted to aid in the measurement of cross-cultural impacts. Bogardus (1940) defines social distance as a concept that explains the cooperative behaviour and sympathetic understanding that exists between people. Although the concept has been used in a variety of contexts, including social distance towards rural life (Binnewies, 1926, cited in Anderson, 1983), social distance in the Shakespeare play *Much Ado about Nothing* (Bogardus, 1934) and social distance between children and their parents (DuVall, 1937, cited in Anderson, 1983), it has not been extensively applied in tourism settings. The most common context in which social distance has been employed is the study of race, nationality and cross-cultural contact (Bogardus, 1925; Crull and Bruton, 1979; Owen *et al.*, 1981).

The predominant reason for using social distance scales in determining attitudes towards cross-cultural contact are first, because it has often been advocated that social distance encompasses and is easier to measure than such concepts as prejudice, racism, discrimination, stereotyping and ethnocentrism (Triandis and Triandis, 1960; Jaspars and Hewstone, 1982; Dyer *et al.*, 1989; Hraba *et al.*, 1989, 1996; Hagendoorn and Kleinpenning, 1991; Lemaine and Ben Brika, 1997). Second, authors have stated that social distance scales are simple scaling devices, easily understood by a wide range of people, and noted for consistent results and reliability (e.g. Anderson, 1983; Hagendoorn and Kleinpenning, 1991).

The term 'social distance' was first coined by Robert Park (1924, p. 340) who believed that we not only 'have a sense of distance toward individuals with whom we come into contact, but we have much the same feeling with regard to classes and races'. Emory Bogardus operationalized this concept in the following year and began his research on social distance: research that would cover a 40-year period (Bogardus, 1967). His work was inspired by a concern with what he referred to as 'the race problem', which he believed to be one of the major social dilemmas confronting America at the time (Bogardus, 1922).

In 1925, Bogardus developed his first social distance scale of which several different versions were tried over the following decade. Although adaptations of Bogardus' scale, which was finally administered in 1933, were adopted by a number of authors over the following 50 years, none were specific enough to be adopted for the context of this chapter.

Unlike Bogardus's first scale (see Bogardus, 1933, for a discussion of his methodology), the majority of subsequent social distance scales have not been through rigorous development processes; rather, scales have often been borrowed from previous research and put into very different contexts without appropriate alteration (e.g. Prothro and Miles, 1953; Vaughan, 1962; Owen *et al.*, 1981). Additionally, many researchers give very few details on how they designed their social distance scale (e.g. Trlin, 1970; Dyer *et al.*, 1989; Hraba *et al.*, 1989; Nix, 1993). More recently however, there has been greater emphasis placed on scale reliability (e.g. Jacoby, 1978; Churchill, 1979; Lankford and Howard, 1994; Ap and Crompton, 1998; Williams and Lawson, 2001). Given the new context of this social distance study (tourism), a rigorous development process was adopted. The qualitative and quantitative phases employed in that process are the subjects of this chapter.

Attitudes toward tourism

Research on the phenomena induced by tourism activities and development within host communities has a tradition of more than 25 years. This study does not focus on

the evolution and differentiation of the resident's view or attitudes toward tourism; it solely refers to the framework for monitoring community impacts of tourism within which the concept of social distance towards tourists may contribute to explain the variation in attitudes. Hence, it may suffice here to identify some literature offering an overview of the topic complemented by some recent publications (Table 4.1).

In studying perceived residents' impacts induced by tourism activities, a variety of issues has been raised. Whereas some emphasis was laid on developing a standardized measurement instrument (Lankford and Howard, 1994; Rollins, 1997; Schneider *et al.*, 1997), numerous empirical studies use different sets of statements covering a different scope of impacts. However, convergence seems to evolve upon the basic dimensions underlying this particular attitudinal space. Factors with overlapping and, therefore, correlating content are frequently reported.

The predominant aspect covers the economic impacts of tourism. They can be attached to collective consequences or to individual benefits (e.g. income, job opportunities) or disadvantages (e.g. rising living costs), being either monetary or non-monetary in nature. A somewhat related matter

addresses the changes in infrastructure (e.g. improved roads and other public services, sports and leisure facilities).

The environmental dimension has broadened its scope over the years as well: from pollution and natural deterioration, the issues shifted towards traffic and other crowding problems. The last – and most recent – area of interest focuses on the social and cultural impacts from tourism. The range of topics goes from changes in community life and social roles, to discrimination between tourists and residents, and effects on cultural aspects such as norms, crime and architecture.

Perceived impacts of tourism can be seen as one perspective on how attitudes toward tourism are captured. Most of the proposed measurement instruments care for the perceived degree of various outcomes; however, most did not explicitly incorporate the subjective valuation of these outcomes. Another perspective considers attitudes toward tourism development, asking residents whether and how they prefer future tourism activities. Whereas the classical TIAS instrument (Lankford and Howard, 1994) mixes both aspects, other studies try to address these kinds of attitudes separately (Perdue *et al.*, 1990; Getz, 1994; Lindberg and Johnson,

Table 4.1. Dimensions and main issues of perceived impacts of tourism.

Dimension	Literature
Positive and negative economic impacts	Ap and Crompton, 1998 (literature summary); Lindberg and Johnson, 1997; Bachleitner and Zins, 1999
Community, region	Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997;
individual	Lawson *et al.*, 1998
Employment	Ap and Crompton, 1998; Faulkner and Tidewell, 1997; Lawson *et al.,* 1998
Positive and negative environmental impacts	Ap and Crompton, 1998 (literature summary); Bachleitner and Zins, 1999; Yoon *et al.*, 1999
Crowding	
Congestion	Lindberg and Johnson, 1997
Pollution	Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997
Positive and negative social and cultural impacts	Ap and Crompton, 1998 (literature summary); Bachleitner and Zins, 1999; Yoon *et al.*, 1999
Crime	Lawson *et al.*, 1998
Discrimination	Bachleitner and Zins, 1999
Aesthetics	Lindberg and Johnson, 1997
Infrastructure and community services	Bachleitner and Zins, 1999; Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997; Lawson *et al.*, 1998; Yoon *et al.*, 1999

1997; Snaith and Haley, 1999). In our study, we proposed different facets to capture this tourism attitude, e.g. the emphasis on further encouraging tourism, the development of additional tourism facilities, the role of tourism in community, the valuation of tourists and contacts with them.

Hypotheses

Our basic research question raised in this study is:

- whether a social distance scale can be developed and purified to be used in the new context of tourism research. As some evidence of reliability it is asked:
- if the end result of the development of a social distance measure in two different countries will contain similar scale items.

Most social impact studies in tourism follow the paradigm of intrinsic and extrinsic influential dimensions, as proposed by Faulkner and Tideswell (1997). The majority of investigations centre around community characteristics and a variety of socio-demographic indicators representing the individual resident. Some research papers try to address more explicitly the relationship between the local population and the tourism system, e.g. investigating the dependency on tourism (Smith and Krannich, 1998), community involvement in tourism development (Bachleitner and Zins, 1999), or the residents' sentiment toward the community (Jurowski, 1998). By considering the concept of social distance to tourists, we add a new perspective to the intrinsic dimension. Therefore, the following model with an inter-attitudinal structure is put forward when stating:

- that there is a positive relationship between social distance and general attitudes toward tourism impacts.

In addition, it is maintained:

- that there is a positive relationship between social distance and perceived tourism impacts on the one side and resident views regarding future tourism development on the other.

A Measurement Instrument for Social Distance

Item collection (New Zealand)

To identify appropriate scale items to be included in a tourism social distance scale, focus groups and personal interviews were undertaken in New Zealand, in regions chosen for their different intensities of tourism due to their differing stages of tourism development. Additionally, regions were chosen because of the types of tourists they attracted; this was to get a range of destinations popular with both domestic and international visitors. This stage of research was predominantly undertaken to generate a list of contact situations between the host and guest. Participants were asked to list the types of contact situations that can occur between the host and guest. To ensure an exhaustive list, the resulting items were compared to situations discussed in the literature. In total, 68 contact situations were obtained (see Appendix Table A for a list of the 68 contact situations).

Judge ranking (New Zealand)

The methodology behind the design of the social distance scale was very similar to that implemented by Bogardus (1933). The 68 contact situations were individually listed, typed, randomized by computer and copied on to separate cards. These cards were given to 20 judges (people with a variety of backgrounds, all over 20 years of age, and a mix of men and women) who were asked to place the statements into seven different piles according to the intimacy of the specific situation. The judges were told to imagine the contact situation to be between a visitor to a community and the host, and requested to rank the situation from 1 (most intimate) to 7 (least intimate). Seven degrees of intimacy were chosen in line with the original method used by Bogardus. The judges were also asked to ensure that each pile included at least five statements. This was to make certain that each of the seven different degrees of intimacy or social distance were accounted for.

The judges were subsequently asked to go through each pile and shift any statements that they felt would be better suited in a different pile. They were asked to repeat this procedure until they were entirely satisfied with their choices.

Once all 68 items were sorted into seven piles, the pile number for each statement (1–7) was entered into the statistical computer package SPSS and the mean, mode, standard deviation and range for each statement was calculated (see Appendix Table A).

Although the design of the social distance scale in this research is very similar to that of Bogardus (1933), a significant departure is the use of the Thurstone (1928) equal-appearing interval technique (adapted by Sartain and Bell, 1949, for the use in social distance), i.e. the mean, mode and standard deviation were all considered in the decision of which items to include in the final scale, as opposed to the design by Bogardus, which just considered the mean. This was done to ensure a more rigorous method of scale development.

The mean, mode and standard deviation of each situation was calculated to establish the stage of the social distance scale each item would best fit (1–7). Items that had the closest means and modes were chosen as good, reliable representations of particular scale stages. For example, the item 'Have into my home as dinner guests' had a mode of 2, a mean of 1.85 and a low standard deviation (0.37); therefore, the judges were predominantly placing it in the second stage of the social distance scale. An additional characteristic that was considered when choosing the items was their relationship to tourism. For example, the item 'Have as long-term guests into my house, for example as exchange students' (mean 1.15 and mode 1), seemed more relevant to tourism than did 'Marry or live with them', which actually had a mean of 1 and a 0.00 standard deviation.

Table 4.2 shows the items that were most frequently placed in each pile (as shown by the modes). In addition, the mean and modes of these items were very close together.

Judge ranking (Austria)

In order to prepare for the scale purification in Austria, the 68 statements from the New Zealand collection were semantically analysed.

Table 4.2. Items chosen as representations of stages in the traditional social distance scale (New Zealand). A yes/no response was requested.

No.	Variable	Mean (initial rank)	Mean 2nd rank	Mode (initial rank)	Mode 2nd rank	SD (initial rank)	SD 2nd rank
1	Would like having them into their house as long-term guests, e.g. as exchange students	1.15	1.05	1	1	0.37	0.22
2	Would like having them into their house as dinner guests	1.85	2.05	2	2	0.37	0.22
3	Would give a ride to them if they were hitchhiking/ *Later replaced by:* Would enjoy having them temporarily work at their place of employment	3.05	2.85	3	3	0.89	0.49
4	Would like sitting beside them on chair lift at a ski field in New Zealand	4.25	4.05	4	4	0.97	0.22
5	Would enjoy sharing the bus into town with	5.20	5.25	5	5	0.83	0.44
6	Would like seeing them at our public swimming pool	5.80	5.70	6	6	0.89	0.57
7	Would like seeing them in a souvenir shop	6.65	7.00	7	7	0.49	0.00

SD, standard deviation.

Some items were dropped due to inapplicability; others were slightly changed in the wording or for the context. 'To be addressed in a foreign language' was used instead of 'Having signs in foreign language around our community', 'Using the water slide beside me' instead of 'Share a jet boat ride with'. 'Seeing them visit the local church' was added as one interaction touching the residents' socio-cultural life.

The task of sorting the remaining 59 cards into seven piles was kept identical to the procedure outlined in the previous sub-section. A sample of 32 judges of mixed age, balanced gender and different tourism experiences was used to rank the written host–guest contact situations. The results of this task are provided in Appendix Table A, together with the New Zealand rankings. Overall, there is high concordance among the judgements comparing the means and the modes. Significant differences can be defined as the cases where means and/or modes deviate more than one scale unit. This occurs ten times out of 56 common items. In general, these situations describe contacts in shops, restaurants or on leisure occasions which are rated closer by Austrian than by New Zealand judges. However, this pattern cannot be generalized, as similar situations show much more congruence.

Seven statements were selected which seemed to be good representatives for different levels of a closeness–distance continuum. Again, those items were taken with a low stan-

dard deviation, an appropriate mode value and the lowest difference between mean and mode. In addition, the appropriateness for the tourism context was considered. The selected statements are listed in Table 4.3.

Judge re-ranking (New Zealand, Austria)

The consistency of the placements of these chosen items was then checked; the seven statements were again randomized and given back to the original 20/10 judges (NZ/A), who were asked to again rank them from most intimate to least intimate. This was to ensure consistency between the final seven statements and how they were ranked initially. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 also show the results of this second ranking.

The ranking of the statements remained consistent. However, there were a number of judges unhappy with the inclusion of the third item 'Give a ride to if they were hitch-hiking' (NZ). Many commented that they found this the most difficult item to rank, mainly because they never stopped to pick up any type of hitchhiker. Therefore it was decided that this item would be replaced with 'Having them work at my place of employment' which had a mean of 3.00 and a mode of 3 (in the original ranking). These statements were again given to the judges for their comments and it was agreed unanimously that this item was more appropriate for the

Table 4.3. Items chosen as representations of stages in the traditional social distance scale (Austria). A yes/no response was requested.

No.	Variable	Mean (initial rank)	Mean 2nd rank	Mode (initial rank)	Mode 2nd rank	SD (initial rank)	SD 2nd rank
1	Would like having them into their house as long-term guests, e.g. as exchange students	1.58	1.90	1	1	1.09	1.52
2	Having them work at my place of employment	2.74	2.60	2	2	1.32	1.58
3	Sit beside on the daily rail trip for work	3.71	3.80	3	3	1.49	1.40
4	Giving directions to them	3.90	3.90	4	6	1.54	1.91
5	Notice them watching us participate in our hobby, for example playing cards, fishing	5.07	4.50	5	5	1.67	0.97
6	Seeing them at our public swimming pool	5.00	5.30	6	6	1.72	1.16
7	Have to walk around them standing in the middle of a supermarket aisle	5.68	6.40	7	7	1.70	1.35

SD, standard deviation.

scale. In the Austrian sample, the rank order of the seven statements remained the same. Some inconsistencies occurred with the item 'Giving directions to them' resulting in a mode value of 6. However, as no clear candidate for replacing this particular statement existed, it was kept in the measurement instrument.

When comparing the re-ranked items between the two countries (Tables 4.2 and 4.3), it can be observed that four out of seven statements are identical, having the same (items 1 and 6), almost the same (items 3/NZ and 2/A), or a different (items 5/NZ and 3/A) rank position. The last statements both refer to loose contact situations in a shop. The dinner guest situation (NZ) as well as the 'giving directions' statement (A) have no equivalent in the other country scale.

Empirical Studies

Description for New Zealand

The resulting scale was empirically tested within a survey of New Zealand residents' attitudes towards tourism. Forty-three items were included to measure attitudes towards tourism both in the respondent's own community (for example, 'because of tourism, we have better recreational opportunities available in our town') and at a national level (for example, 'tourism has improved the quality of service in shops, restaurants and hotels in New Zealand'). See Lawson *et al.* (1998) for a description of the design of these 43 items. These attitudinal statements were later factor analysed to enable a correlation analysis between the social distance dimensions and general attitudes towards tourism. The results of this test will be discussed later in this chapter.

The questionnaires were distributed throughout New Zealand in 19 destinations chosen to represent the stages of Butler's (1980) Destination Life Cycle. For the social distance scale, respondents were given a yes/no response format, adapted from Lee *et al.* (1996) (Table 4.2). They were asked to indicate what they believed the average New Zealander's reaction would be to finding themselves in each of the different situations with different tourist nationalities. This third-person, projective technique was adopted because of the racial sensitivity of the questions being asked, and it was thought that respondents may be more likely to project their true feelings on to this 'average' New Zealander, rather than merely offering socially acceptable responses (Aaker *et al.*, 1998).

Four different international tourist origins were chosen to test the proposition that the extent of social distance observed would vary depending on the cultural and physical similarity of the host and visitor. Germany, USA, Australia and Japan were deemed to represent a range of cultures and physical characteristics, while also being of strategic importance to New Zealand as markets for inbound tourists (www.tourisminfo.govt.nz). Different paired combinations of these four countries were included in the questionnaires, resulting in two data sets on which subsequent analysis will be based: data set 1 referred to Australian and German tourists and data set 2 referred to US and Japanese tourists. In total, 1193 surveys were distributed, of which 518 usable questionnaires were returned (an effective response rate of 43%).

Of the questionnaires returned, there was a total of 1036 responses to the social distance scale (as two scales were included in each survey). Because the social distance scale was designed as a cumulative scale (Guttman, 1944), the first part of the analysis involved checking the scale's internal consistency.

Description for Austria

The Austrian validation of the social distance scale was done on a rather small sample, limited to a region in the eastern part of Austria close to the Hungarian border. This area, covering about 13 communities, is thinly populated and at the very beginning of a dynamic tourism development based on a new spa and golf infrastructure. Oral interviews were conducted with 238 inhabitants representing the age, gender and professional structure of the study region. For measuring social distance, respondents were asked which contact situations between themselves and tourists they would accept without reluctance and which

they would rather like to avoid. A differentiation between nationalities was not considered, as the study area's tourism experience is very much limited to Austrian and German tourists speaking more or less the same language. To examine the various dimensions of tourism impacts, respondents rated 21 statements on a seven-point Likert-scale (1 'fully applies' to 7 'does not apply at all'). Additionally, 12 statements were formulated for capturing attitudes toward future tourism development.

Results

Social distance – internal consistency of New Zealand scale

To begin, the number of scale items that had been 'misranked' was calculated, i.e. because the scale was cumulative, if a respondent answered 'yes' to item '1', they should have continued with 'yes' to all other items on the scale. Additionally, if the respondent answered 'no' to question 1 and question 2, but 'yes' to question 3, he or she should continue answering 'yes' on the remaining items. Thus, it was important to determine the number of abnormal switches in the data (that is, answering 'yes' at the beginning of the scale, then shifting to 'no', or switching more than two times in the scale).

Such misranking was ascertained manually by printing out the raw data and checking each response for validity. From this, it was observed that item 3 on the scale ('Would enjoy having them work at my place of employment') caused a large number of misrankings; respondents may have indicated 'yes' for items 1 and/or 2, but 'no' for item 3. Of the 1036 scales completed, the percentage of misrankings was 35% with item 3 included but only 16% when item 3 was excluded. It appeared that respondents saw this item as a reflection of New Zealanders missing out on jobs that 'foreigners' had taken. This idea was expressed in the comments volunteered at the end of the questionnaire and had also been alluded to in the exploratory focus groups. For example, some respondents pointed out that Queenstown (one of New Zealand's most popular international tourist spots) has a lot of foreign workers, particularly of Japanese origin, in souvenir shops. When the judges used in the original scale development were approached and asked to comment on this finding, they were not surprised at the way respondents to the questionnaire appear to have interpreted this item. This may be one limitation of the traditional scale's design. That is, when judges rejected the third scale item originally proposed ('Would give a ride to if they were hitchhiking'), they were only given one other option ('Would enjoy having them work at my place of employment') which they obviously preferred over the previous item, but there may still have been a better item to choose.

Thus, the third item was excluded from further analysis on the social distance scale, with it then becoming a six-point scale. Additionally, all other cases that changed their response more than once or began with a 'yes' and changed to 'no' were also excluded from further analysis.

Another measure used to determine the internal consistency of the social distance scale, after item 3 was excluded, was the critical ratio (CR) of the remaining items (Guttman, 1950). Within the data set, responses on German and Japanese tourists were placed together as were responses to Australian and US tourists. For Germany–Japan together (507 valid responses), only 220 errors could be calculated which results in a CR of 92.8 which is above the critical threshold of 90. Taking the data for Australia–US together (512 valid responses), only 162 errors occurred meaning a CR of 94.7. Taking all responses together (1014 valid responses), the errors were no more than 382 yielding a CR of 93.7. This result is more than satisfactory. If analysed independently the CR for each nationality is 95.2 for Australia, 94.1 for Germany (Spearman correlation of social distance: 0.65 at $P <0.01$), 94.2 for the USA and 90.6 for Japan (Spearman correlation of social distance: 0.54 at $P <0.01$). Whereas the measures for the distance to two foreign nationalities seem to be fairly correlated, the average rank order is significantly different resulting in a much higher distance to German or Japanese tourists (Mann–Whitney U test: $P<0.05$).

Social distance – internal consistency of Austrian scale

Taking the initial order of items within the social distance scale resulted in a CR of 81.7. After closer investigation it turned out that item 5 ('Notice them watching us participate in our hobby, for example playing cards') produced the majority of errors, so it was eliminated from the scale. For further improvement of the scale consistency, statement 4 ('Giving directions to them'), which was not in a clear order position during the re-rank task, had to be re-placed at the bottom of the scale, representing the least insulting situation. The new item hierarchy generated a satisfying level for the CR of 94.8.

When comparing the social distance measures between the two studies, similar distributions can be observed. Less than 40% would accept the closest contact situations to tourists. Almost 50% (the German–Japanese relationship only 37%) agree contacts up to the second highest level. Altogether the perceived distance to Australian and US tourists does not deviate from that expressed by Austrian residents toward foreign tourists in general (Mann–Whitney *U* test). Though, the distribution of the measure shows a different pattern considering the distance perceived for German–Japanese tourists giving a much higher distance (Mann–Whitney *U*: $P < 0.05$).

Social distance – external validity

In a next step, the correlation between social distance and attitudes toward tourism is investigated as outlined in the hypothesis section. For this purpose, the attitudinal statements were first condensed by principal compo-

nents analyses. For the New Zealand sample, one dimension capturing the emphasis on limiting growth could be identified from a rather small item pool (Table 4.4). The majority of statements covered the various impacts perceived by the residents. From this scope of attitudes, five dimensions were extracted (Table 4.5), which are labelled as: improvements in lifestyle, negative environmental impacts, negative socio-cultural change, negative price effects and avoid contacts to tourists. The factors extracted not more than 52% of the variance. They serve an exploratory purpose only which is reflected in the varying reliability ratio of Cronbach's alpha.

From the Austrian data set, two dimensions were extracted representing attitudes toward future tourism development: active tourism encouragement and tourism in the community (Table 4.6). The tourism impact attitudes were reduced by principal components analyses. Five dimensions count for 67% of the variance in the statements listed in Table 4.7: negative social impacts, economic benefits, improvements for the community, individual benefits and negative ecological impacts.

The final investigation focused on the relationship between the social distance measures and the attitudes toward tourism. For this purpose, correlation analyses were conducted (employing Spearman-type for the social distance and Pearson-type for inter-attitudinal relationships). For the New Zealand sample significant correlations between the two social distance measures and the perceived tourism impact factors could not be detected. The only significant link appeared between the Germany–Japan related social distance to the 'Limiting growth factor' (correlation = 0.11; *P*

Table 4.4. Attitude towards future development of tourism (New Zealand).

Statements and factors: attitudes towards tourism development	Limited growth
I prefer to have as little contact as possible with overseas	0.79
It would be better to have fewer tourists and less money from tourism if it meant that we could have free access to New Zealand	0.77
I would like to see an increase in the number of tourists in our community	−0.73
Cronbach's alpha	**0.62**

Table 4.5. Attitude towards tourism impacts (New Zealand).

Statements and factors: attitudes towards tourism development	Improvements in lifestyle	Negative environmental	Avoid contact	Negative price effects	Negative change
The current level of tourism has improved employment opportunities in this town	0.77				
Tourism encourages a wide variety of cultural activities (e.g. crafts, arts, music etc.) in this town	0.72				
Shopping in this town (e.g. choice of shops and longer opening hours) is better because of tourism	0.71				
Most people in this town are better off because of tourism	0.68				
Tourism has made locals more proud of their community	0.67				
This area has more nightlife (e.g. nightclubs and restaurants) because of tourism	0.62				
The quality of public services like water, sewerage and public transport in this town has improved due to tourism	0.49				
The benefits from tourism are distributed fairly throughout our community	0.49				
The traffic around town often becomes congested because of tourist traffic		0.79			
Tourism has created parking problems in our community		0.75			
Tourism has increased crime in our community		0.67			
There is more litter in my community because of tourism		0.54			
I avoid places where I know there will be a lot of tourists			0.75		
I get frustrated with the way tourists drive			0.62		
Overseas tourists should pay more than local residents to visit National Parks and outdoor recreation facilities				0.55	
Tourism makes prices rise so New Zealanders can no longer afford to holiday in certain areas of New Zealand				0.71	
Local people need to have more input into tourism development				0.47	
New buildings, from tourism, have changed the appearance of our town for the worse					0.79
Our way of life in this town has changed to suit tourists					0.73
Because of tourism, I sometimes feel like a stranger in my own town					0.50
Cronbach's alpha	**0.80**	**0.72**	**0.46**	**0.48**	**0.62**

Table 4.6. Attitudinal factors towards future tourism development and loading items (Austria).

Statements and factors: attitude towards tourism development	Active tourism encouragement	Tourism in the community
Tourism should be encouraged much more in this region	0.82	
Tourism should be encouraged actively in this community	0.79	
The community should create additional tourism facilities	0.75	
I favoured the development of the spa and the golf course from the very beginning	0.70	
The communities in this region should not try to attract more tourists	−0.70	
I prefer not to familiarize with tourists	−0.53	
Tourism entails that leisure facilities are crowded	−0.51	
Our community should be transformed to a tourism destination		0.73
Tourism should play a major role in this community		0.67
To have a job in tourism is very much appreciated		0.67
Tourists are valuable		0.63
Cronbach's alpha	**0.77**	**0.74**

< 0.05), i.e. the greater the social distance perceived toward tourists from Germany or Japan the more adverse is the opinion toward future tourism development. The inter-attitudinal correlations have a range from 0.18 to 0.30 and show the expected direction: the more individual benefits perceived the less reluctant the residents are toward future growth in tourism and the more adverse effects they perceive (price rise, environmental damages, social change) the less open they are for future tourism development.

For the Austrian data set, the same approach was applied. The significant correlations are summarized in Fig. 4.1 which basically shows that the higher the social distance toward tourists is perceived the more negative the impacts on the environment, the less improvements for the community and the less individual benefits are attributed to the tourism activity. Hence, the social distance measure influences the attitude toward future tourism development directly and indirectly through some aspects of perceived effects spreading from the tourism activities. Interestingly, no significant correlation could be observed between social distance and perceived negative social impacts. The negative impacts (social and ecological) are more related to the tourism development of the community, whereas the positive and more economic aspects are rather connected to the mind-set toward the general tourism encouragement.

Discussion and Implications

This chapter describes the first measurement of host attitudes towards different tourist nationalities and attempts to link the findings to general attitudes towards tourism impacts and development. The concept of social distance is used to measure this construct and two scales are developed, using the same methodology (adopted from Bogardus, 1933).

One of the most important dimensions of the tourism product is the host community and their interaction with the tourist. The social distance concept suggests that the host community may have quite different degrees of tolerance towards different tourist nationalities, and it is suggested that these differences may be reflected in the host community's behaviour towards tourists. A social distance scale can be used to measure these tolerance degrees, which in turn can aid tourism developers and planners in such decisions as target market strategies.

The development of the social distance scales in both New Zealand and Austria shows a number of commonalities; for example the mean and mode of many of the items between the two countries are very similar. Although the final scores are not identical, this appears to have more to do with differences between the samples used in the study, rather than an inadequacy with the scale

Table 4.7. Attitudinal factors towards tourism impacts and loading items (Austria).

Attitudes towards tourism impacts	F1 Negative social impacts	F2 Economic benefits	F3 Improvements – community	F4 Negative ecological impacts	F5 Individual benefits
Locals are discriminated against in restaurants compared to tourists	0.86				
Tourists are more valued in some shops than locals	0.82				
Tourists conflict with community life	0.67				
Conflicts between tourists and locals often arise	0.64				
Tourism has increased crime in my community	0.49				
Due to these facilities more tourists are attracted to this region		0.79			
The spa and golf course benefit the whole region		0.79			
The benefits of tourism outweigh the negative consequences of tourism development		0.62			
Tourism development in my community will provide more jobs for local people		0.60			
The quality of public services has improved due to tourism in my community			0.87		
Shopping opportunities are better in my community as a result of tourism			0.86		
Community roads have improved due to the tourism development			0.59		
Agricultural activities are reduced due to the shrinking available space				0.59	
Tourism has negatively impacted the environment				0.77	
There is more litter in my community from tourism				0.81	
I have more money to spend as a result of tourism					0.87
Tourism in my community has increased my standard of living					0.86
Cronbach's alpha	**0.78**	**0.71**	**0.76**	**0.76**	**0.65**
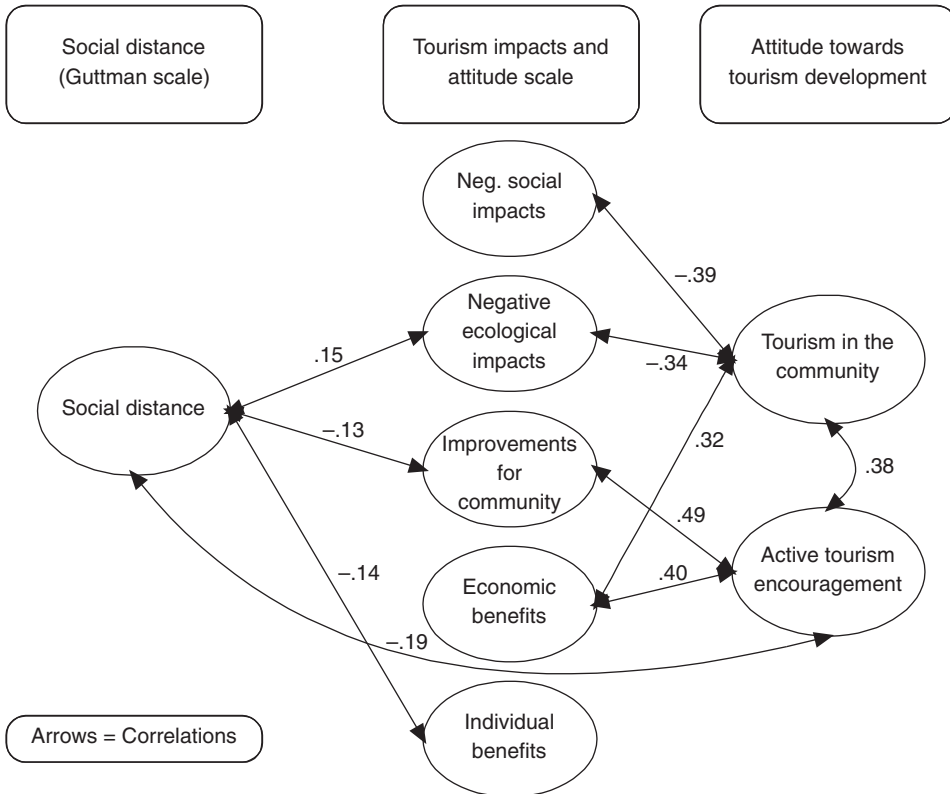
Fig. 4.1. Correlations between social distance and tourism attitudes (Austria).

itself. The internal consistency according to Guttman's proposal is very satisfactory after eliminating one item of the initially conceived seven-point scale. While with the New Zealand data the CR could not be improved by re-ordering the remaining items, one replacement within the Austrian scale increased the CR substantially. This weakness may be due to unforeseen differences in the perceptions and tourism experiences of the judges (for the scale development) and the residents (in the validation study).

Despite the fact that some semantic differences are inherent between the social distance scales developed in New Zealand and Austria, the distributions of the sample populations across the scale continuum support the following consideration. There are obvious differences referring to the stage in the tourism destination lifecycle. The New Zealand social distance scale was designed and tested by sam-

ples throughout New Zealand; regions representing various degrees of tourism development. This will have an impact on attitudes, particularly since some regions are more popular with the obviously culturally different tourists. The Austrian scale on the other hand was developed and tested on one region of residents which is in an early stage of tourism development. The contact situations with foreign cultures are quite distinct. Due to the historic settlement and border evolution, the exchange with Hungarian and Croatian people as permanent residents is for a good part of the locals more intense than the experiences with Austrian, German or guests from other countries. Nevertheless, no significant differences occurred when comparing the social distance perceived by New Zealanders toward Australian and American tourists, and that perceived by (eastern) Austrians toward any tourists. Yet, the social distance scale

discriminated very well between the English-speaking nationalities and the culturally more different German and Japanese tourists, indicating a significant lower versus higher distance.

Put together, it can be derived that the semantic differentiation of the scale items depends on the background and tourism relatedness of the target population. The discriminating power of the scale, as well as the common mean for the New Zealand and Austrian sample population, can be taken as evidence that the construct is distinct and valid. However, it does not seem to be completely independent from the stage of tourism development as the correlations with the attitudes toward tourism impacts show a very different pattern between the two countries. Another difference in the scale application stems from the perspective of distance attribution. While in the New Zealand survey, respondents were asked a projective question of social distance, the Austrian survey directly referred to the respondent's perception of distance. However, how and why these differences occur should be investigated more systematically, i.e. with more control variables with regard to regions and cultural differences between hosts and guests.

Future research recommendations include the construction of a multi-item social distance scale using for example Likert-type scales for each item/statement. Most contemporary researchers now favour the use of the multi-item measures, which allow for rigorous reliability testing and the examination of some aspects of validity using empirical methods (Churchill, 1979). A multi-item scale may have been more applicable to the attitude statements included in the surveys and provided more statistically significant results. On the other hand, a reliable lean Guttman-type scale means more efficiency and more time left for other survey topics when conducting research studies.

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Appendix

Table A. Mean, mode and standard deviation calculations for the 68 items.

Social distance item	New Zealand			Austria		
	Mean	Mode	SD	Mean	Mode	SD
Marry or live with them	1.00	1	0.00	1.58	1	1.09
Sexual relations with them	1.05	1	0.22	n.a.		
Having them as flatmates	1.45	1	0.51	2.10	1	1.96
Have them into my house as long-term guests, e.g. as exchange students	1.15	1	0.37	1.58	1	1.09
Have them as friends or relatives	1.45	1	0.60	1.74	1	1.46
Have them into my house as dinner guests	1.85	2	0.37	1.90	1	1.08
Have as friends of my family into my house	1.75	2	0.64	1.74	1	1.29
Have as neighbours	2.40	2	0.60	2.45	1	1.34
Helping them in car accident	2.45	2	1.32	2.87	1	1.73
Drink with them at the pub	2.65	2	0.75	3.00	2	1.61
Have them share the same room as myself in a hostel	2.60	2	1.31	3.00	2	1.61
Have in to view my house or garden	2.80	2	1.06	2.68	1	1.90
Seeing them have a car accident	4.15	2[a]	1.60	5.26	7	1.86
Having their children come to the same crèche my children use	3.45	3	1.28	3.06	2	1.44
Having them work at my place of employment	3.00	3	0.92	2.74	2	1.32
Give a ride to if they were hitchhiking	3.05	3	0.89	3.13	2	1.67
Meeting them at conferences	3.55	3	0.89	4.10	4	1.99
Have them to stay at accommodation I own, for example bed and breakfast or motel	3.40	3	1.19	3.10	2	1.62
Dance with them at a nightclub	2.70	3	1.08	3.32	3	1.89
Sit beside on a 24-hour flight to London [b]	3.50	3	1.10	3.19	4	1.62
Having them into our schools or other education institutions	4.30	3[a]	1.22	3.26	4	1.32
Sit beside on the same domestic flight within New Zealand	4.00	4	1.03	n.a.		
Giving directions to them	4.75	4	0.91	3.90	4	1.54
Sit beside on the Trans Alpine Train (a scenic train) [b]	4.05	4	1.05	4.87	5	1.48
Sitting beside them on the bus into town	4.65	4	1.04	4.10	3	1.64
Share a jet boat ride with, for example on the Shotover Jet	4.35	4	1.18	n.a.		
Share a chair lift with at one of our ski fields	4.25	4	0.97	n.a.		
Share a helicopter flight to Milford with	4.15	4	1.04	n.a.		
Meeting them on our national walking/tramping tracks	4.40	4	1.10	5.23	4	1.54
Have them at the same accommodation that I stay at	5.00	4[a]	0.86	2.39	2	1.38
Having my photo taken by them	4.60	4[a]	1.23	4.13	5	1.73
Have them sitting behind me in a restaurant	5.70	5	0.86	5.06	5	1.57
Share the bus into town with	5.20	5	0.83	3.71	3	1.49
Notice them watching us participate in our hobby, for example line dancing	5.05	5	1.05	5.06	5	1.67
Taking photos of them	4.80	5	1.06	4.32	4	1.80

Continued

Table A. *Continued.*

Social distance item	New Zealand			Austria		
	Mean	Mode	SD	Mean	Mode	SD
Having them share the same recreation activities as us, for example horse riding or boating on the Lake	4.55	5	1.19	3.97	3	1.83
Having them serve me in a shop in New Zealand [b]	5.15	5[a]	0.99	4.00	3	1.75
Have to walk around them standing in the middle of a supermarket aisle	6.05	6	0.89	5.68	7	1.70
See them at our local pub	5.35	6	1.14	4.39	4	1.52
See them in the shops I frequently visit	5.80	6	0.83	4.55	5	1.46
See them in the butchers I frequently visit	5.70	6	0.92	4.84	4	1.66
Having signs in foreign languages around our community	5.50	6	1.54	n.a.		
See them use our local park	5.90	6	0.91	n.a.		
Seeing them at our public swimming pool	5.80	6	0.89	5.00	6	1.71
See them in the bakery I frequently visit	5.80	6	0.83	4.97	4	1.33
See them dine at my local café	5.45	6	1.05	4.65	6	1.82
Standing in line waiting behind them, for example to get movie tickets	6.00	6	0.97	5.48	7	1.79
Following them driving a campervan on our roads	6.45	7	1.10	6.10	7	1.54
Following them driving a rental car on our roads	6.55	7	0.69	n.a.		
Seeing them stopped in the middle of the road to take photos	6.65	7	0.67	5.58	7	1.82
Seeing them in big groups walking around town	6.15	7	0.99	5.77	7	1.38
Having them cross the road anywhere	6.70	7	0.66	n.a.		
Seeing them walk on our beaches	6.25	7	1.12	n.a.		
Having them take photos of our farm animals	6.40	7	0.82	5.03	7	1.76
Seeing them visit our tourist destinations when I am there, for example Mount Cook or Milford Sound [b]	6.00	7	1.17	4.45	3	1.73
Seeing them in our local museums	6.25	7	0.79	5.03	7	2.09
Seeing them fish in our waters	6.30	7	1.03	5.19	6	1.58
Seeing them at tourist spots or attractions when I am also there, for example at Larnach's Castle	6.45	7	0.83	n.a.		
See them at a nightclub	6.15	7	1.04	5.13	4	1.38
See them in a souvenir shop	6.65	7	0.49	5.35	6	1.85
Seeing them playing sport	6.55	7	0.60	5.61	7	1.61
See them on the Esplanade/water front [b]	6.60	7	0.60	5.35	7	1.68
Seeing them watching live sport	6.45	7	0.69	4.84	4	1.73
See them at the service station	6.55	7	0.76	5.77	7	1.80
See them at the bank	6.55	7	0.76	5.19	7	1.83
Seeing them camp anywhere	6.65	7	0.67	5.48	7	1.79
See tourists outside the Beehive	6.85	7	0.37	n.a.		
Seeing them at other tourist spots around the world, for example tourists at Surfers Paradise, Australia [b]	6.75	7	0.79	5.77	7	1.76
To be addressed in a foreign language [c]	n.a.			4.06	5	1.97
Seeing them visit the local church	n.a.			5.03	7	2.06
Using the water slide beside me	n.a.			4.73	7	2.02

[a] Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.
[b] Item slightly changed in Austrian study.
[c] Item used in Austrian study only.
n.a., not applicable or not used.

Chapter five
Motivation for Domestic Tourism: a Case Study of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

Tourism motivation in developing countries and Islamic culture has received scant attention from researchers. The key to understanding tourism motivation is to see holiday travel as a satisfier of needs and wants. The literature on tourism often conceptualizes tourist motives in terms of push and pull forces. The idea behind this concept is that people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by external forces of the destination attributes. One way to analyse travel motivation is to examine the notion of push and pull demand stimulation. The objectives of this research were to understand both push and pull motivation for domestic tourism and the relationship between these motivations for Saudi tourists. The findings indicated nine push factors: 'cultural value', 'utilitarian', 'knowledge', 'social', 'economical', 'family togetherness', 'interest', 'relaxation' and 'convenience of facilities', and nine pull factors: 'safety', 'activity', 'beach sports/activities', 'nature/outdoor', 'historical/cultural', 'religious', 'budget', 'leisure' and 'upscale'. This study found that the most important push and pull factors as perceived by Saudi tourists are 'cultural value' and 'religious'. The study also confirms the relationship between push and pull factors.

Introduction

In Saudi Arabia, there is a growing amount of leisure free time and a high percentage of disposable income is being spent on various forms of tourism; such trends have increased the number of Saudis travelling to tourist destinations, internationally or domestically. Consequently, spending the annual holiday away from Saudi is normal for most Saudi families. It is estimated (Sajini, 1997) that the total expenditure on domestic tourism in Saudi Arabia is only 16.7% of total tourism expenditure. International expenditure was estimated (in 1995) to be million US$7.6 and increased to more than million US$8.2 in 1997 (*Asharq Alawsat Newspapers*, 1998), which is about 17.3% from oil revenue estimated in 1998 and nearly 5.6% of the Saudi G.D.P. According to Economist Intelligence Unit

Limited (1998), Saudis themselves spend on tourism ($17bn pa) and only a small percentage is spent in the country. Foreign tourism is a substantial drain on the current account, so the government has been trying to persuade more of its citizens to holiday at home.

Many Saudis take their annual holidays abroad where better recreational opportunities and facilities are identified to exist. Within Saudi Arabia, few facilities are offered in the countryside and desert for camping and other activities. National parks are being set up, but often with few attractions and facilities for tourists. In the last 25 years the number of hotel rooms has doubled; most of these are suitable, or in an appropriate location, for holiday use (Al-Thagafy, 1991) but satisfaction levels tend to be lower among those better-educated and wealthier respondents. Contributing to this is the lack of coordination between tourists needs (demand) and supply of facilities, which results from the divided responsibilities of the government and private sectors providing tourism facilities (Al-Thagafy, 1991). Also, there is a lack of research data about tourists' needs.

Study Objectives

This chapter has two objectives. First, studies on tourist motivation in Saudi Arabia and the Arab Muslim culture are very limited, thus this study makes a contribution to cover this gap. It assesses the motivation 'push' and 'pull' factors of tourist behaviour towards domestic tourism in an Islamic culture. This is important for the tourism industry from the planning and marketing management perspective in order to segment the market effectively. Second, the study examines the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors in domestic Saudi tourism.

Travel Push and Pull Motivation

The field of tourism motivation research continues to attract increasing attention from researchers (Holden, 1999), though it has gained importance particularly over the last decade. Murphy (1985) argues that motivation

is essential for the development of tourism, because, without interest or the need to travel, the tourism industry could not exist. Gilbert (1991) argued that an understanding of motivation is important since it forms the main influence of tourism demand patterns. In addition, it is one of the most complex areas of tourism research (Sharpley, 1999). One of the earlier reasons for emphasizing the significance of tourist motivation came from marketers and promoters of tourism (Howells, 2000). There have been several motivational studies of tourism, including Plog (1974), Crompton (1979), Hudman (1980), Dann (1981), Iso-Ahola (1982), Beard and Ragheb (1983), Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), Mansfeld (1992), Uysal and Hagan (1993) and Fodness (1994). Such studies of tourism motivation are derived from a variety of disciplinary subjects that have led to a variety of approaches.

The key to understanding tourism motivation is to approach vacation travel as a satisfier of needs and wants, and literature on tourism often conceptualizes tourist motives in terms of push and pull forces. The idea behind this concept is that people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by external forces of the destination attributes (Dann, 1977, 1981; Crompton, 1979; Hudman, 1980; Oh *et al.*, 1995; Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Kim and Lee, 2002). Dann (1977) identified a two-level scheme of factors that motivate travellers to travel and to go to specific destinations; this two-level scheme in the travel decision-making process is described as 'push' and 'pull'. Push factors are socio-psychological motivations that predispose, while the pull factors are those that attract a person to a specific destination when the decision to travel has been made (Oh *et al.*, 1995). Dann (1977) suggested that anomie and ego-enhancement were the travel motives. Crompton (1979) agreed with Dann's fundamental idea of push and pull motives. Crompton identified seven push and two pull motives for travel. The push motives were the escape from perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction, while the pull motives were novelty and education. Hudman (1980)

used Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a basis for categorizing push factors of travel.

Several empirical examinations of both push and pull factors have been carried out in the travel and tourism literature (Uysal and Jurowski, 1994; Oh *et al.*, 1995; Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Hanqin and Lam, 1999; You *et al.*, 2000; Kim and Lee, 2002). Some studies examined the push factors only (Figler *et al.*, 1992; Fodness, 1994; Cha *et al.*, 1995) or pull factors only (Sirakaya and McLelland, 1997; Klenosky, 2002). These studies differ in the approach employed to identify push and pull factors; some have employed quantitative methods and multivariate modes of analysis (Uysal and Jurowski, 1994; Oh *et al.*, 1995; Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Hanqin and Lam, 1999; You *et al.*, 2000; Kim and Lee, 2002), others are based on a qualitative approach such as personal interview (Crompton, 1979; Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983; Klenosky, 2002). Uysal and Jurowski (1994) examined the nature and extents of the relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism. They reported high associations between push and pull factors in a canonical correlation analysis. Oh *et al.* (1995) and Baloglu and Uysal (1996) employed a correlation analysis and identified a significant relationship between push and pull factors. They suggested that examining push and pull motivation simultaneously would be useful in segmenting markets, in designing promotional programmes and packages and in destination development decision making. Hanqin and Lam (1999) adopted a model based on push and pull factors as a conceptual framework in their study, and the results indicate that the importance of push and pull factors in motivating Chinese travellers is different from that found in other studies. The study found that mainland Chinese tourists perceive 'knowledge' and 'high-tech image' as the most important push and pull factors. You *et al.* (2000) used Dann's push and pull theory as a conceptual framework to test if travellers from the UK and Japan had different travel motives and benefit-seeking patterns. The major finding was that UK and Japanese long-haul travellers differ significantly on both push and pull forces. The findings of Kim and Lee (2002) confirmed the results of the study by

Uysal and Jurowski (1994), who reported a relationship between push and pull factors by using multiple regression analysis. From a marketing perspective, tourism products can be designed and marketed as solutions to consumer's needs (Fodness, 1994). One way to determine travel motivation is to examine the notion of push and pull demand stimulation.

Methodology

A survey using a self-administered questionnaire was conducted to collect primary data from a convenient sample of those visiting the two cities in Saudi Arabia, Jeddah and Abha. The application of a convenience sample was necessitated by the problems of sampling being prevalent in the Saudi environment. Such problems have been extensively documented in the literature (Yavas *et al.*, 1987; Tuncalp, 1988, 1999; Al-Meer, 1989; Abdul-Muhmin, 1998; Abdul-Muhmin and Alzame, 2001). The two cities, Jeddah and Abha, were chosen since they are considered to be the two most attractive tourism cities in Saudi Arabia. Jeddah is a coastal city and there are a lot of entertainment activities. Abha city is a summer resort for Saudi Arabia and the weather is pleasant during the summer period compared to the majority of Saudi Arabia due to the location and altitude. Out of 1400 questionnaires distributed in Jeddah and Abha, 505 usable questionnaires were verified and prepared for the final analysis.

Questionnaire

The 36 push items of motivation for pleasure travel were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree. For the push items, respondents were requested to rate their level of agreement for each item when choosing a holiday trip within Saudi Arabia. The 40 pull items of attractiveness of a destination were rated on five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = very important to 1 = very unimportant. For the pull items, respondents were requested to rate how important each item was when selecting a destination for a domestic holiday trip.

Data Analysis and Discussion

In this research, the facility of the SPSS 10.0 program to apply the alpha test was employed. The following results exhibit the scale reliability of the attitudinal statements of tourist opinions on push and pull factors. The closer alpha is to 1 the more reliable the results; push motivation with 36 items had an alpha of 0.89 and pull motivation with 40 items had an alpha of 0.86.

The analysis of data in this study consisted of two stages. First, factor analysis was employed on motivational items. Second, the correlation and regression analysis was used to examine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism.

Table 5.1 presents the respondents' demographic characteristics. Seventy three per cent of the respondents identified themselves as male and 27% as female. They represented all age groups (25.7% under 25; 42.4% 25–34; 22% 35–44 and 8.9% 45 or more). About 64.9% of the respondents were highly educated, with a university degree or above. They represented all monthly income levels (6.8% less than 3000 SR; 19.8% 3000–5999

SR; 28.3% 6000–8999 SR; 29.3% 9000–14,999 SR; 15.8% 15,000 SR and more).

Factor Grouping of Push and Pull Motivations Items

In order to identify motivation dimensions, 36 push and 40 pull motivation items were subjected to a principal component factor analysis with Varimax orthogonal rotation using SPSS factor analysis. Varimax rotation was used to refine the original factors matrix. Rotation of the initial solutions maximizes variance loading within each factor. Rotating of the original matrix assists in the recognition of the variables that best define the factor. An orthogonal rotation was used for its simplicity as suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). A factor loading of 0.30 was used as a cut-off for inclusion of any item among the various factors. The results of a principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation produced a solution of nine push and pull factors with eigenvalues greater than unity as shown in Tables 5.2 and 5.3.

These nine push factors explained 57.1% of the total variance and the nine pull factors explained 57.8% of the total variance. Hair *et al.* (1998) consider any solution with over 60% of the explained variance (and in some instance even less) as satisfactory from a social sciences standpoint when information is often less precise. The first factor for push and pull explains the highest proportion of observed variance in the dataset. The second factor for push and pull accounts for the majority of variance not explained by factor 1, and so on. Factor loadings represent the degree of correlation between an individual variable and a given factor.

Reliability using Cronbach's alpha was calculated to test the reliability and internal consistency of each push and pull factor. The results showed that the alpha coefficients for six push factors ranged from 0.52 to 0.86. One factor, the relaxation factor, has slightly lower reliability (0.48). The interest factor and convenience of facilities factor had a low reliability (0.44 and 0.33 respectively), but, the factor loadings were reasonably high, representing a respectable correlation between

Table 5.1. Description of survey respondents (*n* = 505).

Demographic variables	%
Sex	
Male	73
Female	27
Age	
Less than 25 year	25.7
25–34 year	42.4
35–44 year	22.0
45 year or more	8.9
Education level	
Primary or less	1.0
Intermediate	3.8
Secondary	30.3
University	55.4
Post-university	9.5
Monthly income level	
Less than 3000 SR	6.8
3000–5999 SR	19.8
6000–8999 SR	28.3
9000–14,999 SR	29.3
15,000 SR and more	15.8

Table 5.2. Factor loading for push motivation-related items in Saudi tourism.

	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Reliability Cronbach
Cultural value		8.658	24.049	0.86
Preserve traditions and customs when holiday in Saudi	0.779			
Domestic tourism will protect our children from non-Islamic values	0.773			
Holidays within Saudi are more appropriate for families than foreign holidays	0.772			
The social environment will help women to preserve the Islamic veil	0.764			
Domestic tourism will help to protect our youth from such diseases as AIDS	0.728			
It is more convenient to perform Islamic rituals when holidaying in Saudi than when holidaying in non-Islamic country	0.714			
Personal security is assured while on holiday in Saudi	0.681			
To be with other people who are similar to me in their traditions and customs	0.658			
Utilitarian		2.500	6.945	0.60
Spending a holiday within Saudi will help in obtaining new experiences	0.711			
No need to change Arabic clothes	0.675			
Because it is cheaper than overseas tourism	0.429			
Knowledge		1.714	4.761	0.58
Knowing how other people in different regions live	0.734			
Historical sites are very important to my holiday plans	0.697			
Getting out into the country and rural areas	0.619			
Just nature and me, that's my idea of perfect holiday	0.531			
Social		1.543	4.741	0.67
There is friendly treatment and generosity towards tourists in Saudi	0.731			
Cooler weather results in a more enjoyable holiday	0.657			
There is a good selection of family entertainment places	0.606			
Domestic holidays in Saudi Arabia represent good value for money	0.340			
Economical		1.435	3.985	0.61
Because holiday places are near to my home there is no need to pay extra accommodation	0.669			
To be near to holy Islamic places	0.510			
Food availability according to Islamic Law (Sharia)	0.445			
Family togetherness		1.265	3.514	0.52
The perfect holiday would include all of our family	0.667			
The yearly holiday is the time when the family can be together	0.618			
Talking about the places I've visited and the things I've seen	0.425			
A holiday in Saudi Arabia will help me rest and relax	0.313			

Table 5.2. *Continued.*

	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Reliability Cronbach
Interest factor		1.210	3.361	0.44
Doing a lot of activities, like shopping	0.766			
A holiday among people is very enjoyable	0.638			
Frequent short holidays offer opportunity to do more	0.430			
Relaxation		1.132	3.144	0.48
No expenditure needed to get a visitor visa or to change currency	0.567			
Just to curl up with a good book in the shade sounds like a wonderful holiday	0.537			
Usually, we visit relatives or someone we know on our trip	0.429			
Having fun, being innocently entertained that's what a holiday is all about	0.353			
From the national economic point of view spending money within Saudi will be beneficial instead of spending it in another country	0.353			
Convenience of facilities		1.095	3.043	0.33
The kinds of accommodation you get are very important	0.721			
Availability of good restaurants and good food is important in a holiday destination	0.688			

Table 5.3. Factor loading for pull motivation-related items in Saudi tourism.

	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Reliability Cronbach
Safety		6.722	16.805	0.79
To find high standards of hygiene/cleanliness	0.754			
To feel personally safe	0.731			
To feel a warm welcome for tourists	0.634			
To enjoy the cool weather	0.633			
To find quality restaurants	0.561			
To be easily accessible for local attractions	0.557			
Activity		3.920	9.800	0.78
To go to fast food restaurants	0.767			
To go to restaurants	0.764			
To enjoy nightlife	0.665			
To go shopping	0.640			
To go to a big city	0.608			
Beach sports/activities		2.725	6.813	0.79
To take part in water sports like diving and water-skiing	0.721			
To find good beaches for swimming	0.691			
To enjoy pool activities	0.653			
To go boating or to charter a boat	0.647			
To go and stay at a beach cabin	0.613			
To go fishing	0.552			
To visit the beach	0.515			
Nature/outdoor		2.179	5.448	0.77
To participate in outdoor activities	0.732			
To go to a wilderness areas	0.715			
To visit mountainous areas	0.682			
To get away from crowds	0.651			
To see wildlife/birds	0.613			
Historical/cultural		1.968	4.920	0.77
To visit historical archaeological sites	0.685			
To see local crafts/handwork	0.679			
To meet interesting/friendly local people	0.629			
To visit the historic old city	0.624			
To visit interesting small towns/villages	0.574			
To see outstanding scenery	0.464			

Table 5.3. *Continued.*

	Factor loadings(a)	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Reliability Cronbach
Religious		1.584	3.960	0.86
To visit the Kaaba	0.874			
To visit the Prophetic Mosque	0.871			
Budget		1.546	3.866	0.61
To find budget accommodation	0.684			
To find value-for-money restaurants	0.624			
To find this trip value-for-money	0.620			
To use public transportation	0.480			
Leisure		1.309	3.273	0.64
To ride telepherage/cable car	0.744			
To visit theme park such as Asir National Park	0.691			
To go to entertainment/amusement places	0.449			
Upscale		1.159	2.899	0.63
To stay in a first-class hotel	0.834			
To stay in a high-standard apartment/flat	0.759			

items and the factor grouping to which they belonged. Therefore, all nine factors were included in the analysis; this is supported by the work of Baloglu *et al.* (1998). Also, the results showed that the alpha coefficients for the nine pull factors ranged from 0.63 to 0.79. The results are considered more than reliable, since 0.50 is the minimum value for accepting the reliability test (Nunnally, 1978).

The nine push factors are named 'cultural value', 'utilitarian', 'knowledge', 'social', 'economical', 'family togetherness', 'interest', 'relaxation' and 'convenience of facilities'. The nine pull factors accounted are named 'safety', 'activity', 'beach sports/activities', 'nature/outdoor', 'historical/cultural', 'religious', 'budget', 'leisure' and 'upscale'.

The mean is calculated to find the importance for each push and pull factor as shown in Table 5.4. It can be seen that the cultural value factor is the most important push factor as perceived by Saudi tourists. The mean is 4.396, which means that domestic Saudi tourists like to take their holidays while at the same time pre-

serving their cultural values. The least important factor is the utilitarian factor with a mean of 3.595. It can be seen that the religious factor is the most important pull factor as perceived by Saudi tourists. The mean is 4.645, which means that the Holy Cities are the most attractive of destinations. The least important factor is the nature/outdoor factor with a mean of 3.513.

It can be concluded that the most important push factor is 'cultural value' and this explained 24.049% of the variance (the reliability coefficient is 0.86). The most important pull factor is 'religious' and this explained 16.805% of the variance (the reliability coefficient is 0.79).

The evidence from this factor analysis supports the push and pull motivations from previous studies (Figler *et al.*, 1992; Uysal and Jurowski, 1994; Baloglu and Uysal 1996; Hanqin and Lam, 1999; You *et al.*, 2000), in which they recognize that there are many motivations that predispose the individuals to travel. However, the importance level of push and pull factors might be different for tourists

Table 5.4. Importance ranking of push and pull motivation factors in Saudi tourism.

Motivation factors	Mean	Rank
Push factors		
Cultural value factor	4.396	1
Convenience of facilities factor	4.359	2
Family togetherness factor	4.164	3
Social factor	4.044	4
Knowledge factor	4.035	5
Economical factor	3.941	6
Interest factor	3.793	7
Relaxation factor	3.763	8
Utilitarian factor	3.595	9
Pull factors		
Religious factor	4.645	1
Safety factor	4.542	2
Budget factor	3.892	3
Leisure factor	3.878	4
Upscale factor	3.717	5
Historical/cultural factor	3.667	6
Activity factor	3.551	7
Beach sports/activities factor	3.546	8
Nature/outdoor factor	3.513	9

Importance ranking were based on mean scores measured on the Likert five-point scale (5 = very important, 4 = important, 3 = neither important or unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 1 = very unimportant).

from one country to another. In a mature market German tourists perceive 'escape' and 'active sports environment' as the most important push and pull factors (Jamrozy and Uysal, 1994). In addition, Australian tourists perceive the most important push and pull factors as 'knowledge/intellectual' and 'historical/cultural' (Oh *et al.*, 1995). For a developing market, Mainland Chinese tourists perceive 'knowledge' and 'high-tech image' as the most important push and pull factors (Hanqin and Lam, 1999). The top five push factors for the UK travellers were 'going places I have not visited before', 'being together as family', 'increasing one's knowledge about places', 'people and things', 'visit friend and relatives' and 'escaping from the ordinary' (You *et al.*, 2000). For Japanese travellers, the top push

factors were 'going places I have not visited before', 'having fun being entertained', 'getting a chance from busy job', 'just relaxing' and 'increasing one's knowledge about places, people and things' (You *et al.*, 2000).

This study found that the most important push and pull factors as perceived by Saudi tourists were 'cultural value' and 'religious' values.

Push and Pull Relationship

To examine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism the correlation and regression analysis was used. Table 5.5 shows the results of correlation analysis among push and pull fac-

Table 5.5. Result of correlation and regression analysis of each push and each pull factor.

	Pull factor								
	Regression coefficient								
Push factor	Safety, adj. R^2 = 0.18	Activity, adj. R^2 = 0.23	Beach sports/ activities, adj. R^2 = 0.08	Nature/ outdoor, adj. R^2 = 0.12	Historical/ cultural, adj. R^2 = 0.36	Religious, adj. R^2 = 0.06	Budget, adj. R^2 = 0.04	Leisure, adj. R^2 = 0.12	Upscale, adj. R^2 = 0.01
Cultural value, adj. R^2 = 0.30	0.28[a]	NS	−0.22[a]	0.15[a]	0.21[a]	0.22[a]	−0.09[b]	0.23[a]	−0.11[b]
Utilitarian, adj. R^2 = 0.10	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.22[a]	NS	NS	0.19[a]	NS
Knowledge, adj. R^2 = 0.28	NS	−0.12[b]	NS	0.29[a]	0.40[a]	NS	NS	NS	NS
Social, adj. R^2 = 0.11	0.13[b]	0.13[b]	NS	NS	0.20[a]	NS	NS	0.15[a]	NS
Economical, adj. R^2 = 0.15	−0.12[b]	0.13[b]	0.09[c]	NS	0.21[a]	0.14[a]	0.17[a]	0.09[c]	NS
Family togetherness, adj. R^2 = 0.04	NS	0.10[c]	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Interest, adj. R^2 = 0.25	NS	0.43[a]	0.13[b]	−0.16[a]	0.10[c]	0.09[c]	NS	NS	0.10[c]
Relaxation, adj. R^2 = 0.08	NS	NS	0.13[b]	NS	0.12[b]	NS	0.16[a]	−0.12[b]	NS
Convenience of facilities, adj. R^2 = 0.13	0.29[a]	0.15[a]	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.10[c]

[a]Significant at the 0.001 level of significance.
[b]Significant at the 0.05 level of significance.
[c]Significant at the 0.01 level of significance.
NS, not significant.

tors derived from factor analysis and regression analysis. Each push factor was used as a dependent variable to predict each one of the pull factors. Generally there exists some significant relationship between each push factor and some of the pull factors at one of three levels of significance.

A regression model in which 'the cultural value' motivation was regressed on the nine pull factor revealed an adjusted $R^2 = 0.30$, indicating that the model explained 30% of the total variance. Four pull factors – 'safety', 'nature/outdoor', 'historical/cultural', 'religious' and 'leisure' – were found to be important contributors in predicating 'cultural value' motivations. A negative relationship between the push factor 'cultural value' and the three pull factors 'beach sports/activities', 'budget' and 'upscale' illustrates that such tourists did not necessarily prefer these pull factors.

When 'utilitarian' is regressed on the nine pull factors ($R^2 = 0.10$), less variance is explained. The result of 'utilitarian' motivation indicates that a significant relationship is found between this factor and the two pull factors 'historical/cultural' and 'leisure'. A regression equation to predicate 'knowledge' motivations showed an adjusted $R^2 = 0.28$, indicating that two pull factors 'nature/outdoor' and 'historical/cultural', were significant. A negative relationship between the push factor 'knowledge' and the pull factor 'activity' was found.

When 'social' is regressed on the nine pull factors ($R^2 = 0.11$), less variance is explained. The finding of the 'social' push motivations indicates that four pull factors 'safety', 'activity', 'historical/cultural' and 'leisure', were significant. A regression in which 'the economical' motivation was regressed on the nine pull factors revealed an adjusted $R^2 = 0.15$, indicating that the model explained 15% of the total variance. Five pull factors, 'activity', 'beach/sports activities', 'historical/cultural', 'religious' and 'leisure', were found to be important contributors in predicating 'the economical' motivations. A negative relationship between the push factor 'economical' and two pull factor 'safety' and 'leisure' shows that such tourists did not necessarily prefer these pull factors. A regression equation to predicate 'the family togetherness' motiva-

tions showed an adjusted $R^2 = 0.04$, indicating that one pull factor, 'activity', was significantly low. This is a factor in which it would be expected for the family to take part.

'Interest' is regressed on the nine pull factors ($R^2 = 0.25$) indicating that the model explained 25% of the total variance. Five pull factors, 'activity', 'beach/sports activities', 'historical/cultural', 'religious' and 'upscale', were found to be important contributors in predicating the 'interest' motivations. A negative relationship between the push factor 'interest' and one pull factor, 'nature/outdoor', suggests that such tourists did not necessarily prefer this pull factor.

A regression equation to predicate the push 'relaxation' factor showed an adjusted $R^2 = 0.08$, indicating that the model explained 8% of the total variance. The result indicates that three pull factors – 'beach/sports activities', 'historical/cultural' and 'budget' – were significant. A negative relationship between the push factor 'relaxation' and the pull factor 'leisure' was found. The 'convenience of facilities' is regressed on the nine pull factors ($R^2 = 0.13$) indicating that the model explained 13% of the total variance. Three pull factors – 'safety', 'activity' and 'upscale' – were found to be important contributors in predicating 'convenience of facilities' motivations.

It may be concluded that the results of the correlation analysis indicate that significant relationships were found between the push and the pull factor at the 0.001, 0.05 or 0.01 level of significance. This supported previous research (Uysal and Jurowski, 1994; Baloglu and Uysal, 1996; Kim and Lee, 2002) that reported a relationship between push and pull factors.

Conclusions

This study provides the first attempt to examine push and pull domestic tourism motivation in Islamic and Arabic cultures, since cultural variables play a significant role in the tourism motivation. Factor analysis produced nine push motivational categories: 'cultural value', 'utilitarian', 'knowledge', 'social', economical', 'family togetherness', 'interest',

'relaxation' and 'convenience of facilities'. The nine pull motivational categories that resulted from factor analysis are: 'safety', 'activity', 'beach sports/activities', 'nature/ outdoor', 'historical/cultural', 'religious', 'budget', 'leisure' and 'upscale'. By far the most important push and pull factors for Saudi tourists are 'cultural value' and 'religious'. There is predication in these factors, as the Saudi culture is very much influenced by Islamic religion. The study also confirms the relationship between push and pull factors.

A limitation is that the sample population of this study includes those visiting one of two tourist destinations, Jeddah and Abha. Although the sample size is not large, it is limited by its focus on only two tourist destinations, Jeddah and Abha. This gives rise to concern that the findings based on a sample of these towns might not generalize to a larger population of tourists. Also, applying a convenience sample was necessitated by the problems of sampling prevalent in the Saudi environment.

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Chapter six
Ecotourists' Environmental Learning Opportunity as a Source of Competitive Advantage: Are Ecotourism Operators Missing the Boat with their Advertising?

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Abstract

Research indicates that tourist motivation and behaviour are often determined, in part, by the desire for a learning experience. It is contended in this chapter that ecotourists have a desire for environmental learning and that ecotourism operators who differentiate their product through the provision of high-quality environmental education programmes establish a potential sustainable competitive advantage. However, it is asserted that this potential long-term competitive advantage will only be realized if sufficient tourists can be attracted to the offered ecotourism experience. It is further asserted that attracting the required number of clients can be done, in part, by ecotourism operators emphasizing environmental learning in their printed and electronic advertising material. Content analysis of the current advertising material of ecotourism operators reveals that many ecotourism operators are not placing emphasis on their environmental learning offerings in their advertising. Using the results obtained, it is argued that the relatively small emphasis on ecotourists' demand for environmental learning in advertising directed at potential clients is a substantial weakness in some companies' strategic marketing. It is further argued that authentic and expert ecotourism operators who capitalize on this shortcoming are likely to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage.

Introduction

This chapter is based on the contentions that ecotourists have a desire for environmental learning and that ecotourism operators who differentiate their product through the provision of high-quality environmental education programmes establish a potential sustainable competitive advantage. However, it is also contended that this potential long-term competitive advantage will only be realized if sufficient tourists can be attracted to the offered ecotourism experience. This can be done, in part, by ecotourism operators emphasizing the provision of environmental learning experiences in their printed and electronic advertising material. The degree to which this is done is the focus of this chapter.

The Target Market

Despite many attempts to develop a precise, universally accepted definition of ecotourism, and hence an ecotourist (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1988; Romeril, 1989; Scace *et al.*, 1992; Figgis, 1993; Richardson, 1993; Valentine, 1993; Western, 1993; Fennell, 1999; Weaver, 2001), the definition remains problematic. However, one definition worthy of explicit inclusion in this paper, because of its generally accepted conceptual content, is that of the Australian National Ecotourism Strategy which states that:

> Ecotourism is nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable. The definition recognizes that 'natural environment' includes cultural components and that 'ecologically sustainable' involves an appropriate return to the local community and long-term conservation of the resource.
>
> (Commonwealth Department of Tourism, 1994, p. 17)

Wood and House (1991) took account of some aspects of ecotourism when they classified tourists according to their behaviour towards the environment and the host community in their holiday destination. The assertion was made that tourists could be classified as 'good' tourists if their behaviour, at least in part, embraces the principles of sustainability. That is, the tourists' behaviour reflects the need to safeguard and enhance the natural and cultural assets of the destination, to safeguard and enhance the resident population's quality of life and life opportunities, and to allow a return on investment for tourism operators (Faulkner, 2001).

Some of these 'good' tourists could, of course, be classified as ecotourists if their *chosen* destinations and activities meet the generally accepted ecotourism principles of being nature-based, ecologically, economically and socio-culturally sustainable, environmentally educative and locally beneficial (Price and Murphy, 2000). This demand-side categorization of ecotourists is somewhat appealing with its emphasis on accepting nature on its own terms. However, as discussed below, some tourists who might be classified as psychocentric (Plog, 1973), and who are there-

fore excluded from the generally accepted categorization of ecotourists (Weaver, 2001, p. 47), participate in ecotourism activities (Jackson *et al.*, 2000). This observation makes a purely demand-side categorization of ecotourists invalid.

The assertion by Sirakaya *et al.* (1999) that ecotourism, and hence ecotourists, should be defined from the supply side, dependent on an operator's evaluation of the experience, should also be treated with caution. The term 'ecotourism' sometimes has been used as a marketing ploy or political tool (Rees, 1990; Wight, 1993; Cater and Lowman, 1994) and, consequently, supply-side definitions and evaluations should be viewed warily. As has been claimed:

> *Ideally*, [ecotourism] companies will demonstrate sensitivity to environmental concerns, try to operate within the framework of ecological guidelines, promote an ecologically correct awareness, and support/use local tourism services … practice [sic] longterm planning, and continue to support destination communities' conservation/preservation programs.
>
> (Sirakaya *et al.*, 1999, p. 169; author's emphasis)

It is obvious from the above discussion that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to develop a precise definition of an ecotourist. Consequently, in this chapter ecotourists are categorized as clients of companies which purport to be ecotourism businesses. This categorization does not overcome the problem of definitional precision but it does provide a focus for the chapter. It also recognizes the interdependence of supply and demand in ecotourism (Uysal, 2000). Supply-side factors, such as the development and provision of environmental education programmes depend, at least in part, on the demands of ecotourism clients who want environmental learning to be part of their tourism experience. This recognition is seen by some academics as being critical to comprehensive ecotourism analyses (Burgess, 1991; Nelson, 1994; Markwell, 1998; Sun and Walsh, 1998).

Research indicates that people who might be categorized as ecotourists come from diverse demographic and lifestyle backgrounds. However, despite this diversity, it has been determined that the majority of ecotourists are well educated, have above-average incomes and

possess interest in the natural environment, although to varying degrees (Fennell and Smale, 1992; Hvenegaard, 1994; Eagles and Cascagnette, 1995; Blamey, 1997; Beeton, 1998).

Notwithstanding the difficulty of ascertaining precisely who is an ecotourist, there has been some consideration of the reasons for tourists choosing experiences which fall into the broad ecotourism classification. Much of the academic discourse of tourist motivation has arisen from the adaptation of needs theories, especially Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, to tourism motivation (Decrop, 1999). Krippendorf (1987) provided an overall summary of the various theories by stating that travel is motivated by *escaping from* something rather than *going to* something and that tourists' motives are primarily self-orientated, a view in accord with Huxley's (1925, p. 12) reflection that: 'We read and travel not that we may broaden our minds, but that we may pleasantly forget they exist'. However, it has become evident in recent years that some tourists, at least, are travelling for specific purposes including the enrichment of their lives (MacKay, 1995), a positive response not based on escapism. According to Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) tourists' decisions can be based on emotional arousal. This arousal is sometimes facilitated by the qualities of a particular destination (Miles, 1991; Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Prentice *et al.*, 1998) and by the need for a learning experience (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999, p. 60).

Plog (1973) indicated that there was a direct link between the psychographic classification of tourists and their destinations and activities, an assertion that has been justifiably questioned over the past few years (Lee-Hoxter and Lester, 1988; Smith, 1990; Nickerson and Ellis, 1991; Jackson *et al.*, 2000). In recent research, Jackson *et al.* (2000) reported that, although there was a statistically significant relationship between personality type and motivation for a *preferred* activity, *actual* choice is likely to be influenced by subjective norms (the approval of others) and the perceived control over the decision (contextual factors).

Pizam and Mansfield (1999) asserted that motivation is but one of the factors that influence consumer behaviour and that other fac-

tors such as perception, learning, personality and attitudes should be taken into account. Baloglu and Uysal (1996, p. 32) argued similarly, but identified the relative importance of motivation, asserting that 'although motivation is only one variable explaining tourist behaviour, it is regarded as one of the most important variables because it is an impelling and compelling force behind all behaviour'.

Eagles (1991) showed that Canadian ecotourists (defined in his study as people who had participated in specific ecotourism activities) have motivations different from other travellers. Among ecotourists' motivations emphasis was placed on a desire for nature and/or wilderness experiences. However, other non-nature motivations such as the desire to observe simpler lifestyles and the desire to rediscover self were evident, results supported by Woods and Moscardo (1998). These findings also were consistent with those of Silverberg *et al.* (1996) who found that ecotourists have a variety of needs, wants and motives for their travel behaviour. Among these needs, wants and motives is learning about the environment (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999, p. 60).

What is Environmental Learning?

Theorists, researchers and practitioners have produced many and varied definitions of learning and there has been considerable disagreement over the precise nature of learning (Shuell, 1986; Malone, 1991; Schunk, 1996; Phillips and Soltis, 1998). However, most definitions incorporate the notion that learning involves the acquisition and modification of knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes and behaviours.

One definition that captures the criteria most scholars consider central to learning states that:

> Learning is an enduring change in behaviour, or in the capacity to behave in a given fashion, which results from practice or other forms of experience.
>
> (Shuell, 1986)

There is still no universally accepted succinct definition of environmental learning, or the advancement of environmental literacy. How-

ever, it is generally accepted that environmental literacy involves an increase in awareness of, and concern about, economic, social, political, and ecological interdependence in urban and rural areas. This increase is dependent on the acquisition of the knowledge, values, attitudes, commitment and skills needed to protect and improve the environment and to create new patterns of behaviour towards the environment (Tbilisi Declaration, 1978).

This broad statement on environmental literacy has been clarified and refined over the years (Roth, 1991; Fien, 1993a–d, 1996; Payne, 1995). Roth (1991), for example, asserted that individuals progress along a continuum towards the acquisition of environmental literacy, namely:

1. The nominal stage, in which an individual has some knowledge of basic environmental terms but has little depth of understanding and has no more than a casual commitment to environmental concerns and actions.
2. The functional stage, in which an individual has the capacity to use fundamental environmental knowledge to formulate action positions on particular environmental issues and in daily behaviour.
3. The operational stage, in which an individual has the capacity to regularly perceive environmental issues, gather and evaluate relevant information, examine and choose among alternatives and take positions and actions that work to sustain and develop the foundations of environmental knowledge.

Movement along the Environmental Literacy Continuum

At the heart of environmental learning, or the development of environmental literacy, within an ecotourism context lies the concept of interpretation which was first defined by Tilden (1977, p. 9) as:

> An educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects, by firsthand experience, and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information.

According to the *Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program* (2000, p. 130), interpre-

tation 'is *the* art of bringing together many pieces of information and relating them to the setting or experience in such a way that it all becomes more meaningful and enjoyable'. Also within recent interpretation, considerable emphasis has been placed on the development of affection for the environment 'with the hope that such affection will lead to careful treatment' (Kimmel, 1999, p. 42). This view supports the emphasis by Ham (1992, pp. 33–43) on a thematic (principal message) approach, rather than a topic (subject matter) approach, to environmental learning in informal settings.

One possible motivating factor of particular interest to this author is that of ecotourists extending their affection for the environment to seek a deeper and more meaningful connection with the natural world. This motivational factor can be described as numenseeking[1], the term 'numen' being originally attributed to Otto (1958), and used by him to describe a religious emotion or experience in the presence of something holy. The term subsequently has been used in various humanities to describe experiences, places and objects which inspire reactions of reverence and awe (Maines and Glynn, 1993). Oubre (1997, p. 215), for example, in discussing the evolution of human consciousness, sees the numinous mind as allowing transcendental thought which she defines as:

> direct experiential apprehension of perception and consciousness outside the realm of normal human experience that is said to bring serenity, peace, understanding and deep knowledge.

Prentice *et al.* (1998) implied that significant heritage sites can induce numinous reactions in visitors, a view that academics such as Lewis (1985) and Miles (1991) have applied to the natural environment. In emphasizing the emotional aspects of wilderness learning, for example, Miles (1991, p. 6) asserted that:

> Learning about wilderness is not like learning arithmetic or economics or how the political system works. It is more akin to learning about a Mozart concerto, a Rembrandt painting, or a Shakespearean sonnet.

It is contended in this chapter that ecotourism operators who offer the setting to attract ecotourists, and who enable them to

progress along the continuum of environmental literacy through the provision of meaningful and enjoyable environmental learning experiences, including the satisfying of numinous desires, have a potential long-term competitive advantage.

Environmental Learning and Sustainable Competitive Advantage

According to Lewis *et al.* (1993, p. 20)

> only two forms of competitive advantage exist:
> 1. *Cost leadership* – lower total relative costs;
> 2. *Differentiation* – unique benefits that attract a price premium.

It is the latter item that is the focus of this chapter. The main assertion of the author is that the provision of informal environmental education by ecotourism operators differentiates ecotourism from other forms of nature-based tourism (The Economic Planning Group of Canada, 2000, p. 6) and hence can provide a sustainable competitive advantage to those operators who embrace environmental education enthusiastically and responsibly. This assertion is based on the argument of Barney (1986, cited in Lewis *et al.*, 1993, 28–29) that to be a source of sustainable competitive advantage a firm's capabilities must be valuable, rare and hard to imitate. Within ecotourism, some operators possess attributes such as a high level of ecological knowledge and highly developed interpretive programme facilitation skills that are valuable to clients, not possessed by other nature-based tourism operators and are difficult to emulate. Such attributes, which can contribute to the provision of high-quality informal environmental education, have the potential to provide a sustainable competitive advantage to an operator's company. However, this potential sustainable competitive advantage will only be realized if sufficient clients can be attracted to the ecotourism experience. This attraction is, in part, dependent on the content of the promotional material, both printed and electronic, of the firm conducting the ecotourism operation. Content analysis of such material does not appear to have been carried out in any objective and systematic way.

Content Analysis

Content analysis has been defined in a number of ways (Holsti, 1969; Carney, 1972; Weber, 1985). Despite the range of views expressed, the definitions reveal broad agreement on the requirements of an objective and systematic approach to content analysis and the need for consequent comparison between content data and some other data. According to Holsti (1969, pp. 3–4) objectivity is achieved through the application of explicitly formulated rules and procedures that minimize the subjective predispositions of the researcher. System is attained through the inclusion and exclusion of content according to consistently applied rules so that analyses based only on material supporting the researcher's hypotheses are eliminated. In this chapter, content analysis is taken to be 'any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages' (Carney, 1972, p. 25).

Content Analysis of Advertising Material of Ecotourism Companies

Source of data

Students studying the third-year subject *Tourism and the Environment* at La Trobe University, Victoria, Australia, in 2002 (78 students) collected 254 examples of the promotional material of companies which purported to be ecotourism companies. The material was obtained from both electronic and printed sources, and the purpose of the collection was not revealed to the students until the collection was completed.

Method

Content analysis of the collected material was performed. When this analysis of the promotional material of the ecotourism companies was carried out, objectivity was achieved by having three investigators (two students and the author), all of whom had detailed knowledge of the subject matter, independently

apply content analysis to each article under consideration. A systematic approach to avoid bias in the selection of material was accomplished by the collection of material by persons who had no knowledge of the investigative thrust of this author.

Since the focus of this chapter is the environmental education component of ecotourism, only this key principle of ecotourism was considered. Identifying words within the category were *education, learning, knowledge, attitude, behaviour, teaching, facilitation* and *interpretation*. The number of the words in the sentences relating to the category allowed the proportional emphasis on environmental learning to be determined, assuming that higher relative category counts reflect higher concern (Weber, 1985, p. 56). The data obtained quantitatively were rejected if there was a numerical discrepancy of greater than 10% between the determined values of the investigators. This rejection is in accord with the suggestion of Holsti (1969, pp. 3–4) to apply explicitly formulated rules and procedures to minimize subjectivity. The mean percentage of the three acceptable values for each item was used to obtain the results.

Results

The content analysis performed on the 117 valid items revealed that environmental education is relatively neglected in the selected ecotourism companies' promotional material. The mean value of the percentage of material devoted to the environmental education component of ecotourism was found to be 13.5% with a standard deviation of 13.31, as shown in Fig. 6.1.

Discussion and Conclusion

The results obtained from this research indicate that many ecotourism operators are not emphasizing their environmental learning offerings in their promotional material. It should be noted, however, that the approach to content analysis followed in this chapter provides data only at the time of judgement. Given that there is a relatively fixed amount of advertising material produced by each company, further analysis over time would enable judgement of the relative increase or decrease in emphasis on environmental learning. However, this was not feasible given
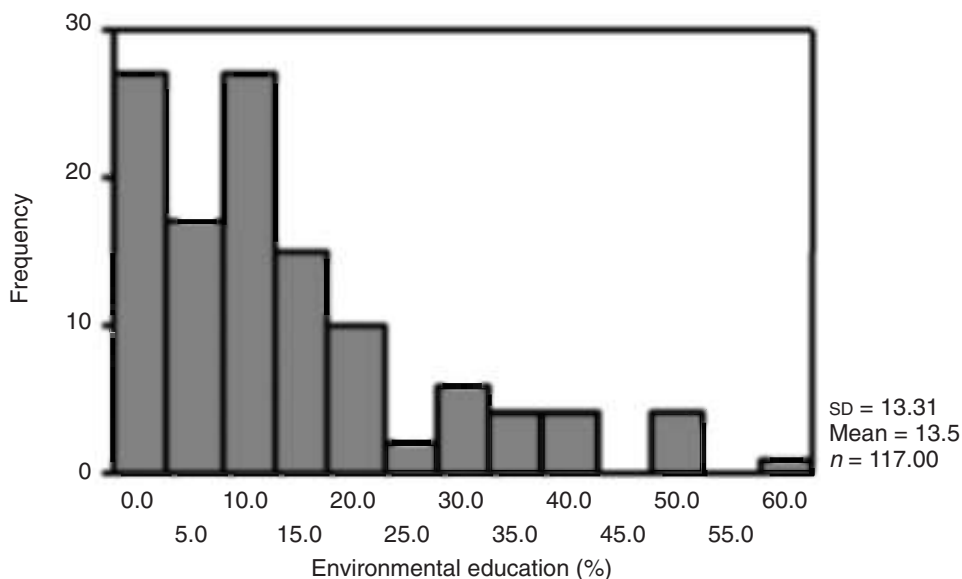

Fig. 6.1. Histogram of the percentage of ecotourism operators' advertising devoted to environmental education.

the time constraints of this work. Consequently, the analysis conducted provides a 'snapshot' of the current environmental learning emphasis of each of the selected companies and helps to establish an industry norm. This inductive approach recognizes that the development of some a priori standard of adequacy or performance is not valid in the context of this chapter, but that an industry norm against which the advertising material of any single operator can be compared is able to be obtained.

Notwithstanding this comparison, it is recognized by this author that, however objective and systematic the measures of communication content, inferences about the *actual* ecotourism operation cannot legitimately be made from content data alone. Corroborating evidence from independent, non-content data must also be used and this focus is contained in the author's further research to determine the effectiveness of ecotourism companies' promotional material

in attracting clients. Given the findings of other researchers, however, that ecotourists are seeking environmental learning experiences, the fact that there is only a relatively small emphasis on this demand in the advertising directed at potential clients is a substantial weakness in some companies' strategic marketing. It is contended that authentic and skilful ecotourism operators who capitalize on this advertising shortcoming are likely to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage by attracting a greater number of clients to their operation and by satisfying their clients' needs in ways which are hard to emulate.

Note

[1]The author would prefer to use the Platonian term 'epithumetic motivation' rather than 'numen seeking' because of the religious origins of the latter term. However, because of the current relatively widespread use of 'numen seeking' in non-religious contexts, the term has been used in this chapter.

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Chapter seven
Domestic Leisure Traveller Consumption Systems

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Abstract

The planning of tourism marketing strategies probably improves by focusing on specific visitor consumption systems, and avoiding attempts to promote products–services in consumption systems unrelated to the marketer's destination or service. Using unit record data of overnight domestic travellers ($n = 27,653$ households) in the Australian National Visitor Survey (NVS) 1998 study, this chapter reports findings of an empirical study that support the following core propositions. Leisure travellers visiting overnight destinations complete a series of related purchases that may be viewed usefully as a leisure travel consumption system. Certain travel-related purchases in one product–service category trigger additional purchases in other product–service categories. Substantial numbers of leisure visitors to each major destination (i.e. city, region, attraction or event) can be segmented usefully into micro-segments according to their purchase/consumption systems. For example, winter or summer Australian domestic visitors to Brisbane, Melbourne, Sydney, Perth or other cities who attend a festival can be further segmented according to more unique consumption systems.

Introduction

What are the principal associations among travellers segmented by demographic variables, their origins, overnight trip destinations, trip activities and mode of travel? Can analysing the possible multiple associations among these core trip variables identify unique tourism consumption systems? This chapter supports the view that unique tourism consumption systems (TCSs) can be identified among overnight leisure trips.

The chapter begins with a small set of core assumptions and propositions concerning leisure travel behaviour. Second, the method used to examine the propositions of the study is described. Third, the findings and limitations of the study are presented. Finally, implications for additional research and implications for tourism marketing strategy are discussed.

Core Assumptions and Propositions

Following Senge's (1990) proposition that understanding phenomena increases by stat-

ing core assumptions explicitly, this section reviews the core assumptions and propositions driving the study.

Domestic leisure travel is not a given

Domestic tourism constitutes 70% of tourism expenditures in Australia; it is critical to the commercial sustainability of the industry. Because domestic leisure travel is discretionary, the industry competes with other uses for consumers' time and leisure pursuits, most notably, staying at home to watch TV, gardening, DIY projects, local shopping trips, as well as overseas trips. Consequently, dramatic annual shifts in domestic overnight travel behaviour can and do occur. Throughout the 1990s, domestic tourism expenditures included both declines and growth.

During 1998, 74 million overnight trips were estimated to have been taken in Australia by Australian residents aged 15 years and over; 74% of these visitors had overnight stays in their own State or Territory of residence, and 28% of visitors had an interstate stay. The average overnight trip length was 4 nights; 81% of the trips were for leisure and visiting friends and relatives (VFR); 19% was business related. Expenditures by overnight visitors amounted to $33 billion in 1998. See BTR (1999) for further details.

Tourism marketing often impacts tourism behaviour

Combining the marketing budgets of specialized government agencies (e.g. Tourism New South Wales, TNSW) and individual enterprises, more than $300 million is spent annually in marketing programmes designed to inform and attract Australians, and international visitors, to make leisure trips in Australia. The core assumption being made here is that tourism-marketing programmes are effective in generating leisure travel behaviour that would not have occurred otherwise.

Tourism marketing works at two levels

The explicit primary objective for each implemented tourism marketing strategy is to influence consumers to visit/buy a specific destination, attraction or event-experience. The implicit secondary objective is to increase leisure travel as a discretionary activity available in the minds of consumers. Thus, the core assumptions include identifying two types of tourism marketing influences: a brand-level (e.g. specific destination) influence and a product category (i.e. tourism leisure behaviour versus buying other services or durable products) selection influence.

Australians vary dramatically in their leisure time and tourism behaviours

Australian households may be divided usefully into three primary travel segments: (i) the segment with a strong propensity to never travel overnight away from home; (ii) the segment with a high variance in the number of overnight leisure trips annually; (iii) the segment consistently making one or more overnight trips annually. Segments (ii) and (iii) represent the primary qualified markets to consider for designing tourism marketing programmes.

Tourism marketing impacts vary by micro-segment

Within segments (ii) and (iii), identifying more micro-behavioural segments is useful, such as tourists making self-directed tours of vineyards, tourists travelling to attend performing arts productions and tourists planning their trips around golf outings. Substantial evidence supports the proposition that the impact of marketing strategies is greater in attracting some micro-segments compared to others. For example, marketing programmes to influence visits to wine-growing regions may have greater marginal impact compared to the marginal impact delivered by marketing programmes to influence overnight golf outings (i.e. overnight

golfing trips is a more developed tourism micro-industry compared to overnight wine-region trips; consequently, implementing effective marketing strategies to influence wine-region travel may be more critical for this industry compared to the overnight golfing-related industry).

Also, the tendency may be more widespread among vineyard visitors to view such trips as a one-time only trip (e.g. 'We've done the Hunter Valley') compared to a golfing travellers' proneness for repeat visits to the same destination. Thus, the vineyard tourism industry must find ways to market varied experiences (e.g. wine-tasting-related festivals) to overcome the assumption by some visitors that a one-off trip is sufficient.

Domestic overnight leisure travel includes unique consumption systems

Particular activities sought by travellers tend to be found in certain destinations more so than other destinations. Certain traveller origins are associated positively with a few specific destinations, negatively with trips to other destinations, and not at all with other destinations. For example, travellers from Sydney may be prone to visiting South Coast NSW but not Canberra, while South Coast NSW residents may be prone to visit both Canberra and Sydney. Fine dining versus takeaway eating is a more frequent activity in association with visiting certain destinations compared to other destinations. Travellers segmented by demographic characteristics engage in specific trip consumptions more than other trip consumptions, for example, households travelling with children under 15 years old tend to go to beaches more often than households without young children.

Consequently, certain destinations relate to specific origins, trip activities and demographic profiles to form trip consumption systems (Woodside and MacDonald, 1994). Specific trip consumption systems represent the strongest markets for attracting visitors for particular destinations. Thus, destination marketing strategists may be likely to increase the effectiveness of tourism marketing pro-grammes by focusing on 'gilding the lily', i.e. promoting TCSs where the destinations are known to deliver well to travellers.

Given these assumptions, the objective of the study focuses on describing the TCSs that associate consumer demographic segments, origins, trip mode, activities and destinations. Figure 7.1 summarizes this focus by showing a generalized hypothetical TCS linking a given origin with one destination for one traveller demographic segment using one mode of travel and two specific destination activities.

While the core proposition that unique TCSs relate to specific destinations may appear obvious, the value of the analysis is in verifying and deepening the TCS view for each of the major origins and destinations in Australia. For example, what are the origins, destinations, trip modes and other travel activities that relate to the Australian overnight golf traveller? Having a complete description of such a TCS, and others, offers both theoretical and practical advances to understanding traveller behaviour.

The propositions shown in Fig. 7.1 include the following points:

- P_1: domestic overnight travellers segmented by their origins have unique demographic profiles. For example, the proportion of Australian domestic overnight travellers (ADOTs) high-income households is substantially greater for Sydney and Melbourne residents in comparison to Alice Springs and Orange residents.
- P_2: ADOT's demographic segments vary systematically by principal activities engaged in during their trips. For example, families with young children often go to the beach; older couples with no children living at home often engage in fine dining.
- P_3: Specific modes of travel link particular origins and destinations among ADOTs. For example, air travel dominates travel from Tasmania to NSW among nearly all ADOTs.
- P_4: Destinations vary systematically by the principal activities engaged in by ADOTs. For example, productions of the performing arts usually occur in large metropolitan areas; however, exceptions to this view
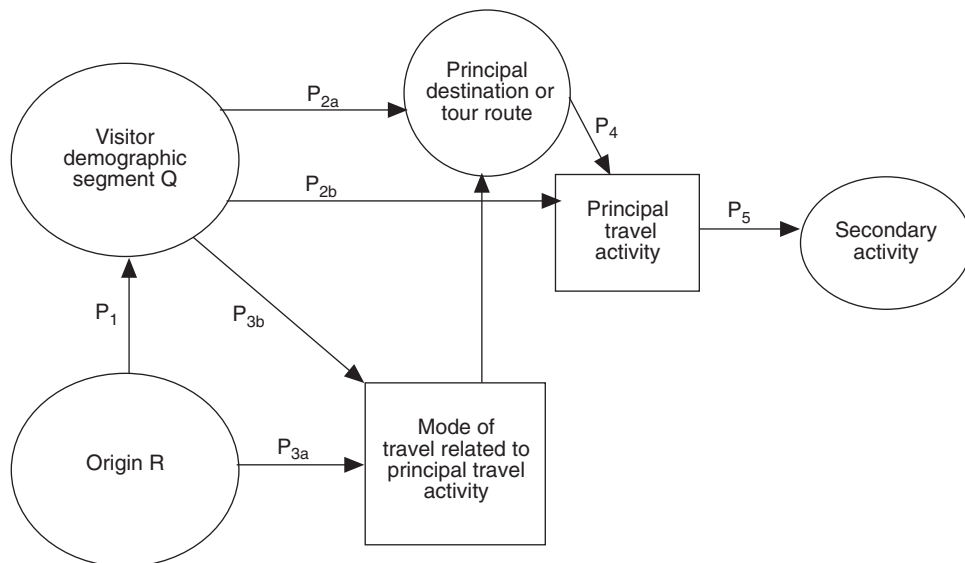
Fig. 7.1. Theory to tourism consumption systems. P1, origins vary by demographic characteristics (e.g. average incomes are higher in larger versus smaller cities); P2, traveller demographic segement vary in their preference for different travel destinations and activities; P3, the mode of travel used often varies among specific origins and destinations; P4, specific destinations are associated with specific principal visitor activities; P5, engaging in a principal activity leads to participating in specific secondary activities.

do occur (e.g. the 2-week music festival held each summer in rural Finland draws substantial numbers of Finnish and international visitors).

- P_5: Certain principal activity by some ADOT segments results in specific secondary activities. For example, fine dining may be associated positively with attending the performing arts.

While each of these propositions may appear to be intuitive, unique and valuable insights for tourism theory and management strategy come from examining the propositions in particular contexts, for example, comparing TCSs for Perth, Melbourne, Hobart, Sydney and other origins–destinations among ADOTs. Also, empirical evidence finds strong support that humans tend toward being highly confident about their views of what is 'intuitively obviously true', even though these views are mistaken (see Gilovich, 1993, for a review of the evidence). In doing so, applying the TCS method offers the opportunity for cost-effective and targeted marketing strategies.

Method

For this study, additional analyses were conducted on the unit record data of overnight domestic travellers ($n = 27,653$ households) in the Australian National Visitor Survey (NVS) 1998 study on the characteristics and travel patterns of domestic tourists. In the NVS study, interviews were done continuously throughout the year, using computer-assisted telephone interviewing. 'The NVS is an origin-based survey. In simple terms, this means that respondents were interviewed in their homes and details were collected about their recent travel' (BTR, 1999, p. 67).

The present study focuses on overnight trips, that is, trips involving a stay away from home for at least one night to less than 12 months duration, at a place at least 40 km from home. Questions about the overnight trips in the NVS study focused on the most recent completed trip taken within the 4 weeks prior to the interview.

Findings are generalized to the resident population of Australia in the following estimates. For 1998, overnight visitors included

74,000,000 travellers who spent 293,456,000 nights away from home (i.e. the number of travellers and nights away reflect multiple trip taking). Additional details are summarized in Fig. 7.2 for overnight trip origins, destinations and accommodations.

The top five leisure activities by overnight resident visitors estimated for Australia include the following: VFR (44%); go to beach and watersports (25%); visit national parks, bushwalking, rainforest walks (14%); pubs, clubs and discos (12%); and other outdoor activities (9%). The shares for each activity vary somewhat by state and territory; for example, going to the beach and watersports dominates Queensland overnight visitors (46%), and VFR is second for Queensland (38%). See BTR (1999) for further details.

Coding procedure

Not provided in the BTR (1999) are some possible links suggested by Fig. 7.1. For example, from Fig. 7.1: what origins are associated with what overnight trip activities? Thus, are the main reasons associated with Melbourne originating visitors going to Sydney, as well as other origin–reason–destination links, not provided in BTR (1999)?

To learn the principal associations among all the relationships shown in Fig. 7.1, dummy codes (0, 1) were created for several origins and destinations in each State and Territory, as well as type of accommodations, trip activities and demographic levels (e.g. having children under 15 years old on the trip was coded 1 versus not having children under 15 years old on the trip coded 0). Household income in the top 20% of all Australia households was coded 1 and lower incomes were coded zero.

Quick clustering data analysis

Using the dummy-coded data for origins, destinations, activities, accommodations and mode of travel, the quick clustering proce-

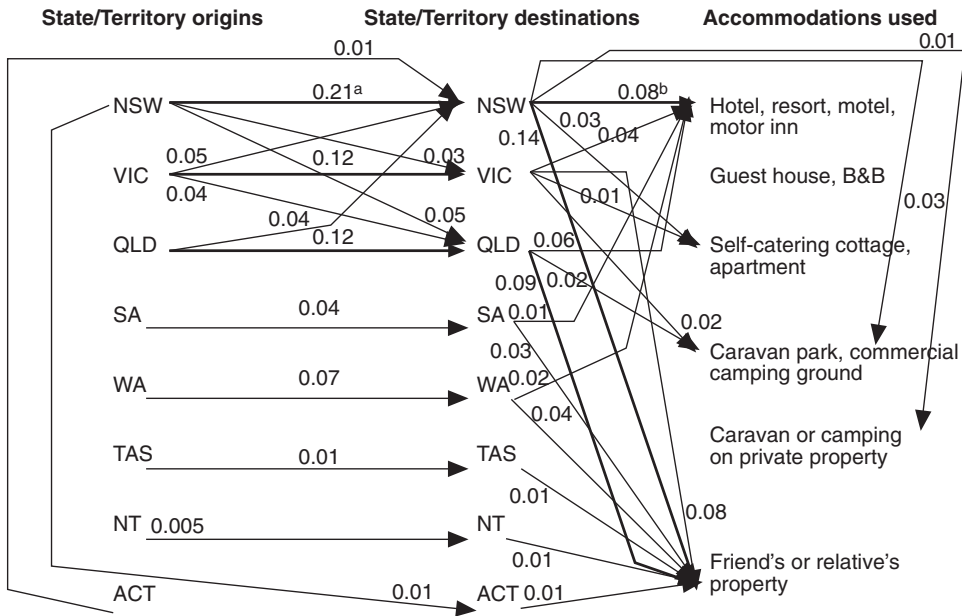**Fig. 7.2.** Main findings of the Australian 1998 NVS study: estimated shares of total visitor nights (*n* = 293,456,000). [a]Read 21% of the total 293,456,000 visitor nights were stays in NSW from trips originating in NSW. [b]Read 8% of the total 293,456,000 visitor nights were stays in hotels, resorts and motor inns located in NSW. Largest percentages are shown in bold. Source: various tables in BTR (1999).

dure recommended by Kamen (1970) was used to learn the main effects among the relationships shown in Fig. 7.1. This procedure includes creating maps of the principal (statistically significant) positive and negative associations found in the correlation matrix among the variables understudy. Using this method, information is learned about possible three-way and four-way associations among the core variables shown in Fig. 7.1.

A technical note: use of correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is notorious in behavioural research for underestimating effect sizes of relationships among variables (McClelland, 1998). A very few statistical outliers can reduce a highly significant correlation from 0.30 to 0.05, whereby both *r*-values are significant statistically at *P* less than 0.000. A correlation of 0.05 may be often considered incorrectly as not noteworthy (Gladwell, 1996, 2000). However, if the correlation analysis resulting in an *r* estimate of 0.05 with $P < 0.000$ is redone using group level data (Bass *et al.*, 1968), the resulting group-level-based *r* value is often 0.40 or higher. The key point of this discussion is that seemingly low but highly significant *r* values are, in fact, highly significant and of substantial practical importance.

The view is often expressed that low, but highly statistically significant, correlations, are due mainly to the use of large sample sizes. This view is inaccurate and misleading (McClelland, 1998). The more useful mental model to adopt is that *all* highly statistically significant correlations demonstrate relationships worth further exploration.

These points are readily confirmed from the use of cross-tabulation analysis in comparison with correlation analysis. However, because the focus of this study is on exploring the mosaic of relationships among sets of variables, correlation statistical results are presented. The reader is encouraged to explore the significant relationships discussed rather than to apply the mistaken assumption that low correlations indicate rather unimportant effect sizes.

Findings

All five propositions discussed and summarized in Fig. 7.1 received strong empirical support. Evidence in support of the five propositions is discussed below as well as summarized in the remaining figures in this report.

Associations with principal trip activities and main destinations visited for ADOTs organize the findings. The findings start with the most frequently reported leisure activity (39%) among ADOTs whose main trip purpose was holiday/leisure travel. The estimated total of 33,092,000 *holiday/leisure overnight visitors* represents 45% of all overnight travellers by Australian domestic residents in 1998. Going to the beach is the most often reported activity for overnight holiday/leisure travellers. (For all domestic overnight trips, *going to the beach* is the second most reported activity (25% of all trips); the top activity is visiting friends or relatives (VFR, 44% of all overnight trips).)

Reading the attached figures

Figures 7.2–7.11 provide a visual tool showing linkages among origins, destinations, traveller characteristics and selected destination activities. All correlations shown on the linkages (i.e. arrows) are significant statistically.

Main trip activities

Beach

Figure 7.3 presents a summary of significant findings for going to the beach as a main reason for ADOTs. As expected, travel to the beach is most common in the summer months ($r = 0.07$, $P < 0.000$). ADOTs travelling to the beach are most likely to originate their journey from Melbourne and Brisbane. In fact, Melbourne is the only city destination directly associated with the beach as an overnight trip activity. Predictably, visitors to the beach typically have children under 15 ($r = 0.05$, $P < 0.000$). The most popular beach destinations include the following:
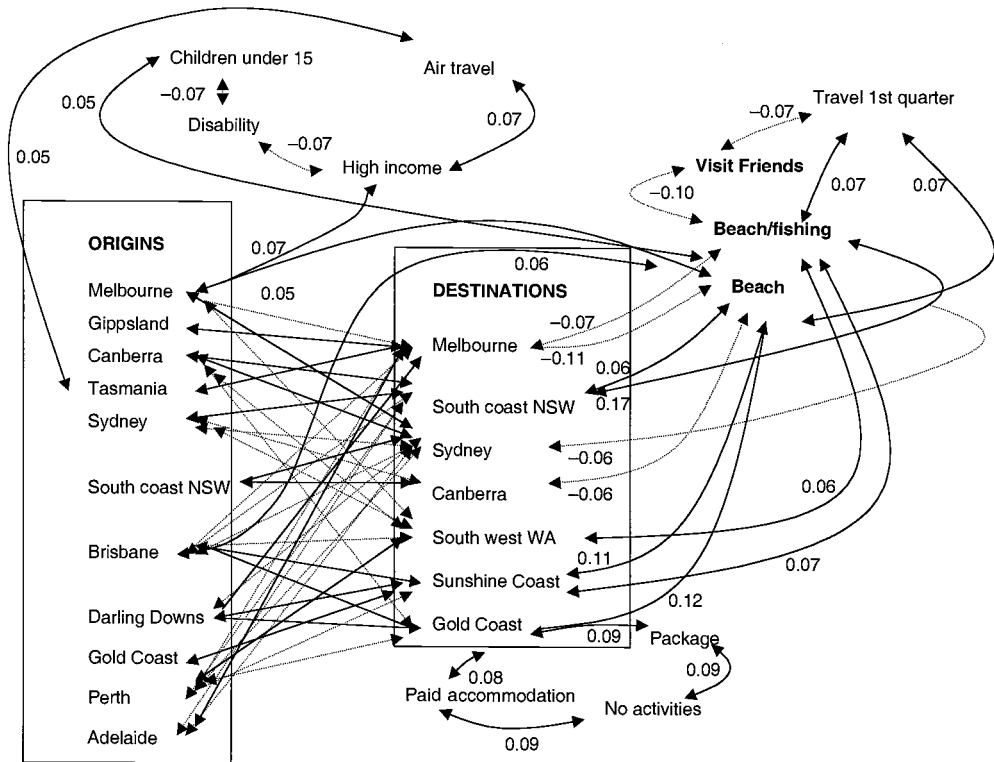
Fig. 7.3. Activity – beach (correlations ≥ |0.05|; for all correlations: P <0.01). ◄ - - ► Negative association; ◄——► positive association.

- the Gold Coast ($r = 0.12$)
- the Sunshine Coast ($r = 0.11$)
- and the south coast of NSW ($r = 0.06$).

Visitors do not report that they go to larger centres to visit the beach. Visitors to the Gold Coast and the Sunshine Coast were from Darling Downs and Brisbane in particular. Visitors to the Gold Coast were the only ADOTs to report significant use of travel packages. They are also most likely to stay in paid accommodation, and report that they participated in 'no other activities' during their stay. The question is whether they choose not to engage in other activities, or could not find, or did not seek out, other activities of interest. Visitors to the Gold Coast may have travelled elsewhere to engage in other activities, for instance, ADOTs from Gold Coast travelling to the Sunshine Coast, perhaps with touring or fishing in mind. Visitors to the south coast of NSW were from Sydney and Canberra. See Fig. 7.3 for further details.

Combining a trip to the beach with fishing is a separate type of trip. Figure 7.3 also shows detailed findings for beach/fishing-related overnight trips. Beach/fishing trips are taken in the south coast of NSW and the Sunshine Coast, as well as the south west of WA.

The most likely origin for travellers to the south west of WA is Perth. The south west coast of WA was the only beach destination associated with other activities unrelated to the beach such as visiting parks or wineries. Visitors are also likely to travel during the summer, and are unlikely to incorporate visiting friends into the same trip. Visitors looking for a combination of beach and fishing are unlikely to look for these activities in Sydney or Melbourne.

Strategic implications. A key driver for coastal destinations outside of the urban centres is a visit to the beach. Beach destinations such as the south coast of NSW draw successfully from

the Sydney and Canberra market. On the other hand, large urban centres are less successful at drawing on ADOTs to visit their cities with the beach as an objective for the trip.

The Gold Coast is associated with package trips, while visitors to the Sunshine Coast and the south coast of NSW are less likely to organize package tours or pay for accommodation on their trip. This may provide an opportunity for the Sunshine Coast and the south coast of NSW to promote package holidays, particularly since ADOTs do not identify visiting friends as an objective for the trip.

Wineries

Figure 7.4 summarizes the major associations related directly and indirectly to visiting wineries as an overnight trip activity. Visitors travelled to the Hunter Valley NSW and south west WA to visit the wineries. These trips were made from local destinations in particular; Sydney-siders travelled to the Hunter Valley and ADOTs from Perth travelled to south west WA. Neither destination was associated with air travel. Visiting wineries is not currently a strong enough driver for domestic

travellers living outside of driving distance from the wine-growing area. Counter to intuition, the Barossa Valley and other wine-growing areas around Adelaide were not identified as a significant overnight destination, nor were areas in Victoria.

In the Hunter Valley, visitors only went to the wineries, while in south west WA, visitors reported going to the beach, fishing and visiting parks as well as visiting wineries. The Hunter Valley successfully draws ADOTs from Sydney. It is recommended to continue allocating promotional resources to the Sydney market. Markets requiring air travel, such as Brisbane or Hobart, may not be reasonably considered as potential for the winery districts. ADOTs from Canberra are currently not visiting the Hunter Valley although they often visit Sydney with other travel objectives. This may be an untapped market.

Strategic implications. Wineries do not appear to be considered an overnight destination on their own. Other activities at the same or nearby locations should be promoted as part of a trip to the wine-growing areas, to encourage travellers to stay overnight.
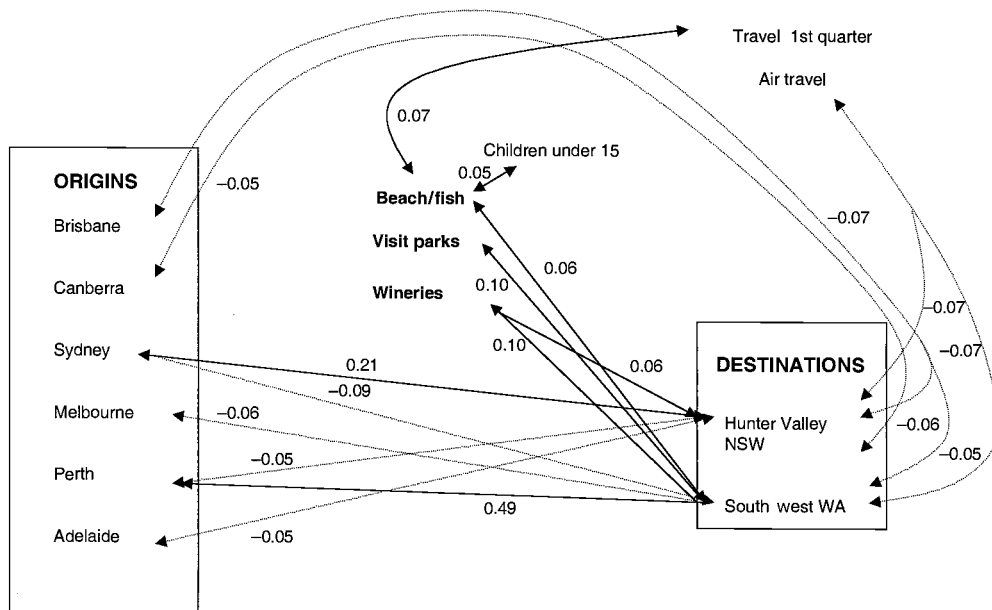
Fig. 7.4. Activities – wineries (correlations ≥ |0.05|, *P* <0.01). ◀- - -▶ Negative association; ◀——▶ positive association.

Areas such as the Barossa Valley and Clare Valley have not been successful at convincing the ADOTs, particularly those living in Adelaide, to spend at least one night at these destinations. It is recommended that the wineries be used as the key driver for these destinations supported by other 'non-winery' activities, such as dining out.

Dining out

Figure 7.5 shows detailed results for dining out as an overnight trip activity. ADOTs travelling to large urban centres such as Sydney and Melbourne participate in dining out. Contrary to Melbourne's reputation as the culinary centre of Australia, Sydney is the most strongly associated with this activity. Visitors to Sydney are from Melbourne, Canberra and the south coast of NSW. The greatest draw is from Melbourne and Canberra. People originating in Melbourne are most likely to travel with the objective of dining out in mind. They are more likely to be in a higher-income bracket, and are more

likely to travel by air. ADOTs to Melbourne are from Gippsland, Adelaide and Tasmania. Visitors travelling from Tasmania are also likely to travel by air.

Dining out is negatively correlated to visiting friends ($r = -0.12$, $P < 0.000$). Dining out is also negatively correlated with beach/fishing destinations such as the south coast of NSW and the Sunshine Coast. An urban setting is a critical determinant for the dining out activity for ADOTs. Sydney is very successful at attracting ADOTs from nearby Canberra and the south coast of NSW, as well as Melbourne. It is recommended that they continue allocating promotional resources to these centres.

Melbourne is also successful at attracting ADOTs from Adelaide and Tasmania. Again, promotional resources should continue to be spent encouraging these markets.

Brisbane is not associated with dining out. Since there is a number of beach destinations near Brisbane, there may be potential in promoting dining out by promoting something associated positively with dining, such as going to the beach.
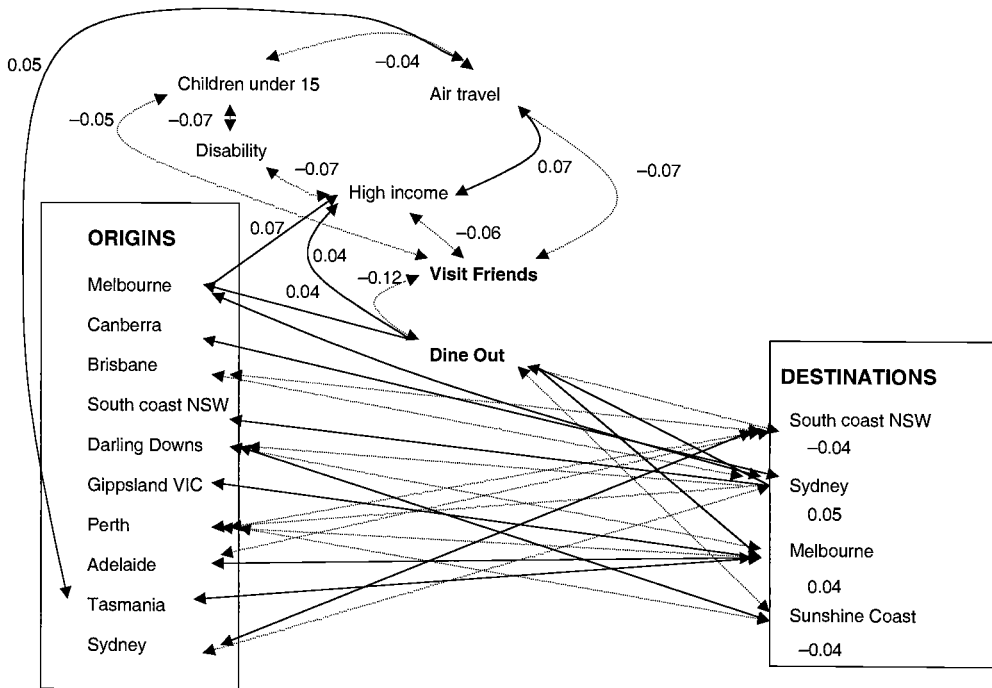
Fig. 7.5. Activity – dine out (correlations ≥ |0.04|, $P < 0.01$). ◄- - -► Negative association; ◄——► positive association.

Strategic implications. There is a definite lack of dining out activity in beach locations and winery destinations. The possibility for stimulating the start-up of such relationships among ADOTs – combining winery tours and dining out or beach and dining out – may be worthwhile for field testing.

Visiting friends and relatives

Figure 7.6 summarizes key relationships with VFR as the main purpose of domestic overnight trips. ADOTs travel to large urban centres when visiting friends or relatives. The most common destinations are Melbourne, Perth and Brisbane. The trips are unlikely to occur during the school holidays in the first quarter of the year ($r = -0.07$, $P < 0.001$). Those visiting friends are unlikely to have children under 15 and are not in a high-income bracket. It is unlikely that they would

travel by air to the destination, unless they are originating in Tasmania.

Travellers visiting friends in Melbourne originate from Adelaide, Tasmania and Gippsland. Although Melbourne is a common destination for dining out, this activity is negatively correlated with visiting. Travellers to Perth usually are likely to be travelling locally. There is also a segment that travels locally combining visiting friends with a shopping trip. Perth was the only destination where travellers identified shopping as part of the objective of the trip. Finally, those travelling to Brisbane originate in the Gold Coast and Darling Downs.

Strategic implications. The associations summarized in Fig. 7.6 may confirm the marketing strategy that expending marketing resources on promoting VFR domestic overnight travel may have lower performance payoffs com-
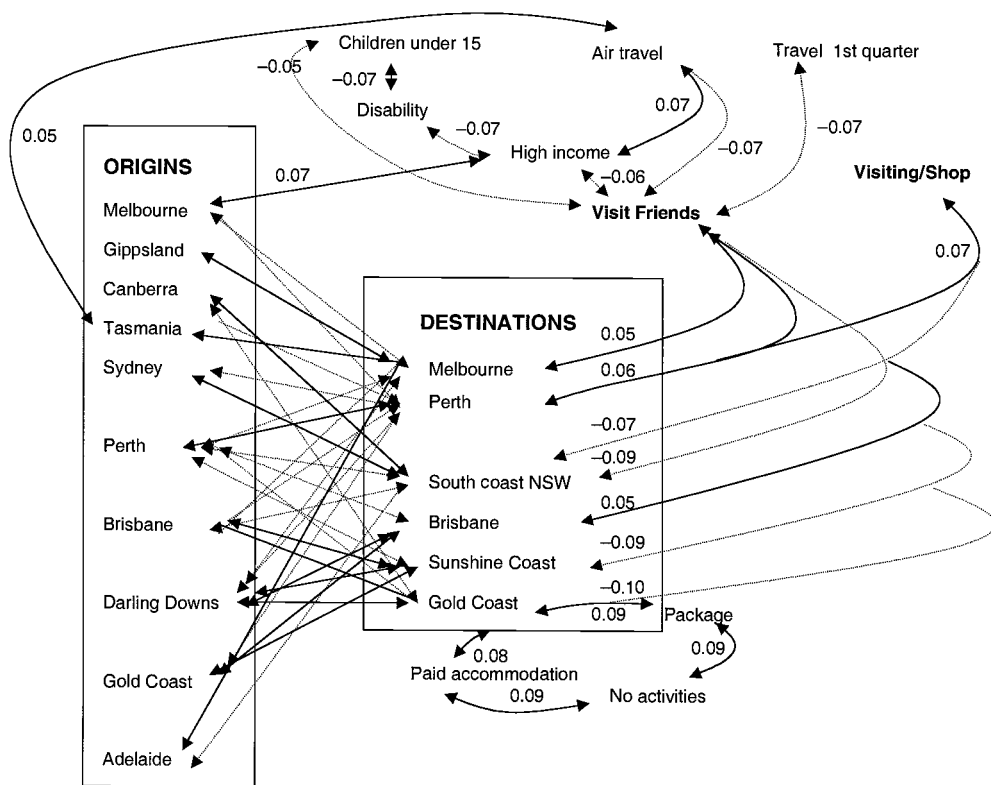
Fig. 7.6. Activity – visit friends (correlations ≥ |0.05|, *P* <0.01). ◀ - - ▶ Negative association; ◀──▶ positive association.

pared to promoting other activity-related overnight trips – such as going to the beach. VFR-related overnight travel is indeed related to avoiding spending money for other trip-related activities, such as dining out and air travel. Thus, even though some tourism marketing destinations are focused on stimulating VFR trips (e.g. Pennsylvania's 'You have a friend in Pennsylvania' campaign), such a positioning strategy is not recommended for promoting Australia overnight domestic travel.

Destinations

Melbourne

Figure 7.7 summarizes the results for variables for Melbourne-related trips. ADOTs are likely to travel to Melbourne from Gippsland, Adelaide and Tasmania (Hobart, Launceston). It is unlikely that ADOTs often originate from greater distances (i.e. Perth or Brisbane).

ADOTs travelling to Melbourne fall into two distinct segments:

- those travelling for a culinary experience, and
- those travelling to visit friends.

The dining out segment is of a higher income and is more likely to use air travel. The visiting segment is less likely to have a high income and is less likely to travel by air. The visiting segment is also unlikely to have children under 15.

Visits to Melbourne are not associated significantly with the objectives of going to the beach, going to parks, fishing or playing golf.

Strategic implications. Promotional resources supporting the restaurant experience in Melbourne has been effective and should continue to be supported. Any attempt to promote an outdoor experience has not been as successful and may not be a viable strategy.
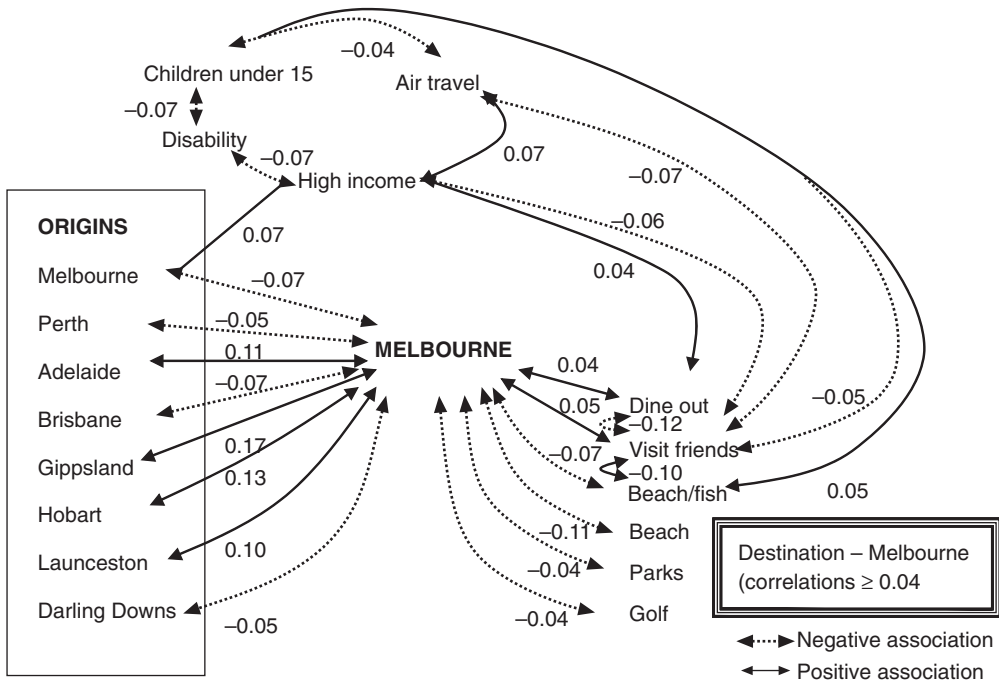
Fig. 7.7. Destination – Sydney (correlations ≥ $r = |0.04|$, $P < 0.01$). ◄- - ► Negative association; ◄——► positive association.

Perth

Figure 7.8 summarizes the results for Perth. As Perth is one of the most isolated cities in the world, it is not surprising that ADOTs originating from the other side of the country are uncommon. The most likely ADOT origin is Perth itself. The activities commonly reported are shopping and visiting friends. Those visiting friends only are unlikely to do so in the first quarter of the year and are not likely to have children under 15.

Although ADOTs from Perth go to south west WA for recreation, there is no indication that ADOTs originating from the south west go to Perth for dining out or the performing arts. Since Perth is the only large urban centre in this area of the state, it is surprising that there are not more overnight trips made for the amenities of the city.

Adelaide

Figure 7.9 summarizes the results for Perth. ADOTs travelling to Adelaide are likely to originate their journey either locally, from Adelaide, or from Melbourne. They are likely to be visiting friends, and are not likely to be travelling to Adelaide in order to use the beach. The ADOTs are unlikely to have children under 15.

Adelaide is set in wine country. It is surprising that more ADOTs are not travelling to Adelaide to see the wine areas in the Barossa and Clare Valley, amongst other wine areas. The strategic implication in that there is potential here to increase the number of overnight stays by promoting wine tours.

Brisbane

Please refer to Fig. 7.10 for the results for Brisbane. ADOTs come from Gold Coast and
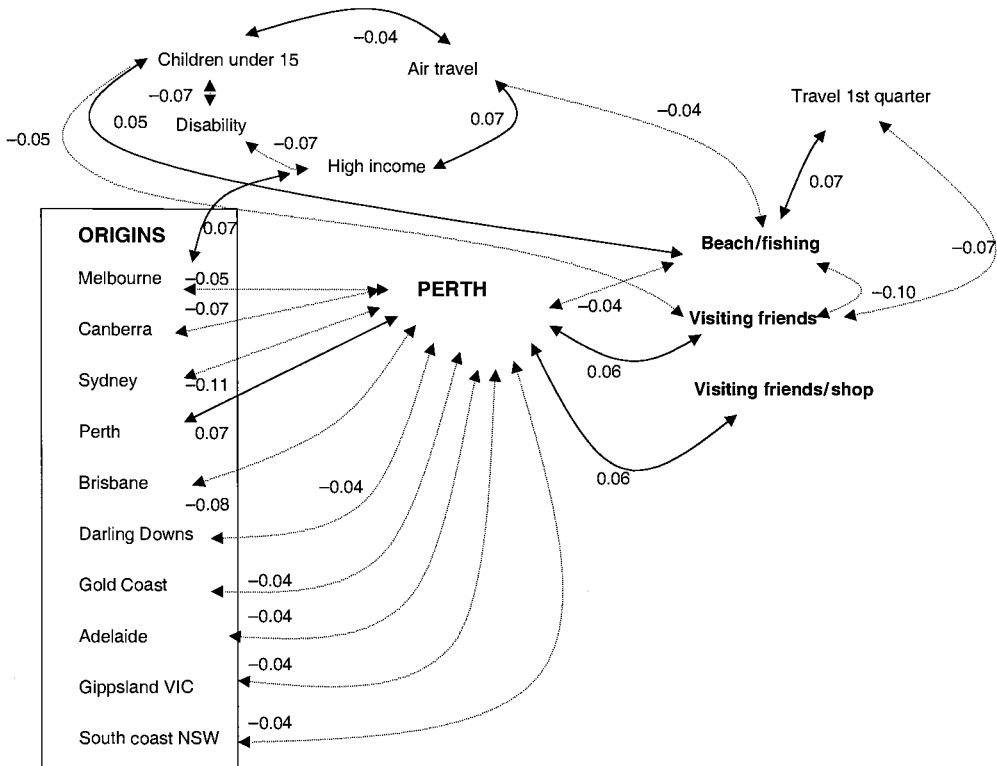
Fig. 7.8. Destination – Perth (correlations ≥ |0.04|, $P < 0.01$). ◄ - - ► Negative association; ◄—► positive association.
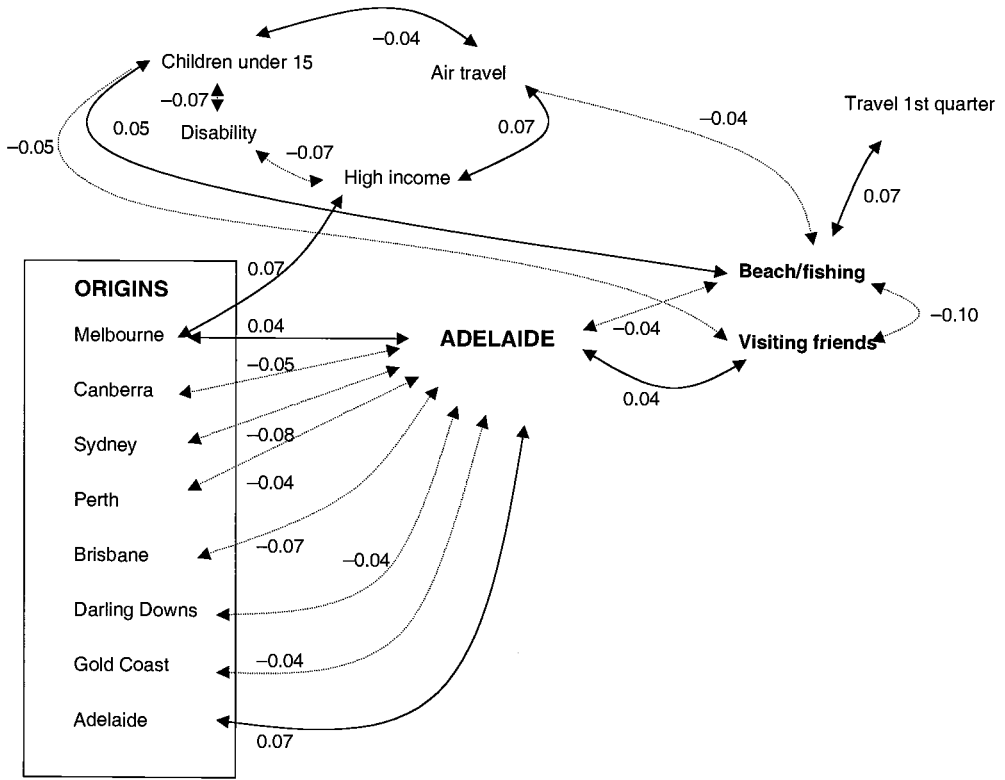
Fig. 7.9. Destination – Adelaide (correlations ≥ |0.04|, *P* <0.001). ◄- - -► Negative association; ◄——► positive association.
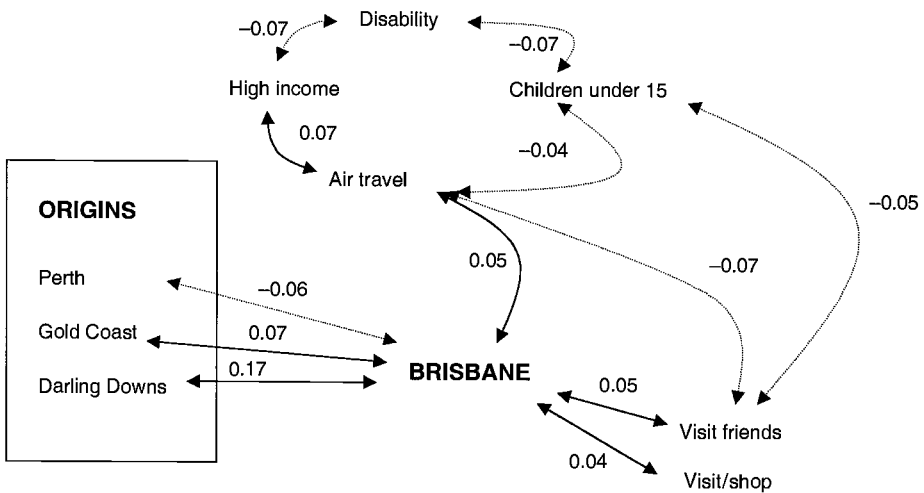
Fig. 7.10. Destination – Brisbane (correlations ≥ |0.04|, *P* <0.01). ◄- - -► Negative association; ◄——► positive association.

Darling Downs to visit friends and shop in Brisbane. Although air travel is associated with visits to Brisbane, it is not likely for overnight trips when the objective of the trip is to visit friends.

Brisbane is the largest centre along the southern Queensland, northern New South Wales coast. It is recommended that Brisbane promote the amenities of urban life including restaurants, entertainment and shopping. There are many tourists visiting the Gold Coast and the Sunshine Coast that may be interested in dining out and shopping. Currently these centres have not satisfied these needs amongst visitors.

Sydney

Figure 7.11 shows the results for Sydney. ADOTs travelling to Sydney tend to originate from Melbourne, Canberra and the south coast of NSW. Generally, they are of a higher income bracket. They are interested in dining

out and the performing arts. They do not travel to Sydney for the beaches, the fishing or golf.

The key drivers for Sydney destination ADOTs are the urban lifestyle, culinary experiences and the performing arts. It is recommended that promotional resources continue to be allocated toward these types of activity, as they are most strongly associated with Sydney. It is not recommended to emphasize only the city beaches to the ADOTs as they are likely to look for beach type vacations outside of the larger urban centres.

Limitations

A complete test of the core TCS proposition would include segmented travellers into unique TCSs. This report has focused on confirming that statistically significant multiple path associations do occur as set forth in the TCS framework. Additional empirical work is

Fig. 7.11. Destination – Sydney (correlations ≥ $r = |0.04|$, $P < 0.01$). ◄ - - ► Negative association; ◄——► positive association.

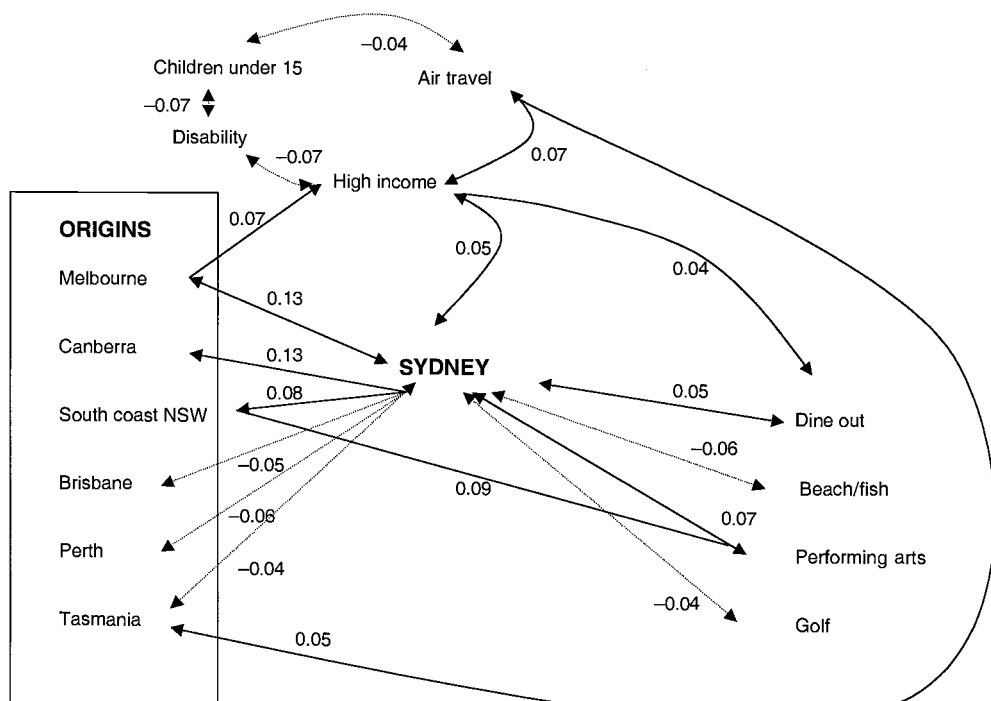necessary to examine the sizes and types of TCSs related to specific origins, destinations, travel modes and trip activities. Suggestions for such research work are described in the next section of this report.

The findings and discussion are illustrative and exploratory, rather than a complete analysis of the potential for data analysis of TCSs. Within the Australian National Visitor Survey database used for this report, substantial scope remains for deeper descriptions of TCSs related to specific destinations, activities and trip purposes.

Implications for Further Research

A core proposition for doing the research work reported here is that understanding domestic overnight travel behaviour requires examining TCSs rather than only focusing on two or three variable relationships. The theoretical logic of focusing on tourism trips as a unit of analysis rather than variable relationships can be applied through field studies of TCSs. Of course, the more variables included in the operational definition of TCSs, the greater the complexity in identifying TCS micro-segments.

For example, assuming ten origins, five main trip purposes, 20 trip activities, and five main modes of travel and ten destinations, results in a total of 50,000 possible combinations (i.e. potential TCSs). However, a large data set (e.g. cases >20,000) may be used to confirm the assumption that far less than the maximum possible TCSs actually occur. Also, about 20–40 TCSs are likely to represent more than 50% of the total overnight visitors for any one destination (e.g. NSW as a destination).

The comparative method is a case research method that can be applied to large data sets (Ragin, 1989). The comparative method may be used to identify 'pure' TCS customer segments. This approach, as developed by Ragin, applies Boolean algebra to identify the multiple paths that lead from one event to a given outcome. For example, what are all the multiple paths leading from Melbourne as an origin to Sydney as a destination that includes a mode of travel, purpose of trip and leisure activities? Applying

the comparative method to a many group solution (e.g. $g = 100$, where g is the number of groups the researcher requests in the solution) in cluster analysis with binary coded data, results in a number of pure-type groups. A pure-type group is a series of 'yes' responses (coded as 1s) that link a given origin to a given destination via a given purpose–activity–travel mode path. Such a data analysis approach is anathema to achieving the goal of a few ($g <7$) group solutions that fit the dominant logic in positivistic research.

Consequently, the suggested use of the comparative method represents a heretic view of applying a case approach to large, quantitative databases. This suggested view complies with the recommendation by the executives at www.thinktools.com to 'embrace complexity' (e.g. achieving wisdom about *what drives relationships in specific contexts*, rather than restricting data analysis to achieve a limited number of parsimonious models of prediction and explanation).

This suggested research approach departs from the dominant logic (i.e. explaining variance using analysis of variance procedures such as *F*-tests and regression analysis with an emphasis on achieving parsimony). The alternative logic of the comparative method is to uncover the complexity and manage ambiguity in the data rather than deciding on a limited number of solutions (e.g. two to three regression models).

Thus, for tourism behaviour research, applying the comparative method in studies of tourism behaviour is likely to result in uncovering 100+ major origin–purpose–mode–activity–destination paths (e.g. 5–20 per destination) worthy of empirical discussion. Such a case-oriented research method is analogous to testing mostly for five-way interaction effects rather than testing for main effects via ANOVA (i.e. analysis of variance).

Implications for Tourism Marketing Strategies

Development and empirical testing of theories of TCSs is a useful approach for the marketing strategist who wants to examine specific paths (or linkages) between customer

origins, destinations, activities, trip purposes and activities. The identification of TCSs represents a useful micro-segmentation view leading to designing tourism destination–attractions–experiences sought uniquely by each micro-segment.

The widespread adoption of Internet marketing strategies is permitting rapid individualizing of product designs and promotional messages to meet the preferences of prospective customers. Thus, the study of TCSs can result directly in powerful marketing strategies when customers go online and identify what they are looking for, e.g. in a destination. Here is an application of this marketing strategy: in 2001, Amazon.com provides each customer with an individualized product-offering link after the customer completes a very limited search at the Amazon.com website.

Thus, a tourism marketer might suggest a few complete TCSs after a prospective customer completes a limited number of clicks at the marketer's website. Given the array of multiple trip-related decisions that travellers must complete for a TCS, the tourism marketers which perform best at applying this strategy to enable customers to 'design-your-own TCS' are most likely to be successful in converting 'lookers' into buyers.

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Chapter eight
Tourist Activity Planning in Congested Urban Tourism Environments: Towards a Game-theoretic Model and Decision Support System

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Abstract

Urban tourism has positive effects on the city such as generating financial support and improving the city's atmosphere, but may also have negative impacts such as overuse of resources. In this chapter, an activity-based approach to tourists' behaviour analysis is combined with a game-theoretic methodology to study the interaction between individual tourists, as well as the interaction between tourists and the tourism information offices. We postulate that, when integrated in an Internet-based information system, this approach can support urban authorities to achieve sustainable tourism development, and also support individual tourists planning their urban day trips as a customized experience.

Introduction

Understanding needs, preferences and decision making processes of consumers is a key issue of successful planning and marketing. In the domain of urban tourism, it is especially relevant to know urban tourists' preferences for different possible combinations of alternatives, because previous research has shown that urban tourists typically like to combine several activities when they make city day trips (Dellaert *et al.*, 1995). Moreover, urban tourism behaviour often takes place in highly complex urban environments that incorporate multiple tourism facilities and services, which are used by many tourists simultaneously, often resulting in congestion. Therefore, it is desirable to develop models that allow one to include combinations of alternative activities as well as interdependencies among decision makers. Such models can improve the precision of predicted effects in tourism behaviour and thus further optimize the usage of the city. A promising solution might be an activity-

based approach to tourists' behaviour analysis combined with a game-theoretic methodology to study the interactions between individual tourists as well as the interaction between tourists and the urban tourism information (UTI) offices. This chapter discusses the conceptualization of such a model and how it could be implemented in an experimental website to test its validity.

This chapter starts with describing the research problem context, focusing on the most relevant approaches (Section 2). It continues with presenting the conceptual framework in terms of tourism analysis, tourism planning and economics (Section 3). Then, an activity-based model is defined by specifying its support space, data requirements and the process (Section 4). Subsequently, a game-theoretic model consisting of two different games played at aggregate and disaggregate level respectively is discussed (Section 5). Finally, conclusions and discussion complete the chapter.

Background

Traditional tourism planning methods in urban development are primarily supply-oriented and focus on constraints and the physical–spatial structure of the urban environment. Over the last 5–10 years, many cities have realized that this physical–spatial approach is insufficient to achieve most policy objectives, and have tended to adopt more demand-oriented marketing planning approaches, which have the advantage of being less centralized and more sustainable. This tendency is reflected in the development and implementation of the city-marketing approach.

Urban tourism constitutes one important aspect of city-marketing. Many cities have considered tourists' visits and expenditures as an important source of income to finance urban facilities and as a key to urban development and revitalization. Planners in these cities hope that tourists will not only spend money in their city and enjoy urban facilities and services, but also bring cross-fertilization that will improve other sectors of the urban economy and improve the atmosphere in the

city. Nevertheless, tourists potentially also have a negative impact on the city, especially when viewed in the light of urban sustainable development (Ryan, 2002). Hence, the challenge is how to influence the activities of tourists in such a way that the balance between advantages and disadvantages is optimized. Unfortunately, UTI offices often face a lack of insight into tourists' responses to tourism information, the influence of these responses on the functioning of urban tourism and the potential synergism between urban facilities. This knowledge is vital for urban authorities to achieve their objectives in an integrative urban tourism framework (Pearce, 2001).

Previous studies of urban tourists' choice behaviour show that urban tourists typically combine several activities in one trip. This further complicates the understanding of tourist behaviour. This makes the so-called activity-based approach a potentially very valuable one. The activity-based approach models individual behaviour in terms of which activity is conducted where, when, with whom and with which transport mode, in an attempt to replicate the way that individuals arrived at a comprehensive activity-pattern in time and space. This approach has its origins in geography and urban planning, but is now a very active line in transportation research and time use research (Timmermans *et al.*, 2002). The advantage of this approach is that it incorporates all choice dimensions such as activity choice, location, duration and sequencing, subject to a wide set of constraints. All these dimensions together reflect the scheduling of activities in time–space and represent a holistic decision process in a complex environment. Some advanced activity-based models of activity–travel behaviour are derived from theories of choice heuristics that consumers apply when making decisions in daily life (e.g. Arentze and Timmermans, 2000); others are based on the principle of utility maximization (e.g. Bowman and Ben-Akiva, 1999).

However, to date, activity-based models have hardly paid attention to the modelling of interactions between decision makers. In congested urban tourism environments, it is important to understand the interactions

between different decision makers in order to minimize congestion and thus optimize the usage of the tourism attractions and facilities in the city. Non-cooperative game theory might be helpful in this respect. This theory, which emanated from studies of games such as chess or poker, assumes that players have to think ahead and devise a strategy based on expected countermoves from the other player(s). Such strategic interactions characterize many economic situations, and this theory has therefore proved to be very useful in various types of economic analyses. The advantage of this approach is that it is based on some primitive assumptions about payoffs and strategies, and uses the concept of equilibrium as the principal guideline to predict the outcome of strategic interactions (Rasmusen, 1990; Scott Bierman and Fernandez, 1998). Thus, the interactions between tourists themselves and between tourists and the UTI office could be studied by formulating them as special cases of non-cooperative games. Therefore, we decided to combine the activity-based approach with a game-theoretic method in our model, aiming to investigate tourists' behaviour and improve the optimal use of urban facilities.

In practice, the proposed model will need to be implemented in a tourist decision support system to test its usefulness. Internet technology may be a promising tool in this regard, because an increasing number of tourists use the Internet to make travel plans. Moreover, Internet technology can be used not only for marketing purposes, but also for optimizing general welfare, provided that it is complemented by an appropriate control model. We argue that when integrated in an Internet-based information system, the proposed model can support urban authorities to achieve sustainable tourism development, and also support individual tourists in planning their urban day trips as a customized experience.

Conceptual Framework

Central to our conceptual framework is the understanding of interaction mechanisms. Our Internet decision support system is intended to be an interactive communication platform for tourists to build themselves a tailored day trip programme, and communicate with the UTI office about their interests and opportunities, based on the aggregate effects.

A learning process, represented by dashed lines in Fig. 8.1, is permeated through the whole decision support procedure. This process assists the UTI office in gaining insight into tourists' responses to information, the influence of these responses on the functioning of urban tourism in the city, and the potential synergism between urban facilities. Learning in the system is based on observations of the tourists' input in building tailored day trip schedules, tourists' feedback on the effect of information when choosing an optimal strategy and tourists' day trip portfolio choices, which can be used as a basis to perform simulation and evaluation.
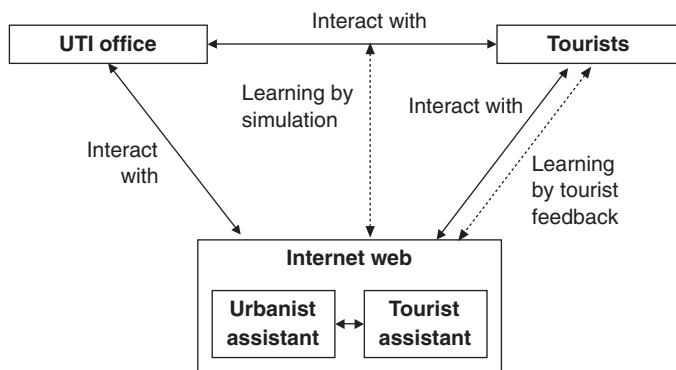
Fig. 8.1. Conceptual framework.

As shown in Fig. 8.2, the proposed decision support system will consist of two parts: the tourist assistant and the urbanist assistant. The system includes an experimental website where tourists are requested to choose between a set of activity alternatives that the website suggested, and to decide whether they are satisfied with the schedule that the website offered. The accepted schedules together with tourists' personal information will be recorded by the tourist assistant. The urbanist assistant will use these data to conduct a simulation analysis, so as to decide the optimal strategy for each tourist and for the total urban tourism network. Thereafter, this strategy will generate information presented on the website to each tourist.

These lead to two loops in the proposed Internet decision support system. One is inside the urbanist assistant subsystem and is implemented in 'Simulation analysis' (see Section 5 for more details), which offers system decision support, referred to as the 'inner-loop'. The other is interacting with the tourist assistant subsystem, given the information resulting from the 'inner-loop' and the input of data collection, referred to as the 'outer-loop'. Such an interactive mechanism is useful for the urbanist to predict the service effectiveness of the urban environment and for tourists to plan their day-trips more quickly and effectively.

An Activity-based Model – the Tourist Assistant

The tourist assistant supports the tourists during his/her day-trip planning decision making process. It is developed from an activity-based model. In Fig. 8.3, the grey coloured text boxes show the tourist's actions, while the other boxes indicate the tourist assistant's action. After a tourist inputs his/her personal information, the tourist assistant gives some activity options with prescriptive information at the activity level. Next the tourist makes a selection and gives his/her preferences. Based on these responses, the tourist assistant generates a schedule and presents it to the tourist with anticipatory descriptive information at the schedule level. If the tourist is satisfied with the schedule, the tourist assistant records the data; otherwise, the tourist assistant returns to update the activity or schedule suggestion based on the more precise tourist input. The actual process of scheduling activities is conceptualized as a process in which a tourist attempts to achieve a day trip programme that has the best combination of all travel objects he/she requires, given a variety of constraints that limits the number of feasible day trip plans. This day trip programme comprises an ordered sequence of activities and related travels between particular locations, with particular start times and durations, and
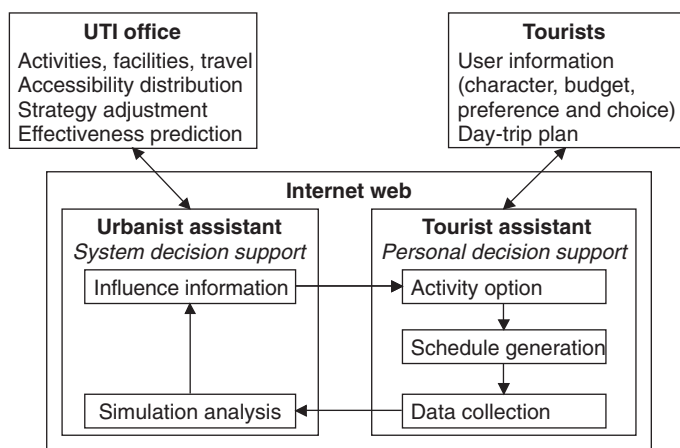
Fig. 8.2. Web system architecture.
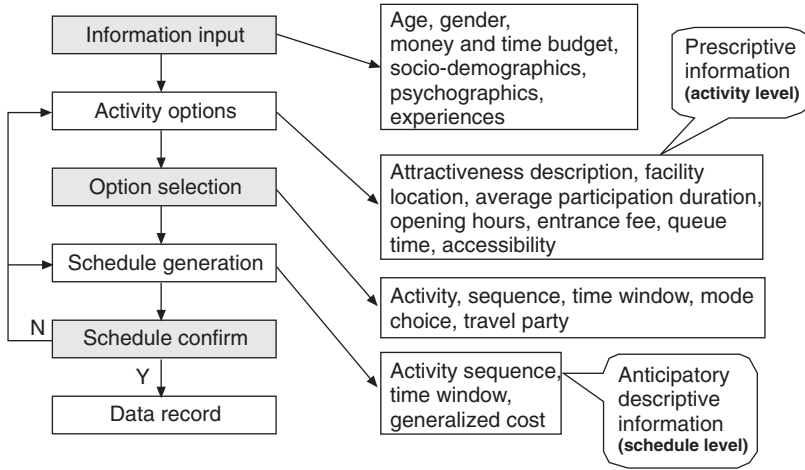
Fig. 8.3. Tourist assistant model.

with particular transport modes. By varying the activity level and schedule level information, tourists' reactions to different suggestions can be investigated.

In order to give tourists better suggestions, it is important to distinguish between planned and impulse activities. In most cases, the decision to visit a city is activated by some planned activities such as visiting a particular historical destination or a particular shopping area. It is rational to assume that day trip structures depend primarily on these planned activities, which are relatively restricted in time and certainly space. In contrast, the impulse activities could be contingent upon many conditions and constraints when tourists are conducting their planned activities. These impulse activities are more flexible, which gives our tourist assistant more flexibility and space to give suggestions and observe the responses. Hence, the recommendations in our experimental website are preceded by two parts. One is about planned activities and gives suggestions such as better conducting times (start time) together with locations, durations and travel modes. The other generates possible impulse activities and gives suggestions such as the most feasible impulse activities together with locations, start times, durations and travel modes, given the tourist personal information input.

To generate the suggestions, the system needs both environmental information and individual information. Environmental information describes the available activities, facilities and travel options in the following terms:

● Activities: optional facilities where an activity can be performed, average duration required for each activity.
● Facilities: includes opening hours, geographical locations of the facilities (absolute location), centrality of different facilities (relative location), the time-dependent crowdedness of the facility (customer density and floor space), entrance fee.
● Travel: travel speeds of different mode (more precise information could include travel speeds between locations at different times of the day according to traffic conditions), route attractiveness, monetary cost (car, public transport and walking).

Individual information will be obtained from tourists' input, which contains three pieces of information.

● Socio-demographics, psychographics, experience for modelling the segments for which different suggestions are given.
● Money budget, time budget and planned activities together with planned location, for setting the basic constraints.

- Personal preferences for activity types, activity performing facilities and locations, durations and times, and travel modes together with environmental information, for figuring out the context-aware suggestions.

At the activity level, a critical process assumption is whether people plan one activity at a time, or schedule several activities simultaneously. Following the *satisficing* principle (Simon, 1982) and in order to get a more tractable operational model, we assume that day-trip planning decisions are likely to be incremental. Only one activity at a time is considered or added to the activities list.

We assume that individuals expect to obtain some benefit from each activity in the day. We use the common term utility to refer to the net benefits derived from an activity. However, an activity is not taken into account if the cost of its performance is higher than the utility of its performance. Based on Louviere and Timmermans (1992) and Gärling *et al.* (1998)'s research on hierarchical information integration, it will often be the case that an activity choice entails several subordinate judgements or choices, which are mutually dependent, such as duration, location, travel time, and so on.

At the highest level, a person weighs the utility of performing an activity against the cost of performing it. At the middle level, he/she makes a judgement of the cost (including time pressure and travel cost) and the utility (including motivation and perceived utility). At the lower level, travel cost accounts for location accessibility, travel time, route benefit, waiting time and time flexibility, and perceived utility accounts for the variation of utilities of the activities over time–space such as attractiveness and crowdedness. Our tourist assistant will mimic this kind of human mental process to get the most interesting suggestion for the specific tourist.

After calculation, the activity with the highest utility will always be the candidate for being recommended first and likewise. No adjustment of duration is made at this phase, i.e. activity level. It is rational to assume that, when the tourist assistant gives 'activity options' (see Fig. 8.3), the system only takes the average duration into account. Because at the first recommendation phase when the tourist tries to get a list of activities, he/she does not exactly know how long each activity will last. It is assumed that if the time available is less than the specified average duration, the activity will not be considered. If more time is available, either there will be some waiting time or another activity will be suggested next. Given the first round of recommendations, a tourist will decide to accept the recommendation or not. Accepted recommendations will be taken into account when the assistant gives the next suggestion. This procedure will be repeated until the time budget and money budget are exhausted.

Having generated the list of the activities, the tourist assistant will give a schedule level suggestion by generating the appropriate schedule. From pedestrian destination and route choice studies, we know that different people apparently use different decision heuristics (Gärling and Gärling, 1988; Timmermans *et al.,* 1992) such as the global-distance minimizing, local-distance minimizing or total-distance minimizing strategy to choose a route, when they have a list of stops to visit. However, these rules only will not completely solve the scheduling problem. In the case in which a pedestrian knows which stores to visit and has decided on which route to follow, the problem in which sequence to visit the stores still remains, i.e. the route can still be followed in two directions. The alternative sequential patterns are unrelated to the total travel distance. Specific sequence heuristics used here are the nearest-destination-oriented, furthest-destination-oriented or intermediate-destination-oriented rules. Because of the similarity between pedestrian behaviour and day trip behaviour, we could suppose these heuristics are also applicable in the case of planning day-trip. Moreover, the pedestrian studies mentioned above are based on the assumption that non-location attributes are irrelevant; in reality, it is clear that destinations differ in terms of their attractiveness and the context of the person and environmental situation. Therefore, the tourist assistant should integrate these heuristics with context-aware information to give better activities sequence suggestions, or timing of the activities.

In the second phase, the duration of activities will be slightly adjusted by using a utility function of duration time according to personal preference and constraints. Recently, Timmermans *et al.* (2001) and Joh *et al.* (2001) proposed a model of activity rescheduling. They described an asymmetric S-shape utility function of duration time. This function reflects the assumption that for each activity there is a warming-up period, during which marginal utility is small, a core period with high marginal utility and a cooling-down period, in which marginal utility is small. Without discussing the model in detail, it is noted here that the proposed utility function is intuitively plausible, and allows for a flexible specification of activity utility. We adopt this utility function in our system, having taken into account the impacts of all choice factors other than duration in terms of a day trip based on context-aware information.

The proposed process attempts to mimic how that context-aware information is retrieved and choice options are constructed when people perform this task themselves. This increases the probability that the tourist will be satisfied with the suggestion and accept it. As mentioned before, these suggestions will be implemented at two levels – the activity level and the schedule level – during the procedure of helping tourists generating day trip plans. The principle of generating recommendations will be implemented in both the 'inner-loop' and the 'outer-loop'.

A Game-theoretic Model – the Urbanist Assistant

The interaction between the simulated individual tourist and the UTI office in the 'inner-loop' is an iterative process. To simulate this process, we need to construct some sub-models and understand the relationship between these models, especially how they work together to represent the interaction (Fig. 8.4). The tourist behaviour model simulates tourists' actions. It takes the information provided by tourists and system suggestions as input and generates optimal schedule choices according to analysis of the 'outer-loop' data. This results in a set of schedules, which are input to the distribution-loading model. The distribution-loading model maps the schedules to the urban facilities, given facility time-dependent constraints. The outputs of the distribution loading are time-dependent facility flows, which are input to the facility performance model. Then, the facility performance model produces economic evaluations and queuing times based on facility capacity. The strategy optimization model uses these results to choose the strategy, which applies to the suggestion generation model. These suggestions are provided to the tourist behaviour model. The resulting condition is therefore the equilibrium of the distribution–control interaction, like the demand–supply equilibrium in
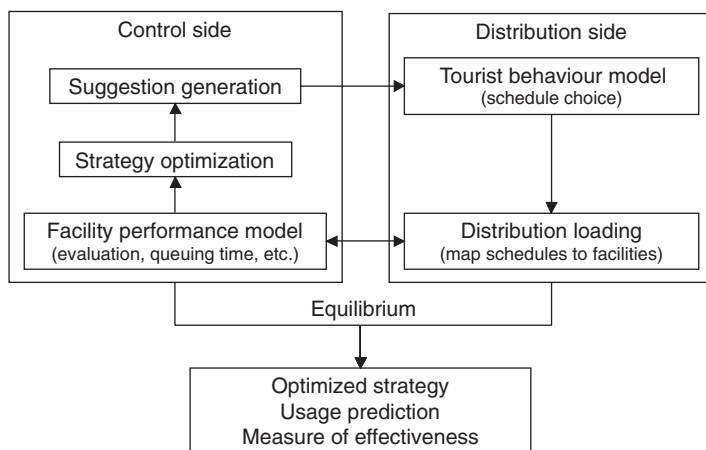
Fig. 8.4. Iterative process.

economic analysis. The combined distribution–control problem should be interpreted as the following two games being played.

Game I – the tourist distribution game

The first game is played at the disaggregate level – the tourist distribution problem, which is formulated as an *n*-player non-cooperative game among the tourists. It is supposed that there are *n* players in the game and they are numbered from 1 to *n*. In this case, each player is a tourist. Each tourist's information is imperfect, certain, symmetric and incomplete, which means that tourists do not know other tourists' behaviour (i.e. where they are and what they are going to do), but none of the tourists have more information than the others.

  To solve this uncertainty in the game, it is suggested that the uncertainty could be due to the existence of a small amount of uncertainty about the opponent's payoffs. In game theory, the so-called Harsanyi transformation treats players who have different payoffs as being of distinct types. It proposes that such games be modelled by having 'Nature' move first and 'choose' each player's type. Players start out knowing their own type but not that of their competitors. Players share a common belief as to how 'Nature' makes its probabilistic choice. The resulting new game structure is called a Bayesian game. Following the general concept of Bayesian Nash equilibrium, a static Bayesian game can be described by its strategic form, which consists of five lists, all of which are common knowledge. In our case, we define the five lists as below:

- First is the list of players, which are tourists.
- Second is the list of moves for each player. A list of moves, one for each player, is a move profile and will be enclosed in curly brackets {}. A tourist's move is the set of all available activity schedules in the city. A schedule means a series of activities along with the attributes of location, duration, mode and time window. Each tourist chooses one set out of his/her feasible sets independently. When a tourist makes a choice, he/she does not know which sets are selected by other tourists, as if they move simultaneously.

- Third is a list of possible types for each player. Every player knows his/her own type but may not know the type of the other players. The other players are denoted by the index −*i*. A list of types, one for each player, is a type profile and is enclosed within square brackets []. A tourist often does not know the values that others place on the possible outcome. In other words, a tourist may not know the other tourists' preferences that lead to their payoffs, and as a consequence to their moves. We will use an error term to describe the uncertainty of the perceived payoffs and transfer it to the players' type.
- The players have a common prior belief about the probability of each possible type profile. The probability that the player profile is $[t_1,...,t_N]$ is denoted $P[t_1,...,t_N]$. These probabilities comprise the fourth list. We will use an initial value to check the face validation, and later we can use data to obtain the exact probability value.
- Every move profile $\{m_1,...,m_N\}$ and type profile $[t_1,...,t_N]$ result in a payoff for each player. Player *i*'s payoff will be denoted in general as $U_i(m_1,...,m_N,t_1,...,t_N)$. The payoffs make up the fifth list. The payoff function is an overall utility for this tourist's schedule. The game tree (Fig. 8.5) gives the extensive form of an *n*-player game for a schedule choice problem. In this form, the tourists choose their schedules as if they happen in sequence, but actually when one tourist makes a decision, he/she does not know the others' selected schedules. The dashed line that connects the nodes at each tourist level indicates that those nodes are indistinguishable. Each leaf at the end of the tree represents a possible outcome of the game.

  In general, player *i*'s move may depend on his/her type. Hence, a strategy for player *i* consists of a move as a function of player's type and will be denoted as $S_i(t_i)$. A list of strategies, one for each player, is a strategy profile and will be enclosed within curly brackets. Since the players' types are randomly selected, the outcome of a strategy profile will be uncertain. We assume the players are expected utility maximizers and choose among strategies on the basis of conditional expected utility (EU). The conditional EU of
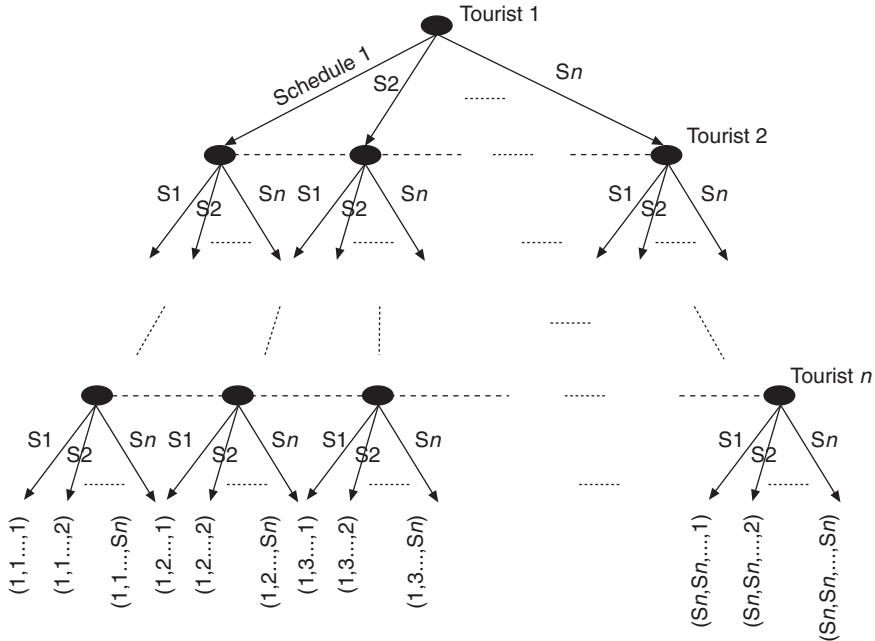
Fig. 8.5. Tourist distribution game extensive form.

player i of type t_i when the players adopt the strategy profile $S = \{S_1(t_1),\ldots,S_N(t_N)\}$ is

$$\mathrm{EU}_i(S,t_i) = \sum_{t_{-i}} U_i(S_1(t_1),\ldots,S_i(t_i),\ldots,S_N(t_N),$$
$$t_1,\ldots,t_i,\ldots,t_N) \cdot P_i[t_{-i}|t_i],$$

where the summation is over all the possible type profiles of the other players. The definition of a Bayesian Nash equilibrium is (e.g. Scott Bierman and Fernandez, 1998):

A strategy profile $S^* = \{S_1^*(t_1),\ldots,S_N^*(t_N)\}$ is a Bayesian Nash equilibrium of a static Bayesian game if and only if for every player i, every type t_i of player i, and every alternative strategy of player i, say $S_i(t_i)$, $EU_i(S^*,t_i) \geq EU_i(S_1^*(t_1),\ldots,S_i(t_i),\ldots,S_N^*(t_N),t_i)$. That is, the player's strategy is a best response to the strategies of the other players, whatever the player's type.

That is, each player's strategy S_i solves

$$\max_{s_i \subset S_i} U_i(S_1^*,\ldots,S_i,\ldots,S_n^*)$$

If no single tourist can improve his/her payoff function by unilaterally changing his/her schedule, then it is essentially a Bayesian Nash equilibrium, in which tourists maximize their own individual utilities.

Game II – the tourism distribution–control game

The second game is a game at the aggregate level between the UTI office and the collective tourists – the tourism distribution–control problem. In this game, there is another player – the UTI office. The purpose of the UTI office is to increase tourist demand and influence the use of urban facilities to reach an optimum level of usage. Adding the UTI office to the game is not as simple as extending an n-player game to an $n+1$-player game, because the strategy space and the payoff function for this additional player differ from the rest of the n players.

In order to investigate the second game, we assume that the tourists' activity schedule choice behaviour can be characterized by a Bayesian Nash equilibrium. This allows us to treat the collective tourists as one player who distributes the tourism flows to the urban facility network. Then, a two-player non-cooperative game is formed. The two players have imperfect, certain, asymmetric and complete information. The UTI office can choose the best control strategy to achieve the highest

system payoff, while taking the anticipated tourists' reactions into account. This means that this is a two-stage game. First, the UTI office sets the strategy. Second, the tourists observe the result of the strategy settings and choose their best series of activity schedules accordingly. Since the UTI office can solve the tourists' optimization problem, they should anticipate the tourists' best reaction to each possible control strategy in selecting the best strategy. In the case of duopoly (two players), such a multi-stage game is known in economics as a so-called Stackelberg game. The player who moves first is a leader and the player who moves next is a follower. The UTI office's payoff is a utility function of the overall tourism distribution flows in the city, and the collective tourists' payoff is a utility function of tourists' schedules. The upside-down tree structure (Fig. 8.6) represents the extensive form of this game. The key characteristics of this multi-stage game of complete information are that the moves occur in sequence, all previous moves are observed before the next move is chosen, and that the players' payoff from each feasible combination of moves is common knowledge.

In general, the equilibrium of this game is not a Nash equilibrium. Rather, the equilibrium is determined by backward induction. The UTI office first initiates the move by setting the control strategy, *g*. When the tourists make their move based on their strategy, *h*, at the game's second stage they will face the following problem:

$$\max_{h \subset H} U_h(g, h)$$

Assume that, for each *g* in *G*, the above optimization problem has a unique solution. Denote the unique optimal solution by $h^*(g)$. $h^*(g)$ is the tourists reaction or best response to the UTI office's strategy *g*. Since the UTI office can solve the tourists' optimization problem, they should anticipate the tourists' best reaction to each possible control strategy *g*. Therefore, the UTI office's problem amounts to:

$$\max_{g \subset G} U_g(g, h^*(g))$$

The equilibrium of the Stackelberg game can thus be defined as (e.g. Scott Bierman and Fernandez, 1998):

In the two-player game between the UTI office and tourists, $\Lambda = \{G, H; U_g, U_h\}$, the combination of strategies (g^*, h^*) is a Stackelberg equilibrium if strategy combination (g^*, h^*) solves the following bi-level problem:

$$\max_{g \subset G} U_g(g, h^*(g))$$
Subject to: $h^*(g) = \max_{h \subset H} U_h(g, h)$

Conclusions and Discussion

This chapter has put forward the conceptual framework of an Internet decision support system prototype for optimizing the usage of urban tourism facilities, and systematically described the type of models that are defined within the decision support system. It presented an activity-based approach to model tourist behaviour in urban tourism, meanwhile addressing the problem of modelling the interactions at both the disaggregate level (between individual tourists' decisions) and the aggregate level (between tourists flows and planning decisions), by means of non-cooperative game theory.

The proposed application will not only support individual tourists to plan their urban day trips as a completely customized experience, but also support UTI offices to achieve sustainable tourism development by strengthening their influence on tourists' activities. The system may contribute to improve the effective and efficient usage of urban facilities by synchronizing the supply and demand for urban tourism products and services. Of course, it should be realized that such a system is demanding in terms of coordination of data and resources, and that its potential value also depends on the number of tourists using the system.

We hope to report on our experiences with this project in future publications.
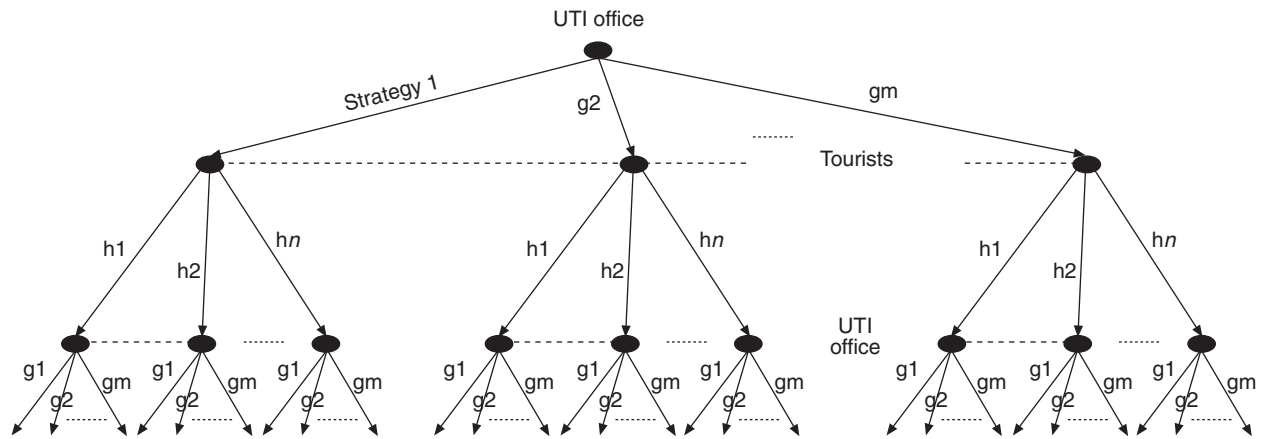
Fig. 8.6. Tourism control-distribution game extensive form.

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Chapter nine
Comparing First-time and Repeat Visitors' Activity Patterns in a Tourism Environment

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Abstract

This chapter compares activity patterns of first-time and repeat visitors in a theme park. First-time and repeat visitors are classified into those who use information and those who do not. A sequence alignment method and chi-squared automatic interaction detection are used to classify the visitors with regard to their activity patterns and identify predictor variables. The results indicate that first-time and repeat visitors differ in their activity patterns in the park, specifically with respect to the order of activities chosen. First-time visitors follow a strict route in the park, while repeaters have a more diverse activity pattern. Furthermore, the difference between the two groups is reduced when first-time visitors use information about the available activities and the spatial layout of the park.

Introduction

The last decades have witnessed a constant flow of publications in tourism research about consumer preferences and choice behaviour. The vast majority of such studies have dealt with a single facet of preference formation or choice behaviour, such as the choice of destination (e.g. Louviere and Timmermans, 1990; Crouch and Louviere, 2000), or the choice of season (e.g. Uysal *et al.*, 1994; Murphy and Pritchard, 1997; Siderlis and Moore, 1998). Research dealing with *complex* behaviour, in the sense of multiple, interrelated choices is relatively scarce. Examples of such research could be cross-sec-

tional, interrelated choices, such as the simultaneous or sequential choice of destination, transport and activities (e.g. Dellaert *et al.*, 1998a; Jeng and Fesenmaier, 1998; Tideswell and Faulkner, 1999; Taplin and McGinley, 2000), the analysis of preferences of different family members (e.g. Dellaert *et al.*, 1998b), and the analysis of temporally related choices, such as variety seeking (Kemperman *et al.*, 2000, 2002) and habit formation (Oppermann, 1998). The study of such complex tourism choice behaviour is of interest, not only because it may better unveil the true nature of such behaviour, but also because it generates new challenges in the development of preference and choice models, and the

exploration of relatively unexplored methods and techniques in tourism research.

As part of a wider research programme examining complex behaviour in a variety of application domains, the present chapter compares the interrelated activity pattern choices of first-time and repeat visitors in a theme park. While repeat visitation has been recognized as important, this has not been translated into a substantial number of thorough studies of repeat visitation patterns (e.g. Gitelson and Crompton, 1984; Reid and Reid, 1993; Oppermann, 1996). Gitelson and Crompton (1984) were among the first to recognize the importance of the repeat visitors market and its marketing implications. Other studies followed. Results indicate that there are significant differences with regard to composition and travel behaviour of first-time and repeat visitors (Oppermann, 1997). His study is one of the few studies that focuses on differences in *aspects* of actual travel behaviour between first-time and repeat visitors to a destination. First-time visitors were visiting many more attractions within the destination area than repeat visitors. Hence, first-time visitors seem to be more active.

Other studies investigated the differences in intention to travel to a destination (e.g. Fakeye and Crompton, 1991) or to a visitor attraction (Darnell and Johnson, 2001) and in information needs. First-time visitors have limited knowledge about the attributes of a particular destination of which they have no previous experience (e.g. Um and Crompton, 1990). It has also been suggested that previous experience leads to a much more diversified and detailed demand for information and level of awareness (Gyte and Phelps, 1989; Watson *et al.*, 1991). Most of the work discussed focuses on destination choices, more specifically holiday destination choices and the activities undertaken during that holiday. Only one study (Darnell and Johnson, 1999) focused on a single attraction.

Our study differs in two important regards from previous research. First, rather than examining a single choice facet, it addresses full activity patterns. Secondly, rather than focusing on holiday destinations, this study is concerned with a visit to a theme park during a day trip.

This chapter is organized as follows. First, hypotheses are formulated based on an evaluation of previous research. Next, the methodology used in this study is discussed. Specifically, the sequence alignment method that is used to classify the respondents into homogeneous clusters based on their activity patterns in the park is described. Then, data collection procedures will be outlined. This is followed by a discussion of the main results of the analysis. The article is completed by summarizing the study and discussing some issues for future research.

Hypotheses

The aim of this study is to compare the activity patterns of first-time and repeat visitors in a theme park environment in order to gain insight into differences and similarities in their respective visitation patterns. The existing literature seems to suggest that first-time visitors are involved in more active and more intense activities. Thus, our first hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H1: First-time visitors differ from repeat visitors in their activity patterns in a theme park in the sense that first-time visitors spent more time in the park, choose more activities than repeat visitors and are more inclined to follow the indicated route in the park.

This hypothesis is based on the notion that first-time visitors have less information about the theme park, and therefore are more inclined to explore more possibilities rather than being more selective in making their choices. However, it may very well be that, especially in a theme park, first-time visitors can use information sources to improve their knowledge about the destination, implying they are better aware of the alternatives when making their activity choices. At least two sources of information are relevant in this context: information about the activities available in the park and information about the spatial layout of the park. If first-time visitors would indeed use this information, their activity patterns would be more similar to the activity patterns of repeat visitors. This brings us to our second, more elaborated, hypothesis:

H2: The difference in activity patterns between first-time and repeat visitors is moderated by the use of information about the activities available in the park and the use of information about the spatial layout of the park.

Methodology

In order to test these hypotheses, the following methodology was applied. First, the activity patterns of visitors were classified using the sequence alignment method (SAM) recently introduced in tourism research (Bargeman *et al.*, 2002). The SAM (Kruskal, 1983), originally developed for comparing different DNA and RNA structures, is a method to measure the biological distances among such series of alphabetic characters. Assume that an activity pattern can be represented as a string of information. For example, the sequence of activity choices made by a visitor during a day visit to a park can be represented as a string of letters, each letter representing a particular activity type. Consider two sequences to be compared, *s* (*source sequence*) and *g* (*target sequence*). Each element of these sequences or strings contains a particular alphabetic character.

The sequence alignment method defines dissimilarity as the *total amount of effort* required to change sequence *s* into *g* by applying *identity*, *substitution*, *insertion* and *deletion* operations. Each operation involves a certain amount of effort. The magnitude of this effort is denoted by weight $w_e(s_i, g_j)$, $w_s(s_i, g_j)$, $w_d(s_i, \phi)$ and $w_i(\phi, g_j)$ for respectively equality ($s_i = g_j$), substitution ($s_i \neq g_j$), deletion and insertion operations. The 'ϕ' symbol implies that no operation is applied to the element denoted by ϕ. Because strings can be equalized using many different possible trajectories, an additional operational decision is required to calculate the similarity measure. The SAM is based on the calculation of the *Levenshtein distance*, which is defined as the smallest sum of operation weighting values to change sequence *s* into sequence *g*. The equation for the 'weighted' Levenshtein distance is:

$$d(\mathbf{s},\mathbf{g}) = d(s^m, g^n) \tag{1}$$

$$d(s^0, g^0) = 0 \tag{2}$$

$$d(s^0, g^j) = d(s^0, g^{j-1}) + w_i(\phi, g_j) \tag{3}$$

$$d(s^i, g^0) = d(s^{i-1}, g^0) + w_d(s_i, \phi) \tag{4}$$

$$d(s^i, g^j) = \min\left[d(s^{i-1}, g^{j-1}) + w(s_i, g_j), d(s^i, g^{j-1}) + w_i(\phi, g_j), d(s^{i-1}, g^j) + w_d(s_i, \phi) \right] \tag{5}$$

with

$$w(s_i, g_j) = \begin{cases} w_e(s_i, g_j) = 0 & \text{if } s_i = g_j \\ w_s(s_i, g_j) > 0 & \text{if } s_i \neq g_j \end{cases} \tag{6}$$

where *i*, *j* ≥ 1; $d(s, g)$ is the total cost of equalization of *s* (= s^m) with *g* (= g^n); *m* and *n* are the number of elements in sequences *s* and *g*, respectively; $d(s^i, g^j)$ is the cost of equalization of s^i with g^j, cumulated from the equalization of s^0 to g^0.

The Levenshtein distance can be used as a measure of dissimilarity between activity patterns. Subsequently, conventional cluster analysis can be used to classify the visitors into homogeneous groups based on the distance measures.

Next, CHAID (chi-squared automatic interaction detection) can be used to study the relationship between the dependent variable (i.e. the clusters), and a series of predictor variables. CHAID finds the explanatory variables that optimally predict the clusters. CHAID is a tree classification method originally developed by Kass (1980), and is an evolution of automatic interaction detection (Sonquist and Morgan, 1964), that employs a hierarchical binary splitting algorithm. CHAID has the advantage of allowing multiple-way instead of only binary splits of the predictor variable. CHAID merges those categories of the predictor variable that are homogeneous with respect to the dependent variable, but will maintain all categories that are heterogeneous. CHAID models are presented in the form of a tree, in which each final node represents a group of homogeneous categories concerning the dependent variable. CHAID can be applied to nominal or categorized dependent variables. It provides optimal splits by maximizing the significance of the chi-squared test at each split. If the statistical significance for the respective pair of predictor categories is significant, then a Bonferroni adjusted *P*-value for the set of categories for the respective predictor is computed.

In the present study, CHAID analysis is used to test for each predictor variable whether there is a significant relationship with the dependent variable, the clusters of activity patterns. As will be discussed later, two of these variables are categorized as combinations of first-time/repeat visitor and information use. The outcomes of a CHAID analysis will then tell whether these categories are split or not.

Data

Sample

To collect the data for this study, a questionnaire was administrated among visitors in a theme park in The Netherlands in the summer of 1996. The park that was studied is especially targeted to children. A convenience sample of 2094 adults was selected. Respondents were invited to participate in the survey and, if willing to do so, asked to fill out the survey as soon as possible after their visit to the park. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire as a representative of their travel party, which included children. A pre-stamped return envelope was provided. A total of 357 respondents returned the questionnaire, representing a response rate of 17% (Table 9.1).

A large proportion of respondents was female. Most respondents were from a medium- or high-education and -income group. This finding is possibly due to the fact that the theme park has a strong focus on educational elements in the park, and the park has no 'hard thrill' rides. The activities in the park are very child-friendly and the children are getting actively involved in the theatres, live entertainment and attractions. Alternatively, more highly educated people might be more likely to respond to this questionnaire.

The percentages of the number of children in specific age groups showed clearly that most children visiting the theme park were in the age group from 0 to 10 years old. Hardly any children from 11 to 18 years

old visited the park. Therefore, it can be concluded that the main market segments for this theme park are households with young children, and school groups from primary schools.

Table 9.1. Sample characteristics.

Variable	%
Gender	
Female	69.5
Male	30.5
Education	
Low	16.0
Medium	41.7
High	42.4
Number of adults in group	
1	10.7
2	65.2
3	7.6
4	6.2
≥5	10.3
Number of children aged 0–5 in group	
0	41.5
1	27.2
2	22.1
3	4.4
≥4	4.8
Number of children aged 6 to 10 in group	
0	36.1
1	30.6
2	20.1
3	3.7
≥4	9.5
Total visits to the park	
1	65.2
≥2	34.8
Income	
Low	33.7
Medium	29.4
High	36.9
Group size	
1 person	0.4
2 persons	4.9
3 persons	17.9
4 persons	40.0
5 persons	14.7
≥6 persons	22.1
Type of information used	
Friends and relatives	12.9
Brochures	21.1
Theatre agenda	24.1
Map	62.9
Signs	21.1
Information service	7.5
Characters in the park	15.0

Survey instrument

Respondents were asked all kinds of questions about their visit to the park, such as time spending in the theme park, their preferences for various facilities in the park, the type of information used in planning their activities and their socio-demographics. To indicate their revealed choice behaviour in the park, the respondents were asked to fill out their activity patterns during their visit in a table. Specifically, they were asked to indicate at what time during the day they visited the various activities, if any, and how much time they spent on each of the activities. The available activities in the park were presented in the first column of a table, and a time axis from 9.00 a.m. until 6.00 p.m. was presented in the first row (see Table 9.2 for a generic description of the most important activities available in the park, and Fig. 9.1 for a simple map of the theme park and the location of

the activities in the park). For reasons of confidentiality, the descriptions of the theme park and the activities in the park are only given in generic terms. However, note that in the questionnaire the activities were all described as the real existing activities known to the respondents. The respondents could indicate their time use by drawing a line for each of the activities they wanted to visit, from the point in time they started walking to the activity to the point in time they would leave the activity. Next, they were asked to indicate the walking and waiting time for each activity, by converting the single line into a double line. Respondents were provided a map of the park to help them in finding the location of activities.

Background information

An analysis of the surveys indicated that there were two types of visitor groups. One group consists of the households who visited the park with three, four or five persons, consisting of one or two adults and children. The other type of visitors consisted of school groups with, of course, a larger group size.

Furthermore, the results showed that 34.8% of the visitors had already visited the theme park once or several times before. This is a relatively high repeat rate compared to other tourist attractions in The

Table 9.2. A description of the type of activities.

Activities	Description
1	Welcome activity
2	Retail outlet
3	Fantasy character
4	Theatre
5	Attraction
6	Food outlet
7	Fantasy character
8	Theatre
9	Attraction
10	Attraction
11	Attraction
12	Fantasy character
13	Theatre
14	Fantasy character
15	Attraction
16	Theatre
17	Attraction
18	Theatre
19	Fantasy character
20	Food outlet
21	Food outlet
22	Food outlet
23	Attraction
24	Attraction
25	Farewell activity
26	Other activities
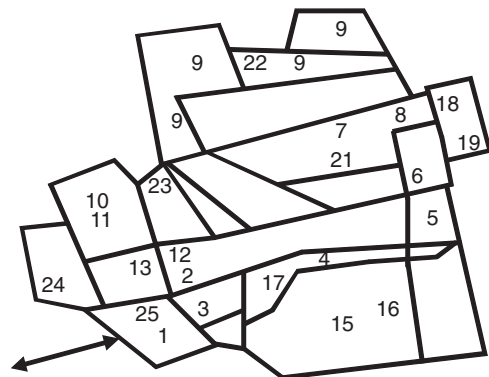
Fig. 9.1. A simple map of the park and the location of the activities. Note: activities 14 and 20 can be found at various locations.

Netherlands (NRIT, 1998). We also asked respondents in the survey if they were likely to repeat their visit to the attraction: 71.7% said they would, 22.9% were undecided, while 5.4% did not plan to come back to the park. This is a positive result for the theme park, as visitors seem to have liked their visit to the park.

The percentages of the types of information used by the visitors in the park for planning their activities indicate that a large group of visitors used the map of the park, 62.9%. Note that all types of information mentioned are provided to the respondents at the entrance of the park or are available to the respondents during their visit. The theatre agenda, which was also provided at the entrance of the park, was used by 24.1% of the visitors in the theme park. All other types of information were used by small groups of visitors.

Analysis

The sequence alignment method was used to analyse and cluster the respondents' activity patterns in the theme park. Of the 357 returned questionnaires, 294 were useful for present study, because the tables with activity choices made in the park were recorded correctly. The following procedure was used to analyse the revealed activity choices made by the respondents.

First, the revealed activity choices of the respondents in the park were converted to a sequence format. Each respondent has one sequence string of pairs of activity types and activity duration. Duration is calculated in minutes. Every sequence string starts with activity 0 and its duration is calculated from 9 a.m. Every sequence string ends with activity 0 and its duration is calculated from the end of the last activity until 8 p.m. Furthermore, this 'activity 0' is also inserted when the data have a time gap between the end time of the previous activity and the start time of the next activity, although this did not happen often. The length of the sequence string (= the number of activities) differs between persons, while the total duration (= the summation of duration across activities) is the same for all respondents (that is from 9 a.m. to 8 p.m.).

Secondly, a uni-dimensional SAM including the sequences, embedding information about both activity type and activity duration, was applied to calculate the distances between all pairs of activity patterns. The original operation weights of insertion, deletion and substitution were weighted by duration as follows.

Identity = 0;
Insertion = (Insertion weight) $\times$ ((Duration of the inserted activity)/30);
Deletion = (Deletion weight) $\times$ ((Duration of the deleted activity)/30);
Substitution = Insertion $\times$ ((Duration of the inserted activity)/30) + Deletion $\times$ ((Duration of the deleted activity)/30).

The normalizing factor 30 is from the observation of the mean duration of 27.65 min, and most frequent duration of 30 min of the total of 3412 activities (excluding activity 0) chosen by the respondents. Hence, the weight of an activity's deletion, insertion and substitution is affected by the amount of time of that activity compared to the average duration.

Thirdly, a cluster analysis was run on the results of the SAM. Ward's method was used because it is known to result in relatively homogeneous clusters. After investigating the dendrogram, a total of seven clusters was identified.

In the subsequent analysis, CHAID was used to investigate if any statistically significant differences existed between the dependent variable 'cluster membership' and between the predictor variables: (i) first-time/repeat visitors; (ii) a combination of first-time/repeat visitors and the use of information sources about the activities available in the park; and between (iii) first-time/repeat visitors and the use of spatial information about the park. The variable 'information about the activities used' means that one or more of the following information sources were used: (i) theatre agenda; (ii) information provided by fantasy characters; and (iii) information service in the park. The variable 'spatial information used' means that one or more of the following information sources were used in planning the activities: (i) signs in the park; and (ii) a map of the park. Three CHAID analyses were con-

ducted with the dependent variable and each predictor variable one at a time to test the hypotheses as stated in the introduction. For each split chi-squared statistic, degrees of freedom and *P*-value is given to indicate whether there is a significant effect of the predictor variable on the clusters.

Results

This section first describes some characteristics of the clusters that were identified, using the sequence alignment approach. This is followed by the results of the three CHAID analyses that were used to test the hypotheses. The results describe whether there is a relationship between the clusters of activity patterns and whether a person is a first-time or repeat visitor and whether or not certain information sources were used in planning the activities in the park.

A total of seven clusters was identified using the sequential alignment method, which takes into account the sequence and duration of the activities conducted in the park. The clusters and some of their characteristics are described in Tables 9.3 to 9.5. Specifically, Table 9.3 shows the number of respondents belonging to each cluster, the average number of conducted activities per cluster, the average time spent in the park and the average arrival and departure times of each cluster. Table 9.4 indicates the average time spent on an activity per cluster. Table 9.5 describes a representative activity pattern for each cluster. These representative

activity patterns are based on the respondent that has the mean distance to all other members of the cluster (calculated on the basis of the distance matrix). The representative activity patterns are indicated in the simple map of the park and shown in Figs 9.2–9.8. Note that only the order in which the activities are followed by the visitors is indicated. We do not know the actual route they followed in the park to arrive at each of the activities. Furthermore, activities 14 and 20 are not indicated on the map because they can be found at various locations, and therefore they are not included in the activity patterns as presented in the figures.

The clusters 2–7 are almost of the same size (between 11.95% ($n = 35$) and 17.75% ($n = 52$)), only cluster 1 is a bit smaller than the rest, with 7.51% ($n = 22$) of the 291 respondents. Cluster 1 consists of respondents who spent most time in the park. On average, these respondents spend 417 min in the park, compared to the average of 372 min spent in the park by the total sample. The average number of activities chosen by the respondents in this cluster is 13 compared to 12 activities by the total group, although there is quite some variation in the number of activities chosen. The respondents in this cluster spent on average least time per activity, 24 min. As graphically presented in Fig. 9.2, the representative activity pattern of cluster 1 shows a very strict order in activities chosen by the visitor.

The activity patterns of cluster 2 are, with respect to time use, arrival and departure times, and time spent on the activities quite

Table 9.3. The clusters and their characteristics.

Clusters	No. resp.	Average number of activities chosen + (SD)	Average time (in min) spent in the park + (SD)	Average arrival time (hh:mm) + (SD mm)	Average departure time (hh:mm) + (SD mm)
1	22	13 (4)	417 (78)	10:27 (42)	17:24 (1:11)
2	49	12 (3)	378 (60)	10:28 (31)	16:46 (51)
3	35	11 (4)	375 (63)	10:46 (34)	17:00 (45)
4	48	10 (4)	355 (67)	10:33 (36)	16:28 (1:06)
5	39	10 (3)	330 (66)	11:21 (50)	16:50 (52)
6	52	13 (2)	401 (56)	10:19 (24)	17:01 (52)
7	49	12 (3)	361 (57)	10:39 (38)	16:41 (47)
Total	294	12 (3)	372 (67)	10:38 (40)	16:49 (56)

Table 9.4. Average time spent at an activity per cluster.

Activity	Clust. 1	Clust. 2	Clust. 3	Clust. 4	Clust. 5	Clust. 6	Clust. 7	Average
1	27	27	26	25	21	27	30	26
2	15	17	14	16	11	15	16	15
3	13	16	20	24	20	16	19	18
4	17	16	18	15	22	18	17	17
5	15	17	15	14	18	14	15	15
6	27	15	30	14	25	17	25	22
7	22	28	32	23	27	27	31	27
8	18	28	22	19	24	21	22	22
9	36	40	57	33	35	44	47	42
10	20	29	26	27	30	29	19	26
11	22	20	10	23	10	24	20	18
12	22	36	24	25	29	34	34	29
13	26	48	40	36	38	44	37	38
14	20	22	28	24	21	26	20	23
15	25	19	23	22	25	30	8	22
16	48	56	57	49	45	54	54	52
17	14	15	14	11	18	11	12	13
18	16	25	26	18	20	32	22	23
19	20	19	19	21	21	19	19	20
20	21	24	31	32	29	28	29	28
21	20	26	19	26	26	30	20	24
22	26	27	23	23	21	24	30	25
23	17	24	20	29	22	24	32	24
24	26	34	33	25	26	26	27	28
25	21	32	25	20	22	27	24	24
26	27	18	21	22	42	20	21	24
Average	24	29	32	26	28	29	29	28

average. However, the persons in this cluster spend more time on activities 8, 12, 13, 24 and 25 and less time on activities 6 and 26. This means that on one hand they spent less time at a particular food outlet and the 'other category', and on the other hand they spent more time on two of the theatres, and the farewell activity. The representative activity pattern for this cluster shows a very diverse pattern in activities chosen throughout the day.

Also, cluster 3 contains respondents who seem to be quite average in the characteristics of their activity patterns, although they arrive and leave the park a bit later than the average visitor. Also, they choose in total one activity less than the average and therefore, of all clusters, they spent most time per activity. Specifically, activity 9 is the favourite attraction of these respondents. This is an attraction specifically designed for young children. They spent 57 min at this attraction, which is

15 min more than the average. A less favoured activity of this cluster is attraction 11, which is targeted to children in the older age group. The activity pattern of the representative visitor as presented in Fig. 9.4 shows a quite strict order in activities chosen.

Clusters 4 and 5 are, based on the characteristics of their activity pattern described in Table 9.3, quite similar. The respondents of these clusters spent on average least time in the park and also chose the smallest number of activities. A difference is that the members of cluster 5 arrive really late in the park, at 11.21 a.m. There are also differences in the amount of time spent at the particular activities. Cluster 4 on average is less in favour of activity 6 (a food outlet), while this cluster prefers activity 11 (an attraction for older children). The respondents in cluster 5 spent, on average, less time at activity 11 (an attraction), while they spent a lot of time at activity

Table 9.5. Representative activity patterns per cluster.

Activities	Start	End	Time in min.
Cluster 1			
2	11:00	11:20	20
16	12:30	13:15	45
5	13:30	13:45	15
9	14:00	15:00	60
7	15:00	15:25	25
21	15:30	15:50	20
24	16:30	17:30	60
14	17:30	17:50	20
Cluster 2			
1	10:30	10:50	20
3	10:50	10:55	5
17	10:55	11:05	10
4	11:05	11:20	15
16	11:20	12:45	85
15	12:45	12:55	10
10	12:55	13:30	35
23	13:30	13:40	10
26	13:40	13:50	10
9	13:50	15:00	70
13	15:00	15:20	20
19	15:20	15:45	25
24	15:45	16:45	60
2	16:45	17:00	15
Cluster 3			
26	11:25	11:35	10
1	11:35	11:45	10
16	11:45	12:45	60
5	12:45	12:50	5
6	12:50	13:00	10
8	13:00	13:15	15
23	13:15	13:30	15
13	13:30	14:30	60
9	14:30	15:45	75
14	15:45	16:25	40
10	16:25	17:15	50
25	17:15	17:30	15
Cluster 4			
1	9:30	10:00	30
17	10:15	10:30	15
4	10:30	10:45	15
5	10:45	11:00	15
6	11:00	11:15	15
19	11:15	11:30	15
22	11:30	11:45	15
9	11:45	12:00	15
16	12:00	12:30	30
23	12:30	13:00	30
13	13:45	14:15	30
12	14:45	15:15	30
15	15:45	16:00	15

Continued

Table 9.5. *Continued*.

Activities	Start	End	Time in min.
Cluster 5			
26	11:00	11:15	15
3	11:15	11:45	30
17	11:45	12:15	30
4	12:15	12:30	15
16	12:30	13:00	30
21	13:00	13:30	30
9	13:30	13:40	10
13	13:40	14:30	50
11	14:30	14:40	10
23	14:45	15:00	15
9	15:00	15:50	50
20	15:50	16:30	40
Cluster 6			
1	10:30	11:00	30
17	11:00	11:10	10
4	11:15	11:30	15
5	11:30	12:00	30
16	12:00	13:15	75
9	13:15	14:10	55
13	14:10	14:45	35
19	14:50	15:10	20
9	15:15	15:30	15
7	15:30	15:50	20
18	15:50	16:30	40
14	16:30	17:00	30
2	17:00	17:10	10
25	17:15	17:30	15
Cluster 7			
1	10:00	10:30	30
17	10:30	10:40	10
4	10:40	10:50	10
5	10:50	11:00	10
9	11:00	13:15	135
23	13:15	13:40	25
13	13:40	14:15	35
26	14:15	14:40	25
12	14:40	15:00	20
26	15:00	15:15	15
8	15:15	15:45	30

26 (the 'other' category, consisting of all kinds of small and diverse activities in the park). A large difference can be seen between the order of activities chosen in the park, as shown in Figs 9.5 and 9.6. The representative visitor of cluster 4 shows a very diverse order in the sequence of conducted activities, whereas the representative visitor of cluster 5 follows a very strict order.

Fig. 9.2. A representative activity pattern for cluster 1.

Fig. 9.5. A representative activity pattern for cluster 4.

Fig. 9.3. A representative activity pattern for cluster 2.

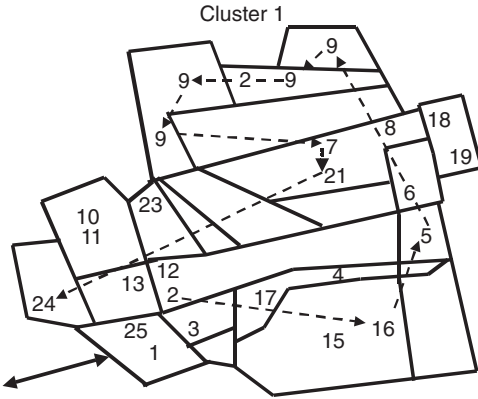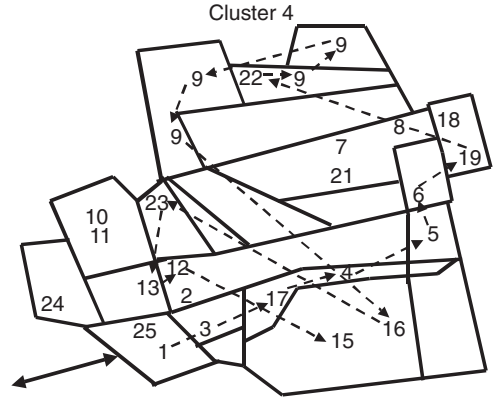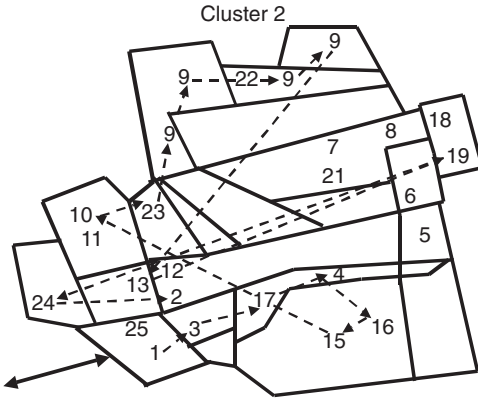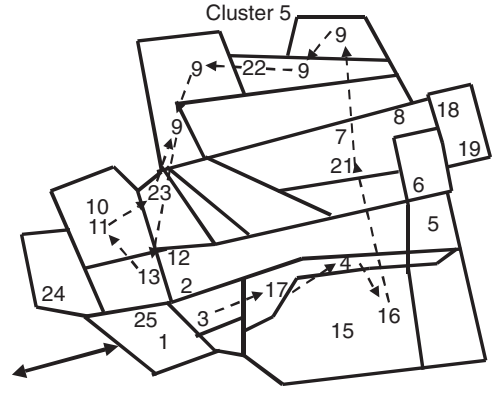**Fig. 9.6.** A representative activity pattern for cluster 5.
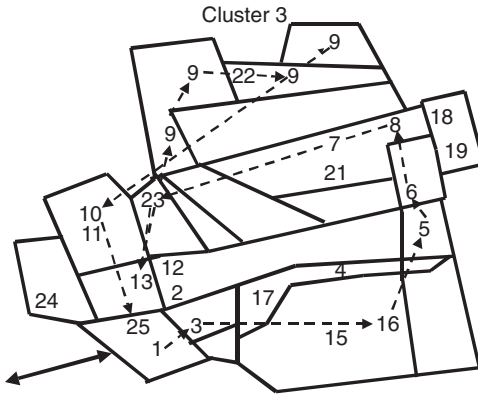
Fig. 9.4. A representative activity pattern for cluster 3.
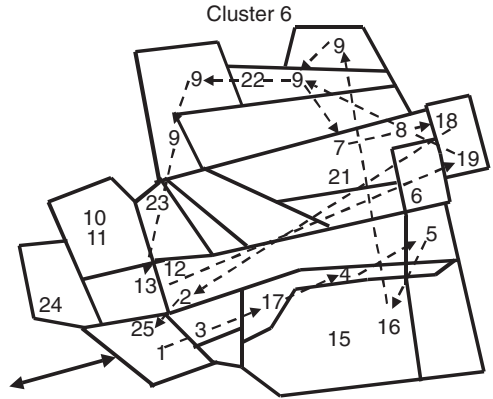
Fig. 9.7. A representative activity pattern for cluster 6.
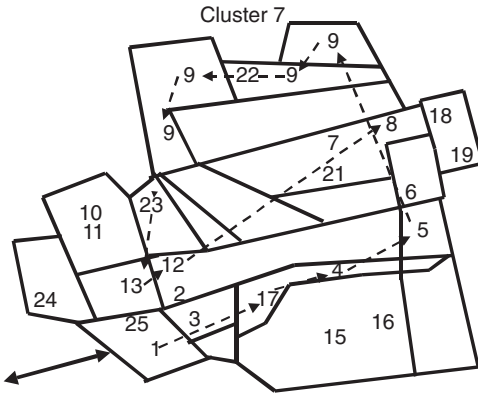
Fig. 9.8. A representative activity pattern for cluster 7.

Like cluster 1, cluster 6 consists of respondents who spent more time than average in the park and also chose more activities; however they were less diverse (small standard deviation). The arrival and departure times were both a bit earlier than for cluster 1. Contrary to cluster 1, the respondents in cluster 6 spent about the average time per activity. Furthermore, they liked more than average activities 16 and 18, an attraction and a theatre, respectively. Also, the representative activity pattern of this cluster is much more diverse than the activity pattern of cluster 1.

Finally, cluster 7 seems to be average with respect to the characteristics of the activity patterns presented in Table 9.3, although differences can be seen for the time spent at particular activities. The members of this cluster do not like activity 15 (an attraction), at all, spending only on average 8 min at this attraction. Also, they spent less time on activity 10 (another attraction). On the other hand, they spent more time on average on activities 9 (an attraction), 12 (a fantasy character), 22 (a food outlet) and 23 (an attraction). Figure 9.8 shows a representative activity pattern for cluster 7. The visitor had a quite strict order in the activity choices made during his or her visit to the park.

CHAID analysis was used to investigate whether any statistically significant differences existed between the dependent variable 'cluster membership' and between the pre-

dictor variables: (i) first-time/repeat visitors; (ii) a combination of first-time/repeat visitors and the use of information sources about the activities available in the park; and between (iii) first-time/repeat visitors and the use of spatial information about the park.

The results of the CHAID analyses are presented in Figs 9.9–9.11. On top of the tree diagram in each figure, the distribution of the respondents over the dependent variable, the clusters of activity patterns, is given. Below this square the predictor variable is given with the statistics for the split; the *P*-value, the chi-squared statistic and the degrees of freedom. Then the split is indicated with above each branch the category(ies) of the predictor variable that is(are) homogeneous with respect to the dependent variable. For each (group of) predictor category(ies) the number and percentage of respondents per cluster are given.

Figure 9.9 presents the results of the first CHAID analysis between the clusters of activity patterns and the predictor variable first-time/repeat visitors. Note that this is similar to a chi-squared test. The results indicate that there is a small significant ($P = 0.0773$) effect of first-time visitors and repeat visitors on the clusters of activity patterns. This means that there is a difference in activity patterns between persons that visit the park for the first time and repeat visitors. The results in the figure indicate that first-time visitors were dominant in clusters 1 and 5 and that repeat visitors are more dominant in clusters 4 and 6.

Specifically, this means that there is a group of first-time visitors, cluster 1, that stays longer in the park than average, and chooses a larger number of activities than the average visitor. This would be an indication of support for the first hypothesis: first-time visitors choose on average more activities in their activity pattern and spend more time in the park. However, first-time visitors in cluster 5 spent the least time in the park, and chose the least activities. This would not support the first hypothesis. However, the members of cluster 5 spent a lot of time on the 'other' category. In that sense, it would support the statement that first-time visitors choose not only the best known sites.

Clusters

Cluster	%	n
1	7.51	22
2	16.72	49
3	11.95	35
4	16.38	48
5	13.31	39
6	17.75	52
7	16.38	48
Total	(100)	293

First-time/repeat visitors
P-value$=0.0773$
Chi-squared$=11.3814$
d.f.$=6$

First-time visitors

Cluster	%	n
1	9.95	19
2	15.18	29
3	13.09	25
4	14.66	28
5	15.18	29
6	14.66	28
7	17.28	33
Total	(65.19)	191

Repeat visitors

Cluster	%	n
1	2.94	3
2	19.61	20
3	9.80	10
4	19.61	20
5	9.8	10
6	23.53	24
7	14.71	15
Total	(34.81)	102

Fig. 9.9. Results of CHAID based on the dependent variable clusters and the predictor variable first-time/repeat visitors.

For the repeaters, the same contradiction can be seen with regard to the number of activities chosen and the time spent in the park as for the first-timers. The repeat visitors in cluster 4 spent almost the least time in the park and chose the least number of activities, while repeaters in cluster 6 spent almost the most time in the park and chose the most number of activities.

When comparing the order in activity choices made by the visitors in the various clusters, an interesting result can be seen. The first-time visitors, both in cluster 1 and 5, follow a very strict route in the park, while the repeat visitors in cluster 4 and 6 show a very diverse order in activities chosen during their visit in the park. Thus, based on this empirical result, hypothesis 1 can be supported.

It can be concluded that there is a significant difference between first-time and repeat visitors based on their activity patterns in the park. The most important difference is that first-timers strictly follow the route as indicated in the park, while repeat visitors follow their own, diverse route.

In the introduction to this chapter we assumed that first-timers will be closer to repeaters in their activity pattern when they use information sources to improve their knowledge about the park to account for their lack of experience with the park. Specifically, we defined two new variables with four categories each. The first variable was defined as whether a respondent was a first-time or repeat visitor and whether information sources about the activities in the park (information service in the park, the theatre agenda and the fantasy characters in the park) were used or not used. The second variable was defined as whether a respondent was a first-time or repeat visitor, and whether spatial information sources about the park (map of the park and signs in the park) were used or not used.

Clusters

Cluster	%	n
1	7.51	22
2	16.72	49
3	11.95	35
4	16.38	48
5	13.31	39
6	17.75	52
7	16.38	48
Total	*(100)*	*293*

**First-time/repeat visitors
and information used about activities**
P-value=0.0249
Chi-squared=14.4569
d.f.=6

**First-time + info used
Repeat + info used**

Cluster	%	n
1	6.28	15
2	13.81	33
3	13.39	32
4	17.57	42
5	14.23	34
6	18.83	45
7	15.90	38
Total	*(81.57)*	*239*

**First time + information not used
Repeat + information not used**

Cluster	%	n
1	12.96	7
2	29.63	16
3	5.56	3
4	11.11	6
5	9.26	5
6	12.96	7
7	18.52	10
Total	*(18.43)*	*54*

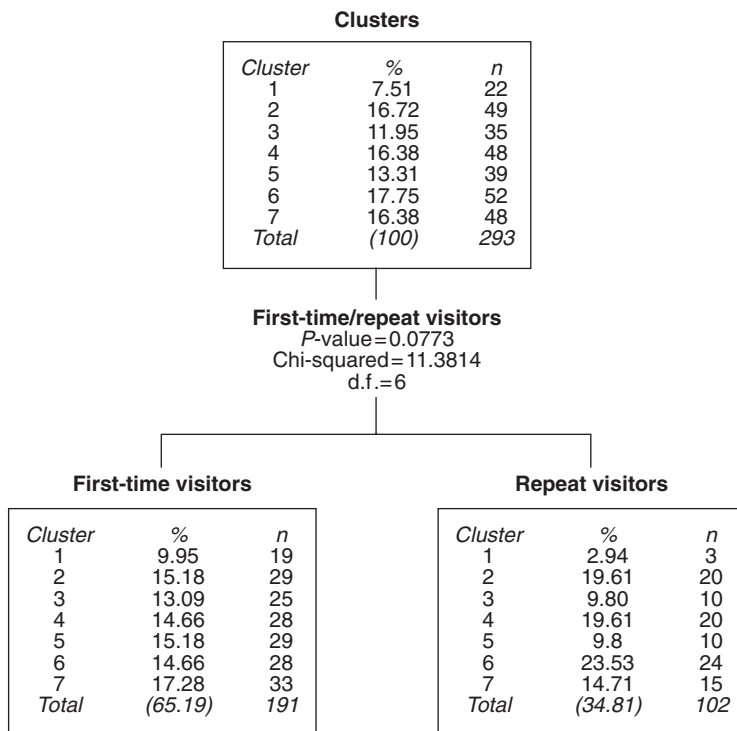**Fig. 9.10.** Results of CHAID based on the dependent variable clusters and the predictor variable first-time/repeat visitors and use of information about the activities.

The results of the second CHAID analysis between the clusters of activity patterns and the predictor variable first-time/repeat visitors combined with information (not) used about the activities are shown in Fig. 9.10.

The results show that there is a significant effect of the predictor variable on the cluster membership ($P = 0.0249$). The two branches indicate that there is a distinction between first-time and repeat visitors that do use information about the activities in planning their activity pattern, and first-time and repeat visitors that do not use information about the activities available in the park. The first two categories are more dominant in clusters 3 and 6, while the other two categories are more present in clusters 1 and 2.

A remarkable result is that a difference in activity patterns can be seen between whether the information about the activities was used or not used, and not between first-time and repeat visitors. These findings correspond partly with hypothesis 2. First-time visitors that use information about the activities differ with respect to their activity patterns from first-time visitors that do not use these information sources. However, repeat visitors that use information about the activities are different, with respect to their activity patterns, from repeat visitors that do not use information. An explanation for this might be that the information about the activities differs per season and therefore per visit, and it thus seems difficult to develop knowledge about the activities in the park. This causes the difference between visitors that do use this type of information in planning their activities and visitors that do not use this information.

The results of the third CHAID analysis, between the clusters of activity patterns and the predictor variable first-time/repeat visi-

Clusters

Cluster	%	n
1	7.51	22
2	16.72	49
3	11.95	35
4	16.38	48
5	13.31	39
6	17.75	52
7	16.38	48
Total	(100)	293

**First-time/repeat visitors
and spatial information used**
P-value = 0.0152
Chi-squared = 15.7509
d.f. = 6

First-time + info used

Cluster	%	n
1	11.45	15
2	13.74	18
3	15.27	20
4	11.45	15
5	15.27	20
6	13.74	18
7	19.08	25
Total	(44.71)	131

**First time + information not used
Repeat + information used
Repeat + information not used**

Cluster	%	n
1	4.32	7
2	19.14	31
3	9.26	15
4	20.37	33
5	11.73	19
6	20.99	34
7	14.2	23
Total	(55.29)	162

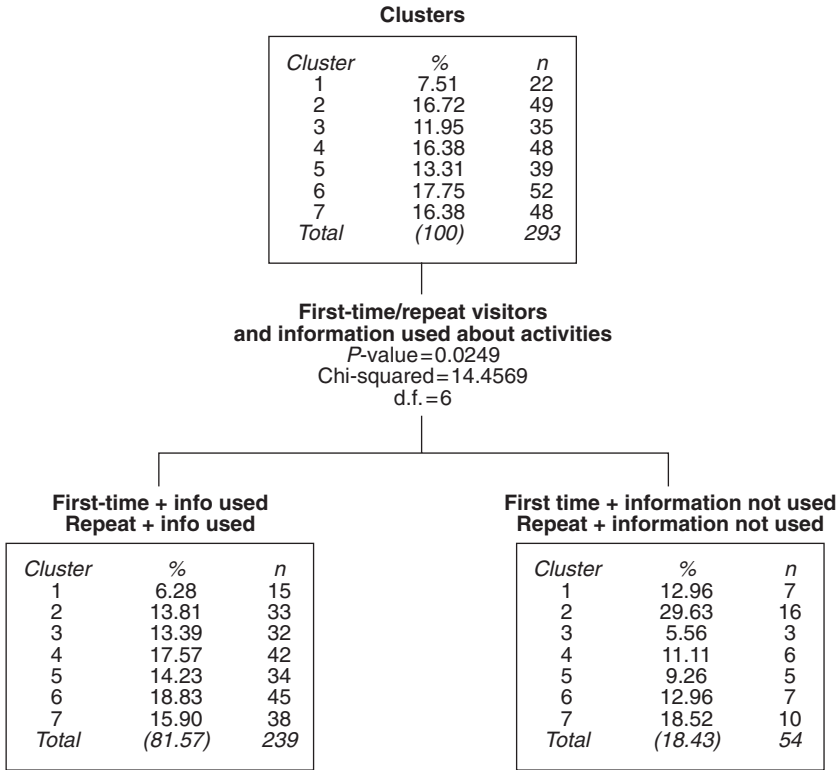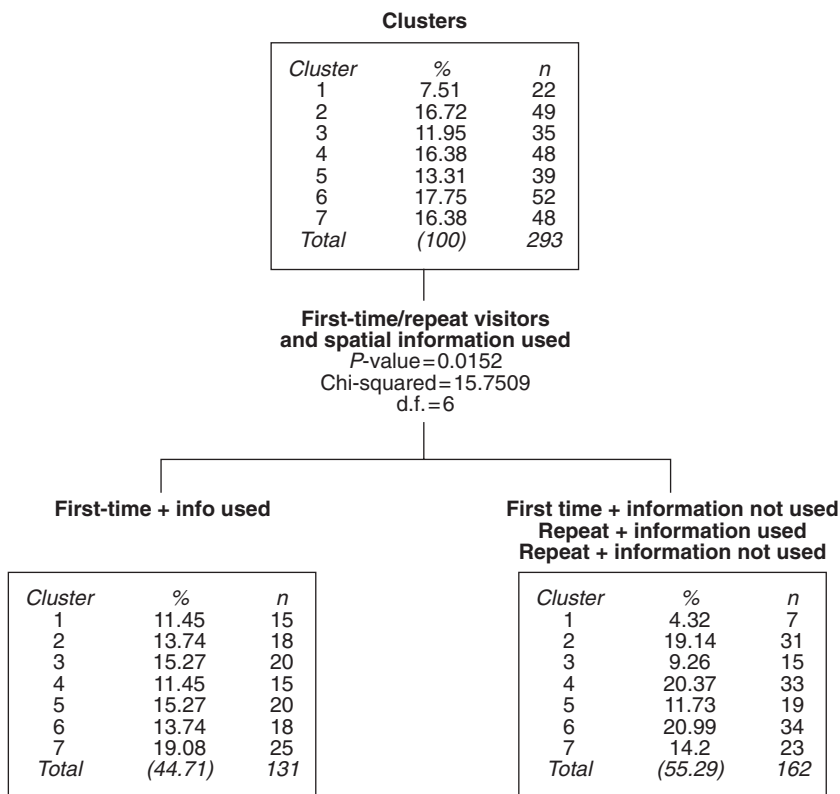**Fig. 9.11.** Results of CHAID based on the dependent variable clusters and the predictor variable first-time/repeat visitors and use of spatial information.

tors and spatial information (not) used are presented in Fig. 9.11. A significant difference (P = 0.0152) can be noticed – first-time visitors that use spatial information differ from first-time and repeat visitors that do not use this information, and also from repeat visitors that use this type of information. The first-time visitors that use the spatial information are dominant in clusters 1 and 3, while the other categories are dominant in clusters 4 and 6.

This finding partly confirms the validity of hypothesis 2. First-time visitors that use spatial information about the park differ with respect to their activity patterns from first-time visitors that do not use information sources. Furthermore, repeat visitors that use spatial information about the park do not differ with respect to their activity patterns than repeat visitors that do not use information.

However, it is remarkable that first-time visitors that use spatial information differ from repeat visitors that use or do not use this information source.

It seems that first-time visitors that use spatial information (a map of the park and signs in the park) follow the route in the park as indicated by the management of the park, while the others that do not use that information, or use it, still follow a more diverse route in the park. An explanation for this result might be that first-time visitors that are aware of the layout of the park use the park in that sense, and the other groups seem to have a more ad hoc, diverse activity pattern in the park. However, repeat visitors that use information may use it specifically to visit particular activities, but this does not have to take place in the order indicated.

Conclusion and Discussion

The aim of this study has been to compare the activity pattern choices of first-time and repeat visitors. As such, the results of this study contribute to the literature on first-time versus repeat visitor behaviour. In particular, it differs from previous research efforts in that the focus of research is on comprehensive, multi-dimensional activity patterns as opposed to particular isolated facets of such patterns, and in that the focus is on a theme park as opposed to holiday experiences. The study also attempts to study complex, interrelated choices of tourists.

The guiding hypothesis underlying the analysis was that activity patterns of first-time visitors tend to differentiate from the activity patterns of repeat visitors, mediated by their use of information. Differences between the two groups were assumed to be reduced when first-time visitors use information about the available activities and the spatial layout of the theme park.

The results tend to partly support this hypothesis. First, the results of the analysis indicate that first-time and repeat visitors differ with respect to their activity patterns in the park. The most important difference is that first-time visitors follow a very strict route in the park as indicated by theme park management, while repeat visitors have a more diverse activity pattern. With respect to the number of activities chosen and the time spent in the park, it can be concluded that, compared to the average, there is a cluster of first-timers that spent a long time in the park and choose a large number of activities; however, there is also a cluster that spent less time in the park and chose less activities than on average. This also applies for the repeat visitors.

Secondly, it can be concluded that the difference between the two groups is reduced when first-time visitors use information about the available activities and the spatial layout of the park. Specifically, a difference in activity patterns was found between visitors that use information about the activities and visitors that do not use this type of information, no matter whether they

were first-time or repeat visitors. It seems that information about the activities might change over time, for example per season, and therefore, repeat visitors do not have this knowledge of previous experiences in the park. Also, an effect of the use of spatial information about the park on visitors' activity pattern can be observed. However, it seems that spatial information is more constant over time.

Overall, it seems that both hypotheses are most strongly confirmed as far as the sequence of activities is concerned. It should be recalled that the very reason for applying the sequence alignment method is that it particularly captures the sequence of conducted activities. Hence, the identified clusters are most homogeneous in terms of the activity sequence. The number of activities and duration are more or less derived. Hence, part of these results may be specific for the applied methodology. More detailed specific analyses can be conducted to further elaborate the present findings, but are not reported here due to size limitations.

The relevance of this finding lies not only in its elaboration of our current knowledge. A more thorough comprehension of visitors' preferences for different activity patterns in a tourism environment is also highly relevant because it is an important component for any effective planning, management and marketing of the tourism attraction. Site planning sets the components for the visitor experience. Therefore, control of visitor use and flows is a basic consideration in much visitor attraction planning. Establishing carrying capacities of attractions and applying techniques to organize visitor flows and to control over-usage is an important factor. The results of the present study, in addition to proving information about typical activity patterns, also suggest that the right provision of information may induce visitors to be more selective, offering a means of better organizing visitor flows.

From a methodological perspective, this study has provided additional empirical evidence about the potential usefulness of the SAM to classify tourists in terms of their overt behaviour. Yet, the present study only used a uni-dimensional measure of sequence

alignment. The reason for this choice is that it is most appropriate in the present case. However, for other types of behaviour, where the transport mode, destination and other facets of activity patterns may also differ, the newly suggested multi-dimensional SAM (Joh *et al.*, 2001, 2002) might be a better candidate.

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Chapter ten
A Study of Tourist Decision Processes: Algarve, Portugal

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Abstract

The issue of vacation decision making has become a focal point in tourism research during the past two decades. Despite the increasing amount of published research in this area, practical studies that test theories are very scarce, especially for Portugal. This study investigates tourist consumer behaviour in the Algarve, with particular emphasis on their perceptions and motivations. A theoretical framework is developed, which assumes a relationship between pre-decision, decision and post-purchasing evaluation, i.e. the main phases of the tourist decision process. A proposed decision model substantiates the motivations, perceptions, expectations and choice about the Algarve. A questionnaire was used to interview a random sample of tourists. Multivariate statistics, especially factor analysis, were employed to find different exogenous variables at work for both perceptions and motivations, which varied according to the participant's country of origin. Eight factors were found which help in understanding the perceived image and motivations tourists of different nationalities have about the Algarve. Using univariate analysis, the study went a step further to characterize the different phases of tourist behaviour. It was found that the Algarve is perceived primarily as a sports destination. The sun and the beach also predominate as leading motivations for tourists. In terms of evaluation, all tourists seem to be satisfied, although Germans reveal some dissatisfaction. The implications of these findings for explaining consumer behaviour indicate future lines of research.

Introduction

This study pursued two objectives. First, vacation decision-making processes were reviewed in order to propose an empirically testable model. The inclusion of perceptions and motivations within this model is a new attempt to analyse choice in tourism. Second, we explored the usefulness of a model that extended the decision choice process in studying tourist behaviour in the Algarve.

By initially analysing the usefulness of an extended decision-making process, this study developed a theoretical framework for studying this sequenced choice. This is followed by the methodology used to collect the information, and a characterization of the decision process involved for specific market

countries, e.g. motivations, perceptions, expectations and choice. The implications of these findings for explaining consumer decisions and the limitations of the study, together with possible avenues for future research, are then discussed.

Theoretical Framework of the Tourist Decision-making Process

Most studies on consumer behaviour refer to five stages in the decision-making process; namely: (i) identification of needs; (ii) information gathering; (iii) evaluation of alternatives; (iv) process of choice; and (v) post-purchase processing (Bentler and Speckart, 1979; Moutinho, 1982; Um and Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Middleton, 1994; Ryan, 1994; Solomon, 1996). The tourist decision making process adopted in this chapter presupposes the above-mentioned stages placed into three major phases, whose objectives and constraints, when defined, allow optimized behaviour in

the selection of available options. Based on previous work by Correia (2000), Fig. 10.1 seeks to schematize the decision process where three essential phases occur: (i) pre-decision; (ii) process of decision; and (iii) post-purchase evaluation.

This figure attempts to define the behaviour of consumers in terms of a sequenced, organized and dynamic process, where several factors compete towards the development of each of the three phases. The first, or pre-decision phase, relies on such conditions as predisposition to external stimuli, communication access between the consumer and the main sources of information, and ultimately, consumer learning. By learning, we mean the way the consumer receives the information and filters what is relevant in order to develop a list of preferred options. In this phase, consideration is given to antecedent factors that affect one's travel decision, such as perception, motivation and preference. The second, or the decision phase, assumes a consideration of both consumer income and time available. The consumer tourist bases his or her decision
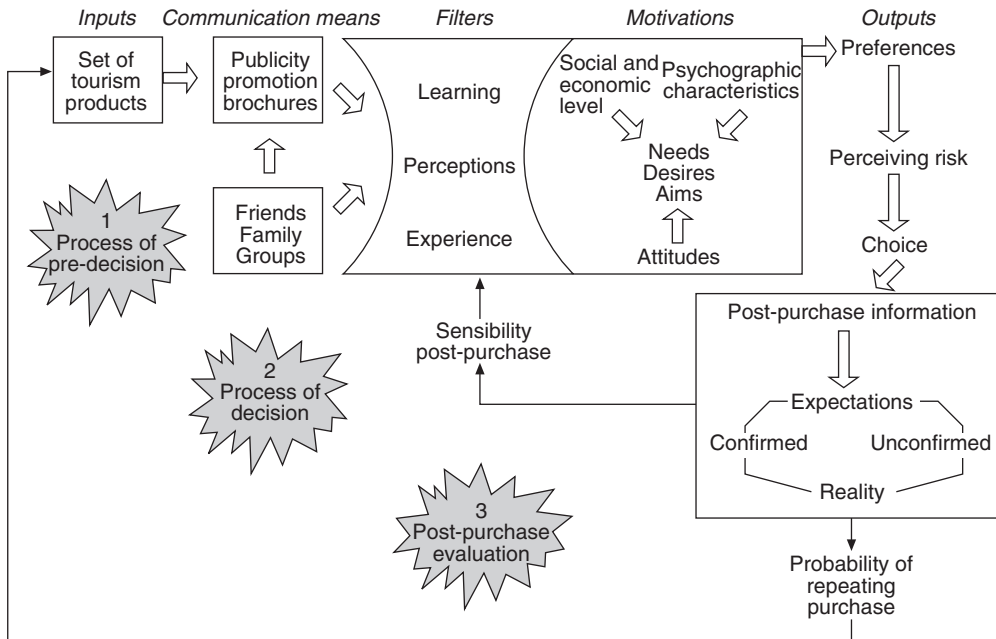

Fig. 10.1. A model of tourist's decision processes.

according to the array of options that fall within his or her ideal budget range for travel and lodging expenses. The third, the evaluation of the post-purchase phase, is the consequence of other stimuli that influence the choice process and presupposes consumer satisfaction with the undertaken destination. This phase is important in evaluating the varying probabilities of repeating the purchase to that particular destination. It is commonly found, however, that despite acknowledging high levels of satisfaction upon termination of travel, consumers do not always repeat the same purchase because they want to discover new destinations. This premise is legitimate for those market segments known as 'risk-takers', those who prefer new destinations, in search of other novel experiences. More cautious tourists, on the other hand, are more likely to return to familiar destinations.

The issue of vacation decision making has become a focal point in tourism research during the past two decades. An extensive review of destination demand modelling literature can be found in Crouch (1994) and Lim (1997). Despite the increasing amount of published research in this area, practical studies that test theories are very scarce, especially for Portugal. Amongst the papers that have analysed tourism in Portugal are Syriopoulos and Sinclair (1993), who included Portugal in their AIDS (Almost Ideal Demand System) analysis. Syriopoulos (1995) also included the country in an error-correction model. Other research results pertaining to Portuguese tourism demand have arisen from Silva (1991, 1995), Correia (2000) and Matos (2000). Silva (1991) analysed Portuguese tourism demand from the point of view of country-of-origin, with a log-linear model that is a function of price, income, promotional expenditure and the cost of transport from five origin countries. Correia (2000) analysed tourism demand for the Algarve region by country-of-origin with the aid of two models: the first using data from a questionnaire and the second using monthly data of five countries of origin for the period 1989 to 1998 in order to estimate a translog demand equation for each country. Matos (2000) analysed the aggregate Portuguese tourism demand by country-of-origin, using eight countries from 1977 to 1997. A general characteristic of this past research into tourism to the Algarve is its reliance on aggregate data, thus disregarding the heterogeneity of tourist demand. The aforementioned literature was based on economic models, and all the authors sought to explain tourism demand based upon economic variables.

In this chapter, using factor analysis we explain the main driving motivations and perceptions of holidaymakers of different nationalities and different socio-economic profiles. Using univariate analysis, the study also characterizes the different phases of tourist behaviour.

Contextual Setting: Tourism in the Algarve

According to the WTO (1999), in terms of international tourism receipts, Portugal was ranked 19th as a tourist destination in 1990 and 24th in 1998, representing 1.1% of total global tourism demand in 1998. This value compares with the figure of 6.7% for its neighbour, Spain. The Portuguese tourism industry contributed 3.2% to national gross added value and employed 5.2% of the active population in 1998. It developed into an important tourist destination in the 1960s, based mainly on the attraction of both its beaches and climate. Representing only 6% of the total area of Portugal, the Algarve ranks as the country's prime tourist destination, attracting 42% of all tourism activity in the country.

As far as the nationality of the tourists who visit the Algarve is concerned, we can see from Table 10.1 that, in 1989, the main country of origin was the UK, followed by Germany, The Netherlands and Spain. This profile has meant that tourism has become the leading economic activity in the region. Moreover, the performance of Algarve tourism is significantly dependent on the European economy in general, and on the UK, Germany and, to a lesser extent, The Netherlands and Spain in particular. The region competes directly with the Spanish Mediterranean beach-and-sun market.

Table 10.1. Tourist visitors to the Algarve.

Principal origin countries	1989	%	1998	%
1. UK	482,424	32	618,480	27
2. Germany	151,743	10	385,870	17
3. Netherlands	110,256	7	146,443	6
4. Spain	71,449	4	76,394	3
Total	1,473,698	100	2,225,000	100

Source: INE (National Statistical Institute).

By considering the aforementioned phases of the tourist decision-making process and accepting that the Algarve has three main markets, the UK, Germany and The Netherlands (DGT, 1998a, p. 23), a methodology was developed to analyse the consumer behaviour of tourists arriving from these countries and also from its neighbour, Spain.

Methodology

Characterizing different markets is not an easy undertaking given their heterogeneity and a general lack of statistical information. A detailed questionnaire was produced in order to collect data such as general background information, motivation arousal, external stimuli (reference groups) and internal stimuli (previous experience, social/economic profile, and psychographic characteristics), perception formation, and decision constraints (time and budget). Information related to incoming tourists was also collected through personal interviews with the European Travel Monitor (ETM). The findings were limited to those visiting the Algarve during July and August 1997. Data was arranged according to country-of-origin. Based on a significance level of 5%, a minimum of 384 responses were required. The questionnaire consisted of closed questions that sought to measure satisfaction levels relating to perception, motivation and post-purchase effects, using a five-point Likert scale (1 = not important; 5 = very important). The questionnaires were individually reviewed, codified, issued a magnetic identification tag and administered according to a set schema. Results were processed and handled using SPSS v.10.

In order to obtain a simplified and interpretable representation of the main motivational factors and consumer expectations for the case of the Algarve, principal components analysis (PCA) with a Varimax rotation was applied to those questions related to motivation and perception. The Kaiser criterion was adopted for factor extraction, which consisted of excluding components with eigenvalues whose averages were below 1.

The Tourist Decision-making Process

The empirical study was carried out by means of the previously mentioned questionnaire, which was administered to a stratified, random sample of tourists at Faro airport (Algarve) between July and August 1997. The central aim was to determine their socio-economic characteristics as tourist consumers who had chosen the Algarve as their destination. The first phase of the study was a pilot survey used to identify the sample population and clarify certain questions on the questionnaire. The final questionnaire was a revised version based on the results of the pilot survey. The sample was stratified by country-of-origin according to the parameters of tourist visits published as official statistics. The survey was conducted in the departure area of the airport, just before passengers left the region. The interviews were given in one of three languages: English, Spanish or French. This method has an advantage over site-specific interviews in that it allows us to interview both those who are travelling for touristic purposes and those who are travelling for other reasons. The random route procedure was chosen for sampling. The maximum number of surveys per day and per

interviewer was set at ten. Since the survey was directed at individuals, rather than the family, only individuals over 18 years of age were interviewed. Due to budgetary constraints and limited time available, the research set out to collect data from 500 tourists and resulted in 454 usable responses. The distribution of the sample by nationality is presented in Table 10.2.

The distribution of the sample by country-of-origin closely follows the distribution of tourist numbers as illustrated in Table 10.1. It can therefore be asserted that the 454 completed survey responses approximates a stratified random sample of tourists in the Algarve. The general characteristics of these respondents vary according to nationality, introducing heterogeneity into the sample. Findings are presented under the three-phase tourist decision-making framework (i.e. pre-decision, decision and post-purchasing evaluation).

Pre-decision phase

The pre-decision phase is triggered by certain consumer needs which develop or build up into a subsequent desire to learn more about a particular destination aimed at satisfying his or her preference profile, and confirming favourable recommendations from others in terms of any word-of-mouth. This culminates with the formation of more specific motivations and perceptions.

The arousal of these needs necessarily depends on the access consumers have to information of common tourist destinations. His or her preferences, socio-economic profile, and reference group, condition the way a

tourist learns about a particular destination. Table 10.3 summarizes the main features of the pre-decision phase according to the main origin markets. These features include destination awareness and preference, and internal and external factors that influence destination choice.

The Dutch market holds the smallest proportion of tourists travelling to the Mediterranean, while for France, Germany, Belgium and Luxembourg the Mediterranean possesses greater appeal. Spaniards are considered traditional in terms of vacation habits restricting most travel to neighbouring countries such as France and Portugal, due to either geographical proximity or cultural similarities. The British tend to prefer France as an ideal travel destination, although Spain maintains a leading position. The strength of the pound and the lowering of airfares, lodging and fuel prices allow the British to enjoy these destinations for longer periods and at more competitive prices. As a result of reunification, Germany suffered a severe economic crisis in the 1990s. The second half of the 1990s, however, showed signs of recovery, allowing more Germans to extend their travel to destinations outside of the country. In fact, a growing interest for vacations abroad is a direct result of cuts in airfares and an increase in the number of airlines. A better knowledge of foreign languages and a wider range and awareness of destination options has stimulated more people to travel internationally who might have otherwise tended to travel domestically. Outside Germany, the favourite destinations now are Austria, Spain and Italy. France, Greece and Switzerland are also popular destinations for the Germans, although the number of visits to these countries has decreased since 1995.

From an *initial consideration* set of destinations, tourists form an *evoked set* of destination alternatives (Woodside and Sherrell, 1977), for which they then gather more specific information. Important sources of information are usually tourist brochures, recommendations from friends and family and previous experience. When considering nearby destinations, advice from friends and family is often sufficient to persuade the consumer in his or her final decision.

Table 10.2. Distribution of the sample by country-of-origin.

Country	Number	%
Germany	97	19
Netherlands	32	6
Spain	32	6
UK	200	40
Other	93	19
Invalid responses	46	9
Total	500	100

Table 10.3. Tourist pre-decision factors according to main visitor countries.

	Germany	Spain	Netherlands	UK
Destination preferences	Spain, Italy, Austria	Germany, France, Portugal	Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg, France	Spain, France, USA
Information gathering	Brochures	Brochures, family and friends	Brochures	Brochures
Internal factors				
Types of surroundings	Beach, mountains	Beach, city	Beach, countryside	Beach, mountains
Purpose of travel	Vacation	Vacation	Vacation	Vacation
Types of leisure trips	Sun and beach, sightseeing, city	Sun and beach, sightseeing, city	Sun and beach, sightseeing, city	Sun and beach, sightseeing, city
Socio-economic profile				
Residential area	City	City	City	City, village
Social level	Middle/high	Middle/high	Middle/high	Middle/high
Age group	30–59 years	15–44 years	15–44 years	15–44 years
Household	2–4 persons	2–4 persons	1–2 persons	1–2 persons
External stimuli				
Average rate of approval from friends	Not too certain (3.67)	Indefinite approval (4.2)	Indefinite approval (4.25)	Almost certain (4.64)
Previous experience	60% new customers, 40% repeat customers	76% repeat customers, 24% new customers	50% new customers, 50% repeat customers	63% new customers, 37% repeat customers
Frequency of recurrent visits to Algarve	None	Frequent	1–2 times	1–2 times

Source: DGXXIII (1997, in DGT 1998b), ETM (1998a–d), Correia (2000).

Europeans, in terms of environmental preference, according to a study carried out by the General Directorate of Tourism (DGT, 1998a), show greater propensity for sun and beach environments, followed by mountains, and then cities. Preference for a certain type of environment derives from the consumer's personal motivation. The Germans and the Dutch continue to show an overall inclination for the sun and the beach. Germans, however, tend to value a more recreational environment, such as sports, countryside and mountains. The Spanish reveal a greater preference for vacationing in cities, followed by the traditional attractions of the sun, the beach and sightseeing. In the case of the British, leisure as well as the sun and beach typically determine their destination choices. Sports and sightseeing also constitute attractive features for the younger population. British residents often take advantage of the growing number of special offers for shorter trips abroad.

The tourist's socio-economic profile influences how motivation and preference evolve. In fact, variables such as residential area, social class, age group and size of household constitute important determinants of the final choice.

Tourists that visit the Algarve derive mainly from populations who live in cities, except for the British for whom travel to Portugal is relatively evenly spread among residents of villages, towns and cities. Inbound travel to the Algarve is essentially middle- and upper-class tourism. In terms of age group, the largest population percentage that travels to the Algarve lies in the 30–44 age range, in family groups of three to four people. This is an indication that family tourism tends to predominate over other types.

External factors were also measured by the questionnaire. Among these factors were recommendations made by friends and family members, previous experiences and the prospect of returning to the Algarve.

The choice in most countries, except for Germany, is strongly influenced by relatives and friends. The rate of return to the Algarve is usually evidence of the level of satisfaction of a past visit. In general, the Algarve tourist market experiences repeat visits by those German tourists who still regard the region as holding some degree of novelty for them. From Table 10.3, it can be observed that the same tourist will visit the Algarve on average once or twice during his or her lifetime. Accessibility and proximity explain the frequent visits of the Spanish.

Motivation arousal

Once informed about a particular destination, this information is stored and understood, prompted by the individual's interest and motivation. For the purpose of this investigation, 14 variables, or determinants, were considered under PCA, resulting in four motivational factors that explain 55% of the total variation.

Table 10.4 presents the results of the PCA after Varimax rotation. The KMO test presents a value, which lets us conclude that the extraction is an average one. Moreover, the Kaiser test allows us to reject the hypothesis that any variable is a linear combination of the remaining ones.

After Varimax rotation, variables whose eigenvalues were superior to 0.5 were divided into four factors. A driving motivation identified as *adventure and sport* is defined by determinants of a proactive nature such as 'to challenge my abilities', 'to use my imagination' and 'to practise sports'. *Knowledge*, on the other hand, considers the more social determinants, containing such variables as 'to discover new places and things', and 'to be in a social surrounding'. A third driving motivation, *escape/socialization*, was found to encompass the components 'to avoid day-by-day stress' and 'to make friends', while *leisure and relaxation* highlights the need for physical and emotional relaxation.

Driving motivations, however, differ significantly from country to country, as Fig. 10.2 illustrates. To statistically assess these differences, the Scheffe test was employed and the results are summarized in Table 10.5, showing that, in terms of *adventure and sport*, German tourists are significantly different from each of the British, the Dutch and the Spanish.

The British consider knowledge as the main driving motivation behind travelling, that is, to discover new places, and socialize with other cultures. The Spanish, on the other hand, tend more toward leisure and relaxation as the principal motivation. Adventures and sports motivate the Dutch, whereas knowledge and escape/socialization primarily motivate the Germans.

Table 10.4. Factor analysis results with Varimax rotation of tourists' motivations for visiting the Algarve.

| Component	Factor loading	Communalities	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1. Adventure and sport			3.34	20.34	20.34
To challenge my abilities	1.0720	1.9791			
To use my imagination	0.9660	2.1670			
To practise sports	1.0450	1.8394			
Factor 2. Knowledge			2.01	12.29	32.63
To discover new places and things	0.8180	1.4538			
To be in a social surrounding	0.9150	1.6033			
Factor 3. Escape/socialization			1.86	11.32	43.95
To avoid day-by-day stress	0.6050	0.9689			
To make friends	0.7180	1.4190			
Factor 4. Leisure and relaxation			1.86	11.33	55.28
To relax physically	1.0510	1.5562			
To relax mentally	0.6120	1.2987			

Source: Correia (2000).
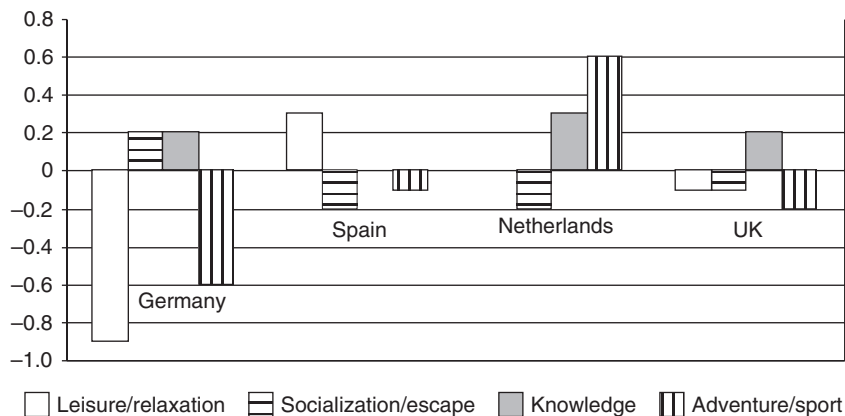
Fig. 10.2. Principal motivation according to country-of-origin.

Perception formation

Perception is the mental image that the tourist forms of the destination that he or she intends to visit. In the questionnaire, 20 variables or features were examined addressing organizational, social, psychological and economic aspects of destination perception. Four types of vacation perceptions were extracted from a PCA, which explained 41.3% of the total variance. Table 10.6 presents the results according to the type of vacation or perceptual experience tourists acquire after Varimax rotation.

Table 10.6 shows that consumers carry specific mental images that impinge upon the type of vacation chosen. Price, social environment and sport are governing features for sport vacations. Accessibility, cultural exchanges and attractiveness are determining variables for cultural vacations, while entertainment and nightlife are important in social-related travel. The impression a tourist develops about a region's sun and beaches is linked to climatic and seaside preferences. The various identified impressions of the Algarve were tested according to country-of-origin. The findings reveal significant differences between nationalities in their perceptions of the Algarve. Figure 10.3 shows the averages of the four types of vacation preferred according to each country. Again, the Scheffe test was employed and the results are summarized in Table 10.7. There were no significant differences between countries with regard to *cultural vacation* and *social vacation*. All four countries were significantly different from

one another, however, in terms of *sports vacation*. For the *sun and beach*, significant differences were observed in all cases other than between Spain and The Netherlands, and between the UK and The Netherlands.

It follows from Fig. 10.3 that the Algarve is strongly associated with being an ideal sports destination. This suggests that sun and beach tourism has lost some of its importance, although this appears still to be a strong attractive element in the results for Germany.

Decision phase

Once the tourist has formed his or her mental image of a particular destination, the purchasing decision is then necessarily dependent on budget and time constraints; issues that will be examined in the following sections.

Constraints on tourism demand

Decisive factors affecting tourism demand depend on income and the amount of available vacation time. In Table 10.8, family income as well as allotted vacation time is presented, according to published statistics for 1997.

Table 10.8 shows that Spanish tourists have the smallest budgets for vacationing purposes. Countries with higher incomes include The Netherlands and the UK, earning more than 80,000 euros. In terms of available time for

Table 10.5. Scheffe test for motivations by country-of-origin.

| Dependent variable	(I) Country of residence	(J) Country of residence	Mean difference (I−J)[a]	Sig.
Adventure and sport	Germany	Netherlands	−1.1470560[a]	0.000
		Spain	−0.8619882[a]	0.000
		UK	−1.1111642[a]	0.000
	Netherlands	Germany	1.1470560[a]	0.000
		Spain	0.2850678	0.793
		UK	0.0358917	1.000
	Spain	Germany	0.8619882[a]	0.000
		Netherlands	−0.2850678	0.793
		UK	−0.2491761	0.753
	UK	Germany	1.1111642[a]	0.000
		Netherlands	−0.0358917	1.000
		Spain	0.2491761	0.753
Knowledge	Germany	Netherlands	−0.2122656	0.906
		Spain	−0.0515908	1.000
		UK	0.0328964	1.000
	Netherlands	Germany	0.2122656	0.906
		Spain	0.1606749	0.969
		UK	0.2451620	0.812
	Spain	Germany	0.0515908	1.000
		Netherlands	−0.1606749	0.969
		UK	0.0844871	0.996
	UK	Germany	−0.0328964	1.000
		Netherlands	−0.2451620	0.812
		Spain	−0.0844871	0.996
Escape/socialization	Germany	Netherlands	−0.2736771	0.841
		Spain	−0.0505577	1.000
		UK	−0.1450960	0.975
	Netherlands	Germany	−0.2813991	0.689
		Spain	0.2736771	0.841
		UK	0.2231193	0.925
	Spain	Germany	0.0505577	1.000
		Netherlands	−0.2231193	0.925
		UK	−0.0945383	0.996
	UK	Germany	0.1450960	0.975
		Netherlands	−0.1285810	0.992
		Spain	0.0945383	0.996
Leisure and relaxation	Germany	Netherlands	0.2762060	0.846
		Spain	0.4354368	0.247
		UK	0.3083514	0.603
	Netherlands	Germany	−0.2762060	0.846
		Spain	0.1592308	0.984
		UK	0.0321454	1.000
	Spain	Germany	−0.4354368	0.247
		Netherlands	−0.1592308	0.984
		UK	−0.1270854	0.986
	UK	Germany	−0.3083514	0.603
		Netherlands	−0.0321453	1.000
		Spain	0.1270854	0.986

[a] The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
Source: Correia (2000).

Table 10.6. Factor analysis results with Varimax rotation of tourists' perceptions of the Algarve.

Components	Factor loading	Communalities	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1. Sports vacation			2.05	12.08	12.08
Safety	0.7110	0.5188			
Sports	0.5500	0.4780			
Social environment	0.6110	0.4336			
Price	0.6050	0.4117			
Factor 2. Cultural vacation			1.72	10.09	22.17
Attractiveness	0.5350	0.3402			
Culture	0.5860	0.3533			
Accessibility	0.6190	0.4964			
Commerce	0.6240	0.4702			
Factor 3. Social vacation			1.66	9.78	31.95
Entertainment	0.6570	0.5140			
Nightlife	0.6570	0.4898			
Factor 4. Sun and beach vacation			1.59	9.38	41.33
Beach	0.7220	0.5734			
Climate	0.8020	0.6609			

Source: Correia (2000).
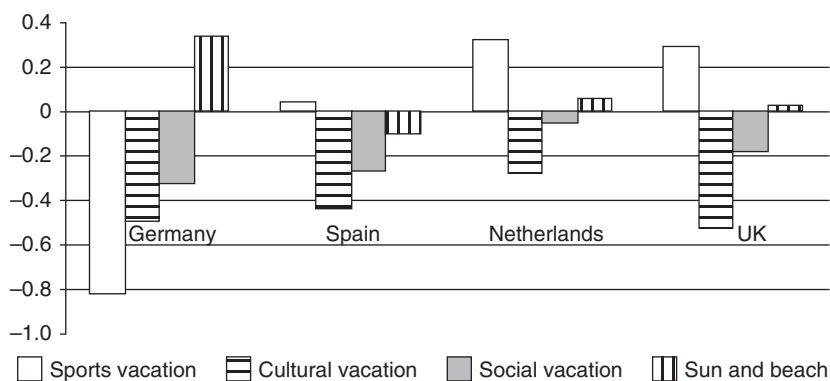
Fig. 10.3. Perceptions according to country-of-origin.

leisure, it is possible to conclude that The Netherlands possesses the longest vacation period, extending up to 32 days, 45.5% more than the other remaining countries. For Germany, vacations can vary between 22 and 25 days, depending on established contractual employment negotiations. In the UK, there are no legal limits, although the average vacation period is 25 days. Here, years of company service and seniority can allow for additional vacation time. However, when compared to the rest of Europe, the British are given fewer days for public holidays. In Spain, the majority get 30 vacation days plus weekends.

Choice

Having reached the decision phase, the tourist is faced with a group of interdependent issues. Here decisions such as means of transportation, lodging and organization of the trip need to be made (Table 10.9).

Summer vacation packages dominate preferences to the Algarve, although the number of tourists who choose to travel more independently has been rapidly increasing. In the UK, intensified competition between travel agencies and operators has led to standard discount policies. As a result, many consumers make last-minute decisions to take advantage of spe-

Table 10.7. Scheffe test for perceptions by country-of-origin.

Dependent variable	(I) Country of residence	(J) Country of residence	Mean difference (I-J)[a]	Sig.
Sport vacation	Germany	Netherlands	−1.2182589[a]	0.000
		Spain	−0.5288173[a]	0.001
		UK	−0.4955818[a]	0.001
	Netherlands	Germany	1.2182589[a]	0.000
		Spain	0.6894417[a]	0.000
		UK	0.7226771[a]	0.000
	Spain	Germany	0.5288173[a]	0.001
		Netherlands	−0.6894417[a]	0.000
		UK	0.0332354	1.000
	UK	Germany	0.4955818[a]	0.001
		Netherlands	−0.7226771[a]	0.000
		Spain	−0.0332354	1.000
Cultural vacation	Germany	Netherlands	−0.1013417	0.995
		Spain	0.2141279	0.773
		UK	0.0230230	1.000
	Netherlands	Germany	0.1013417	0.995
		Spain	0.3154696	0.519
		UK	0.1243647	0.983
	Spain	Germany	−0.2141279	0.773
		Netherlands	−0.3154696	0.519
		UK	−0.1911049	0.813
	UK	Germany	−0.0230230	1.000
		Netherlands	−0.1243647	0.983
		Spain	0.1911049	0.813
Social vacation	Germany	Netherlands	0.4428835	0.190
		Spain	0.4062673	0.141
		UK	0.2900401	0.466
	Netherlands	Germany	−0.4428835	0.190
		Spain	−0.0366162	1.000
		UK	−0.1528434	0.965
	Spain	Germany	−0.4062673	0.141
		Netherlands	0.0366162	1.000
		UK	−0.1162272	0.979
	UK	Germany	−0.2900401	0.466
		Netherlands	0.1528434	0.965
		Spain	0.1162272	0.979
Sun and beach vacation	Germany	Netherlands	−0.9411064[a]	0.000
		Spain	−1.1964860[a]	0.000
		UK	−0.7771671[a]	0.000
	Netherlands	Germany	0.9411064[a]	0.000
		Spain	−0.2553796	0.689
		UK	0.1639393	0.930
	Spain	Germany	1.1964860[a]	0.000
		Netherlands	0.2553796	0.689
		UK	0.4193189[a]	0.035
	UK	Germany	0.7771671[a]	0.000
		Netherlands	−0.1639393	0.930
		Spain	−0.4193189[a]	0.035

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
Source: Correia (2000).

Table 10.8. Constraints on tourism demand according to country-of-origin.

	Germany	Spain	Netherlands	UK
Earned income (in percentage terms)				
Up to 20,000 Euro	9.8	24.5	12.5	16.8
20,000–80,000 Euro	53.2	47.9	46.9	45.5
>80,000 Euro	28.7	9.9	31.9	32.8
Unanswered	8.3	17.7	8.7	4.9
Temporal constraints				
Holidays	22–25 days	24–25 days	32 days	25 days
National holidays	9 days	14 days	6 days	8 days

Source: DGXXIII (1997, in DGT 1998b), ETM (1998a–d).

Table 10.9. Choice according to country-of-origin.

	Germany	Spain	Netherlands	UK
Choice				
Organization of trip	Travel agency	Travel agency or self-organized	Travel agency	Travel agency
Means of transportation	Air	Car	Air	Air
Type of lodging	Hotels	Hotels, friends and relatives	Hotels	Hotels

Source: Correia (2000).

cial promotional deals. The decision of going to a travel agency, or not, is influenced by geographical proximity, accessibility and the intended means of transportation. The choice of destination is often correlated with the mode of transportation to be used, the most frequent being air travel. The growing use of air travel is a result of the increased number of airlines, the decrease in real airfares, as well as growing European economic integration.

The Spanish usually rely on the car for their vacation to the Algarve, travelling in groups of three or more people and preferring geographically proximate destinations. In terms of lodging, hotels dominate tourist preferences when travelling to the Algarve, which reflects an increase in consumer purchasing power.

Post-purchase phase

The degree to which the tourist develops a sense of satisfaction, and the probability of returning to the destination or of recommending the Algarve to relatives and friends, constitutes the principal decision-making behaviour during the post-purchase phase (Table 10.10).

Because tourists from the UK and Spain reveal a high level of visitor satisfaction, repeated purchases are likely to occur for a relatively higher proportion of these tourists. In contrast, however, The Netherlands reveals a lower level of satisfaction towards the Algarve, with repeated purchase being uncertain for approximately 62% of the tourists based on the results of the survey.

Table 10.10. Post-purchase evaluation according to country-of-origin.

	Germany	Spain	Netherlands	UK
Level of satisfaction				
Intention of returning to the Algarve	Probably	Definitely	Not sure	Definitely
Probability of recommending the Algarve	Probably	Definitely	Definitely	Definitely

Source: Correia (2000).

Germans reveal some reluctance in returning to the same destination. This reluctance seems to derive from the fact that approximately 67% are in doubt as to whether they should recommend the Algarve to others. Surprisingly, although the Dutch tend to be only one-time visitors to the Algarve, they claim they would recommend it to others. Their intention of not repeating the visit is not necessarily evidence of dissatisfaction, but rather a preference to discover new places (particularly since the Dutch are motivated by knowledge). Finally, the survey results indicated that the probability of tourists from Spain and the UK recommending Algarve as an ideal destination was higher than 50%.

Conclusions and Perspectives for Future Research

In this paper, the three principal phases of decision making were tested with exploratory data techniques. The methodology applied allows us to make important inferences about the consumer decision process. It is assumed that, when the consumer has decided to travel, he or she has acquired adequate information about the possible combinations of goods and services available, and is well aware of the destination options. Assuming that tourists are heterogeneous, the Scheffe test was used to test significant differences according to the nationality of origin. The results confirmed the hypothesis that tourist decision making behaviour to the Algarve differs significantly by country-of-origin.

Bearing in mind that a consumer behaviour can be structured into three main phases, pre-decision, decision and post-purchase evaluation, the following conclusions from the empirical analysis can be derived:

1. In the pre-decision phase, the following were observed:
- the Mediterranean region continues to be a preferred destination area by European tourists, despite a growing tendency towards new destination experiences;
- travel brochures and recommendations from reference groups serve as important sources of information;

- primary motivations are typically adventure/sport, knowledge, escape/socialization and leisure/relaxation;
- the sun and the beach predominate as the leading motivation among vacation tourists for the Algarve;
- residential area, social class, age group and household number constitute decisive factors in decision making;
- recommendations from family and friends as well as previous experience bear significant influence in decision making;
- PCA analysis indicates that the Algarve is strongly considered as an ideal sports location.

2. In the decision phase:
- the decision to use travel agencies is conditioned by geographical proximity and accessibility;
- travel packages are preferred by tourists particularly during the summer season, although there has been an increase in independent travel;
- the means of transportation chosen is dependent on the geographical proximity of the destination;
- hotels dominate as the preferred choice for accommodation.

3. In terms of the post-purchase evaluation phase, it was found that the UK and Spain reveal a higher level of satisfaction towards the Algarve, whereas Germans reveal some dissatisfaction. The Dutch, being risk-takers (generally searching for new destinations) may not return to the Algarve, but will not hesitate to recommend the Algarve to others.

This study has a number of limitations which suggest possible directions for new research. First, similar surveys could be carried out among potential tourists in their countries-of-origin since the present study has surveyed only visitors (but not non-visitors) to the Algarve. Second, the questionnaire could have been stratified by age, to investigate how age, and related factors such as the family life cycle stage, might affect tourist decision-making involving the Algarve. Lastly, the meaning of motivations and perceptions could be differentiated according to the respondents' preferred tourist activities. Additional research is needed to confirm the results of this study, and to clarify the above-mentioned issues.

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Chapter eleven
The Consumption of Association Convention Sites: Preliminary Results from a Study of Site Choice

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Abstract

The conventions industry has grown to become a very important part of the global tourism and hospitality sector. For cities, particularly, conventions have become one of their principal target markets. For this reason, Convention and Visitor Bureaux typically focus a great deal of their time and effort into wooing large associations that are looking for an attractive host convention site. This chapter reports some preliminary results from a study which has sought to model the convention site selection choice process. It finds that, although the characteristics of the meeting facilities are particularly important, an attractive host site must offer strengths in a broad range of other attributes, if the site is to be successful in an increasingly competitive environment.

Introduction

Many Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) in the tourism industry, particularly Convention and Visitor Bureaux (CVBs), today place a great deal of emphasis on targeting the meetings and conventions market segment. The task of these organizations is to persuade the corporations or associations intending to hold meetings or conventions that the destination they represent is the best host site for the event.

Meetings and conventions have grown in number, size and frequency. The range of potential host sites has also grown significantly as destinations have responded by building or expanding convention centres and facilities, as hotels have also added and improved such facilities, as globalization has transformed internationally the scope of many corporations and associations, and as smaller cities and towns (so-called second-tier sites) have recognized the potential economic benefits of this market segment and have begun to compete successfully for a share of this activity.

While much is known about the type and range of factors that influence the choice of a

host site, little is known about the relative significance of each factor, making it difficult for destination managers to know where and how they should invest resources to enhance their competitiveness. Specifically, what role do individual site attributes play in the site-selection decision? How are site attributes 'traded off' in this process? How does the process differ as a function of the corporation's or association's characteristics?

This chapter reports preliminary results from the first stage of a research programme designed to answer these questions with respect to association-organized conventions. The competition that occurs between destinations for the meetings and conventions market segment in the travel and tourism industry is a microcosm of the issue of destination competitiveness in general. This particular study therefore also draws upon the experience of Ritchie and Crouch (2003) with respect to their general conceptual model of destination competitiveness.

The Meetings and Conventions Industry

Many destinations have increased the emphasis in their marketing strategies on the meetings and conventions industry or travel and tourism market segment. For example, the Australian Commonwealth Department of Tourism's National Tourism Strategy (1995) recognized 'the meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions (MICE) industry as having significant growth potential' (p. 1). For example, Australian 'data indicate that, in general, there has been a rapid increase in the number of international visitors who have come to Australia explicitly to attend a convention or conference' (Peters and Jones, 1996, p. 4).

Already large, the industry is expected to continue to expand. It is easy to understand, therefore, why destinations today covet this market segment. Yet, although trade and professional magazines on the meetings and conventions industry frequently publish 'checklists' of the various factors that professional meetings managers or conference organizers use to assess the suitability and attractiveness of alternative potential host sites, there has been surprisingly little systematic, empirical or academic study (Fortin and Ritchie, 1977; Var *et al.*, 1985; Fenich, 1992; Witt *et al.*, 1992; Oppermann, 1994; Rockett and Smillie, 1994; Zelinsky, 1994; Clark and McCleary, 1995). Abbey and Link (1994, p. 283) comment that:

> Despite the importance of this market segment to both individual properties and host cities, little research has been undertaken on its structure and workings. This lack of information is a handicap to operating managers and tourism officials responsible for marketing and promoting their products and services … While this lack of research is, on the one hand, a hindrance to the convention and meeting industry, it presents a promising opportunity for researchers. Convention and meeting research is, for the most part, an untapped market for researchers. Considerable work is needed to increase understanding of this important segment of the tourism industry.

As noted above, since association-organized conventions dominate the industry, and because corporations differ fundamentally from associations in the way they organize conventions (Fortin *et al.*, 1976), this present study addresses the issue of convention site selection by associations. It does not study corporate conventions or meetings.

Convention Site Selection

Crouch and Ritchie (1998) undertook an extensive review of the literature in order to identify and evaluate the extent of knowledge concerning the factors which are believed to influence the choice of convention site by associations. The research questions that guided their work were as follows:

- What factors influence the choice of convention site?
- How important are each of the site selection factors and how are trade-offs made between factors?
- Who participates in the site-selection decision?
- What is the relative influence of each participant?
- Is the site selection process a function of certain association characteristics?

- How can destinations enhance their competitiveness recognizing the varied control they can exert over each principal site-selection factor?
- What are the dynamics of convention site selection by time and across destinations, associations, and other stakeholders?

On the basis of the 64 studies revealed in their review, several categories of site-selection factors were identified as illustrated in their conceptual model of the convention site selection process (Fig. 11.1). This model illustrates the influence of these site-selection factors, and consists of five principal steps. Step 1 (preplanning) occurs before alternative host sites are identified and analysed. It includes issues such as setting convention objectives, formulating a preliminary budget, establishing possible dates for the convention, etc. Alternative sites are then evaluated in step 2. This might involve actual site inspections, receiving bids from competing host sites, liaison with local association chapters and CVBs, collecting information about each site on key selection criteria such as size of meeting facilities, air access, range of accommodation, the attractiveness of the site environment, etc. Step 2 ends with a recommendation from the association's meetings manager or planner, or a committee assigned the task of investigating alternative sites. The final decision (step 3) from among the alternatives is usually made separately from the site analysis and recommendations stage (step 2), since this becomes a decision usually for the board or executive of the association rather than the meeting planner or site committee. The executive may opt for a site that was not the first preference or recommendation arising from step 2. At this stage, political issues can often intervene to shape the final decision and is best represented as an example of a business (or organizational) buying process (Kotler *et al.*, 1998).

After the convention is held (step 4), either implicitly or explicitly, the convention and site is evaluated (step 5) to see what lessons need to be learnt before the next convention is planned.

The intervening factors in this process include various antecedent conditions such as association, member and executive character-
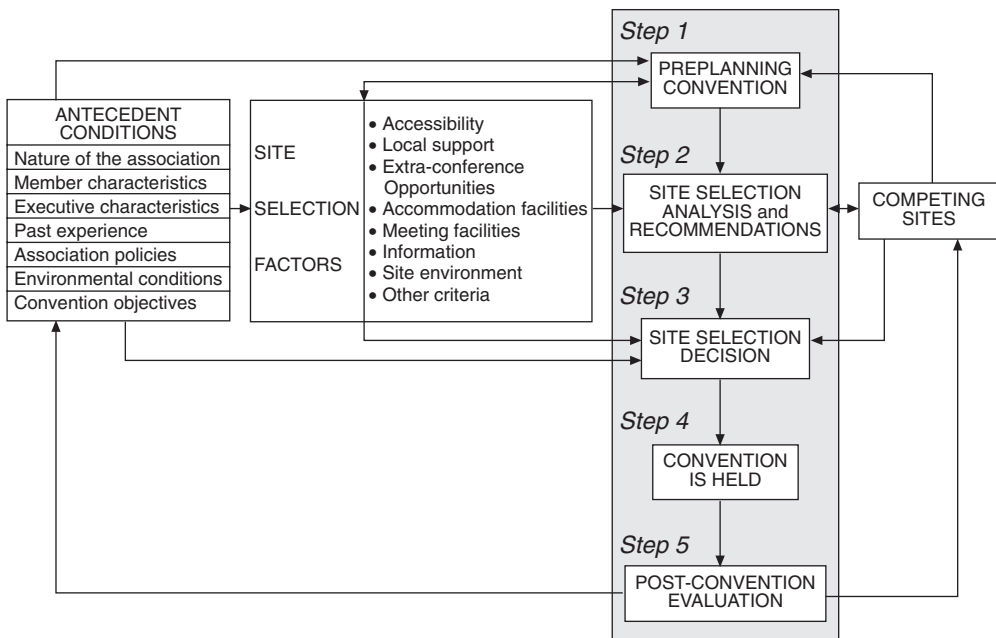

Fig. 11.1. A general conceptual model of the site-selection process (from Crouch and Ritchie, 1998).

istics, past convention experiences, policies (such as geographic rotation of sites), convention objectives and environmental conditions, such as the prevailing or expected economic climate or, as we have seen recently, acts of terrorism and the SARS virus. Further intervening variables include the role and actions of competing sites, and the profile of alternative sites in terms of the key site-selection attributes – the focus of this research.

Research Programme

The previous research discussed above and summarized in Fig. 11.1 has identified the broad range of site attributes that the evidence suggests may play an important role in influencing the selection of a host destination for association-organized conventions. At this stage, however, there is little solid evidence indicating the relative importance of the various site-selection factors in general, or in particular circumstances. Hence, the aim of this present study is to address this need by modelling host destination convention site selection.

At this stage of the research programme, this chapter reports some of the preliminary results from an Australian study. The approach will then be adapted for application to an international study of convention site selection. As the conventions industry today is lucrative and globally competitive, the results of this research should be of widespread interest.

Research Approach

Choice modelling

The present study adopts this Discrete Choice Approach (DCA) for reasons outlined in Crouch and Louviere (2001). Choice modelling requires choice data that can be obtained by observing and recording real or actual choices or choices made in response to hypothetical options. Observations of choices *reveal* the preferences of those making the choices; choices collected in real markets typically are known as Revealed Preferences (RP), whereas choices collected in hypothetical markets are known as Stated Preferences (SP) (Louviere *et al.*, 2000).

RP choice data offer the advantage of certainty with regard to actual choice behaviour, but suitable RP data often are unavailable. Moreover, basing choice models solely on RP data can be disadvantageous due to inadequate information about choice options considered but rejected, information that pertains only to preferences for existing options, and highly collinear data that makes it difficult to decompose effects or even presents identification challenges. 'These characteristics of markets and the RP data observations taken in them unfortunately suggest that very rarely will RP data be of much use for modelling purposes' (Crouch and Louviere, 2001, p. 72).

Although the meetings and conventions industry collects some RP data, it generally does not provide information on options considered but rejected, rendering it unsuitable for this type of analysis. Hence, this study set out to gather SP data through the use of a survey designed as a choice experiment.

Depth interviews

Before preparing the choice instrument, a series of 25 depth interviews were conducted with meeting planners who had experience evaluating and recommending potential host convention sites. The aim of these interviews was to assess specific site attributes for inclusion in the choice instrument from among the factors listed in Fig. 11.1.

Experimental design

In the experiment, each respondent was asked to indicate their choice in a series of choice tasks in which possible hypothetical convention sites were described in terms of important site-selection attributes.

The choice experiment described different hypothetical sites defined by 20 attributes; each attribute in turn was described by two, four or six levels, resulting in a $2^{10} \times 4^9 \times 6^1$ fractional factorial design of 128 treatments divided into eight blocks (survey versions) of 16 scenarios.

The present study only considers convention site selection within Australia; hence, certain site attributes that might matter in situations where sites are competing internationally were considered irrelevant for Australian choices. For example, there is little variation in site safety and security in Australia, but this may well be a key decision attribute internationally.

Choice survey

The survey consisted of three parts. The first part included a set of questions about the survey participant and the association with which the participant was involved in the role of evaluating host sites in Australia for the most recent convention, whether as an employee of, or as a consultant to, that association.

The second part of the survey contained 16 scenarios, each describing a hypothetical convention site. The participant was asked to evaluate the information provided about each site and answer two questions: (i) whether the planner would/would not recommend that the board of the association consider that site option for the association's next convention; and (ii) was the site described better than, worse than, or about the same as the last convention site chosen. An example of one survey scenario is in the Appendix. This chapter presents analysis and results for responses to the first question.

The third part of the survey obtained information about the last convention site and its attributes, and was structured in such a way that it closely resembled the format of part 2 to facilitate data collection.

Sample

We identified 257 Australian meeting planners with convention site selection experience. Of these, 200 were eligible to participate in the choice experiment and 134 initially agreed to do so. We ultimately received 86 completed responses by the cutoff date, resulting in a usable response rate of 43% (86/200).

Preliminary analysis

Our preliminary analysis examined the relationship between the subjects' choices and the levels of each site that were varied in the experiment. The first scenario response question simply asked if the subject would/would not recommend the site for the next convention. We evaluated the relationship between each attribute and this (choice) response by conducting a series of cross-tabulations.

Each attribute appears at two or four discrete levels (and one at six discrete levels), and hence a choice experiment can be viewed as a large, incomplete contingency table. We calculated the Pearson chi-squared statistics associated with each cross-tabulation of the choice responses against the levels of a particular attribute to test the null hypothesis of probabilistic independence. In addition, because we hypothesized that site choice depends upon the value of each attribute, Goodman and Kruskal tau statistics and Uncertainty Coefficient directional measures were calculated using the choice response variable as the dependent variable.

For each statistically significant relationship, we examined the direction of the relationship between each attribute and the responses by plotting the natural logarithm of the ratio of choice odds against the attribute levels varied in the choice experiment. That is, we calculated the marginal choice responses associated with each attribute level, holding everything else constant because the experimental design is orthogonal. This approach is model-free in the sense that the choice responses are whatever they are, and hence the relationships that are uncovered are those that empirically underlie the data regardless of the process that a researcher might use to represent the systematic and random utility components.

For example, if the random component is distributed independently and identically as an extreme value type I random variate, the resulting model of the process will be a binary logit model. The binary logit is completely defined by the odds of saying 'yes' to each scenario relative to saying 'no', and the model can be linearized by taking the natural logarithm of the odds ratio, which is linearly

related to the unknown, true utilities of inter-est (Louviere *et al.*, 2000). For this reason, we examined the relationship of each numerical attribute with the choice response by graph-ing the log of the odds ratio of the marginal probability of saying 'yes' relative to saying 'no' for each level of each attribute.

The preceding discussion hopefully makes it obvious that the graphical and preliminary statistical relationships uncovered in the cross-tabular analysis demonstrate that this simple approach provides virtually all the information that is available about the rela-tionships underlying the response data.

The cross-tabulation results are presented and discussed in the next section.

Results and Discussion

Table 11.1 presents the results from the cross-tabulation analyses for each of the 20 site attributes shown in the Appendix.

For each attribute found to be statistically significant in Table 11.1, graphs illustrating the relationship between the log odds calcu-lated from the cross-tab results and the corre-sponding experimental design codes for each of the four- or two-level attributes, are pre-sented in Figs 11.2–11.13.

Specific results

Proximity of convention participants to con-ference sites was highly significant as shown in Fig. 11.2, which illustrates that the desir-ability of the site declines as the proportion of conference attendees who need to fly fur-ther to get to the conference increases. Interestingly, however, neither unrestricted economy nor discount airfares impacted site choices directly.

Accommodation connected to or part of the convention facility is also highly desired by associations, while off-site accommoda-

Table 11.1. Cross-tabulation results – attributes versus choice response[a].

Variable	Pearson chi-squared	Sig.[b]	Tau[c]	Sig.[b]	Uncert. Coeff.[b]	Sig.[b]
Participant proximity	22.279***	0.000	0.016***	0.000	0.013***	0.000
Unrestricted airfare	1.547	0.672	0.001	0.672	0.001	0.670
Best airfare	0.351	0.950	0.000	0.950	0.000	0.950
On-site/off-site accomm.	31.202***	0.000	0.023***	0.000	0.018***	0.000
Accommodation range	1.816	0.611	0.001	0.612	0.001	0.611
Accommodation rates	9.544**	0.023	0.007**	0.023	0.006**	0.020
Taxi time	1.331	0.722	0.001	0.722	0.001	0.719
Expected weather	1.331	0.722	0.001	0.722	0.001	0.719
Cost of venue	34.983***	0.000	0.025***	0.000	0.021***	0.000
Food quality	32.658***	0.000	0.024***	0.000	0.020***	0.000
Entertainment opps	5.665**	0.022	0.004**	0.017	0.003**	0.017
Physical setting	4.128**	0.042	0.003**	0.042	0.002**	0.042
Social/cultural setting	2.281	0.131	0.002	0.131	0.001	0.131
Chapter assistance	0.054	0.816	0.000	0.816	0.000	0.816
Bureau assistance	0.054	0.816	0.000	0.816	0.000	0.816
Exhibition space	19.980***	0.000	0.015***	0.000	0.012***	0.000
Plenary room	32.405***	0.000	0.024***	0.000	0.019***	0.000
Break-out rooms	8.091***	0.004	0.006***	0.004	0.005***	0.004
Ball room	1.350	0.245	0.001	0.246	0.001	0.245
A/V facilities	2.834*	0.092	0.002*	0.092	0.002*	0.092

[a]Response 1 – 'would' versus 'would not'.
[b]Significance levels for respective statistics in column to the left.
[c]Goodman and Kruskal tau with the response variable as the dependent variable.
[d]Uncertainty coefficient with the response variable as the dependent variable.
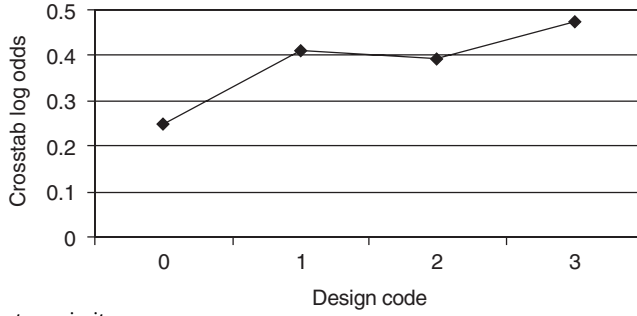***Significant at 1% level, **significant at 5% level, *significant at 10% level.

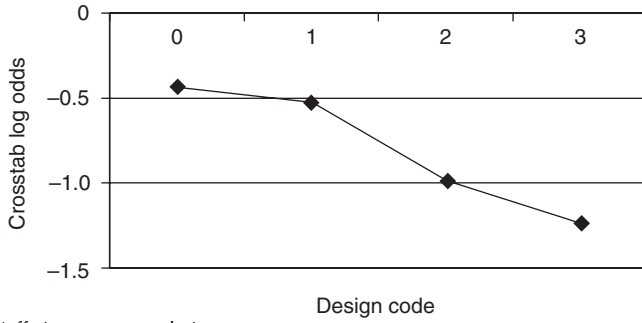**Fig. 11.2.** Participant proximity.
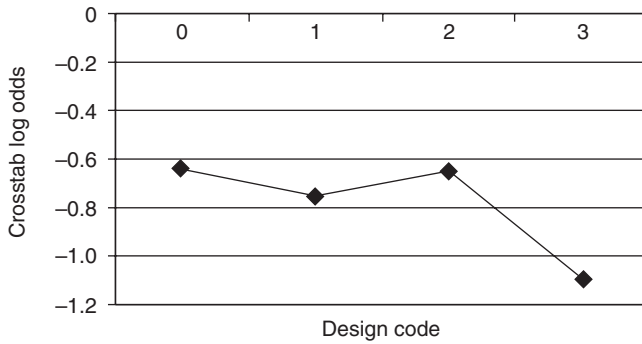

Fig. 11.3. On-site/off-site accommodation.

Fig. 11.4. Accommodation rates.
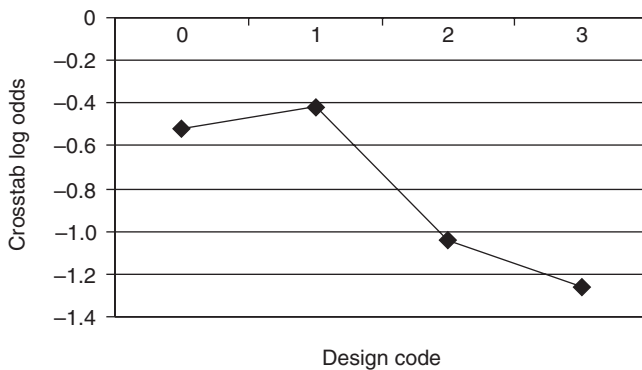
Fig. 11.5. Cost of venue.
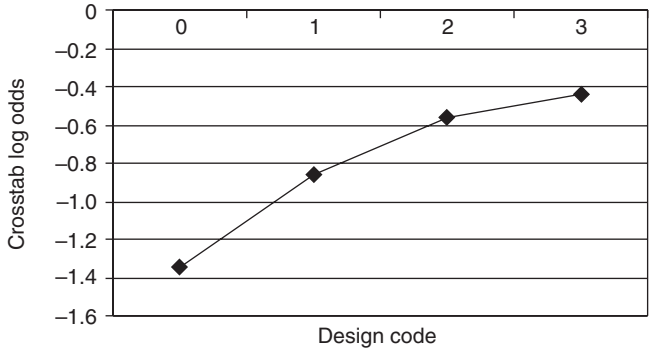
Fig. 11.6. Food quality.
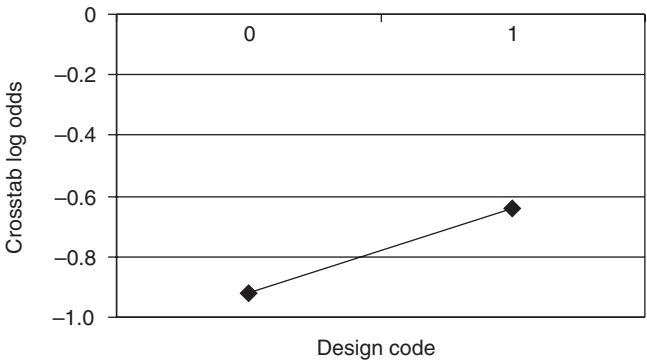
Fig. 11.7. Entertainment opportunities.
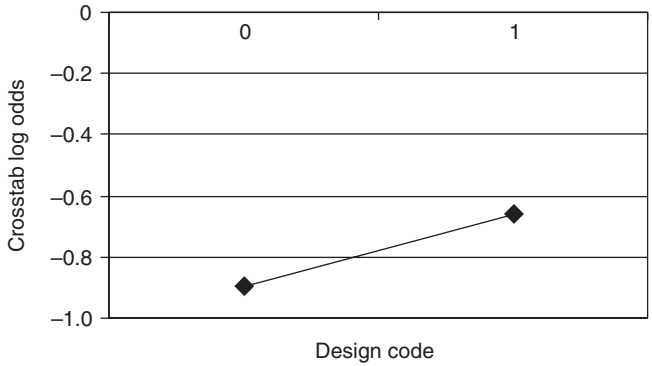
Fig. 11.8. Physical setting.

tion is not desired. The range of available accommodation at the site had little impact, and site desirability drops when room rates reach high levels. Accessibility of the accommodation site and the local airport appears to be unimportant.

In terms of the general convention setting, opportunities for entertainment, shopping, sightseeing, recreation and organized tours were significant, as were physical site attributes and the social and cultural environment. On the other hand, weather expected during
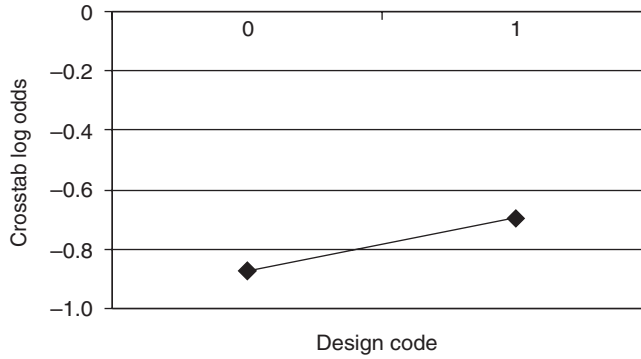
Fig. 11.9. Social/cultural setting.
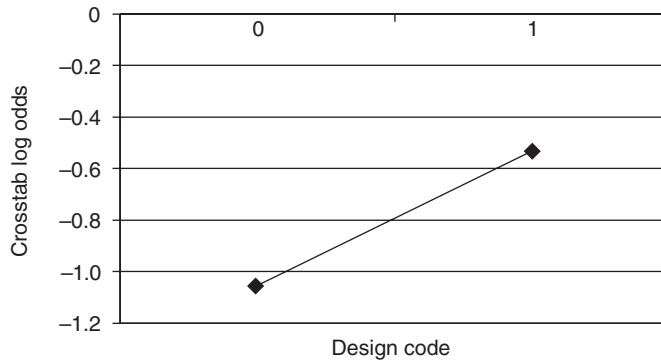
Fig. 11.10. Exhibition space.
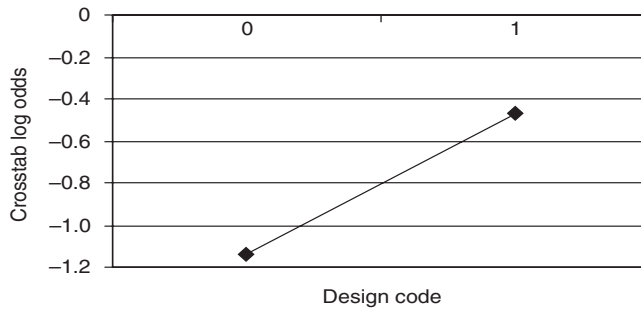
Fig. 11.11. Plenary room.

the conference, and assistance from the local association chapter or convention and visitors bureau, were not significant determinants of choice as far as the Australian domestic meetings and conventions industry is concerned.

Not surprisingly, the cost of the convention venue was a major factor, but it is interesting to note (Fig. 11.5) that while site attractiveness generally declines as cost increases, the lowest cost levels investigated may have signalled poor and unattractive convention facilities. Alternatively, it may be that associations expect a certain minimum level or standard.

In terms of the convention venue and facilities, the quality of the exhibition space, plenary room, break-out rooms and the per-
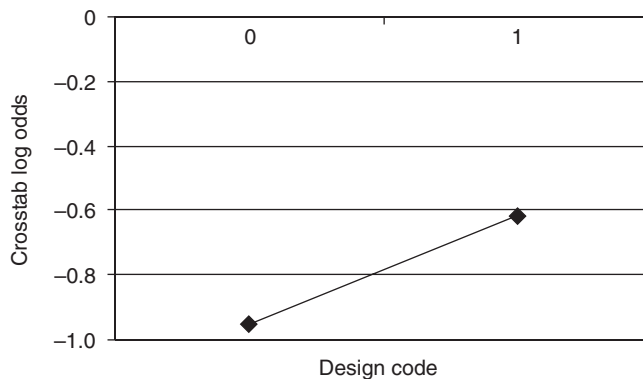
Fig. 11.12. Break-out rooms.
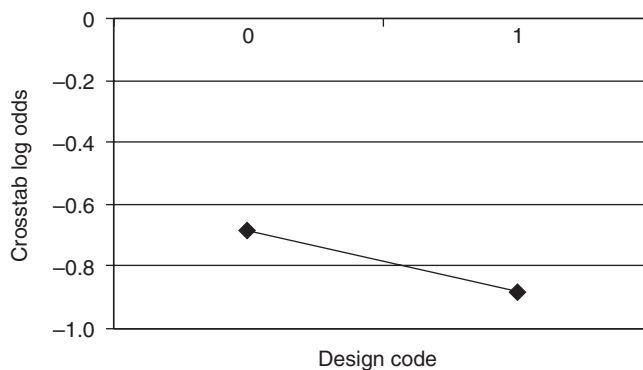
Fig. 11.13. A/V facilities.

ceived food quality were important determinants of site choice. In contrast, ballroom and dining facilities were less important, as were availability of required audio-visual facilities on-site.

Conclusions and Future Research

Two principal sets of conclusions can be drawn from these preliminary results: namely, the substantive findings on the factors impacting convention site selection within Australia, and the useful role of cross-tabulation as a diagnostic 'stepping stone' toward logit choice modelling of stated choice data.

The preliminary results provide evidence that 12 of the 20 site attributes investigated have a statistically significant effect on site choice. These factors were:

- proximity of the site to convention participants;
- percentage of convention attendees able to be accommodated on-site with the convention venue;
- accommodation conference rates;
- cost of the venue;
- perceived food quality;
- opportunities for entertainment, shopping, sightseeing, recreation and organized tours;
- uniqueness of the physical setting;
- uniqueness of the social/cultural setting;
- quality of the exhibition space;
- quality of the plenary room;
- quality of the break-out/session rooms; and
- the available range of audio/visual systems and facilities.

Six of these factors pertain to the *convention venue and facilities* while the other six factors concern *travel distance, cost and site accessibility* (one of three), *accommodation location and costs* (two of four), and the *setting, site environment and local assistance* (three of six). Convention destinations therefore need to pay primary attention to ensuring that their meeting and convention facilities are highly competitive with respect to their targeted meetings and convention market segment. In addition, however, other site features also play an important role, albeit, secondary but no less significant. Hence, a successful convention destination must also offer an accessible, enjoyable and interesting setting. A successful convention destination must offer a complete package if it is to perform well in this increasingly competitive market.

The study has also shown that, providing the experimental design of the study is appropriate, relatively simple analyses of the data can provide meaningful insights into the role of individual variables on choice. This also provides the researcher with a more detailed knowledge and feel for the data before embarking on more sophisticated analysis of the data.

The future research will adapt the choice instrument for the modelling of convention site choice on an international scale.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix. Convention Site Scenario: Number 1

Features that describe convention sites		Details of <u>this</u> site
Travel distance, travel costs and site accessibility to members	Proximity of the site to convention participants	10% of members do not need to fly 20% of members under 2 h flying time of the site 30% of members within 2–4 h of site <u>40%</u> of members over 4 h from site 100%
	Unrestricted economy airfares available	<2 h: $450 2–4 h: $600 4+ h: $800
	Best discount airfares available	<2 h: $200 2–4 h: $300 4+ h: $400
Accommodation, location and costs	Percentage of convention attendees able to be accommodated on-site versus off-site	On-site accommodation: 100% Off-site accommodation: 0%
	Range of available accommodation at or within 15 min of convention facility	3 star: 2 hotel(s) 4 star: 1 hotel(s) 5 star: 0 hotel(s)
	Conference rates by class of accommodation (room only)	3 star: $90 4 star: $120 5 star: $180
	Accommodation location relative to airport	10-min taxi ride
Physical setting, climate, local assistance, and things to do for attendees and partners in the general vicinity	Opportunities for entertainment, shopping, sightseeing, recreation and organized tours	Few opportunities
	Unique physical setting	No
	Unique social/cultural setting	No
	Expected weather/climate during the convention	Warm and humid
	Expected level of assistance from local chapter	Satisfactory
	Expected level of assistance from visitors bureau	Satisfactory
Convention venue itself and facilities	Cost of venue	50% below national average
	Exhibition space	Marginal
	Plenary room	Marginal
	Break-out/session rooms	Marginal
	Ball room/dining venues	Marginal
	Range of A/V systems/ presentation facilities	Available completely on-site
	Perceived quality of food	Below average

I most likely (tick ONLY one) ☐ **Would** ☐ **Would not** suggest or recommend that the Board of the Association seriously consider this convention site for its NEXT convention.

Compared with the LAST convention I helped organize for the Association, I think that THIS potential site would be (tick ONLY one): ☐ **Better than** ☐ **Worse than** ☐ **About same as** the actual site that hosted this last one.

Chapter twelve
Context and Dynamics of Social Interaction and Information Search in Decision Making for Discretionary Travel

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Abstract

Tourism decision models draw from consumer psychology. These models focus on intrapersonal mental processes, attitudes, values, socio-demographics, some aspects of experience and information use. The dynamics of information search and social interaction by an individual as part of travel decision making have received little attention. Here the dynamic interaction of an individual with the external environment for social interaction and information search purposes and an individual's style of being involved with some travel decision options are emphasized. This chapter relates decision making to an operator model. Implications of information search and social interaction potentially occurring over time resulting in interim decisions on what to do are discussed. A final decision is seen as an end that depends on the decision process. The discussion shows decisions being interpreted and modelled as involving a single compensatory decision when the final decision may depend on interim decisions, some of which may not be compensatory. A simple question–answer approach is used to show the implications of the ideas and their application to survey research.

Introduction

Data that Taiwan collects from international visitors when they depart[1] is meant to serve many purposes. Making inferences about the travel decisions of visitors to Taiwan from data that do not include information on how the person surveyed contributed to the decision to come can be problematic because data relevant to analysis are not available. Thought about data needed resulted in think-ing about decision making by individuals and how they were influenced by their social interaction and information search.

The tourism literature on information search is extensive (e.g. Fodness and Murray, 1999). Regarding social interaction, a classic social psychology text, Secord and Backman (1964, p. 1), states that: 'The most distinctive feature of human life is its social character. People do things in concert; … And they react to one another … The behaviour of an individ-

ual in the presence of another person is at once a response and a stimulus to the other person.' Though Bagozzi (2000) is specifically concerned with group decision making, he provides broad coverage of the general consumer behaviour and of other social science literature in making the point that social interaction does not receive adequate attention in the consumer decision making literature.

A general flow diagram for the holiday discretionary trip decision process is embedded in Fig. 12.1, as boxes down the centre of the figure. Similar process diagrams are available in the consumer research literature (e.g. Engel *et al.*, 1978, chapters 8–9) but Gitelson and Crompton (1984) caution against tourism decisions being treated as routine purchase decisions. For research, the general
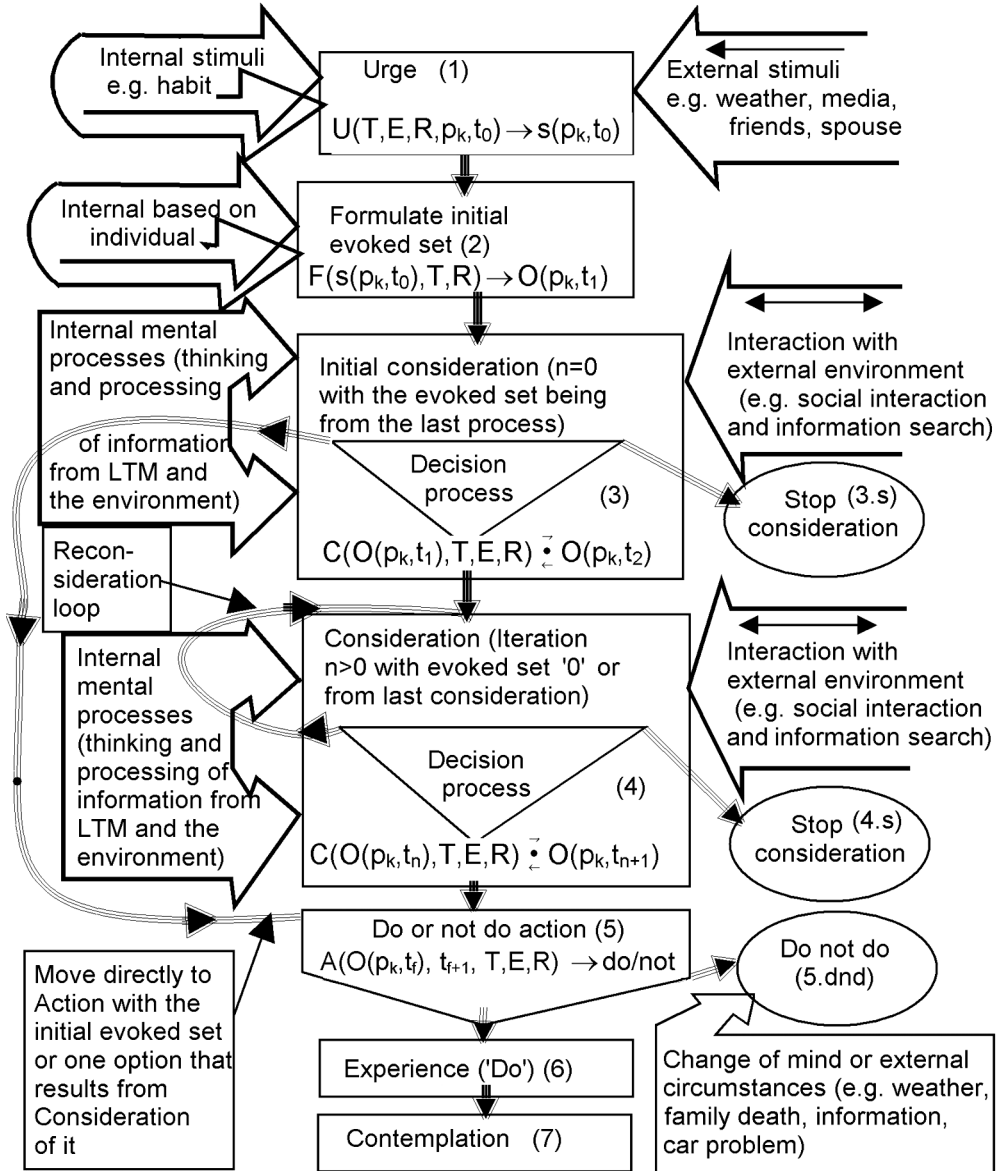

Fig. 12.1. Travel decision-making considering social interaction.

process shown has been enhanced in a variety of ways (e.g. Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Woodside and MacDonald, 1994; DeCrop, 1999; King and Woodside, 2001; McGuiggan, 2003). Gnoth (1997; see also Harrill and Potts, 2002) gives a particularly wide-ranging and insightful social psychological perspective on motivation and travel. *Action* and *Contemplation* appear in the figure, since the extent to which particular activity and destination decisions are made *en route* or reflect previous experience is important in understanding and modelling decisions (Hyde, 2003; Kozak *et al.*, 2003).

In the literature on travel decision making, the selection of options and their consideration is recognized as a critical matter (e.g. Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Woodside and MacDonald, 1994; DeCrop, 1999). The concept of awareness/evoked sets plays an important role in the discussion of decisions. How these sets arise and how consideration of them does, or does not, result in a particular purchase is an important theme. The literature makes it clear that, as a consequence of the urge to travel, a sequence of evoked sets may be considered (e.g. including early, late and action). The decisions to change evoked sets and a final decision need not be compensatory. A decision to modify an evoked set being considered can result from finding salient information or making a pivotal social contact. Because getting information and contacting people occur sequentially in time, one event, e.g. talking with somebody, can direct a decision toward a particular outcome that is not even an option if the contact is not made because of information found while trying to establish contact.

In Fig. 12.1 there are large arrows with text in them. Some have the symbol ↔, showing two-way communication with the environment. This indicates that information search and social interaction (e.g. to get a travel companion) may occur. However, in the tourism literature, reference to social influences on decision making typically[2] is to effects associated with categorical variables such as family status (e.g. Heung *et al.*, 2001, and references therein). Being in a household with four members may mean you are in an aggregate associated with taking certain kinds of trips. This aggregate result does not elucidate how family members contribute to a travel decision.[3]

The quotation from Secord and Backman implies that *recognizing the role of social interaction in behaviour is necessary to understanding it.* DeCrop (1999, 2001) is a key proponent of the need to consider social interaction in trip decision making. By obtaining longitudinal data on summer holiday trip decision making, in which information on social motives, decision participation with others, etc. is available, he has bridged a gap recognized by Woodside and MacDonald (1994) and Crompton and Ankomah (1993). Furthermore, he specifically recognizes that the social interaction that takes place in relation to a decision to travel depends on the individual and a *context*. Types of participation in travel decisions are identified. Some people are happy to go along with another person's suggestion for certain travel decisions. When they agree to do what is suggested, acceptance is all there is to their decision making. For people who do not just accept an initial option, information search is still not something everybody does. Some people search for information when particular travel is being considered while others may not. However, some people are happy to let other people take the initiative in sorting out travel options. For repeated travel, how much searching is usually needed? A conclusion that has been reached is that in general less information may be sought than the literature suggests (DeCrop and Snelders, 2003). Some other researchers have addressed special implications of interpersonal dynamics (Woodside and Singer, 1994; Thornton *et al.*, 1997; Zalatan, 1998).

Objectives and Research Strategy

Analysis that deals with aggregate effects (e.g. being in a family of five or more members) is macroanalysis while dealing with an individual and a particular decision making process is microanalysis. An objective of this article is to make specific use of the operator expressions given in Fig. 12.1 (e.g. $C(O(p_k,t_1),T,E,R)$ •

$O(p_k,t_2)$) in microanalysis of decision making behaviour. The discussion of operator expressions is used to suggest concepts and to raise questions about individuals' social interaction and information search in making a decision to travel. The series of interim decisions that can arise in reaching a final decision is discussed in terms of repeated use of the *Consideration* operator. There is examination of the implications of ideas presented for three general areas of tourism research.

An Operator Model

The operator expressions in Fig. 12.1 provide a mathematical/logical symbolism to use in examining travel decision making. This symbolism is used to take a somewhat *formal* approach to analysis. Formal systems appear in the consumer behaviour literature (e.g. Engel *et al.*, 1978, chapter 20) and in the tourism literature (e.g. Kozak *et al.*, 2003). Their role is to facilitate logical analysis and thus theory development, modelling and theory testing. As here, their use does not necessitate employing any complicated logic or mathematics.

Some definitions and conventions apply to this paper. Here, *process* refers to a series of actions or operations tending toward an *end*. Actions in a trip decision process can include communicating with potential co-travellers about expectations, costs, travel arrangements, etc.; collecting information about trip options; and thinking about the consequences of doing different things. Tending toward an end has two implications. First, a process starts and later finishes. The 'start' can influence the outcome. The weather or one's spouse can prompt an urge. The spouse prompting it probably involves a more compelling reason to pursue a certain course of action. Second, *tending* implies that what happens during the process can influence the outcome, the *end*.

That travel decision models should have their 'end' dependent on the process (Woodside and MacDonald, 1994) can be misunderstood. Dependency occurs when A or B holiday is taken depending on whether p_x contacts p_y or p_z first when she gets an urge to get away for the weekend. Implications are: (i) that to some degree, p_x will do what one of

her friends likes to do; and (ii) that the friends like different things. On the other hand, the end does not depend on the process just because: (i) outcomes have different probabilities based, e.g. on the decision maker's and destinations' attributes; (ii) outcomes are computed using different models for different segments (e.g. Stemerding *et al.*, 1996); or (iii) outcomes apply to people who take a particular approach to participating in a decision when planning for certain travel, e.g. a family holiday (e.g. DeCrop, 1999). In (i), (ii) or (iii), if things that happened during the process were introduced into the model in an appropriate way,[4] then the outcome would depend on the process.

A simplified picture (see Reed, 1996, for an elaborate one[5]) of what goes on in the mind when considering travel treats mental functions as operations defined by computer programs. Such computer programs, for example, control communication to the environment; recognize, filter, react to and store incoming communication; control retrieval of information from long-term memory (LTM) for processing; and 'invoke' special programs for problem solving and decision making. Information in LTM can be thought of as data that is available for retrieval.

Operation, in the context of process, is *arriving at consequences based on antecedents and rules* that *specify what happens in given conditions*. A symbol, sometimes called *the operator,* is used to refer to an operation. When the words *Urge, Formulate, Consideration* or *Action* appear with a capital and in italics, it is a specific reference to them as operators or to the associated operations. In an operator expression such as $U(T,E,R,p_k,t_0) \rightarrow s(p_k,t_0)$, a special arrows–dot symbol, $\bullet$, or, $\rightarrow$, as above, divides the expression. In the *Urge* expression, $s(p_k,t_0)$ is the consequence or result. It represents a stimulus to *Formulate* travel options. For the expressions in Fig. 12.1, the initial letter identifies the nature of the operation (e.g. U is for *Urge*). Inside brackets following this letter one sees operands T, E, R, p_k and t_x. A particular person is identified by p_k while, regardless of the operator it appears in, t_x refers to the date and time *since* the *Urge* being considered occurred.[6] Although the mind does not divide information related to an *Urge* by

thoughts (T), input from the external environment (E), and other stored information retrieved (R), T, E and R refer to particular information in long-term memory, LTM. This 'classification' of information by 'origin' is to facilitate research conceptualization.

Survey questions about decision making should target specific information in LTM. Distinguishing between, e.g., information that was obtained from the environment (in E) and related perceptions created by the mind using that information (in T) is necessary. This is because understanding decision making depends on recognizing how processing of environmental information impacts decisions. Information search (e.g. Fodness and Murray, 1999, and citations therein) as well as social interaction can result in 'raw' information being stored in E (e.g. as episodic information). Information that was stored in LTM, e.g. prior to the *Urge*, and is retrieved to think about travel options related to the *Urge* is in R. Processed information, for example, resulting from forming an image (e.g. Pike, 2002, and citations therein) is taken to be in T.

When considering operators as computer programs that do specific things, the operands are input to that program. The inputs can be information that is available in LTM, data or parameters that determine how the program functions. Think of making a decision for a set of options. In Fig. 12.1 there are 'decision triangles' in the boxes for *Consideration* showing that a decision, in effect, ends a cycle of *Consideration*. Therefore, think of a decision operator, D_k, used for selecting one option from several. Each value of k can be for making a choice in a particular way (e.g. one for compensatory decisions and another for lexicography decisions) so based on k the correct D_k is used.

What Fig. 12.1 and the operator expressions imply about the dynamics of individual decision making is straightforward. The large arrows with text in them on the left and right of the figure, that point towards the boxes containing expressions, specify the existence of intrapersonal processes or of communication with the external environment. The arrows show that an *Urge* (see box 1 in Fig. 12.1) can 'start' from a stimulus from the

external environment or an internal one. The notation '$F(s(p_k, t_0), T, R) \rightarrow O(p_k, t_1)$' shows that a *stimulus* leads a person to *Formulate* travel options in the form of an initial evoked set $O(p_k, t_1)$. *Formulation* of $O(p_k, t_1)$ is intrapersonal. Based on $\rightarrow$ and $O(p_k, t_1)$ appearing in the *Consideration* operator, it moves into *Consideration* (box 3).

Consideration has alternative possible outcomes (outputs). This is what the arrows-dot symbol that divides it into two parts connotes. The possible outputs are: (i) an option being accepted for *Action* as shown by the triple-line arrows to (box 5); (ii) *Consideration* of revised options (see the triple-line arrows box 3 to 4 or 4 back to 4); or (iii) *Consideration* stopping (see the arrow to 'Stop' from boxes 3 and 4). From Fig. 12.1 one sees that messaging out to the external environment begins in *Consideration*. *Consideration* appearing twice in Fig. 12.1 (boxes 3 and 4) emphasizes that modifying options in an evoked set can be iterative (repeated). This is identified symbolically by the *Consideration* expressions (boxes 3 and 4) and by triple-line arrows showing that a set, $O(p_k, t_n)$, can be modified to $O(p_k, t_{n+1})$, with $O(p_k, t_{n+1})$ then being *Considered*.

Figure 12.2 provides special insight into *Consideration*. In thinking about this figure it is important to recognize why there is concern with social interaction and other factors influencing what happens in a given *Consideration* step. Certain information (e.g. on rates or availability of reservations) being obtained or particular social contacts being made can prompt evoked set revision. Such revision causes an interim decision. One of the *three possible outcomes* of an iteration of *Consideration* is selected (stop, accept or consider the revised options). An iteration can be thought of as involving getting input, manipulating information mentally and making a decision that terminates the cycle. The figure may seem to suggest that what transpires in a cycle (as identified in Fig. 12.2) goes on in some amorphous way but, as introduced earlier, what happens during an iteration of *Consideration* causes a decision terminating it to be taken.[7] That decision *need not be compensatory*. It could be lexicographic (e.g. Payne *et al.*, 1990; or Reed, 1996, chapter 14).

Information exchange based on symbolic interaction with significant others – this can include 2-way messaging on desires, interests and information, which can include misinformation and emotional manipulation, to influence behaviour

Social, economic, cultural, geographic, etc. factors that influence the individual

Decisions revising evoked set

Consideration Process not pursued (see Fig. 12.1. move (3) or (4) to Stop)

Social pressure

Boxes with thick frames crossing triple lines show interaction with the external environment

The individual's specific mental processes and 'automatic' reactions e.g. skills, values, decision processes, motivations and interests

Assessment of evoked set members (e.g. mental drama of what will happen with each option)

Modified evoked set

Action option selected (see Fig. 12.1 move to (5))

Information search from media or using sources that do not have a personal relationship to the searcher (non-interactive media, Internet sites as well as sales people can try to manipulate the searcher)

Information processed from memory. In the expressions a distinction is made between current contextual information, current 'input' and stored 'data'

Decision on how to proceed with a revised evoked set

Initial entry to process

See Fig. 12.1. The initial evoked set moves from (2) to (3)

See Fig. 12.1. If consideration is to continue the modified evoked set goes back as input

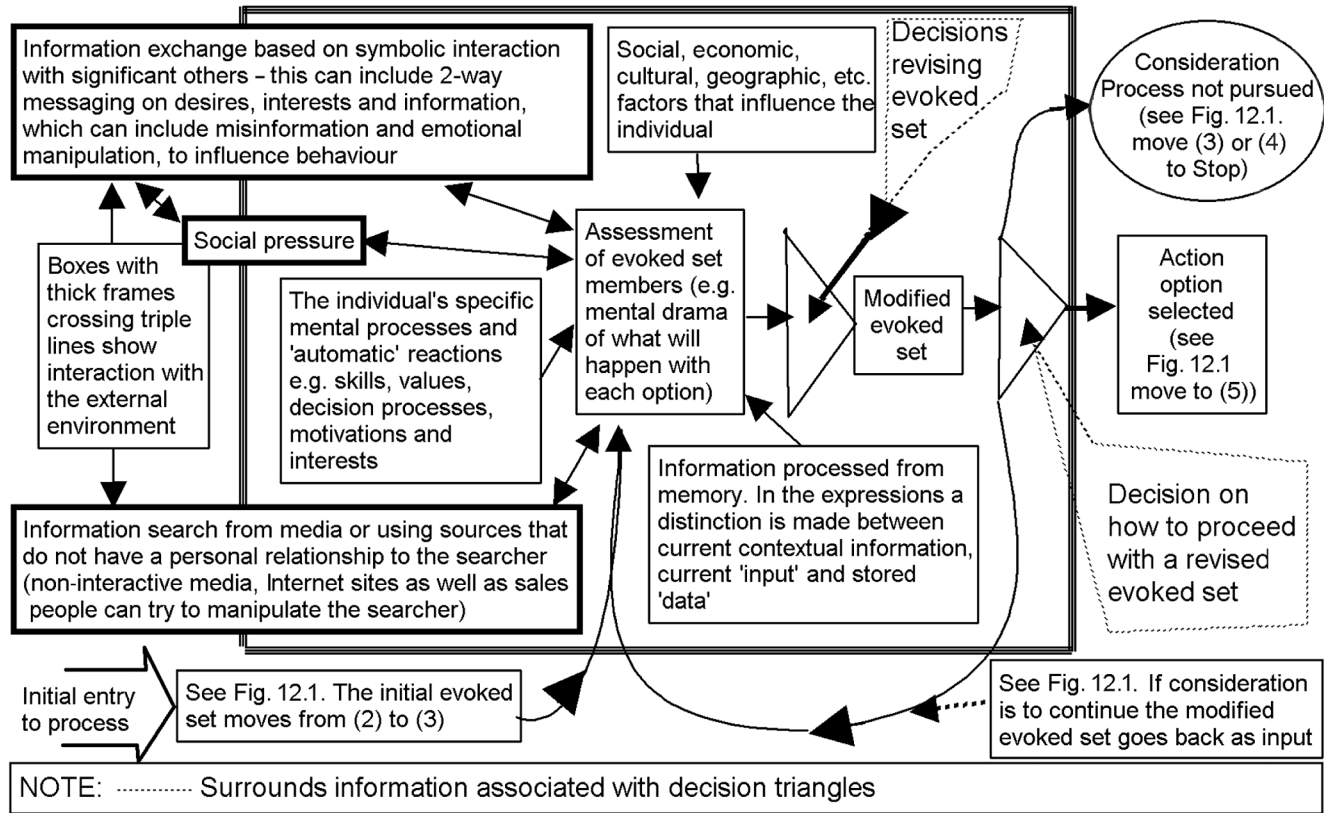NOTE: ·········· Surrounds information associated with decision triangles

Fig. 12.2. A *Consideration* cycle: some details.

In the literature, modifying evoked sets and considering the new set is, in some cases, acknowledged by descriptions of moving from an early evoked set to some final set (e.g. Crompton and Ankomah, 1993). Actually, *Consideration* can end without any action other than stopping consideration of travelling. Of course, people interviewed on a trip moved on to *Action* on that trip but, as noted in Fig. 12.1, even deciding to act on a travel option may not result in travel (Woodside and MacDonald, 1994).

Behaviour and the Operator Model

To see the kind of behaviour that is consistent with the operator expressions for decision making, think about social interaction and information search occurring over time in relation to an *Urge*. If p_k is not travelling alone, communication with potential co-travellers is needed. Any message between people must be considered as having psychosocial goals, so information transmitted must be taken as directed to achieving certain objectives. A message from, e.g., p_1, causing an *Urge* to travel in p_2, can be meant to get a favourable decision on a single option. p_1 may try to limit information search and social interaction (e.g. discussion of trip options) by p_2 to see that if any options are recognized, only ones favoured by p_1 come under *Consideration*. Clearly, information search and social interaction need not result in unbiased information being used by p_2. The two people may agree to a strategy for each to pursue for one or several cycles of *Consideration*. In it, p_1 could do all the search work because p_2 participates that way with someone like p_1 in decisions on the kind of travel being considered (DeCrop, 1999). Assume that in cycles of *Consideration* one option is dropped because p_2 does not like it and another created to replace it that both parties agree to. A survey that does not result in recognizing what happened yields an invalid picture of the micro-level decision making process.

The example just presented introduces some important matters. A key one is that people may be in different classes/categories based on how they receive and react to a particular *Urge* (Woodside and MacDonald, 1994; DeCrop, 1999; McGuiggan, 2003). Then, as introduced earlier, the outcome of decision making in relation to an *Urge* can depend on circumstances. What happens in interaction with the external environment during *Consideration* can cause the process *to tend toward* one end or another. What happens is a sequence in time in which 'interim' decisions depend on, e.g. who is around to 'take a call'. What happens is not just a function of sources of information used, of number of sources, or of people contacted. The timing of obtaining particular information or of contacts made may be the key to understanding the flow of the decision process toward an overall outcome. This is just another way of stating that travel decision models should have their 'end' dependent on the process.

Implications of the Operator Model for Tourism Research

Implications of the operator model formulation can be divided into three broad categories: estimating models, conceptualizing decision making as a process and modelling the process, and survey research involving understanding decision making. Though there are interrelations between these, comments are by category.

Estimating models

Modelling decision making using designed experiments, such as Crouch and Louviere (2001), has not been mentioned earlier in this article. This is because this work and 'traditional' analyses using regression techniques, including analysis of variance, are not addressing the micro-level dynamic matters raised here. Furthermore, problems with the kinds of models cited and structural equation models (SEM), sometimes referred to as path or causal analysis, have been raised regarding: (i) decisions being modelled as compensatory; and (ii) models with inappropriate structures being estimated and accepted (e.g. Bates, 1998; Gärling, 1998; Pendyala, 1998). Now, it may be possible for a choice model (e.g.

Louviere *et al.*, 2000) to be formulated so that micro-level dynamics are considered. Other 'non-traditional' modelling, including the use of neural-network and SEM, offer great promise for model development because they are meant to address dynamic phenomena. This research provides ideas that are useful for model development using these methods.

Conceptualizing decision making as a process and modelling the process

Though this chapter is about decision making as a process, it can only contribute a limited amount to the large volume of work that needs to be done. It does complement other ongoing research that is qualitative (e.g. DeCrop and Snelders, 2003) by providing a formal framework built on concepts in the literature. By doing this, other research is facilitated. The authors see survey research that adds to knowledge about attributes related to the operator model formulation as critical. The next section pursues survey-related research.

Moving ahead with formalization of the travel decision process need not involve using the operator model scheme introduced. Applying SEM will foster conceptual development, because drawing causal path diagrams that mimic/approximate real-world causality facilitates using the method. However, drawing realistic diagrams highlights the need for survey/observational research that clearly identifies what is happening. When one accepts the micro-picture of the decision process introduced, then some research needs to be revised to reflect that. For example, Crompton and Ankomah (1993) recognize the need for data and analysis, such as found in work initiated in the late 1990s by DeCrop (1999); however, their propositions need to be reformulated. This is because when there are recognizably different responses to urges that relate to types of urge and who is 'urged', it is necessary to assess how the propositions apply in that context. For those people who do not get involved in a particular type of decision, the propositions are virtually irrelevant. How they apply to certain other cases will not be known until more research is completed on individuals' participation in types of decisions.

A personal interest of the authors is developing a computerized version of the operator model that can be used to simulate behaviour. Results of survey research are necessary to create a realistic model. However, with such a model, one can create data with known attributes. These data, for example, can be used to see if 'surveys' based on some of the data generated yield valid conclusions with given analysis procedures.

Survey research involving understanding decision making

Shoemaker (1994) has selected survey respondents only if they played a significant role in the decision to take a trip. This is not common practice. What has been presented here actually shows that the nature and dynamics of involvement in the decision process must be understood if individuals' decision making is to be understood. Some people have complicated involvement with other people over time in reaching a decision. Asking the person who did not search for information about their searching presents the same problems as asking about attitudes when attitudes of another person played a significant role in deciding what to do. Then, there is the matter of dynamics. How did social interaction and information search contribute to the final decision? Demographic data and numbers or types of information sources do not address the importance of a particular social contact occurring or some particular information being obtained at a given time. There possibly being a sequence of decisions that are made in different ways (e.g. compensatory or lexicographic) to reach an *end* is yet something else that needs to be recognized in analyses. Many things need to be taken into account to even approximate individual decision making with reasonable accuracy.

It should be clear that a practical way to collect data that can be analysed to study matters that have been raised is by seeing that data collected allow for appropriate segmentation. This is achieved by using a priori segmentation. Such segmentation refers to planning data collection, so that responses to

questions asked allow the classification of trip decision information into the categories needed, so what is happening in the decision process can be understood. Table 12.1 provides a basis for implementing such segmentation by presenting potential survey questions. One sees that asking what or who caused an urge to travel matters. This is because a stimulus coming from somebody to please is likely to have a different consequence than a stimulus being an advertisement on TV. The questions for *Formulation* may seem obtuse. However, if a family regularly goes somewhere, options may only become an issue with change, e.g. the kids growing up. Furthermore, for an oft-repeated trip, limited information search can be expected. A dimension of this is that not searching because it is not needed should be recognized as different from letting somebody else search while still depending on searching being done. The second *Formulation* question relates to the matter of a very specific *Urge*, e.g. going to X for the weekend, not having a specific consequence. One person may acquiesce to a specific request to take a certain kind of trip while another takes the request as an invitation to raise alternatives. What is in Table 12.1 about *Consideration* should cause one to think about

indicators such as the number of cycles of *Consideration*. Of course, information about what goes on in cycles, particularly what causes an interim decision to be taken ending a cycle, is important.

A technical matter is that getting information about processes can present problems because conventional fixed-length questionnaires or questionnaires with fixed substructure for cycles are not really appropriate structures for data capture. However, moving to new data structures involves learning and thinking through new approaches to analysis.[8] Research is needed on effective data capture and analysis methodology for micro-level travel decision making data.

An option under study for improving survey research on decision making is formalizing the assumptions associated with *Urge*, *Formulation* and *Consideration*, so that logical deduction and simulation can be employed in establishing viable survey structures. Research on alternative data structures and on effective data capture and analysis methods to use for such data is not a priority for the authors until there is more progress in codifying what to collect. For now, taking into account questions like those in Table 12.1 in planning research is seen as the viable approach for improving survey data collection.

Table 12.1. Holiday travel decision process: rationale and potential survey questions.

Part of Decision	Questions related to information to collect	Rationale for the information being important in some contexts
Urge	What or who was the source?	Pleasing somebody has special impact.
	How specific was the '*Urge*'?	Something specific can be acted on directly.
Formulation	Is repetition of travel involved?	Particular action is to be expected.
	Was a very specific suggestion just thought provoking?	Having a specific trip option suggested can cause a range of thought rather than action.
Consideration	Was there really anything to consider?	An offer to go with a friend or on a company may not involve options other than go or not.
	What happened during *Consideration* in terms of social interaction, information search to change destinations considered? What was their sequence? What pressures were brought to bear or did you feel from sales people or friends, etc.?	Modifications to evoked sets can arise from information search and social interaction. In terms of DeCrop's (1999) classes, of actual information search and of social interaction, it is reasonable to think that for many studies the data collected from many respondents will have little to do with their travel decision (e.g. to be where interviewed).
	Were 'dummy' options introduced as part of bargaining?	If options listed in data are for bargaining, treating them as 'real' is not appropriate.

Reflections/Conclusion

This chapter has used an operator model formulation in pursuing matters that are *as important* in understanding decision making as collecting data from people who were actively involved in decision making. The discussion of the implications of this research for research on decision making has resulted in recognizing that a critical matter is developing an understanding of processes at the micro-level. Progress in understanding individuals' decision making depends both on getting data and on concept development. Concept development is necessary so that the data collected are actually useful for elucidating important structural matters. It is reasonable to think that progress in understanding structure will result in capabilities to develop viable process models that can be used in research on survey and analysis methodology. Therefore, it is hoped that what has been presented encourages data collection and model development that serves to improve the understanding of individuals' travel decision making.

Notes

[1] See, e.g. Huan *et al.* (2002) for some information about Taiwan's survey of outbound international visitors.

[2] 'Typically' is used in this paragraph based on the scarcity of articles actually addressing social interaction.

[3] For example, one has statements of the form: being an X is associated with doing Y more than most people. This is a statement about aggregate influence not individual behaviour.

[4] One way to incorporate such influences is to define causal elements of the process using structural equation modelling (SEM). Whether viable forms of such models can be defined for the process is research that can be pursued.

[5] For detail one is obliged to read much of the material in a book such as Reed (1996).

[6] To avoid making a notation that some may find confusing even more complex, the expressions apply to a particular urge. An operand could identify a particular urge. Then one could have multiple sets of expressions for a person. How operations for different urges might be interrelated (e.g. because of budget, time conflict, etc.) becomes an issue. The notation is actually simplified in other ways, e.g. by not having subscripts for T, E and R showing that it is what is in them at a given time that matters.

[7] Note that much of the literature assumes that there is no iteration so there is input as per Fig. 12.2 followed by a decision. Modelling of the decision, based on the regression methods often used, takes the decision to be compensatory.

[8] A 'natural' capture involves data capture as occurs for an object in motion with various things influencing its motion. What happens when and how influences operate must be recorded to understand what is happening to it.

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Chapter thirteen
A Duality in Vacation Decision Making

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Abstract

This chapter examines consumer decision making for choice of elements in the independent vacation. Both destination marketing organizations and tourism businesses would benefit from an understanding of which vacation elements are typically chosen by the traveller pre-trip versus which vacation elements are typically chosen while on vacation. Previous studies on the subject have produced conflicting results. The chapter seeks to explain these discrepancies by referring to the concept of a traveller's familiarity with the destination. Furthermore, the chapter suggests a duality might exist in vacation decision making. Pre-trip decision making might best be described as deliberate, purposeful and reasoned. On-vacation decision making might at times be described as light-hearted, free-spirited and hedonistic. The extent to which such a duality exists has yet to be established empirically.

Introduction

An understanding of vacation decision making is at the core of a consumer psychology of tourism. The following is a conceptual study that examines the sequence in which elements of the independent vacation are chosen.

The chapter commences with a review of several established models of vacation decision making, and draws conclusions regarding the ideal content of a model of vacation decision making. Baseline statements are made regarding pre-trip decision making and on-vacation decision making. Discrepancies are noted in the findings of three previous studies on the subject – the study presented by Hyde (2000) at the First Symposium on

the Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure, the study by Fesenmaier and Jeng (2000) and the study presented by King and Woodside (2001) at the Second Symposium. To explain these discrepancies, the concept of familiarity with the destination is employed. The chapter suggests that pre-trip decision making and on-vacation decision making represent a duality in vacation decision making. The characteristics of these two modes are outlined.

Models of Vacation Decision Making

The field of consumer psychology is founded on the perspective of the consumer as a prob-

lem solver. The Engel *et al.* (1968) model suggests that consumer behaviour consists of four components: inputs to the decision process, information processing, the decision process and other variables influencing the decision process. The decision process is said to consist of five steps, namely problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase outcomes.

An alternative perspective is the view of the consumer as a pleasure seeker. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) pointed out that the seeking of emotional arousal is a major motivation for the consumption of certain product classes, including the arts, entertainment, sports and leisure pursuits such as tourism. The traditional view of the consumer as a problem solver might be inappropriate to describe these purchases, which are based on satisfying emotional wants rather than utilitarian needs.

During the 1980s, a number of models of consumer behaviour in tourism were presented. The models of van Raaij and Francken (1984), Moutinho (1987), Woodside and Lysonski (1989), and Um and Crompton (1990) in particular attracted attention. Each of these models drew on the perspective of the consumer as a problem solver.

van Raaij and Francken (1984) proposed a model of vacation decision making, represented as a sequence of sub-decisions. That sequence is: (i) the generic decision to spend on a vacation; (ii) information acquisition; (iii) joint decision making by husband and wife; (iv) experience of the vacation; and (v) subsequent levels of satisfaction.

According to Moutinho (1987), tourism marketing is based on understanding how consumers perceive destination areas, how they learn about their tourism options, how they make travel decisions and how personality influences these decisions. Marketing stimuli, social factors, characteristics of the destination and other external factors are listed as influences on the choice of travel destination.

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) presented a model on tourist destination awareness and choice. The model proposes a sequence of events in destination choice, namely awareness, affective associations, preferences, intentions and choice. Marketing activities, personal and social factors are listed as influences.

According to Um and Crompton (1990), passive information capturing may lead to formation of an awareness set of travel destinations. Active search for information on destinations, and consideration of such constraints as time and cost, will reduce this awareness set to a smaller consideration set. Attitudes may be formed towards each destination in the consideration set.

Each of these models, however, is limited, in that it seeks to explain a singular decision regarding the vacation, namely choice of primary destination (Decrop, 1999), but vacations are much more than travel to a destination. Vacation decision making is a particularly complex and multi-faceted affair, involving a great number of decisions made over a period of days, weeks or months.

Many independent vacations are multi-destinational, or touring, in nature (Lue *et al.*, 1993). A model of vacation decision making should consider not only the traveller's choice of primary destination, but choice of secondary destinations as well.

A model of vacation decision making should also consider the traveller's choice of accommodation and transport options, choice of travel route, choice of attractions and activities, and choice of dining and shopping options. Woodside and MacDonald (1994) provided a framework that comprehensively covers consumer choice of all these major elements in the vacation. Their model proposes that choices of tourism-related services are each *interdependent* to some degree, but these researchers pointed out that there is a need to research the sequence of decision making amongst the elements of the vacation. Does choice of secondary destinations precede choice of attractions and activities, for example, or does choice of attractions and activities precede choice of secondary destinations?

Baseline Statements

Several initial statements can be made regarding the sequence in which elements of the independent vacation are chosen.

Regarding the decision making processes of the traveller before they depart on vacation, that is their pre-trip decision making, it can be said that:

- all travellers choose their primary destination and means of transport to the destination before departure;
- some travellers undertake deliberate and purposeful research of their destination and the vacation elements available;
- some travellers choose some vacation elements – secondary destinations, accommodation and transport options, travel route, attractions and activities, dining and shopping options;
- some travellers neither research nor decide upon vacation elements before departure.

Regarding the decision making processes that occur while on vacation, it can be said that:

- a proportion of all the traveller's vacation elements will be chosen while on vacation; and
- that proportion is greater than zero;
- all travellers research and explore their destination while on vacation.

It is of considerable interest to business and to destination marketing organizations to know which vacation elements are typically chosen prior to departure versus which elements are typically chosen while on vacation. If vacation elements are chosen pre-trip, then marketing communications efforts and expenditure should be concentrated on the prospective traveller resident at their home. If vacation elements are chosen on vacation, then marketing communications efforts and expenditures should be concentrated on the traveller *in situ.*

Existing research presents conflicting evidence on the sequence in which elements of the vacation are chosen.

Hyde's Model of the Vacation as 'Evolving Itinerary'

According to Hyde (2000), the independent vacation is like experiencing the 'fun of the fairground', a freewheeling experience of travelling from place to place, relatively unaware of what each secondary destination has to offer. An integral feature of independent travel is the enjoyment the consumer experiences from *not* planning the details of the vacation but rather from experiencing the unknown and unexpected. Rather than following a fixed itinerary, the elements of an independent vacation evolve as the vacation proceeds.

Hyde studied the vacations of 20 travel parties who were visiting New Zealand for the first time. In New Zealand, the primary attractions are geographically dispersed and the tourist must choose a route connecting their selection of secondary destinations. New Zealand has one of the highest lengths of stay and intra-national dispersion of tourists of any international destination (Oppermann, 1994). Travel parties were interviewed both at the beginning and at the end of their vacations, to compare vacation research and plans with actual vacation behaviours undertaken. Lengths of vacation varied from 10 to 88 days.

According to Hyde, a plan to visit a series of secondary destinations is formulated prior to the vacation commencing. This plan will be acted upon, but other vacation elements will not be chosen until the tourist is on vacation. The tourist's choice of attractions and activities is generally delayed until the day of arrival at a secondary destination. The tourist takes advantage of serendipitous opportunities to experience a number of secondary destinations, attractions and activities that they had neither actively researched nor planned. According to Hyde, the sequence of vacation decision making is firstly choice of secondary destinations, then choice of travel route, then choice of attractions and activities.

Fesenmaier and Jeng (2000)

Fesenmaier and Jeng (2000) asked participants in an experiment to imagine a 2–4 day domestic vacation trip, and consider which of 14 vacation elements they might plan before departure. Three levels of vacation decision making were identified. A set of core decisions were made early in vacation planning; these decisions included choice of primary destination, location of overnight stay/s and travel route. A second set of decisions, made prior to departure but somewhat flexible, included choice of secondary destinations, attractions and activities for the vacation. In general, the only elements of the vacation decided upon while on vacation were matters such as the choice of where to shop and

where to dine. Thus, for a hypothetical trip to what is probably a familiar domestic destination, most elements of the vacation appeared to have been chosen pre-trip.

King and Woodside's Model of the Vacation as Purchase–Consumption System

King and Woodside (2001) employed the concept of a purchase–consumption system (PCS) to model vacation decision making. A PCS is a sequence of purchases a consumer undertakes, in which the purchase of one item triggers the purchase of several others. This concept provides a framework for understanding the interrelated nature of decisions taken in selection of vacation elements.

The King and Woodside study involved analysis of the vacations of 68 travel parties to the Big Island of Hawaii. The Big Island is a destination dominated by a single attraction, the Hawaii Volcano National Park, and the tourists' vacations varied from 1 to 12 days in duration. Data on the travel parties were gathered retrospectively, at the end of their vacations. The data confirms that: some vacation elements were not planned before the start of the vacation; some vacation elements may be chosen either pre-trip or on-vacation; and some decisions within a tourist's PCS are dependent on prior purchases that trigger these later purchases.

Within the vacations of these tourists, King and Woodside recognized three levels of decision making. Level 1 decisions were made in the early stages of vacation planning, and involved selection of the primary destination, plus the attractions and activities to visit. Level 2 decisions were also made before the vacation commenced, and involved choice of travel route and accommodation. Level 3 decisions were made while on vacation, and principally involved choice of where to dine and where to shop.

A Comparison of Models

Woodside and MacDonald had challenged researchers to discover the sequence of deci-

sion making amongst the elements of the vacation. It is on this point that the datasets of Hyde, Fesenmaier and Jeng, and King and Woodside differ markedly. Amongst the tourists to New Zealand studied by Hyde, choice of secondary destinations appeared to precede choice of attractions and activities; choice of attractions and activities were largely made while on vacation. Amongst the subjects in Fesenmaier and Jeng's experiment, choice of secondary destinations, attractions and activities were generally made prior to departure. Amongst the tourists to the Big Island studied by King and Woodside, choice of attractions and activities preceded choice of secondary destinations; choice of attractions and activities were largely made concurrent with the choice of primary destination.

There is, therefore, conflicting evidence from existing published studies into the sequence and timing of choice of vacation elements. Potential explanations for these findings could include differences in characteristics of the destinations visited, differences in the ease with which vacation elements can be purchased prior to departure, or differences in the characteristics of travellers to those destinations.

Familiarity with the Destination

One explanation for these findings that deserves further attention is the degree of familiarity the traveller has with the destination. Familiarity with the destination could be based on prior visits, or based on considerable pre-vacation information search by the traveller. Past research has suggested the importance of familiarity with the destination.

Cooper (1981) observed the vacations of visitors to the Channel Island of Jersey. Most visitors visited the familiar, top-of-mind attractions in their first 2 or 3 days of the vacation. It was only in the last days of their vacation that visitors chose to view the island's less familiar attractions.

In their study of visitors to Alachua County, Florida, Crotts and Reid (1993) noted that many domestic visitors, familiar with the destination, had chosen their vacation activities pre-trip, while many long-haul

international visitors, less familiar with the destination, chose their vacation activities while on vacation.

Oppermann (1997) examined the vacations of first-time versus repeat visitors to New Zealand. His data showed that first-time visitors visited more secondary destinations, attractions and activities than did repeat visitors. One obvious explanation for this finding is that first-time visitors display exploratory and variety-seeking behaviour; they seek to experience and understand as much of the destination as time, effort and expense allow. They seek to *become familiar* with the destination. Repeat visitors, on the other hand, are already familiar with the destination, and may seek to repeat just those vacation elements they enjoyed on the first visit to the destination.

Returning to the datasets of Hyde, Fesenmaier and Jeng, and King and Woodside, familiarity with the destination may offer an explanation for these conflicting findings. The most likely reason that respondents in Hyde's study had planned very few vacation elements was that they were visiting an unfamiliar international destination. The vacation to New Zealand was going to be a relatively long one, and as the vacation proceeded, the tourist was exposed to many secondary destinations, attractions and activities they had not previously been aware of.

The most likely reason that the respondents in Fesenmaier and Jeng's study had planned most of their vacation elements was that they were visiting a familiar domestic destination.

The most likely reason that respondents in King and Woodside's study had pre-planned their choice of attractions, activities and travel route was that they were familiar with the vacation elements on offer in the Big Island before their vacation commenced. For many of these tourists, their vacation was dominated by the 'icon' attraction of the Hawaii Volcano National Park. Their choices of secondary destinations and attractions to experience were predetermined by their desire to visit the Volcano National Park. The destination visited was geographically smaller; the vacation experienced was noticeably briefer in duration. As a result, the proportion of vacation elements chosen under conditions of unfamiliarity was smaller than for the tourists on a New Zealand vacation.

This distinction then, between vacations experienced under conditions of familiarity, and vacations experienced under conditions of unfamiliarity, provides a valuable framework from which to view vacation decision making. While use of this concept of familiarity with the destination may appear self-evident (i.e. 'the traveller who plans most is the traveller who knows most'), it may prove a valuable tool in understanding variations in the *sequence* in which elements of a vacation are chosen.

Consumers at Play

To date, models of vacation decision making have taken the perspective of the consumer as a problem solver (Engel *et al.*, 1968), but the perspective of the consumer as a pleasure seeker may also prove valuable (Holbrook and Hirschmann, 1982). The view of the consumer as a pleasure seeker argues that many consumer choices result from the human need to experience feelings and emotions. Decision making processes for choice of leisure and tourism services may revolve around the consumer's goal of provoking feelings and emotions, rather than seeking to solve problems. The evidence here suggests that consumers at play display pleasure-seeking and variety-seeking behaviours, and make choices amongst alternative activities in a relatively light-hearted and unconsidered manner.

Elliott and Hamilton (1991) studied consumer choice of evening, out-of-home leisure activities. The researchers interviewed 560 young consumers immediately before they engaged in an evening leisure activity. Their study suggested that choice of such activities usually involves the use of simple heuristics, such as 'doing something different for a change', rather than extensive decision making.

From their intensive study of consumers of river rafting, Arnould and Price (1993) provide some intriguing conclusions regarding

decision processes for choice of leisure activities. Consumers of leisure activities may seek intense emotional outcomes but not know which alternatives will produce them. In their study, Arnould and Price found information search for choice of rafting trip to be minimal. Even though river rafting costs a lot of time and money, consumers did not appear to think carefully about their choices. Arnould and Price suggested that consumers' limited expectations may even have contributed to the satisfaction experienced, in the sense that experiencing the unknown was a source of thrill.

Kemperman *et al.* (1997), in their study of a consumer's choice of activities in a theme park, found strong evidence of variety seeking amongst consumers at play. Much like the diner at a buffet meal, the visitor to a theme park wants to sample a little of everything on offer; they want to feel that they have not missed out on some important element the theme park has to offer. The findings of Oppermann (1997) regarding first-time versus repeat visitors to an international destination, suggest that travellers to an unfamiliar destination might also display variety-seeking behaviour.

There is some evidence then, from studies of consumers at play, that on-vacation decision making might be characterized by a less deliberate, most simplistic decision process, and a desire for variety seeking when choosing vacation elements.

A Suggested Duality in Vacation Decision-Making

It may well be that the typical processes of vacation decision making which occur pre-trip are distinct from the decision making processes which occur on vacation. There may exist a duality in vacation decision making.

Pre-trip vacation decision making for the independent traveller might best be described as deliberate, purposeful and reasoned. Many vacationers are highly involved in the selection of the vacation destination/s and the planning of a vacation itinerary. During this phase, many tourists undertake extensive information search, including use of travel books and travel brochures, use of travel industry personnel and, increasingly, use of the Internet. Information search and comparison of alternatives may proceed over a period of days, weeks or months. A primary destination is chosen. Secondary destinations, travel routes, attractions and activities may also be chosen. Where the travel party consists of more than one person, negotiation and compromise occur between the parties. The perspective of the consumer as a problem solver is an appropriate framework for understanding pre-trip vacation decision making.

On-vacation decision making might at times be described as light-hearted, free-spirited and hedonistic. Vacation time represents distinct occasions in a consumer's life; the consumer on vacation is a consumer at play (Mergen, 1986; Ryan, 2002). Just as a consumer's choice of leisure activities can be based on minimal information search and use of simple choice heuristics, so might a consumer's choice of options while on vacation. Consumers on vacation seek new and novel experiences. They are explorers. Like visitors to a theme park, consumers on vacation can exhibit variety-seeking behaviours. On vacation, consumers can also be more free-spending, and purchase more items of a purely hedonistic nature. The perspective of the consumer as a pleasure seeker is an appropriate framework for understanding on-vacation decision making.

Discussion

This chapter has presented an alternative framework for understanding vacation decision making. This framework concerns itself with the sequence of decision making amongst vacation elements. It recognizes that the sequence of decision making displayed may vary according to the tourist's degree of familiarity with the destination.

The managerial implications of this framework are obvious. If we wish to influence a consumer's decision making for choice of a particular vacation element, such as choice of attraction or activity, then we need to know where in the chronology of the vacation that point of decision making is.

As each month goes by, the Internet expands in volume. Tourists to an unfamiliar destination now have ready access to minutiae of detail on the primary and secondary destinations they may visit. More and more tourists are using the Internet to assist their pre-vacation planning (Bonn *et al.*, 2001). This raises the possibility that the bulk of tourists will become more familiar with their intended destinations than was formerly the case. It raises the possibility that a greater proportion of tourists will demonstrate vacation decision making under conditions of familiarity, and a smaller proportion of tourists will demonstrate vacation decision making under conditions of unfamiliarity. This is a point worthy of research.

The suggestions made in this chapter are at best tentative. The chapter suggests that future research into vacation decision making should recognize a duality in vacation decision making processes – pre-trip versus on-vacation decision making. The extent of that duality has yet to be established empirically. In particular, *in situ* research of the decision processes of consumers on vacation is a valuable field of investigation.

Both macro-models and micro-models of vacation decision making are required. Macro-models of the vacation are required, models that can provide a comprehensive framework encompassing choice of all elements of the vacation. One such model is the General Theory of Tourism Consumption Systems (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). A micro-model of vacation decision making is also required, which describes the precise *in situ* decision processes employed by the consumer while on vacation, for choice of an attraction, activity, retail store, restaurant, accommodation house, secondary destination or travel route.

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Chapter fourteen

A Model of Vacation Choice: an Integration of Personality and Vacation Choice with Leisure Constraints Theory

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Abstract

Over the years, a number of tourist choice models have been advanced by researchers but, in the study of tourist choice, two areas in particular appear to be lacking – the possible role of the individual difference variable, personality, in that choice, and the importance of constraints during the choice process. This chapter presents a model of vacation choice based on the constraints model of leisure participation proposed by Crawford *et al.* (*Leisure Sciences* 13, 309–320, 1991) and modified by Jackson *et al.* (*Leisure Sciences* 15, 1–11, 1993), but incorporating the individual difference variable, personality. In building on Jackson *et al.*'s model, it is proposed that personality will influence vacation preference through the development of motives, and that personality will influence the perception of both intrapersonal constraints and assessment of the ability to negotiate them. It is further proposed that an individual's weighted motives will give rise to weighted vacation attribute preferences and that successful negotiation of interpersonal constraints will lead to jointly agreed weighted vacation attribute preferences.

Introduction

There can be little doubt as to the importance of the tourism industry to Australia. Tourism is recognized as the country's largest industry and the major producer of export income, as well as the greatest generator of employment (Fiszman, 2000). In 1999–2000, tourism represented 14.1% of Australia's total export earnings and comprised 61.9% of services exports (Bureau of Tourism Research, 2000). During 1997–1998, tourism expenditure directly contributed $25.2 billion or 4.5% to Australia's gross domestic product. 'Holidays' (as in travel for leisure), is the most popular reason given for travel to and from Australia. For the year ended June 2000, 55.7% of inbound travellers and 48% of domestic travellers quoted 'holidays' as their main purpose of journey (Bureau of Tourism Research, 2000). Holidays or vacations are a highly regarded leisure activity and have become a cultural norm, not only for Australian society, but also for many societies around the world (Kelly and Freysinger, 2000).

Considering the size and growth rate of the tourism industry and the importance placed on touristic activities, the tourism mar-

ket presents substantial opportunities for further development. By improving their understanding of tourist behaviour, marketers will become more effective in serving the needs, and meeting the expectations, of tourists (Morrison *et al.*, 1994).

For a marketer in tourism, understanding why people decide to travel and influences on their choice of destination are of critical importance in developing appropriate marketing strategies. Woodside and Carr (1988, p. 2) note that 'most consumers making vacation plans "actively consider" (evaluate the pros and cons of) about four vacation destination choices'. How are these destinations selected for evaluation? To complicate matters further, consumers may perceive the same destination as offering totally different experiences. For example, one tourist may see a trip to Vanuatu as offering a tranquil environment in which to relax, do nothing and recuperate from work, whereas another may envisage active water sports such as sailing, snorkelling and scuba diving. In marketing a destination, it is important to understand customers' vacation needs and preferences and their underlying influences.

Although a number of tourist choice models have been advanced by researchers over the years (e.g. Goodrich, 1978; Moutinho, 1987; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Haider and Ewing, 1990; Sirakaya *et al.*, 1996; Moutinho, 2000), two specific areas of research have been neglected in the study of tourist choice:

- the role that the individual difference variable – personality – might play in that choice; and
- the role of constraints during the choice process.

The objective of this chapter is to present a model of vacation choice based on the constraints model of leisure participation developed by Crawford *et al.* (1991) and modified by Jackson *et al.* (1993), but which also incorporates the individual difference variable, personality.

Personality and Vacation Choice

With the consumption of tourism products being highly individualized, a clear understanding of consumer behaviour and psychology is fundamental if businesses are to develop products, services and promotions that satisfy the needs of their chosen market (Dickman, 1999). While there are a number of psychological factors that may be considered as objects of study, personality is one of the better known and, potentially, the most useful concept (Jackson *et al.*, 1999). Although personality research has gained prominence within the field of leisure over the past two decades, relatively little tourism research has focused on examining the personality of tourists.

Plog (1972) was the first to conduct research on personality as applied specifically to tourists (Madrigal, 1995). He sought to link personality traits directly with tourist behaviour and distributed tourists over categories along a bell curve, from psychocentrics to allocentrics. According to his model, psychocentrics are persons who are less adventurous, inward looking, who prefer familiarity in their surroundings and concentrate on popular destinations such as Coney Island and Miami Beach (Plog, 1972). Allocentrics, at the other end of the continuum, are adventurous and prepared to take risks and frequent destinations which appeal to their sense of adventure and novelty, such as Africa (Sharpley, 1994). Plog's model is the most well-known and applied personality construct within the field of tourism. Although some support for Plog's model, particularly in relation to locus of control, has been forthcoming (Nickerson and Ellis, 1991; Griffith and Albanese, 1996), other researchers have found little to support his model (e.g. Lee-Hoxter and Lester, 1988; Smith, 1990; Madrigal, 1995; Jackson *et al.*, 1999). Thus the ability of Plog's model to adequately explain tourist behaviour has not been proved and its usefulness in adding to the current understanding of tourists is questionable.

In recognition of the shortcomings of Plog's model, a small number of researchers have adopted a more conservative approach in their investigations of the tourist–personality relationship, utilizing better-known personality measures. For example, Gilchrist *et al.* (1995) investigated the relationship between sensation-seeking and adventure

travel. They observed that adventure travellers scored significantly higher on Zuckerman's (1991) sensation-seeking scale. Frew and Shaw (1997, 1998) were able to demonstrate a link between personality and tourist attractions using Holland's (1985) theory of personality types. They found that of the 93 combinations of personality and tourist attractions examined, between one-third and one-half showed a significant relationship. Holbrook and Olney (1995) were able to demonstrate a relationship between the personality variable of romanticism and wanderlust, with the preference for more risky vacations and warmer climates.

Although studies on personality and tourist destination choice are limited, authors such as Fridgen (1996) argue that personality manifests itself in the travel decisions tourists make and their choices while on vacation. He suggests, for example, that an introverted person would not enjoy a vacation requiring extensive contact with strangers, while someone with a more conservative personality is unlikely to choose an adventure holiday (pp. 58–59).

The relationship between personality and leisure choice has been extensively studied, and there is strong evidence that a relationship exists (Furnham and Heaven, 1999). Recent studies in leisure research, which have demonstrated strong correlations between personality variables and leisure, have done so by addressing a number of the drawbacks in previous studies (McGuiggan, 1996, 2000). In particular, they have addressed the need to measure variables at the same level of abstraction, measuring activity attributes rather than the activity itself. They have also taken into consideration a number of other variables that may intervene between personality and leisure choice and so have measured leisure preference rather than actual choice. Since recreational tourism is a leisure activity (Iso-Ahola, 1983), it should follow that if the same issues are addressed in the study of tourism choice, such a relationship should also exist between personality and tourism preference.

Therefore in the study of the relationship between personality and tourism choice, it can be argued that the following should be considered in the model:

- tourist destinations should be measured in terms of attributes, rather than actual destinations;
- personality should be a predictor of tourist preference, rather than choice; and
- the role of other constraining variables needs to be considered in the relationship.

Constraints Theory

Although little research has been undertaken involving the role of constraints in tourist choice, a considerable body of literature has appeared since 1985 investigating constraints on leisure participation. Initially researchers equated constraints with barriers to participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Bialeschki and Henderson, 1988); more recent research has argued that constraints do not necessarily prohibit total engagement in an activity. Rather, constraints should be seen as modifiers of choice and participation, resulting in either non-participation or some revision of participation – for example, participation to a lesser extent or participation in a different activity (Crawford *et al.*, 1991; Jackson, 1993; Jackson and Rucks, 1995). It should also be noted that constraints might be perceived, rather than factual (Henderson *et al.*, 1988), or not be perceived, but still exist (Jackson, 1997).

A number of elements of leisure constraints have emerged from the literature that may be relevant in tourist choice. These are:

- Constraints can be classified into three types – intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural (Crawford *et al.*, 1991) – these may affect preference as well as participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987). While all studies appear to support the existence of these three categories of constraints, individual authors disagree on the classification of individual constraints. For example, Boothby *et al.* (1981) argue that time constraints are personal constraints, whereas most other researchers treat time as an external, structural constraint (Crawford *et al.*, 1991).
- There is a hierarchy of constraints from intrapersonal to interpersonal to structural (Crawford *et al.*, 1991), but Hudson (1998) argues that, at least in the case of snow skiing, this hierarchy may not hold.

• Constraints can vary in intensity and not all constraints will result in non-participation; rather participation will depend on the motivation and ability of the individual to negotiate through them (Jackson and Rucks, 1995).

Crawford *et al.*'s (1991) hierarchical model of leisure constraints is depicted in Fig. 14.1.

Intrapersonal constraints

Intrapersonal constraints have been conceptualized as being the first level of the hierarchy and influence preference, rather than intervening between preference and choice (Crawford *et al.*, 1991). They are defined by Crawford and Godbey (1987, p. 122) as 'individual psychological states and attributes' – for example, stress, depression, religiosity, anxiety, perceived self-skill and subjective evaluations of appropriateness of various activities. It is contended that if these intrapersonal constraints are too great, then no motivation to participate will eventuate. This does not imply that an individual does not have a need/want/interest to undertake an activity, but rather that there is insufficient motivation to progress further in the decision making process as the constraints on participation are already too great. Absence of these constraints, or successful negotiation of them, will lead to the development of preferences (Raymore *et al.*, 1993).

Interpersonal constraints

Interpersonal constraints 'involve the interactions and relationships between individuals' (Samdahl and Jekubovich, 1997, p. 431). The inability to find a partner or friend with

whom to engage in an activity would act as an interpersonal constraint, as would the non-compatibility of preferences, or the co-participant's structural constraints. Interpersonal constraints are seen as interacting with preference for, and also participation in, activities undertaken with others (Raymore *et al.*, 1993). If these constraints cannot be successfully negotiated then participation will not occur. If successful negotiation can occur, then a final level of constraints will be faced before participation is ensured.

Structural constraints

Structural constraints are those that occur between preference and participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987, p. 123). These constraints could involve factors such as financial resources, availability of time, family life cycle stage, season or climate, reference group attitudes as to appropriateness of the activity, lack of opportunity or access. It is reported that the absence of, or the successful negotiation of, these constraints will ensure participation.

Hierarchy of constraints

A number of authors have supported the breakdown of constraints into the three categories described above (e.g. Jackson *et al.*, 1993; Raymore *et al.*, 1993; Samdahl and Jekubovich, 1997; Hudson, 1998). Although Raymore *et al.*'s (1993) study provided strong support for the order of the hierarchy proposed by Crawford *et al.* (1991), other studies have not been able to replicate the hierarchy (Samdahl and Jekubovich, 1997; Hudson,
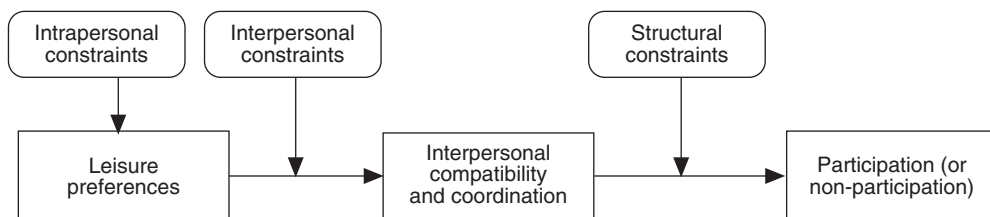

Fig. 14.1. A model of leisure constraints (Crawford *et al.*, 1991).

1998). Samdahl and Jekubovich's (1997) qualitative study provides some support for the hierarchical perspective, but they report that the evidence for the hierarchy is not absolute. For example, one of their respondents utilized an interpersonal relationship to overcome an intrapersonal constraint – lack of self-confidence in dining alone. Their argument is flawed – it could be argued that 'eating out' is regarded as a group activity in western culture and the respondent did not exhibit a lack of self-confidence in dining with others, only in dining alone. Therefore there was no intrapersonal constraint inhibiting her from dining with others, only interpersonal – identification of a dining companion. Furthermore, Jackson *et al.* (1993) do not expound that an intrapersonal constraint will invariably lead to non-participation, but can result in a negotiation process, which may lead to modification of the behaviour. So if eating out alone is the initial goal, then negotiation at the intrapersonal constraint level could lead to modification of the behaviour – eat out with a friend.

The results of Hudson's (1998) study are consistent with the first level in the hierarchy; he found intrapersonal constraints can determine preference. He found no evidence that people confront interpersonal constraints before structural constraints when deciding on a skiing holiday. He concluded that interpersonal constraints were the least evident in his study. Perhaps this is because his study focused on only one activity – skiing. He found that skiers appeared to have negotiated both intra- and interpersonal constraints, and their focus was mainly on structural constraints. Conversely, non-skiers scored high on intrapersonal constraints and showed a preference for not skiing. Their lack of interest in interpersonal constraints related to skiing were possibly due to lack of motivation in undertaking the activity.

Negotiation of constraints

Jackson *et al.* (1993) state explicitly that people do not react passively to constraints on their leisure, but actively negotiate to continue to participate, albeit in a modified form

from that originally intended. He states that 'participation is dependent not on the absence of constraints (although this may be true for some people) but on negotiation through them' (p. 4) leading to modification rather than non-participation in activities. This is supported by findings in some studies that constraints did not lead to a decrease in leisure participation (Kay and Jackson, 1991; Shaw *et al.*, 1991). In their paper investigating the leisure activities of high school students, Jackson and Rucks (1995) suggest that there are three broad categories of negotiation adopted by people – cognitive adaptation (e.g. change leisure preference) or behavioural modification, either in terms of the leisure activity (e.g. playing basketball in the backyard instead of elsewhere) or in their non-leisure domain (e.g. modifying non-leisure activities to fit timing of leisure activity).

Jackson *et al.* (1993) introduce the idea of level of motivation into the model, agreeing with Wright and Goodale (1991) that people who do not report a desire to begin, or increase participation in an activity are in fact a heterogeneous group. They either have no interest in the activity or are currently participating to their ideal level; alternatively they have been unable to successfully negotiate an antecedent constraint. They suggest in their modified model (Fig. 14.2) that the relative strength of a person's motivation to participate, together with the various constraints, will determine the extent to which they will be willing to negotiate.

Jackson *et al.* (1993) also suggest that in negotiating an antecedent constraint, people will look forward to other constraints they expect to encounter, both interpersonal and structural, and assess their ability to negotiate these. This will affect the manner in which they will negotiate the original antecedent constraint. They also suggest that if at a later stage in the decision process an unanticipated interpersonal or structural constraint appears and cannot be successfully negotiated, then a feedback loop to an earlier stage in the model will occur. For example, if a structural constraint is encountered, such as lack of availability of an airfare for a planned vacation, the decision maker may return to discussions with the accompanying parties, or they may reassess
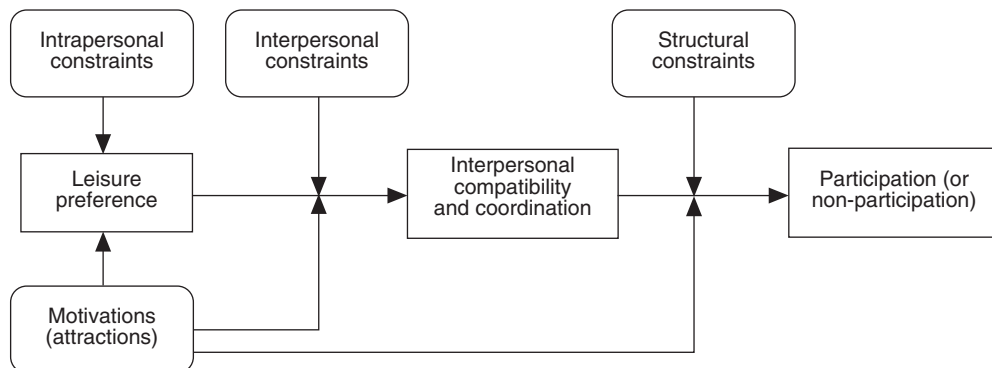
Fig. 14.2. Leisure participation: a balance between constraints and motivation (Jackson *et al.*, 1993).

their own preferences in the light of this new constraint. Therefore, although Jackson *et al.* (1993) support the concept of a leisure constraint hierarchy, they do not regard it as an absolute, thus allowing the decision maker to revert to an earlier level of constraints if a later constraint cannot be successfully negotiated.

Proposed Model of Tourist Choice

Figure 14.3 presents the author's conceptualization of how leisure constraints theory could be integrated into a model of personality, vacation preference and choice. The above discussion is drawn upon in validating the model. Arguments are also presented to justify the modification.

The model is based on Jackson *et al.*'s (1993) model (Fig. 14.2), and includes the feedback loops to earlier stages of the model if constraints are not successfully negotiated, or alternatively, there is lack of interest in continuing the decision making process, as discussed in their paper but not depicted in their model. As these relationships have been previously discussed in this chapter, there will be no further discussion here. The inclusion of personality in the model has also been discussed and there will be no further elaboration. The remainder of the chapter will focus on the justification for the additional relationships proposed and the modification of existing components of the model. The following modifications will be discussed and research propositions identified:

- the influence of personality on intrapersonal constraints;
- the role of personality in determining the relative weighting of motives;
- the relationship between weighted motives and weighted individual vacation attribute preferences;
- the role of interpersonal constraints in determining the weighted interpersonal vacation attribute preferences.

Influence of personality on intrapersonal constraints

As indicated above, intrapersonal constraints involve 'individual psychological states and attributes' (Crawford *et al.*, 1991, p. 311) and these may be actual or perceived. In their paper, Crawford *et al.* specify a number of intrapersonal constraints that, it could be argued, are influenced by personality. For example, people low in dogmatism, high in innovativeness and high in optimum stimulation level might be less likely to see lack of prior experience as a constraint. Other-directed consumers might be more concerned about reference group attitudes to the appropriateness of specific activities or destinations. Personality variables, such as need for cognition, may affect the type of negotiation utilized, or the assessment of ability to successfully negotiate constraints. In support of this argument, Courneya and Hellsten (1998) found that neuroticism positively correlated, and conscientiousness negatively correlated,
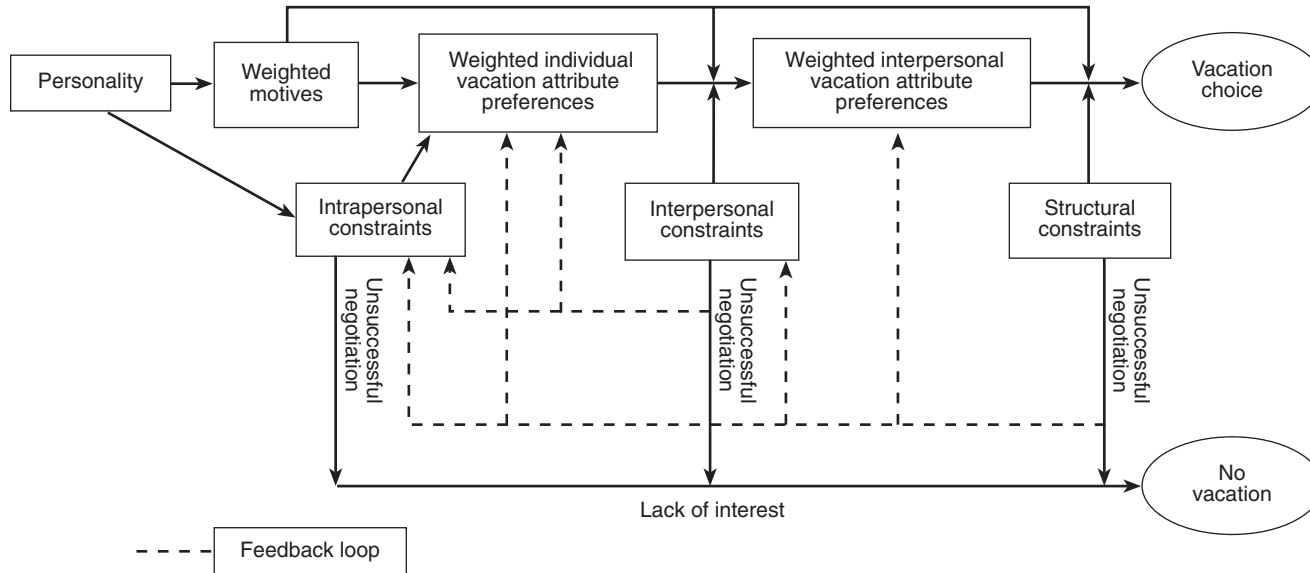
Fig. 14.3. Model of vacation choice: an integration of personality and vacation choice with leisure constraints theory.

with exercise barriers such as lack of energy and embarrassment. Furthermore, they found an inverse relationship between extraversion and the exercise barrier of lack of energy.

Proposition 1: Personality will influence the perception of both intrapersonal constraints and assessment of ability to negotiate them.

Influence of personality on motives

Many researchers see motives as a major determinant of tourist behaviour. The distinction between personality and motives in determining preference or choice is not always clarified in the tourism and leisure literature, nor in the wider consumer behaviour literature. Other authors, such as Maddi (1980), draw a clear distinction between the two dimensions. Evidence does exist that these concepts are different, and that personality influences motives. For example, Costa and McCrae (1988) undertook a study to determine the correlation between the Neo Personality Inventory (the Big Five) and Murray's list of 20 manifest needs. Their study clearly showed the two constructs to be different; e.g. finding that neuroticism was correlated to the need for defensiveness, help, protection and social acceptance. They concluded that trait psychologists 'should consider the explicitly motivational aspects of their constructs' (p. 264) and that motivational inventories should not be seen as a substitute for broader based personality instruments. Mooradian and Oliver (1996) also used the Big Five model of personality and showed a clear relationship between the personality dimensions and shopping motives.

In terms of leisure research, Iwasaki and Mannell (1999) have shown a strong relationship between the Intrinsic Leisure Motivation personality scale and intrinsic motivation to play a puzzle game. Furthermore, Courneya and Hellsten (1998) found that each dimension of the Big Five correlated with exercise motives. Neuroticism correlated with physical appearance and weight control, and extraversion with the need for socialization and meeting people. Extraversion and conscientiousness correlated with the need to maintain fitness and health, extraversion and openness to expe-

rience with the need to maintain mental health and stress relief, and extraversion, openness to experience and neuroticism with the need for fun and enjoyment.

The previous discussion of Plog's model suggests a relationship exists between personality and tourist needs. Psychocentrics have a need for stability and familiarity, while allocentrics demonstrate need for adventure and novelty. Although the literature is somewhat confusing in terms of the distinction between personality and motives, arguments can be made that the two concepts are discrete and that personality influences needs. Perhaps consideration of motives as a moderating variable between personality and tourist preference will increase the predictive capacity of the model.

Proposition 2: Personality influences vacation preference through the formation of motives.

Motives and individual vacation attribute preferences

Since the 1970s, tourism researchers have concentrated on establishing 'push factors' (motives) – e.g., need to escape and need for socializing – and the investigation of their relationship to 'pull factors' (attributes of the various destinations, such as infrastructure, scenic attractions and scenery, accessibility and historical interest) (Sirakaya *et al.*, 1996). If a tourist destination wishes to attract allocentrics, with their need for activity and novelty, the destination should offer variety from everyday living, a large range of activities from which to choose and a non-touristy atmosphere (Ross, 1998). Thus the need for stimulation (or in fact the opposite) will influence preference in vacation attributes. Taking another example, a tourist with a need to be seen and recognized (social status) may have a preference for a destination that is expensive and prestigious (Fridgen, 1996). Decrop (1999) has suggested that there are two levels of push factors (motives) for tourism emerging from the literature and his data. Firstly there is the base need to break from routine – escaping both temporally (every day routine) and spatially

(home). He suggests the second level of 'push factors' is more specific and will vary from individual to individual. In his study he identifies six of these factors, but many other authors have identified various sets of motives (Gibson and Yiannakis, 2002).

How can it be explained that, despite the presence of constraints, some people will still participate in an unchanged activity, others will modify their participation in some way, while a third group will decide not to participate (Kay and Jackson, 1991)? Strength of motivation could provide a partial answer to this question. If the person's motivation to take a vacation is not particularly strong, the personal cost of negotiating any constraint may appear too difficult and so participation will not occur. At the other extreme, if the motivation is particularly strong, a person may be willing to participate in an activity regardless of the constraints encountered. Altered participation may be due to moderate levels of motivation leading an individual to negotiate to some extent on an acceptable type of vacation. As suggested by a number of authors (e.g. Woodside and Jacobs, 1985; Pitts and Woodside, 1986; Fodness, 1994), people may have a number of vacation needs that vary in relative importance. These in turn would be expected to manifest in terms of preferences for various vacation attributes with a corresponding level of importance. For example, relaxation may be an extremely strong motive for a particular individual, leading to a strong preference for a 'kids club'. On the other hand, the preference for adventure may not be as strong, so although this motive translates into a preference for abseiling and parasailing, this is more likely to be negotiable than the stronger preference for a 'kids club'.

Proposition 3: An individual's weighted motives will give rise to weighted vacation attribute preferences.

Interpersonal constraints and interpersonal vacation attribute preferences

Vacations in general tend to be a social activity – people go on holiday with family or friends, or join tour groups. Therefore it might be expected that interpersonal constraints – the identification of appropriate travel companions or the incompatibility of personal vacation attribute weightings – would be of major import in the ultimate choice of vacation destination. As indicated in Crawford *et al.*'s (1991) model (Fig. 14.1), the ability to successfully negotiate interpersonal constraints to achieve interpersonal compatibility and coordination is essential to participation in an activity. The only difference in the current model is that achievement of this 'compatibility and coordination' will result in jointly agreed weighted vacation attribute preferences. The initial strength and overlap of the individuals' attribute preferences will determine any compromises and the relative importance of particular agreed attribute preferences. In their study, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) found that people often compromise activities to fit in with leisure partners – indicating that their social motives were not negotiable, but activities were. The inability to successfully negotiate these interpersonal constraints will result in either lack of interest in taking the vacation or a feedback loop to reassess individual vacation attribute preferences.

Proposition 4: Successful negotiation of interpersonal constraints will lead to jointly agreed weighted vacation attribute preferences.

It should be borne in mind that actual choice will depend on the match between the attributes of the vacation destination and the interpersonal vacation attribute preference weightings – provided structural constraints do not exist, or have been successfully negotiated. As identified by Stemerding *et al.* (1996), destination attributes may be 'rejection-inducing', where consumers utilize a non-compensatory decision rule – a destination does not have an attribute that is rated as essential in the interpersonal attribute preferences. Other attributes Stemerding *et al.* (1996) suggest may be thought of as 'trade-off attributes', where importance or attractiveness weightings need to be assigned to the individual vacation destination attributes (Sirakaya *et al.*, 1996, pp. 62–63) – consumers use a compensatory decision rule.

Discussion

The model presented in this chapter could explain why studies investigating the correlation between personality variables and tourist choice have been less than impressive. Personality constructs are valid in the study of tourist choice, but may affect behaviour differently, depending on the various constraints encountered. For example, health issues, an intrapersonal constraint, may have a significant modifying effect on the preferences of someone with an adventurous, risk-taking personality. Similarly a person with an introverted personality who wants to holiday with a spouse who has an extraverted personality – an interpersonal constraint – may require negotiation of joint vacation preferences that are quite different from the introvert's individual preferences. Structural constraints, for example, non-availability of flights within a timeframe imposed by family commitments, may mean negotiation and selection of a non-optimal destination, thus leading to a lower correlation between personality and actual choice.

There are a number of challenges to be faced in researching the proposed model. Firstly, the choice of personality theory or traits that would most likely be associated with vacation needs must be addressed. Considering the dearth of studies in this area, perhaps borrowing from the leisure literature might prove fruitful. Secondly, intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints in relation to vacation choice need to be established. It is suggested that qualitative research methods would be most effective in eliciting these and again the leisure literature may present a starting point for this research. The measurement of vacation attributes is more straightforward – experts could be used to rate destinations in terms of the various attributes described in the tourism literature. Alternatively, the methodology used by Stemerding *et al.* (1996), involving a modified Repertory Grid technique, could be applied. Rather than using randomly generated triads, experimental design principles were used to generate the groupings for attribute elicitation. Respondents were asked to identify the least and the most preferred destination and to identify the attributes leading to this evaluation.

Establishing individual motives, vacation attribute preferences and their relative strengths, as well as the interpersonal vacation preferences and their relative strengths, presents the greatest challenge. Qualitative research methods will need to be utilized, at least initially, in a longitudinal study. Individuals who are planning to go on vacation need to be identified and interviewed before having chosen a destination or having been on vacation confounds their memory of the decision process. It remains to be seen whether individuals can differentiate between their own individual vacation attribute preference strengths and their negotiated interpersonal vacation attribute preference strengths. At this point intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints would need to be identified. A follow-up interview would be required to determine their actual choice and any structural constraints encountered. The feedback loops would need to be probed during both interviews as well as, perhaps, the negotiation strategies used.

Conclusion

Although as yet untested, this model offers plausible explanations as to why higher correlations have not been found between personality and tourist choice. The argument could be extended to many other choice situations. Investigation of the model offers the possibility of providing a more in-depth understanding of the role of personality, motives and constraints in the choice of tourist vacations. This should in turn provide tourist operators with a better insight into how their customers choose between alternatives, and allow the development of superior, targeted marketing strategies.

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Chapter fifteen
Effects of Holiday Packaging on Tourist Decision Making: Some Preliminary Results

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate how packaging can be used for destination marketing. The focus is on how bundling and presentation format of package information influence consideration and intention to visit. Most tourism researchers have ignored the fact that destination choice is actually a complex and multifaceted decision process in which destinations are selected in combination with other elements that comprise a holiday. Tourism literature also seems to assume that consideration sets are likely to be stable over time and that destination marketers should try to get their destinations into the consumers' consideration sets as early as possible. The present study will investigate these assumptions by looking into the effects of holiday packaging on consideration and intention to visit. Preliminary results suggest that package information format has an impact on intention to visit.

Introduction

Package holidays have expanded enormously in the tourism industry over the past decade and the competition in this industry has been very intensive (Taylor, 1998). Package holidays comprise over half of all overseas holiday visits by UK residents and the share of package holidays has increased from 51.9% in 1996 to 53.4% in 2001 (National Statistics, 2002). Despite this increase, the effects of holiday packaging on consideration and intention to visit have received very little attention in tourism research. A better under-

standing of these effects will be beneficial for destination marketers, travel agents as well as tour operators.

Although tourism researchers have proposed several models of the destination choice process, the effects of marketing stimuli such as package holidays have hardly been investigated. Studies on tourist decision making have traditionally focused on destination choice alone and have ignored the possible effects of packaging. Other authors, however, have explained that many travel decisions are not single independent choices of separate elements such as destination, accommodation

or transportation but rather are a complex set of multi-faceted decisions in which the choices for different elements are interrelated (Dellaert *et al.*, 1998). Burkart (1984) argues that package holidays are products that are destination indifferent and emphasizes that destination is no longer a prime factor in the choice of a holiday. Studies on destination choice alone are therefore limited and may be misleading if destination choice is related to the choice of other components of the package (Dellaert *et al.*, 1997).

Holiday packaging is a form of bundling (e.g. Suri and Monroe, 1995; Soman and Gourville, 2001). Research on bundling has mostly taken an economic perspective, which focuses on the change in profits, and consumer surplus that ensues if bundles are offered. Only few studies have explored consumer behaviour in response to bundling (Harlam *et al.*, 1995; Suri and Monroe, 1995). Furthermore, the impacts of package holidays on consideration and intention to visit have hardly been examined in tourism research.

The present study focuses on the effects of bundling and the presentation of package information on consideration and intention to visit. This chapter will first review relevant literature and propose hypotheses regarding potential effects of bundling and information format on consideration and intention to visit. It will then explain how we propose to test these ideas and present some preliminary results from the first data collection. The chapter will end with a conclusion section.

Literature Review

Destination choice process

In tourism literature, the notion of choice sets has been widely accepted as a useful structural framework for conceptualizing how tourists sift through a large number of vacation destinations available to them (Crompton, 1992; Crompton and Ankomah, 1993). The concept postulates that there is a funnelling process, which involves a relatively large initial set of destinations being reduced to a smaller late set, from which a final destination is selected (Ankomah *et al.*, 1996).

Choice sets are most likely to be applicable when the purchase task is a new or modified one in which individuals typically seek information and evaluate alternatives, and when the purchase entails some degree of high risk (Spiggle and Sewall, 1987). Many vacation destination choice decisions are likely to meet these two criteria (Crompton, 1992).

There seems to be a general agreement among tourism researchers that destination selection goes through three major stages: (i) development of an early consideration set which has been generally called awareness set; (ii) a discarding of most of destinations to form a smaller late consideration set or evoked set; and (iii) a final destination choice (Crompton and Ankomah, 1993). Awareness set refers to all the destinations of which an individual may be aware at any given time. Early or initial consideration set refers to the destinations which a traveller is considering as possible vacation destinations within some period. Late consideration set refers to the destinations which a traveller is considering as probable destinations within some period of time (Crompton, 1992, pp. 423–424). Evoked set refers to the destinations that the consumer is aware of and has some likelihood greater than zero of visiting within some time period (Woodside and Sherrell, 1977, p. 15). Crompton (1992) explains that, conceptually, a key differentiating element between early and late consideration sets is a period of time elapsing between them that is sufficiently long to enable individuals to evaluate and reduce their list of destinations from a broad set of possible destinations to a narrower set of probable destinations.

The early consideration set consists of those destinations considered by a potential tourist to be possible for a vacation. If a destination is not in an individual's early consideration set, then it has no chance of being selected (Crompton and Ankomah, 1993). However, the previous claim has hardly been empirically tested. Furthermore, it has been disputed that consideration set formation is actually a dynamic process that may evolve until consumers decide to make a final choice (Shocker *et al.*, 1991; Mitra, 1995). Alternatives can be dropped from and added to the consideration set as it develops

(Klenosky and Rethans, 1988). In an unfamiliar choice situation, consideration sets are more likely to be unstable over time. Even in highly familiar choice situations, the contents of the consideration set will vary across different purchase situations (Klenosky and Rethans, 1988). These unstable conditions of the consideration sets across occasions would depend upon the factors that are present at the time of decision making (Mitra, 1995) and individual factors (Shocker *et al.*, 1991). It is argued here that it may also depend upon whether alternatives are bundled and how information about these bundles is presented.

Bundling

Bundling has become a common phenomenon in marketing. Package holidays constitute a form of bundling. Bundling is defined as the marketing of two or more products and/or services in a single 'package' for a special price (Guiltinan, 1987, p. 74). There are two main forms of bundling. Pure bundling refers to the products or services available only in package form. Mixed bundling refers to the products or services available individually or as a package (Adams and Yellen, 1976).

Package holidays are an important component of the travel business. A package holiday is a combination of many components of a vacation such as transportation, accommodation, sightseeing and meals, which are sold to consumers at a single price (Bojamic and Calantone, 1990). Package holidays vary according to their inclusiveness. Among all package holidays, the simplest is the basic package holiday, which typically includes transportation and accommodation only. Inclusive package holidays also offer some sightseeing and entertainment at the destination. All inclusive package holidays include meals and are sometimes escorted (Sheldon and Mak, 1987).

Consumers may not know the prices of the individual components because they purchase the entire package either from a travel agent who is a retailer of vacation products or from a tour operator who creates the package, and publishes and then distributes the brochure. Convenience and cheaper price are the two reasons why tourists purchase package holidays (Sheldon and Mak, 1987).

The price of a bundle is usually lower than it would be if the items were purchased differently (Schwartz and Cohen, 1999). Consumers may evaluate the worth of a product differently when it is in a bundle than when it is not. Linking two or more items together is likely to influence the context in which consumers evaluate those items because it will literally force the consumer to evaluate them in the context of one another (Harris, 1997). Furthermore, the consumer may save time and effort, including the cost of gathering information, by buying complementary commodities in a single package (Paroush and Peles, 1981; Oppewal and Holyoake, 2003).

One item in the bundle may be already in an individual's consideration set, but other items in the bundle often are not (Suri and Monroe, 1995). Bundling can educate as well as remind consumers. Value for money and quality of the product or services help consumers to distinguish an alternative and make it more or less probable that the alternative will enter the awareness set and the consideration sets of those consumers who find the features attractive for their own purposes (Shocker *et al.*, 1991). Price bundling often increases purchase likelihood (Soman and Gourville, 2001). Furthermore, past research has shown that a bundle was evaluated more favourably and chosen more often when its components were presented in segregated (separate price tags) versus consolidated (single, equivalent tag) fashion (Yadav and Monroe, 1993; Suri and Monroe, 1995).

Leisure travellers are likely to have a positive evaluation towards destinations in their evoked sets (Woodside and Sherrell, 1977; Woodside and Ronkainen, 1980). Although they associate each destination with a particular set of benefits, they may be willing to substitute one benefit–destination combination with a competing benefit–destination package (Woodside and Carr, 1988). One particular condition in which this may occur is when the destination is part of a bundle. Other components in the bundle may assist a less preferred destination to enter the consideration set although it was not initially included.

For example, a traveller may think of going to Malaysia when asked directly. When there is a competitive discount package that has other destinations such as Thailand, the same person may choose Thailand and hence end up visiting Thailand after all.

Information format

An issue that is related to bundling is the format in which product information is presented. Information format refers to the presentation and organization of information about the available alternatives and their attributes (Cooper-Martin, 1993, p. 240). Information format affects the way consumers process that information (Bettman and Kakkar, 1977). Previous research suggests that the way a product is presented influences the importance consumers assign to various attributes when making a purchase decision. There are two possible ways in which information format can affect consumer perception. Firstly, the perceptual salience of an attribute increases when products are displayed according to a specific attribute, for example, by brand or by price (Tversky, 1969; Glass and Holyoak, 1986). This increases the importance that attributes receive when the consumers evaluate products and/or make purchase decisions (MacKenzie, 1986; Hutchinson and Alba, 1991). Secondly, presenting product information according to a given attribute makes it easier for consumers to compare alternatives using that particular attribute (Russo, 1977; Bettman, 1979).

Results of a study on wine purchasing by Areni *et al.* (1999) reveal that categorizing wine by region of origin increases the salience of region and makes it easier for consumers to compare the alternatives on the region of origin attribute. Alternatives originating from an unfavourable wine region, such as Texas, were penalized by this decision criterion and sales dropped when Texan wines were on promotion. Organizing products according to distinct levels or values of a specific attribute hence affects purchase likelihood. It affects the perceptual salience of that attribute and the ease with which it can be used to make comparisons. In a related paper, Areni (1999) therefore suggests that products from lesser-known regions should highlight attributes with which they are likely to compare favourably (e.g. value for money, variety) rather than focusing solely on the region.

Similarly, products of equivalent value may be evaluated differently depending on the way in which the bundle is presented to the consumers (Harlam *et al.*, 1995). Della Bitta *et al.* (1981) studied consumer perception of comparative price advertisements and found that presenting information as different combinations of sale price, regular price, percentage off and dollar amount off resulted in different perceptions of the offer. Simonson and Winer (1992) also find that there is a significant interaction between display format and task condition. They suggest that changing product display format can influence consumer purchases.

Past research has consistently demonstrated that consumer evaluations of and preferences for a product can be influenced by the context of the choice task, including the set of alternatives considered and the manner in which these alternatives are presented (e.g. Simonson and Tversky, 1992). Conceptual insights and empirical findings will be useful to understand how a bundle should be presented and how specific consumer characteristics may affect consumer evaluation of a bundle (Krish *et al.*, 1994).

Hypotheses

The results of the previous studies can be applied to tourism products. Package holidays are mostly presented with destination as the 'heading' that labels the package. If another attribute, price, is used to label a package holiday, the likelihood that a particular destination is selected may change. It seems that this possible effect has not yet been tested in tourism research.

Based on the literature review, we propose the following two hypotheses:

H1: Bundling influences (i) probability of entering the consideration set and (ii) intention to visit.
H2: The format in which attribute information is presented affects (i) probability of entering the consideration set and (ii) intention to visit.

Method

To test the hypotheses, an experimental questionnaire concerning overseas beach holidays was developed. Two hundred students took part in this experiment. The questionnaire introduced participants to a hypothetical situation in which they had to assume that they had won an overseas beach holiday voucher worth £1000. They must spend this voucher on flights and accommodation for two persons. They were free to take anyone with them and the travel companion would be happy to go to any destination. If they did not spend all of £1000, they would be given the remainder as a voucher for an overseas holiday next year.

Design

Participants were randomly assigned to one of three different questionnaire conditions: (i) unbundled condition, (ii) bundle condition I (destination as a heading) or (iii) bundle condition II (price as a heading). The unbundled condition was a control condition in which respondents were only asked to rate their intention to visit for a list of destinations and select the destinations that they would consider visiting from this same list. After that, they were asked to separately indicate their preferences for other attributes. The bundle conditions were the experimental conditions, in which respondents received a treatment, a series of package holidays, which were designed by using the design principles applied in conjoint analysis. Attributes described in the package holidays included destination, package price, type of accommodation, number of nights and name of travel agent. In bundle condition I, the package holiday presented the name of destination as a heading. In bundle condition II, the package holiday presented price as the heading.

Dependent variables

There were two main dependent variables in the study: probability of entering the consideration set and intention to visit. These two variables were measured before and after the treatment. For intention to visit, respondents were asked to rate for each destination how likely they were to visit this destination on a seven-point scale anchored by will definitely not visit (1) to will definitely visit (7). For probability of entering the consideration set, they were asked to select the destinations that they would consider visiting from a list of destinations.

Procedure

First, subjects in all conditions were asked about their preferred type of holiday, preferred month and their overseas holiday experience including beach holidays. Next, they were exposed to the hypothetical situation. Then, they were asked to rate intention to visit and select the destinations that they would consider visiting for their next overseas beach holidays from a list.

Next, only the respondents assigned to the bundle conditions were exposed to one of the two experimental package holiday conditions: package holidays with destination as a heading or package holidays with price as a heading. To help induce the experimental treatments and to allow manipulation checks, respondents in the experimental conditions were asked to rate the attractiveness of the package holidays by indicating how attractive they found each package holiday on a seven-point scale anchored by not at all attractive (1) and very attractive (7).

After the treatment, only subjects in the bundle conditions were asked to further rate destinations on their intention to visit and to select destinations that they would consider visiting for their next overseas beach holidays from a list that included partly similar, partly new destinations. This procedure implemented an additional control condition, i.e. we observed ratings for the destinations that the respondents had previously seen and those that they had not seen in the earlier tasks.

Analysis and Results

Preliminary results in this section concern the intention to visit ratings that were obtained

for two destinations, Turkey and Tunisia, across three different conditions. The analysis was performed on the differences in intention to visit between the control condition and the two experimental conditions. In the control condition, respondents did not see any bundle (unbundled condition) while the respondents in the two experimental conditions were exposed to either package holidays with the destination as a heading (bundle condition I) or package holidays with price as a heading (bundle condition II). For the two experimental conditions, the intention to visit ratings collected after exposure to the treatment were used for analysis. The presence of the two destinations in the package holidays was systematically varied. However, our focus here is on the analysis of intention to visit across the three conditions.

The first analysis was performed on intention to visit Turkey. Figure 15.1 illustrates mean of intention to visit Turkey across the three conditions. It shows the actual mean scores of the three conditions as follows: bundle condition I (mean = 3.77, SD = 1.75), bundle condition II (mean = 4.33, SD = 1.70) and unbundled condition (mean = 3.95, SD = 1.72). To test the hypotheses, an ANOVA with planned contrasts was conducted. The effect of package holidays on intention to visit appeared as not significant for Turkey ($F(1,193) = 0.108$, n.s.).

The contrast representing the difference between bundle condition I (destination as a heading) and bundle condition II (price as a heading) was, however, significant for Turkey ($F(1,193) = 4.285$, $P = 0.040$). These results suggest that the format in which package holidays were presented influenced intention to visit Turkey. When respondents were asked to rate their intention to visit Turkey without any exposure to any package holidays (unbundled condition), the mean scores of intention to visit were 3.95. The mean scores dropped to 3.77 when Turkey was presented as a heading (bundle condition I). In contrast, the mean scores increased to 4.33 when price was presented as a heading (bundle condition II). This suggests that Turkey was perceived as a less preferred destination in which presenting package holidays with destination as a heading decreased the intention to visit, whereas presenting package holidays with price as a heading increased the intention to visit.

Similar results also occurred to the other holiday destination in our study, Tunisia. Figure 15.2 shows mean intention to visit Tunisia across the three conditions. For Tunisia, the mean scores of intention to visit in the unbundled condition were 4.28 (SD = 1.62). The mean scores dropped to 3.85 (SD = 1.62) when Tunisia was presented as the heading (bundle condition I) whereas the mean scores increased to 4.42 (SD = 1.62) when price was presented as the heading (bundle condition II). The contrast representing the difference between the bundle conditions and the
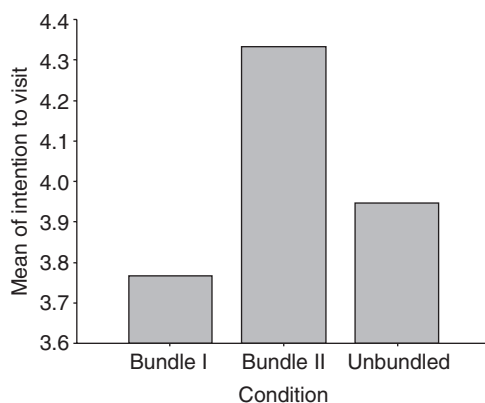

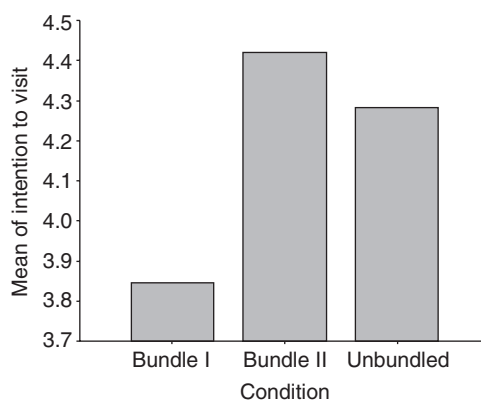**Fig. 15.1.** Mean of intention to visit Turkey, by bundle condition.

Fig. 15.2. Mean of intention to visit Tunisia, by bundle condition.

unbundled condition was not significant at the conventional alpha level of 5% ($F(1,195)$ = 0.265, n.s.). Therefore, H1 is not supported by the results of two holiday destinations.

However, the contrast between the two bundle conditions was statistically significant ($F(1,195)$ = 4.981, P = 0.027). The mean scores of intention to visit to Tunisia in the unbundled condition were 4.28. The mean scores dropped to 3.85 when Tunisia was presented as a heading (bundle condition I), whereas the mean scores increased to 4.42 when price was presented as a heading (bundle condition II). Therefore, H2 is supported by the results of both holiday destinations.

Conclusion

Existing tourism literature on destination choice suggests that it is almost impossible for destinations that are not included in the early consideration set to enter the consideration set and be a potential candidate for choice. However, this chapter argued that holiday packaging could assist destinations to enter the consideration set and hence increase the intention to visit. Research carried out to test this assumption will be useful to understand tourist decision making as well as to support further use and development of packaging strategies to market holiday destinations. The present chapter presented hypotheses, methodology and some preliminary results of an experimental study that aims to investigate these possible effects.

Further analysis is required before any substantial conclusions can be drawn. However, our preliminary results for two destinations suggest that package information format does have an impact on intention to visit. The results of Turkey and Tunisia showed that if price is used as the heading of package holidays, the intention to visit increases relatively to a control condition in which no package holiday information is provided. In contrast, intention to visit decreases when destination is presented as the heading of a package holiday.

Another possible explanation for this result is that presenting package holidays with destination as the heading increases the salience of destination as an attribute. As shown in a study by Areni *et al.* (1999) in the context of wine marketing, presenting destination as a heading would be a disadvantage for less popular destinations such as Tunisia and Turkey. Presenting destination as a heading highlights the attribute on which these countries compete unfavourably with other destinations. Our results so far suggest that less preferred destinations should be presented in a format with price as a heading rather than destination as a heading. Further analyses and tests on this assumption will soon be reported.

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Chapter sixteen
An Examination of the Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Satisfaction

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Abstract

This study investigates the relationships between customer satisfaction, service quality and overall attitude. To this end, two conceptual frameworks and ten hypotheses are tested using structural equation modelling. The data are collected in a restaurant setting using a convenience sampling procedure. The findings indicate that the evaluation of service quality leads to customer satisfaction, and satisfaction rather than service quality is a better reflection of overall attitudes. Also, desires congruence and ideal self-congruence are found to be antecedents of customer satisfaction.

Introduction

The research on customer satisfaction has a long history that dates back to the early 1960s. Since then more than 15,000 trade and academic papers have been published (Peterson and Wilson, 1992). However, despite the growing interest in customer satisfaction, it still remains an elusive concept due to a number of theoretical and methodological shortcomings that continue to persist in the literature. At the heart of them are the antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction. In particular, examinations of the relationship between customer satisfaction and theoretically related variables such as attitude and service quality have produced controversial results and therefore it

has been subject to hefty debates (Ekinci and Riley, 1998; Fournier and Mick, 1999).

Though helpful, these debates have caused confusion in both the service quality and satisfaction literature. For example, Oliver (1980, 1997) argued that customer satisfaction is a similar construct to attitudes. According to his postulation, customer satisfaction mediates changes between pre-purchase and post-purchase attitudes. Hence, customer satisfaction is dynamic and quickly decays into one's attitudes. However, in the quality literature, the concept of service quality is substituted by customer satisfaction while proposing exactly the same type of relationship. Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) argued that service quality is more universal and enduring and therefore can be a better

reflection of an attitude. Furthermore, the authors claimed that customer satisfaction is specific to a service encounter and an antecedent of service quality (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1994). The literature is awash with detailed arguments of this kind but the outcome of this research is inconclusive.

Despite the above studies that offer insight into the relationships between customer satisfaction, service quality and attitudes, a holistic conceptual framework is still missing. Theoretical arguments suggest that either customer satisfaction or service quality is similar to an attitude, but fail to provide empirical evidence. Hence, the role of attitude in the formation of satisfaction and evaluation of service quality remains unclear. On the other hand, there are empirical studies that investigate the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction but they are limited in quantity. Most of them have produced mixed results and therefore the relationship between the two concepts is left to the researchers' own interpretation.

Basically, three types of conclusions are drawn from these studies (Ekinci and Riley, 1998). The first one suggests that an evaluation of customer satisfaction leads to service quality whereas the second one suggests that an evaluation of service quality leads to customer satisfaction. It is difficult to determine the exact nature of relationship from these studies, the last one rejects both formulation and argues that the two concepts, service quality and customer satisfaction are the same, and that there is no need to make a distinction between the two through a causal relationship. While the literature on customer satisfaction and service quality progress in parallel, the fact that research into the actual differences between the two concepts would be mutually beneficial and should be recognized.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between customer satisfaction and the other theoretically related variables: service quality, attitudes, self-concept congruence, desires congruence and behavioural intentions. To this end, we developed ten hypotheses and then tested two competing models.

Background: Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction

The definition of satisfaction has shown great diversity within industry and societal perspectives. Among the ten proposed theories 'the expectancy disconfirmation theory' has been the most popular one due to its broadly applicable conceptualization (Oh and Parks, 1997). This theory suggests that satisfaction is related to the size and direction of the disconfirmation experience that occurs as result of comparing service performance against expectations (Oliver, 1980).

Despite the popularity of the disconfirmation theory, it suffers from its simplicity. Some of the empirical studies using this paradigm failed to explain satisfaction judgement in different consumption situations. Mittal *et al.* (1998) argued that the relationship between attribute-level performance and overall satisfaction changes marginally (diminishing sensitivity for both negative and positive performance) rather than linearly and symmetrically. Other scholars emphasized that the satisfaction process is more complex than is explained by the disconfirmation theory (LaTour and Peat, 1979; Oliver, 1980; Churchill and Suprenant, 1982). Oliver (1997, p. 13) offered an updated definition that reflects the findings of recent theoretical and empirical studies.

> Satisfaction is the consumer's fulfilment response. It is a judgement that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfilment, including levels of under- or overfulfilment.

According to this definition, the fulfilment response is a pleasurable state that is derived by reducing the pain when a problem is solved or alleviated. However, pleasure can be obtained not only by the unexpected effect of overfulfilment, but also underfulfilment such as when the actual damage is less than expected. Oliver (1997) argued that satisfaction is strongly related with fulfilling needs but this notion requires more elaboration in different consumption situations. The above definitions promote two notions. Firstly, satis-

faction is the result of direct experience with products or services and secondly, it occurs by comparing this experience against a standard (e.g. expectations). Oliver (1980) further explained how a satisfaction judgement is accumulated during the consumption period. Figure 16.1 shows the cognitive process of satisfaction formation and its relationship with other constructs.

According to Fig. 16.1, a customer approaches the service encounter with an antecedent attitude (ATTa) which might have been accumulated through previous experiences, word of mouth communications or marketing promotions before purchasing (time 1 = t_1). The antecedent attitude is a function of expectation. The intention to purchase behaviour at the pre-consumption period is influenced by the ATTa. During the consumption period, the customer compares his expectations with the service performance. By the same token, a disconfirmation process occurs at this stage. The outcome of this can be positive, negative or neutral. Hence, a satisfaction decision begins to emerge during the consumption period and becomes dominant towards the end of this period. In line with this, a satisfaction decision is a function of expectations and the level of the disconfirmation experience. However, this satisfaction decision is time and situation specific, and, therefore, soon decays into ATTa to establish continuous attitudes (ATTc). Here, satisfaction acts as a moderating variable

between ATTa and ATTc. Therefore, the direction and magnitude of satisfaction serves as an input to form the ATTc, which has been adopted at the post-consumption period. The latter attitude influences the customer's intention to re-purchase at the post consumption (time 2 = t_2). The ATTc is then a function of ATTa and satisfaction whereas the intention to re-purchase (t_2) is a function of the previous intention to purchase (t_1), satisfaction and the ATTc. The following sets of expressions summarize these relationships.

ATTa$(t_1) = f$ (expectations)
intention $(t_1) = f$ (ATTc(t_1))
satisfaction $= f$ (expectations, disconfirmation)
ATTc$(t_2) = f$ (ATTa (t_1), satisfaction)
intention $(t_2) = f$ (intention (t_1), satisfaction, ATTc(t_2))

Oliver's (1997) conceptualization is notable as it illustrates both the cognitive processes of satisfaction formation and its relationship with other constructs, in particular, the intention to purchase and attitudes towards a product. The discussion leads to the following two hypotheses:

H1: Customer satisfaction has a positive association with behavioural intention (recommend and return).
H2: Customer satisfaction has a positive association with attitudes towards a service organization.
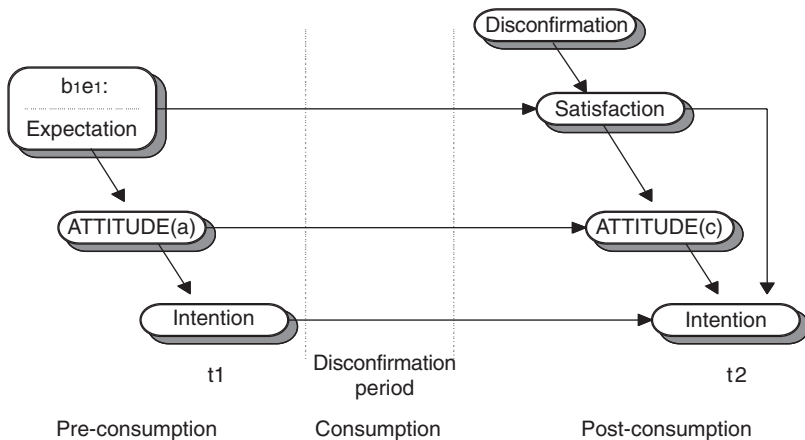

Fig. 16.1. The process of satisfaction formation. Adapted from Oliver (1980), p. 465.

Attitudes

According to the most frequently cited definition by Allport (1935), attitudes are learned predispositions to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way. The 'theory of reasoned action' is the most prominent model that explains consumer attitudes towards an action through behavioural intentions (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). According to this model, an attitude consists of three elements: (i) the net outcome of performing the behaviour (e.g. beliefs on the costs and benefits of this behaviour such as visiting a country); (ii) social pressure or subjective norm (the influence of other people); and (iii) the perceived behavioural control (the extent to which a person believes he/she has control over performance of the behaviour). These three functions could be assessed simultaneously by directly asking the importance of a bundle of attributes representing beliefs.

Attitudes towards purchase behaviour are underlined by many factors. Although a number of functional theories of attitudes have been developed, the one proposed by Katz (1960) has perhaps received the most attention. According to his theory, there are four functions of attitudes known as underlying motivations: the utilitarian, the ego-defensive, the knowledge and the value-expressive functions.

The utilitarian function of attitudes refers to the fact that people tend to acquire attitudes because they desire certain outcomes. For example, a positive attitude towards a campus restaurant may be developed because it offers a convenient location. The ego-defensive function of attitudes may be held because it allows people to protect themselves from being exposed of their weaknesses. Hence, people tend to hide their inadequacies from the harsh realities of the external world. For example, consumers may hold positive attitudes towards diet products or dandruff-free shampoos to defend themselves against an underlying feeling of physical inadequacy.

The value-expressive function of attitudes allows people to express their central values or self-concept. In many ways, this is the complete opposite of the ego-defensive function.

For example, a conservative person may hold a positive attitude towards British Airways as it represents being British. Maoi and Olson (1994) showed that people with value-expressive attitudes have significant relations between value importance and their attitudes or behaviour, whereas people with utilitarian attitudes do not.

The knowledge function of attitudes may serve as a standard since it helps us to understand our universe. By the same token, such an evaluation is cognitive and it attaches meaning to the self and its relation to environment. Maoi and Olson (1994, p. 301) stated 'to some extents, the knowledge function may exists in all attitudes as they serve to organise information about attitude objects'. In general, there is ample evidence showing that attitudes influence consumer behaviour (Burnkrant and Page, 1982). As consumers bring their attitudes with them to the service encounter, they also use them for the evaluation of services. Hence customer satisfaction influences continuous attitude (ATTc) at the post-consumption phase; however, before that happens the antecedent attitude (ATTa) also influences customer satisfaction. Therefore, the relationship between the two concepts is bi-directional. We argue that this is an important path and was not specified by Oliver (1980) in his model. Thus, the following hypotheses have been proposed to guide this study.

> *H3: Customers' favourable attitude towards a service organization has a positive association with customer satisfaction.*
> *H4: Customers' favourable attitude towards a service organization has a positive association with behavioural intention.*

Service quality

Definitions of quality have varied over the years. Early definitions suggest that quality should be seen as conformance to specifications. Hence, positive quality is obtained when the product matches with predetermined standards or specifications. However, this is considered as being manufacture-oriented and therefore many scholars argued that service quality should be customer-oriented (Reeves and Bednar, 1994).

Consequently, three different definitions have been introduced from the consumer point of view: (i) quality is excellence; (ii) quality is value for money; and (iii) quality is meeting or exceeding expectations. The first definition displays some inherent weaknesses. For example, defining quality as being excellent is highly subjective and it varies from person to person. Although service quality is proposed as value for money, scholars argued that value and quality are two different constructs (Bolton and Drew, 1991).

Defining quality as meeting or exceeding customer expectations is well established. Service quality is defined from the customer point of view and measured by the inferred disconfirmation scale (best known as the 'gap model'). Empirical studies, however, showed that such a measurement causes validity and reliability problems (Teas, 1993). Recent literature suggests that service quality is more relevant as to how well the service is delivered (Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Ekinci, 2002). This is also known as performance evaluation and is considered to influence customer satisfaction positively. The following fifth hypothesis is proposed to allude to this path.

H5: Service quality has a positive association with customer satisfaction.

Self-concept congruence

Two decades ago, Sirgy (1982) argued that consumers evaluate products by referring to their self-concept. Self-concept and product images share a degree of communality and, as such, there can be a degree of congruence between the two. The idea is extended to suggest that the greater the degree of congruence, the higher the probability of displaying specific behaviour, such as intention to purchase or satisfaction. This theory has been applied in order to examine the relationship between self-concept and different variables. Examples included self-concept and preference for houses (Malhotra, 1988), self-concept and store images (Sirgy and Samli, 1985), self-concept and brand preferences, brand attitudes, purchase intentions (Hong and Zinkhan, 1995; Graeff, 1996), and self-concept and satisfaction with holiday destinations (Chon, 1992).

Landon (1974) argued that the relationship between self-concept congruence and consumer behaviour may differ across product categories due to involvement of different self-concept (such as actual and ideal self). For example, the relationship between actual self-congruence and customer satisfaction may not be significant because often consumers do not want to describe themselves, but to superimpose their 'ideal' self in purchase situations, particularly when the actual self-concept dimension is perceived to be negative. Later, Malhotra (1988) supported the idea of differential roles for actual, ideal and social self-concept in product evaluation. His study suggested that ideal self-congruence rather than actual self-congruence has the primary influence on house preferences. Hamm and Cundiff (1969) reported a significant relationship between ideal self-congruence and product preference as opposed to actual self-congruence. More recently, Hong and Zinkhan (1995) showed that ideal self-congruence rather than actual self-concept is a better indicator of brand preference among different product categories such as cars and shampoos. Hence, not only the actual self but also the ideal self-concept should be taken into account when investigating the relationship between self-concept congruence and consumer behaviour. Consequently, two types of self-congruence are considered to be relevant to this study. The following hypotheses (H6 and H7) were developed to test these propositions.

H6: Actual self-concept congruence has a positive association with customer satisfaction.

H7: Ideal self-concept congruence has a positive association with customer satisfaction.

Desires congruence

The use of a comparison standard seems to be central to the evaluation of both service quality and customer satisfaction. Several comparison standards are introduced into the literature from different perspectives such as expectations, desires and experience-based norms. However, their utilization often triggered methodological problems in the measurement of service quality and customer satisfaction

due to their vague conceptualizations and mis-interpretation. Although customer expectation is the most frequently used one (Oliver, 1997; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988), the meaning of expectation is often mixed with desired outcomes. For example, Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) argued that the '*should*' type of expectation must be used to measure service quality as it reflects customers' *desires* and *wants*. However, the empirical studies showed that this was not a good formulation as it caused various reliability and validity problems in measurement (Teas, 1993).

Although expectation is mixed with desires in the service quality literature, these two concepts are different. The latter is associated with consumer values. Employing values (e.g. desires, wants) as a comparison standard is theoretically compelling because they are the centrepiece of human perception and evaluation (Rokeach, 1973). For example, the means-end models imply that product attributes are linked to consumer values (Guttman, 1982). More recently, Ekinci and Chen (2002) showed that satisfaction with hotel services differs between customers who are divided into various segments by personal values.

The early empirical studies reveal little support for using values or desires as comparison standards (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). One reason for the negative outcome is attributed to inadequate conceptualization and poor measurement. Spreng *et al.* (1996) addressed the methodological issues experienced previously in value research. As a result, they proposed a model by redefining the role of value, expectation, performance and customer satisfaction. Their study indicates that the desires congruence that is defined as the match or mismatch of what is desired and actually received has a significant impact on attribute satisfaction, information satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed to evaluate such a stance.

H8: Desires congruence has a positive association with customer satisfaction.

Figures 16.2 and 16.3 illustrate two holistic models and the associated paths for the conceptual frameworks of this study.
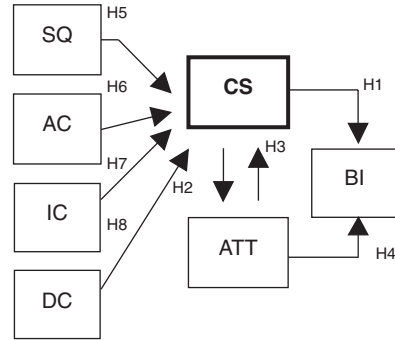
Fig. 16.2. Satisfaction model. SQ, service quality; AC, actual self-congruence; IC, ideal self-congruence; DC, desires congruence; CS, customer satisfaction; ATT, an attitude towards the service organization; BI, behavioural intentions (recommend and return).
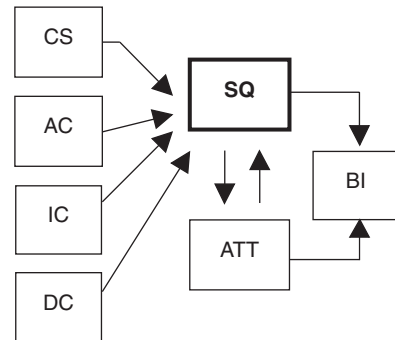
Fig. 16.3. Service quality model. For abbreviations see Fig. 16.2.

Figure 16.2 illustrates that customer satisfaction is related to behavioural intentions and attitudes. Also, the relationship between satisfaction and service quality is direct and from service quality to customer satisfaction. This model implies that attitudes, service quality, actual, ideal and desires congruence are antecedents of customer satisfaction. As the relationship between customer satisfaction and attitudes is bi-directional, attitudes can be a consequence of satisfaction. Together, an attitude towards service organization and satisfaction stimulates customers' intention to visit and recommend behaviour.

H9: The satisfaction model significantly fits to the data.

The alternative model is also proposed by swapping the position of customer satisfaction with service quality. The following hypothesis is relevant to this model.

H10: The service quality model significantly fits to the data.

Methodology

Questionnaire development

The process of developing the questionnaire requires measurement and validation of the following constructs: *product concept, self-concept, attitude, desires congruence customer satisfaction, service quality* and *behavioural intention (recommend and return behaviour).*

Measurement of actual self-congruence and ideal self-congruence

Despite the fact that the theory of self-concept is compelling, empirical studies have produced mixed results. Some consumer psychologists argued that personality is a useful tool for understanding consumer behaviour, whereas others postulated that the use of personality variables has negligible value. For example, Shank and Langmeyer (1993) reported a weak relationship between human personality and brand image.

Although the aforementioned studies seem to oppose the self-congruence theory, a number of methodological and theoretical shortcomings contribute to these results. Among them is the inadequate conceptualization of self-concept, poor instruments, weak methodology, which fail to take into account the influence of brand/product attributes, and the mediate effect of personality variables (Malhotra, 1981, 1988). Moreover, a few studies attempted to assess self-congruence using standard personality instruments that were designed with activities other than buying in mind. It should be noted that the attributes of product concept could be very extensive and different from the attributes of self-concept. Therefore, it may not be appropriate to define self-concept by using the attributes of product

concept. To an extent, these considerations have been taken into account in measuring self-concept congruence.

One of the recent debates involved in measuring self-concept congruence is whether to use the gap score formula or direct score formula (Sirgy and Su, 2000). To date, the usual practice for measurement of self-congruence has been to employ the gap score formula. This measure indicates the degree of match/mismatch between the product concept (e.g. restaurant, hotel, retail shop) and self-concept. To do this, the absolute difference model was used to compute the self-congruence score (Ericsen and Sirgy, 1992). Mathematically indicated;

$$\mathrm{AC}k \quad = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\mathrm{PC}ik - \mathrm{ASC}ik| \qquad (1)$$

where $\mathrm{AC}k$ = actual self-congruence score for respondent (k); $\mathrm{PC}ik$ = product concept score of respondent (k) along attribute (i); and $\mathrm{ASC}ik$ = actual self-concept score of respondent (k) along attribute (i).

One can note that the lower the score the higher the actual self-congruence, since the absolute *difference* model was employed. The direct score formula, on the other hand, requires neither self-ratings (actual or ideal) nor product ratings but measures the self-concept congruence on a numeric scale that is facilitated by a scenario-type direction (Sirgy and Su, 2000).

The gap formula has received a number of criticisms. At the heart of them are inflated reliability scores, spurious correlations between theoretically related variables and a mathematically computed gap score that may be different from respondents' actual evaluation (Peter *et al.*, 1993). Despite these criticisms, the present study used this method because of the need to make comparisons with previous research. Furthermore, evidence that the direct formula is better than the gap formula is not very strong.

Malhotra (1981) recommended that semantic differential scales should be used to measure product and self-concept images. However, Landon (1974, p. 44), highlighted two issues regarding the use of this scaling procedure. First, when measuring product

and self-concepts, the adjectives may correspond to different meanings and, therefore, research should ensure that both constructs are evaluated in the same direction and refer to the same meaning. Second, as ratings of actual and ideal self-concepts may be extremely sensitive to the social desirability effect (Landon, 1974), those attributes that are believed to suffer from this effect should be eliminated. Armed with this knowledge, a scale was developed to measure both self- and product concepts as there was no generic scale available for the evaluation of services.

The scale development procedure involved a number of testing stages. Firstly, 58 personality traits were elicited from the literature on the basis that they described both people and products (Malhotra, 1981; Graeff, 1996; Aaker, 1997). Secondly, the content of these items was checked to ensure that the selected adjectives would be relevant to describe a restaurant. To this end, a pilot study used a small group of British subjects ($n = 26$, 48% male, 52% female) from a wide spectrum of age groups (16 to 55). The criterion for selection of an adjective was if it was chosen by 70% of the sample. This resulted in 12 pairs of adjectives: exciting/dull, organized/disorganized, formal/informal, popular/unpopular, extravagant/economical, modern/classical, sophisticated/unsophisticated, friendly/unfriendly, clean/dirty, comfortable/uncomfortable, pleasant/unpleasant and business oriented/family oriented.

Thirdly, the above adjectives were tested to determine their applicability to both people and products (i.e. a restaurant). This involved assessing the polarity of the adjectives and testing for the social desirability effect and was accomplished by a content analysis. Twenty subjects (50% male, 50% female) completed a questionnaire containing the pairs of adjectives qualified earlier. Subjects were then interviewed by the researchers about their ratings. The attributes were then judged based on three criteria. Firstly, the subjects needed to feel comfortable using the adjectives in both contexts; secondly, the meaning of both applications should have been the same; and thirdly, there had to be no interference from the social desirability effect (Landon, 1974). As a result, three of the 12 items were deleted. These were clean/dirty, comfortable/uncomfortable and

pleasant/unpleasant. Eight pair of adjectives qualified from this selection process: *exciting/dull, organized/disorganized, formal/informal, popular/unpopular, extravagant/economical, modern/classical, sophisticated/unsophisticated* and *friendly/unfriendly*.

The product concept was measured using a seven-point (-3 to $+3$) numeric scale. Actual self-concept was measured using the same scale but with the numeric points of the scale changed to 1–7 to reduce the halo effect (Sirgy, 1982). The following direction was given to measure actual self-concept.

> *We would like you to describe yourself as you* <u>*actually*</u> *are. First, think about how you see yourself. Please describe some characteristics of your personality using the following scales (e.g. friendly, organized) below. Mark (X) the number that best represents how you see yourself.*

Ideal self-concept was operationalized on the same scale by using the following instruction.

> *This time, we would like you to describe your ideal personality. Think about the type of person that you would* <u>*ideally*</u> *like to be. Please go back to the same scale above and CIRCLE the number that represents how you* <u>*would ideally like*</u> *to see yourself. Do not worry if your actual self-rating and ideal self-rating coincide.*

Measurement of remaining constructs

Satisfaction with services was assessed by two seven-point numeric scales. The labels for these scales were *worse than my expectations/better than my expectations* and *completely dissatisfied/completely satisfied* (Spreng and Mackoy, 1996). The customers' attitude towards the restaurant was measured by a seven-point numeric scale. The scale items were: *bad/good, valuable/worthless, nice/awful, positive/negative* and *dislike/like* (Maio and Olson, 1994).

Evaluation of overall service quality was measured using a seven-point numeric scale with (1) being *extremely low quality* and (7) being *extremely high quality*. Desires congruence was measured by two-item scale developed by Spreng and Mackoy (1996). Finally, the customers' behavioural intentions (recommend and return) were measured by two seven-point numeric scales with (1) representing *extremely unlikely* and (7) *extremely likely* (Cronin and Taylor, 1992).

Application of the questionnaire

The study took place in a university campus environment due to sampling convenience. The campus contained eight restaurants and from these the one that offered a modern service style with different types of food and drink throughout the day was chosen. A random sample of campus occupants was sought and, to this end, 500 questionnaires were sent out to British nationals through the university internal mail.

At the end of the 5-week period, a total of 109 usable questionnaires was returned (22%). The sample was 67% female, 33% male. Forty-nine per cent of the respondents were between 16 and 24, 25% between 25 and 34, 26% were 35 years of age or above. Forty-three per cent of the sample was students and 57% was staff. The majority of respondents (65%) made more than four visits to the restaurants. Thirty per cent made two to three visits and 5% made only one visit. The visits were on different occasions and at different times of the day but were mostly around lunchtime (59%).

Findings

The principal objective of this study was to test the two competing models that outline the relationship between customer satisfaction and other variables. Prior testing of the models, validity and reliability of the measures were established.

Validity and reliability of measurements

The first stage of analysis involved testing the dimensionality of the product and self-concept scales. To this end, three separate exploratory factor analyses were conducted for the product concept, actual self-concept and ideal self-concept scales using principal component extraction with Varimax rotation (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Initial findings suggested that the product concept scale consisted of two dimensions, whereas the self-concept scales consisted of three dimensions. Interestingly, the first factor was identical across the three factor analyses. This factor contained the following items: (i) exciting/dull, (ii) organized/disorganized, (iii) sophisticated/unsophisticated, (iv) popular/unpopular and (v) friendly/unfriendly. The first factor was retained for two reasons; firstly, it explained most of the variance in the analyses and secondly, the reliability of the other factors was unacceptable (all alpha coefficient values were < 0.50).

Table 16.1 shows the outcome of the factor analysis with Varimax rotation for the product concept scale.

Items of the product concept scale were loaded on the same factor. The level of variance explained by this solution was low but acceptable (54%) and this finding provided evidence for the convergent validity of the measure (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Table 16.2 shows the outcome of the factor analysis with Varimax rotation for the actual self-concept scale.

Table 16.1. The product concept scale: factor analysis with Varimax rotation.

	Factor loading[a]	
The product concept scale	Factor 1	Communality
Dull/exciting	79	62
Disorganized/organized	76	58
Unpopular/popular	61	38
Unsophisticated/sophisticated	77	59
Unfriendly/friendly	72	53
Eigenvalue	2.72	
Explained variance	54.43%	

[a]Numbers are magnitudes of the factor loading multiplied by 100.

Table 16.2. The actual self-concept scale: factor analysis with Varimax rotation.

	Factor loading[a]	
The actual self-concept scale	Factor 1	Communality
Dull/exciting	74	56
Disorganized/organized	56	31
Unpopular/popular	70	49
Unsophisticated/sophisticated	79	63
Unfriendly/friendly	75	56
Eigenvalue	2.57	
Explained variance	51.4%	

[a]Numbers are magnitudes of the factor loading multiplied by 100.

According to Table 16.2, these results were similar to the product concept scale and provided evidence of convergent validity of the actual self-concept scale (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The ideal self-concept scale also produced similar results by extracting 53% of variance in the data set.

Item-to-total correlation coefficients for the restaurant concept scale ranged from 0.44 to 0.64 and the actual self-concept scale ranged from 0.39 to 0.61. The reliability scores of the two scales exceeded the minimum recommended internal consistency threshold (alpha coefficient ≥0.70) and therefore the scores estimated by these scales can be considered as reliable (Churchill, 1979). The item-to-total correlation score for the ideal self-concept scale ranged from 0.39 to 0.53 and the reliability of this scale was also acceptable. The reliability of the attitude scale (alpha coefficient = 0.87) was excellent. The item-to-total correlation for this scale ranged from 0.60 to 0.78 and thus there was no need to eliminate any item from the scale. From the internal consistency reliability measure, the customer satisfaction (0.86) and behavioural intention scales (0.90) were also deemed to be reliable.

Testing of models

The structural models were tested using Maximum Likelihood estimator of LISREL-VIII causal modelling procedure (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996). This testing determined the magnitude of individual relationships, the models' goodness of fit, and the hypothesized paths. PRELIS was used to generate the variance–covariance matrix as input.

The overall fit of the structural model was determined initially by examining the chi-squared statistics for each model. A significant chi-squared statistic indicates an inadequate fit but this statistic is sensitive to sample size and model complexity. Therefore rejection of a model on the basis of this evidence alone is inappropriate (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Other measures of fit compensating for sample size were also applied. These are goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Figure 16.4 shows testing of the satisfaction model and its findings.

As can be seen from the chi-squared statistics and the associated probability value ($P > 0.05$, not significant), the data fit the satisfaction model (chi-squared for the research model was 9.17 with seven degrees of freedom). The other fit indices also showed that the model has a good fit as these estimates are well above the recommended thresholds (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The model also explained a relatively high proportion of the variation in behavioural intention (60%). The path model explained 93% of the variance in predicting customer satisfaction and 35% of variance in estimating attitudes towards restaurant. The service quality model was tested by using the same procedure but
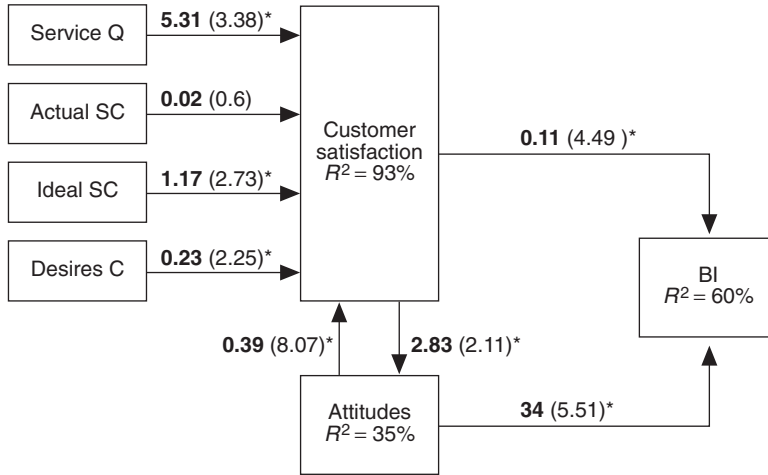
Fig. 16.4. Satisfaction model: antecedents and consequences of satisfaction. *Significant $P < 0.05$, **significant $P < 0.01$. Model fit statistics chi-squared = (7: 9,17, $P = 0.24$, not significant), GFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99, AGFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.05.

the data did not fit to this model (chi-squared = 7: 25.87, $P = 0.000$, GFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.93, AGFI = 0.76, NFI = 0.92, RMSEA = 0.16). Therefore, hypothesis 10 was rejected whereas hypothesis 9 was accepted.

Given this support, the standardized estimates for the model paths and the associated *t*-values for the satisfaction model are provided in Fig. 16.4. Of the eight proposed relationships, seven were statistically significant. For the path leading to behavioural intention, from both customer satisfaction (*t*-value = 4.49) and attitudes (*t*-value = 5.51) are positive and highly significant. These results fully supported hypotheses 1 and 3. Beta values indicated that attitudes have higher impact ($\beta = 0.34$) on the intention to recommend/return behaviour than customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.11$).

Hypotheses 2 and 3 that testing the mutual relationship between customer satisfaction and attitudes were supported, as the two paths were statistically significant (*t*-values = 8.07 and 2.11). As can be seen from the gamma values, the effect of attitudes on satisfaction (2.83) was positive and higher than the effect of satisfaction on attitudes (0.39). Hypotheses 5, 7 and 8 were fully supported as the paths from service quality (*t*-value = 3.38), ideal self-congruence (*t*-value = 2.73) and desires congruence (*t*-value = 2.25) to customer satisfaction were statistically significant.

However, hypothesis 6 was rejected as the relationship between actual self-congruence and satisfaction was not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level (*t*-value = 0.06).

Conclusion

Despite its exploratory nature, the findings suggest that service quality is an antecedent of customer satisfaction and therefore evaluation of service quality leads to customer satisfaction. However, there was no evidence to support the opposite relationship. This finding contributes further to the debate regarding the difference between customer satisfaction and service quality (Ekinci and Riley, 1998; Fournier and Mick, 1999). The study also indicates that customer satisfaction rather than service quality is a better reflection of overall attitudes, as suggested by Oliver (1980). As the relationship between customer satisfaction and attitudes are reciprocal, an attitude not only serves as an antecedent of customer satisfaction but also a consequence. Furthermore, these two concepts have significant impact on customers' behavioural intentions. By the same token, both customer satisfaction and attitudes should be taken into account in predicting customers' intention to recommend and return behaviour.

The study offers evidence for the involvement of self-concept in the evaluation of services due to the fact that the ideal self-concept was found to be an antecedent of customer satisfaction. This supports the observations of Malhotra (1988) and Landon (1974) that the role of the self-concept varies and that either actual or ideal self can be the dominant character in different situations. Exactly how this variation occurs depends on the situation. According to Graeff (1996, p. 16), for example, the ideal-self concept may be more relevant to publicly consumed as opposed to privately consumed products. Hong and Zinkhan (1995) noted that such a result is probably attributed to consumers' strong desire to reach their ideal state, which will serve to improve their self-esteem. One possible explanation may be that when there are several restaurants available, a specific restaurant may upgrade consumers' actual self to ideal self-concept. The restaurant used in this study differentiates itself from the other available restaurants on campus in terms of offering new concepts with brand new facilities. Thus, it aims to satisfy consumers' higher needs (e.g. friendliness, attractive environment) as well as functional needs (e.g. convenient place for eating). This might help to explain why the evaluation was strongly related to ideal self rather than actual self in this study.

An additional contribution of this study is the investigation of the relationship between desires congruence and customer satisfaction. The results indicate that customers use their desires as a comparison standard in their satisfaction decision. This is in line with the notion that values should be seen as one of the antecedents of customer satisfaction (Spreng *et al.*, 1996).

In pragmatic terms, the analysis suggested that service quality, personality of customers,

their desires and attitude towards the service organizations should be taken into account in measuring customer satisfaction. By implication, the survey questionnaires should contain these questions in order to draw a true picture of customer satisfaction. Also, the findings relating to the ideal self-concept congruence and desires congruence may help managers to improve marketing communications. For example, advertising messages should contain the desirable personality traits (e.g. friendliness, excitement) in order to develop a positive attitude towards the service organization. Alternatively, these traits could help managers to position service organizations in competitive markets. The whole idea of self-congruence measures implies that managers should take into account personality of their customers in developing better products. The higher the self-concept congruence means the higher the satisfaction. By implication, service providers should customize delivery of services according to customers' personality traits. For example, if a customer was identified as being egocentric, the strategy of delivering services would be different from a traditional customer.

Although, the study makes important theoretical contributions to the understanding of the antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction, it nevertheless entails certain limitations, which have to be taken into account when interpreting the findings. One of the limitations of the study is the use of non-probability sampling (convenience sample) to validate the underlying theory. The findings are specific to one culture (British nationals) and one service organization (restaurants). Also, the sample size is small and therefore the findings cannot be generalized to the whole population.

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Chapter seventeen

First-time and Repeat Visitors to Orlando, Florida: a Comparative Analysis of Destination Satisfaction

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Abstract

The chapter compares first-time and repeat visitor satisfaction with Orlando, Florida. Factor analysis (PCA) of subjects' ratings on 22 'performance' attributes produced five factors: 'primary', 'secondary' and 'tertiary' attractions, 'facilitators' and 'transport plus'. A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance identified a significant difference between first-time and repeat segments on the 'secondary' attractions; regression of overall tourist satisfaction with Orlando against the factors showed that 'secondary' attractions were the single most influential factor affecting tourists' overall satisfaction with Orlando. Subdivision of the sample into first-timer and repeater segments showed that the overall satisfaction of first-timers and repeaters was explained by different 'hierarchies' of factors. First-timers' overall satisfaction was explained by a four-factor model with 'facilitators' accounting for the dominant contribution and 'secondary' and 'primary' attractions also having significant influence. By comparison, repeater satisfaction was explained by a five-factor model with 'secondary' attractions carrying the most weight followed by 'primary' attractions and 'facilitators'.

Introduction

Customer satisfaction has been defined as post-consumption evaluative judgement (Oliver, 1980; Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991) that represents the 'outcome' for the customer after exposure to the service product (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Kozak, 2001). By comparison, quality refers to the service operation's 'output', i.e. the attributes of the product that are primarily under the control of the operation (Crompton and Love, 1995; Schofield and Fallon, 2000). Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that sat-

isfaction also represents a potentially significant 'outcome' for the operation's 'output' in terms of internal benefits – such as resource analysis, product enhancement and differentiation – and external benefits – such as customer loyalty and positive word-of-mouth recommendation. Given these benefits, it is no surprise that the measurement of tourist satisfaction has become a major area of research in the last three decades (Kozak, 2001). Furthermore, due to the key role played by destinations in most holidays, the measurement of tourist satisfaction at this level would seem particularly relevant.

First-time and Repeat Visitors

The satisfaction measurement debate is further complicated by the influence of previous experience (Crompton and Love, 1995; Kozak, 2001). Research comparing first-time and repeat visitor behaviour at destinations has been the subject of an increasing amount of research in recent years. A number of studies have identified significant differences between first-time and repeat visitors to tourist destinations with respect to behaviour and experience. For example, first-time visitors are more likely to seek variety and new experiences, whereas repeaters will tend to choose familiar places (Gyte and Phelps, 1989; Mazursky, 1989; Watson *et al.*, 1991; Gitelson and Crompton, 1994). Repeaters' behaviour may reflect a variety of motives including: risk reduction; emotional attachments; a desire to show the destination to other people; and also the fact that repeaters are more likely to be seeking relaxation than first-timers. However, variability in behaviour patterns within this group is also likely, for example some repeaters may be more active than others because they wish to explore the destination further (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984). More recently, Oppermann (1997) found significant differences between the behaviour of first-time and repeat visitors to New Zealand. First-timers appeared to be much more active than repeaters, in that they visited many more attractions and sites in the destination area; interestingly, this included both popular and lesser-known sites. By comparison, repeaters visited considerably less attractions and destinations despite their longer stay, indicating that their impact is more geographically concentrated on fewer locations and attractions than that of first-timers. This suggests that certain locations that are not perceived as attractive enough will not be selected for repeat visits (Oppermann, 1996).

Despite the importance of the repeat visitor segment for many attractions and destinations, especially mature destinations (Kozak, 2001), and the increasing attention being paid to repeaters in empirical research, the factors of significance in repeater destination satisfaction have been neglected. The problem is of theoretical interest and the results have practical marketing applications with respect to destination enhancement and promotion. This research attempts to address the weaknesses identified in previous tourist satisfaction research by using a refined methodology, specifically taking into account the role of previous visitation on tourist satisfaction with a destination – Orlando, Florida. The destination-level and prior visitation aspects of the study have been highlighted as important new dimensions of tourist satisfaction measurement (Kozak, 2001).

Methodology

Instrumentation

Empirical comparisons of the reliability and validity of alternative satisfaction models based on visitation to camp sites (Dorfman, 1979; Fick and Brent Ritchie, 1991), events (Crompton and Love, 1995) and restaurants (Yuksel and Rimmington, 1998) have supported the case for a single measurement based on performance, notwithstanding the complex nature of satisfaction due to the influence of a wide range of personal and situational variables, such as needs, disposition, expectations, nationality and travelling companions (Ekinci *et al.*, 2000; Kozak, 2001). Tourists, even first-timers, become more experienced over the course of their holiday due to its longitudinal nature, and consequently have the potential to refine their initial expectations (Danaher and Mattsson, 1994; Weber, 1997). From this perspective, the performance-only conceptualization of satisfaction would seem to be a more theoretically valid approach than one based on a (dis)confirmation model. Indeed, the performance only paradigm is now widely regarded as the most effective construct for satisfaction measurement (Churchill and Surprenant, 1982; Carman, 1990; Cronin and Taylor, 1992). Meyer and Westerbarkey (1996) argue that measurements that focus on perceptions of performance alone are more typical of the cognitive process, and Yuksel and

Rimmington (1998, p. 63) propose that 'performance bears a pre-eminent role in the formation of customer satisfaction because it is the main feature of the consumption experience'. The 'performance-only' construct was therefore adopted in this study to examine first-time and repeat visitor satisfaction with Orlando.

The attributes on which Orlando was evaluated were generated from the triangulation of primary and secondary methods (Jenkins, 1999; Tribe and Snaith, 1999; Oh, 2001). Secondary research took the form of a review of both the relevant academic and commercial literature, including research papers on destination image, quality and satisfaction, and brochures and travel guides respectively. Preliminary primary research incorporated free elicitation during eight focus groups and an open-ended questionnaire distributed to a stratified random sample of employees at the University of Salford. In both cases, subjects were representative of Orlando's UK market. There was consensus on a relatively parsimonious set of elements on which UK visitors make judgements on Orlando and a distinction between the destination's offering of specific attractions and activities, which were dominated by its primary attractions such as theme parks, and generic facilities needed to enjoy these attractions during the holiday, such as accommodation. This procedure produced 22 attributes that were incorporated into a performance-only construct within a questionnaire survey.

The questionnaire required respondents to rate Orlando's attributes according to their performance levels on their current holiday. The performance scale anchors were 'extremely poor' (1) and 'extremely good' (7) with all intervening options clearly labelled. Data relating to personal details, overall satisfaction and visitor intention to return to Orlando and recommend the destination to others were also collected. Overall satisfaction and intention to return and recommend Orlando were measured on seven-point Likert-type scales. The inclusion of these three measures also facilitated an analysis of the performance scale's reliability and construct validity (Yuksel and Rimmington, 1998).

The sample

After an initial pilot study, which resulted in only minor amendments, a post-visit convenience sample of 467 UK visitors to Orlando was taken at Manchester (UK) and Orlando Sanford (USA) airports in September 2001. Orlando was chosen as the destination subject primarily because it is the UK's most popular long-haul holiday destination with 1.31 million UK visitors in 2000 – 43.5% of overseas visitors to Orlando (Orlando CVB Research, 2001). At Manchester airport, subjects were intercepted after checking in, en route to the departure lounge; at Sanford airport, subjects were approached in the departure lounge. The Manchester survey produced 141 usable questionnaires and the Sanford sample produced 326. There were no significant differences ($P > 0.05$) between the samples on the post-visit ratings of Orlando's attributes. On this basis, they were merged; use of such a multiple sample has been proposed by a number of authors to compensate for the practical problems encountered in similar surveys (Oliver, 1997; Yuksel and Rimmington, 1998). First-timers were outnumbered by repeaters in both the Manchester (30% : 70%) and Sanford (35% : 65%) surveys. This reflects the generally high level, i.e. 72%, of repeat visitation to Orlando (Orlando CVB Research, 2001) and to mature destinations in general (Kozak, 2001). The majority (90%) of tourists in the overall sample stayed in Orlando for 2 weeks, which, even given the scale of Orlando's offering, gave them a reasonable time to familiarize themselves with the destination. Most (70%) were travelling in parties of four or more; these were mainly family groups.

Data analysis

The data were analysed using SPSS Version 11. A factor analysis, using principal components as the method of extraction, with Varimax rotation was conducted on the subjects' ratings on each of the 22 variables to reduce multi-collinearity and identify a

smaller set of factors with eigenvalues greater than or equal to 1.0 and factor loadings greater than 0.4 (Stevens, 1992). Cronbach's alpha coefficient, a Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were computed to determine the factorability of the correlation matrix. A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed, after preliminary assumption testing, to investigate the differences between first-time and repeater segments on the factor scores. Finally, multiple regression analysis was employed to examine the factors of significance in first-time and repeat visitor satisfaction with Orlando.

Results and Discussion

Factor analysis of Orlando's attribute performance ratings

The analysis produced a five-factor solution (with eigenvalues >1.0) which explained 56.53% of the overall variance before rotation; 15 of the 21 items had loadings greater than 6.0, indicating a good correlation between the items and the factor groupings they belong to. The KMO value of 0.878 was 'meritorious' (Kaiser, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The results, given in Table 17.1, seem to support the findings from the

Table 17.1. Results of the factor analysis of Orlando's attribute performance ratings.

Orlando's attributes	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communality
Factor 1: Facilitators						
Accommodation	0.803					0.685
Cleanliness	0.763					0.660
Pool	0.744					0.592
Safety	0.719					0.598
Customer service	0.718					0.626
Friendliness of locals	0.513					0.465
Factor 2: Secondary attractions						
Goods at bargain prices		0.802				0.679
Shopping facilities		0.770				0.665
Restaurant VFM		0.753				0.670
Variety of restaurants		0.666				0.534
Opportunity for rest and relaxation		0.457				0.489
Factor 3: Tertiary attractions						
Natural and wildlife attractions and trails			0.780			0.629
Cultural and historic attractions and trails			0.775			0.639
Sports facilities			0.621			0.477
Bus service			0.514			0.338
Nightlife			0.440			0.438
Factor 4: Core attractions						
Many things to see and do				0.808		0.736
Something for everyone				0.743		0.673
Theme parks				0.675		0.535
Factor 5: Transport						
Car-hire service					0.811	0.696
Road signs that are easy to follow					0.401	0.388
Eigenvalue	6.244	2.007	1.686	1.434	1.067	
Variance (%)	28.381	9.123	7.664	6.520	4.851	
Cumulative variance (%)	28.381	37.504	45.168	51.688	56.539	
Cronbach's alpha	0.8502	0.7896	0.7888	0.7382	0.5224	
Number of items (total = 21)	6	5	5	3	2	

qualitative research at the front end of the study in terms of the distinction which was made between Orlando's attractions (e.g. its theme parks) and its secondary elements (e.g. accommodation and customer service), which facilitated the enjoyment of the main features. Indeed, there appears to be a good fit between the factors and Kotler *et al.*'s (1999) 'product level concept' in that *core, secondary* and *tertiary* attractions, *facilitators* and *transport plus* were identified. The core, secondary and tertiary attractions represent the 'pull' elements, whilst the facilitators and transport plus groupings enable the attractions to be experienced and optimized by the tourist.

A one-way between-groups MANOVA was used to investigate the differences between first-time and repeat visitors on the factor scores. Preliminary assumption testing using Levene's test of equality of error variances ($P > 0.05$) and Box's test of equality of variance–covariance matrices ($P = 0.01$) showed no significant violations. There was a statistically significant difference between first-time and repeat visitors on the combined factors: $F = 4.39$, $P < 0.01$; Wilks' Lambda = 0.96; partial eta squared = 0.04. When the results for the factors were considered separately, the only difference to reach statistical significance using a Bonferoni adjusted alpha level of 0.01 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996) was on Factor 2 (secondary attractions): $F = 16.96$, $P < 0.01$; partial eta squared = 0.04; only 4% of the variance in Factor 2 is explained by first-time or repeat visitor status.

The regression of 'overall satisfaction with Orlando' against the five factors showed that Factor 2 was the single most influential factor affecting tourists' overall satisfaction with the destination; a 1-unit increase in the performance of the secondary attractions would lead to a 0.330-unit increase in tourists' overall level of satisfaction, all other variables being held constant. Additionally, the performance of 11 of the 22 Orlando attributes were rated significantly higher by repeat visitors than first-timers ($P < 0.05$). Consequently, the sample was subdivided into first-time visitors and repeaters to analyse both the attribute loadings on the factors associated with each segment and the variance in each segment's overall satisfaction explained by the factors.

Factor analysis of first-time and repeat visitor ratings

The results of the factor analysis of first-timer and repeater satisfaction ratings on Orlando's attributes are given in Tables 17.2 and 17.3. In both cases, the analysis produced a five-factor solution (with eigenvalues >1.0) which explained 58.78% (first-timers) and 56.80% (repeaters) of the overall variance before rotation; for both segments, 16 of the 21 items had loadings greater than 6.0, indicating a good correlation between the items and the factor groupings they belong to. The KMO values of 0.841 (first-timers) and 0.856 (repeaters) were 'meritorious' (Kaiser, 1974) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Factor 1 – facilitators – loads on generic and functional attributes that are not enough in themselves to attract visitors, but their presence enables and supplements enjoyment of the destination and its attractions. Furthermore, as such they offer a frame of reference for comparison of one destination with another. Interestingly, 'friendliness of the locals' loads on this factor for first-timers only, whereas in the case of repeaters, this attribute loads on to the transport plus factor, which also represents facilitating features.

Factor 2 is comprised of secondary attractions. Whilst Orlando's theme parks remain its primary attraction, the destination is becoming increasingly well known for its shopping and eating facilities, which was highlighted in both the secondary research and the results from the open-ended questions and focus groups. For example, Orlando CVB Research (2001) identified shopping and dining in restaurants as the top two holiday activities, outstripping visiting the theme parks, for UK visitors in 2000. Whilst 'opportunity for rest and relaxation' loads on this factor for repeaters (Table 17.3), in the case of first-timers (Table 17.2), it loads on the tertiary attractions, which arguably represent the least popular attractions. These loadings would seem to support previous empirical research on repeat visita-

Table 17.2. Factors derived from 'first-timer' performance ratings on Orlando's attributes.

Orlando's attributes	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communality
Factor 1: Facilitators						
Customer service	0.792					0.704
Accommodation	0.788					0.689
Cleanliness	0.735					0.663
Pool	0.717					0.619
Safety	0.686					0.551
Friendliness of locals	0.570					0.471
Factor 2: Secondary attractions						
Goods at bargain prices		0.807				0.717
Shopping facilities		0.779				0.664
Restaurant VFM		0.760				0.697
Variety of restaurants		0.659				0.506
Factor 3: Tertiary attractions						
Cultural and historic attractions and trails			0.754			0.611
Natural and wildlife attractions and trails			0.743			0.673
Sports facilities			0.606			0.519
Nightlife			0.587			0.514
Opportunity for rest and relaxation			0.420			0.550
Factor 4: Primary attractions						
Many things to see and do				0.848		0.777
Something for everyone				0.695		0.692
Theme parks				0.621		0.479
Factor 5: Transport plus						
Car-hire service					0.718	0.610
Weather					0.684	0.515
Bus/trolley service					0.457	0.374
Eigenvalue	6.424	2.073	1.789	1.450	1.195	
Variance (%)	29.200	9.422	8.131	6.592	5.430	
Cumulative variance (%)	29.200	38.622	46.754	53.346	58.776	
Cronbach's alpha	0.8543	0.8058	0.8732	0.7433	0.5720	
Number of items (total = 21)	6	4	5	3	3	

tion which identified that first-timers are far more active than repeaters (Oppermann, 1996), whilst repeaters are more likely to be seeking relaxation than first-timers (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984).

Factor 3 mainly represents the tertiary attractions for which Orlando is less well-known. Despite their quality and abundance, they are overshadowed by the primary and secondary attractions. Orlando is now trying to broaden its appeal by emphasizing these less famous resources, in particular to repeat visitors (Brodie, 2000). Given that Orlando's nightlife is not a major pull factor for UK holidaymakers in general due to the variety of, and toll taken by, day-time activities, and

the fact that first-timers are less likely to be seeking relaxation than repeaters, the loading of 'nightlife' and 'opportunity for rest and relaxation' on this factor for first-timers (Table 17.2) is not unexpected. The fact that 'bus/trolley service' loads on this factor for repeaters only (Table 17.3), although admittedly the common variance is low, may be influenced by the fact that a statistically significant (P <0.05) higher number of repeaters than first-timers used a car to get around Orlando.

Factor 4 represents the core attractions. The focus groups highlighted that much of Orlando's appeal and fame lay not only in its theme parks but also in its ability to meet

Table 17.3. Factors derived from 'repeater' performance ratings on Orlando's attributes.

Orlando's attributes	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Communality
Factor 1: Facilitators						
Accommodation	0.821					0.706
Cleanliness	0.765					0.664
Pool	0.761					0.598
Safety	0.719					0.613
Customer service	0.660					0.632
Factor 2: Secondary attractions						
Goods at bargain prices		0.796				0.657
Shopping facilities		0.762				0.644
Restaurant VFM		0.739				0.644
Variety of restaurants		0.664				0.601
Opportunity for rest and relaxation		0.477				0.457
Factor 3: Tertiary attractions						
Natural and wildlife attractions and trails			0.794			0.674
Cultural and historic attractions and trails			0.777			0.645
Sports facilities			0.608			0.519
Bus/trolley service			0.502			0.362
Factor 4: Primary attractions						
Many things to see and do				0.771		0.712
Something for everyone				0.727		0.649
Theme parks				0.669		0.538
Factor 5: Transport plus						
Car-hire service					0.760	0.618
Nightlife					0.514	0.487
Road signs that are easy to follow					0.481	0.415
Friendliness of locals					0.466	0.505
Eigenvalue	6.157	2.069	1.764	1.332	1.175	
Variance (%)	27.985	9.405	8.017	6.054	5.343	
Cumulative variance (%)	27.985	37.389	45.407	51.460	56.803	
Cronbach's alpha	0.8453	0.7853	0.7606	0.7235	0.6382	
Number of items (total = 21)	5	5	4	3	4	

the diverse needs of large and diverse tourist parties, including extended families, over the duration of a typical 2-week holiday. Given that 90% of the sample was staying in Orlando for 2 weeks and that 70% was travelling in parties of four or more, with no significant differences between first-timers and repeaters, the loading of these key destination strengths on a single factor is hardly surprising. Interestingly, the focus groups identified that part of the appeal of theme parks for repeaters lay not only in emotional attachment and showing the destination to first-timers in the same travelling party, as per Gitelson and Crompton (1984), but also in theme park augmenta-

tion (Brodie, 2000) since the last visit, which emphasizes the relevance of this issue to both mature destinations as well as those in earlier stages of the life-cycle.

As in the case of Factor 1, Factor 5 – transport plus – would generally seem to represent attributes that facilitate the enjoyment of Orlando's attractions. Apart from this, there is little similarity in terms of the loadings related to first-timer and repeater attribute ratings; the only common element is 'car-hire service' and an apparent leaning towards transport. The majority (70%) of respondents used a hire-car to get around Orlando during their holiday, which is understandable for a number of reasons: the spread of attractions

and activities around the destination; the independence offered by car travel; the ease of car-hire and price of fuel at the destination. Orlando is a destination where a car is arguably just as necessary to get around to enjoy its attractions, as to get away from them; this may well explain why a statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) higher number of repeaters than first-timers used a car to get around, notwithstanding the high level of familiarity with Orlando. In the case of repeaters (Table 17.3), the loading of 'road signs that are easy to follow', 'nightlife' and 'friendliness of locals' may reflect a greater propensity in repeaters to explore a destination further (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984).

Regression of tourists' overall satisfaction on the factors

The results of the regression of the visitors' overall satisfaction with Orlando against the factors are given in Tables 17.4 and 17.5, i.e. first-timers and repeaters respectively. The regression models achieved satisfactory lev-

els of goodness-of-fit in predicting overall satisfaction as indicated by the multiple correlation coefficient (R), coefficient of determination (R^2) and F ratio. Firstly, the R value of independent variables on the dependent variable is 0.575 (first-timers) and 0.523 (repeaters), which shows that the tourists had high satisfaction levels with the factors. Secondly, the R^2 values of 0.331 and 0.274 suggest that 33% and 27% of the variation in overall first-timers' and repeaters' respective satisfaction is explained by the factors. Finally, the F ratio values of 19.169 and 21.911 are significant at 0.001 indicating that the beta coefficients can be used to explain each of the factors' relative contribution to the variance in tourist's overall satisfaction.

In the case of first-timers (Table 17.4), the facilitators carry the heaviest weight in their overall satisfaction with Orlando; a 1-unit increase in the performance would lead to a 0.382 unit increase in overall satisfaction, all other variables being held constant. This may well be due to the high quality of Orlando on these functional attributes, particularly in comparison with other destina-

Table 17.4. Results of regression of overall satisfaction against first-timer performance ratings on Orlando's attributes.

Dependent variable:	First-time tourists' degree of overall satisfaction with Orlando (used as a surrogate indicator)
Independent variables:	Four orthogonal factors representing the components of Orlando's performance
Goodness of fit:	Multiple R = 0.575
	R^2 = 0.331
	Adjusted R^2 = 0.314
	SE = 0.53283

Analysis of variance	D.f.	Sum of squares	Mean square
Regression	4	21.769	5.442
Residual	155	44.006	0.284

F = 19.169
Significant F = 0.000

Variable in the equation	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig. T
Independent variable					
Facilitators (Factor 1)	0.246	0.042	0.382	5.820	0.000
Secondary attractions (Factor 2)	0.192	0.042	0.298	4.539	0.000
Primary attractions (Factor 4)	0.156	0.042	0.243	3.700	0.000
Tertiary attractions (Factor 3)	0.123	0.042	0.192	2.917	0.000
Constant	4.338	0.041		104.883	0.004

Table 17.5. Results of regression of overall satisfaction against repeater performance ratings on Orlando's attributes.

Dependent variable:	Repeating tourists' degree of overall satisfaction with Orlando (used as a surrogate indicator)				
Independent variables:	Five orthogonal factors representing the components of Orlando's performance				
Goodness of fit:	Multiple $R = 0.523$				
	$R^2 = 0.274$				
	Adjusted $R^2 = 0.261$				
	SE = 0.52338				

Analysis of variance	D.f.	Sum of squares		Mean square	
Regression	5	30.010		6.002	
Residual	291	79.714		0.274	
$F = 21.911$					
Significant $F = 0.000$					

Variable in the equation	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig. T
Independent variable					
Secondary attractions (Factor 2)	0.212	0.03	0.348	6.964	0.000
Primary attractions (Factor 4)	0.147	0.03	0.241	4.824	0.000
Facilitators (Factor 1)	0.143	0.03	0.234	4.687	0.000
Tertiary attractions (Factor 3)	0.0942	0.03	0.155	3.096	0.002
Transport (Factor 5)	0.07591	0.03	0.125	2.495	0.011
Constant	4.458	0.03		147.773	0.013

tions, which was highlighted during the preliminary primary research. Moreover, given Orlando's reputation as a 'busy' holiday destination amongst UK holidaymakers, for example in comparison to a more traditional '3S' location, these attributes may have a more significant role to play. Secondary attractions are the second most influential factor affecting first-timers' overall satisfaction; a 1-unit increase in the performance of these would lead to a 0.298 unit increase in overall satisfaction.

Since Orlando is renowned for the number and variety of its attractions, especially its man-made theme parks, it might be expected that the primary attractions would make the greatest contribution to overall destination satisfaction. However, the results of the regression identify that these core attractions carried only the third heaviest weight for first-timers in their overall destination satisfaction. A 1-unit increase in their performance would lead to a 0.243-unit increase in tourists' overall level of satisfaction, all other variables

being held constant. Given the higher contributions of facilitators and secondary attractions, this lower influence may be due to first-time visitors' relative unfamiliarity with Orlando's high-quality offering in terms of accommodation and shopping in comparison to a greater 'familiarity' with its theme parks, particularly due to the latter's heavy promotion. The regression analysis results showed that the least influential factor on first-timers' overall satisfaction was Orlando's tertiary attractions; a 1-unit increase in their performance would lead to a 0.192-unit increase in tourists' overall level of satisfaction, all other variables being held constant. Interestingly, 'opportunity for rest and relaxation' loads on this factor for first-timers only, which would seem to support previous empirical research on repeat visitation which identified that first-timers are far more active than repeaters (Oppermann, 1997).

For repeaters (Table 5), the secondary attractions carry the heaviest weight in their overall satisfaction with Orlando; a 1-unit

increase in the performance of these attractions would lead to a 0.348 increase in overall satisfaction, all other variables being held constant. This is reflected by the fact that the performance of all attributes within this factor were rated significantly higher ($P < 0.05$) by repeaters than first-timers. Given the 'experiential' nature of holidays, it is interesting that the performance of 'tangible' purchases and the locations in which they are purchased make such a contribution. This may reflect an attempt to make the experience more tangible and/or be due to the perception that Orlando offers good value for money, and even bargains, in terms of both food and shopping, which was again identified in the preliminary primary research. Furthermore, repeaters may have already identified the best bargains and places to shop and eat on previous visits. The loading of 'opportunity for rest and relaxation' on this factor is interesting for a number of reasons. Given that Orlando is a highly active holiday destination for UK holidaymakers, due to the scale and scope of its attractions and possibly its distance from the beach, it may be that shopping and dining represent crucial opportunities for visitors to re-charge their batteries. Furthermore, the loading may be influenced by the fact that repeaters are generally more likely to be seeking relaxation than first-timers (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984).

Unlike first-timers, Orlando's primary attractions carry the second highest weight in repeaters' overall satisfaction. Despite their higher ranking contribution – a 1-unit increase in their performance would result in a 0.241-unit increase in overall satisfaction (all other variables being held constant) – their contribution is comparable to that in first-timers' overall satisfaction (0.243), which suggests some consistency in their role in both first-time and repeat visitation. This may reflect the fact that many repeaters return to the theme parks to show the destination to other first-time group members (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984) and/or because of theme park augmentation.

Facilitators carry the third heaviest weight for repeaters in their overall satisfaction with Orlando; a 1-unit increase in the performance of these attractions would lead to a 0.234-unit increase in overall satisfaction, all other variables being held constant. This contrasts with the weighting of this factor for first-timers, and may reflect the fact that previous experience has conditioned repeaters to the high standard of these attributes. Tertiary attractions and transport plus make the lowest contribution to repeaters' overall satisfaction. In the case of tertiary attractions, this would seem to be a cause of some concern at destination management level, given that Orlando is trying to enhance its appeal by emphasizing these less famous resources to repeat visitors (Brodie, 2000). The contribution, admittedly small, of transport plus to overall satisfaction for repeaters but not first-timers, i.e. a 1-unit increase in the performance of this factor would lead to a 0.125-unit increase in overall repeater satisfaction, all other variables being held constant, would seem to support the previous proposal that repeaters make more of an effort to familiarize themselves with the destination as a whole, and not just its mainstream offerings.

Summary

First-timer and repeater performance ratings on 22 Orlando attributes resulted in five factors: primary, secondary and tertiary attractions, facilitators and transport plus, with a statistically significant difference between the segments on the secondary attractions – the single most influential factor affecting tourists' overall satisfaction with the destination. The overall satisfaction of first-timers and repeaters was explained by different 'hierarchies' of factors. First-time visitor satisfaction was explained by a four-factor model, with facilitators and secondary and primary attractions contributing most to their overall satisfaction. By comparison, a five-factor model comprising these same four factors and an additional transport plus factor helped explain the overall satisfaction of repeat visitors to Orlando; secondary attractions, primary attractions and facilitators carried the heaviest weights in repeaters' overall satisfaction.

Given that destinations are increasingly being challenged to compete for tourists, they need to continually build on their strengths and supplement their offerings in order to both maintain their appeal and keep the customer satisfied. In effect, these two key objectives for destinations 'book-end' the tourist's holiday decision-making and experience by appealing to tourists in the first instance and subsequently 'sending them home happy', and hopefully ready to return and recommend.

Despite its core reputation as the 'theme park capital of the world', the regression highlighted the key role of both facilitators, such as accommodation and customer service, and secondary attractions, such as shopping and dining, in visitors' overall satisfaction with Orlando. Consequently, it would seem that Orlando is succeeding in keeping its UK market, comprising first-time and repeat visitors satisfied, both in general and specifically in terms of their main holiday activities.

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Chapter eighteen
Aristotelian Ethical Values within a Tourism/Hospitality Industry Context

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Abstract

Ethical beliefs are generally held to be among the more potent moderators of human behaviour. Those ethical precepts brought to the workplace by potential employees may have a profound influence, not only upon the outcome of many staff–visitor interactions, but also upon the overall level of success enjoyed by the organization, yet relatively little research has been undertaken in regard to the variety and intensity of ethical precepts as held by potential tourism/hospitality industry employees. Whilst an increasing number of people in the tourism/hospitality industry are now aware of the importance of a clear and articulated ethical framework within which to conduct their operations, relatively little knowledge is currently available with respect to the types of and commitment levels to fundamental ethical precepts that aspirant employees are likely to bring to the industry. Furthermore, it is suggested that such ethical beliefs are highly likely to manifest themselves within the context of the service encounter, and therefore within the evaluative processes of visitors. This study has sought to examine ideal ethical beliefs together with employment context preferences and also perceived visitor, staff and management ethical expectations among a sample of secondary college students in a major Australian tourist destination, many of whom would likely later seek post-secondary college education or immediate employment within the tourism/hospitality industry. It has been found that ethical ideals generally exceeded those perceived to be held by current tourism/hospitality industry staff and also tourism industry management; respondent ideals were perceived to be similar to those of visitors, except in regard to precepts such as helpfulness and frankness. Those less likely to perceive a divergence between ideal and actual staff friendliness were the ones more likely to favour tourism/hospitality/retail and also tourism/transport employment contexts. Finally, those graduands more likely to perceive themselves as holding ethical beliefs significantly different from visitors in regard to frankness were the ones more likely to deem tourism/hospitality industry employment contexts as undesirable. Implications of these various findings are addressed.

Introduction

Boyatzis *et al.* (2002) have asserted that, in career decision making, issues such as ethics are of major importance in individuals' lives, no matter what the age or the life-stage at which that person may be. Argyle (1989) has suggested that sufficient evidence now exists to conclude the personal values have a strong influence over career choice for those seeking to enter the workplace. Emsler (1995) points out that career-choice/vocational decision making does not belong solely to adult life; young people, including those in the final years of college, often have developed distinct beliefs and intentions regarding the world of work. Moreover, they are likely to have begun the process of forming intentions as to preferred work contexts, as well as sets of beliefs in respect of those people already operating within those contexts such as employers, employees and customers. Personal values, Emsler further suggests, are important components of this career decision-making process, and are likely to accompany the individual through the various preparatory stages of life and on into the workplace.

Arnold (2001) advocates the utility of a socio-cognitive psychological perspective in offering useful insights into such processes, and cites the work of Moss and Frieze (1993), who have found that students' preferences amongst job offers could be explained both by the extent to which offers matched students' desired job attributes, and also by the extent to which students' stereotypes of people already working within the jobs offered matched their self-concept. It is also pointed out by Arnold that career decision making might profitably be understood within the context of a person–environment interaction; within such a notion, the centrality of the personal values and ethical precepts of the individual ought not be underestimated. Furnham (1997) also suggests that, within the domain of vocational choice, person–environment fit models are important: motivation to a particular workplace might best be comprehended by the fit between the characteristics of the individual (including their value systems) and their perceptions regarding the demands of the job and the characteristics of the employers, the employees and the customers. Furnham further asserts that an understanding of how individuals conceptualize and rate the elements of workplaces is essential in successful management decision making, having long-term effects upon both productivity and work satisfaction. Here also, the concept of person–environment fit is of major importance.

Human values

An area of psychology that touches directly upon issues concerning ethics and morality is that of human values. A great deal of research has now been accomplished in this area, principally within a social psychological framework. Perhaps the best-known theorist is this field is Milton Rokeach; within his theory values were regarded as preferences for desirable life states (such as freedom or equality) or as ethical behaviour (such as honesty or altruism). For each person, values are said to be organized within an overall system, which Rokeach (1973) described as an enduring hierarchy of component values along some continuum of relative importance. Rokeach, moreover, would suggest that an individual's value system is generally stable, and may be measured in various ways. Rokeach had people rank order lists of instrumental and terminal values according to how important such values were regarded as guiding principles within their lives. The stability within individual value systems is understood by many commentators against the backdrop of the importance of values to the integrity of the self; the general stability of value systems is held necessary so as to express the coherence of the self over time and across various life situations (Rokeach, 1973; Feather, 1975, 1996).

Ethical values, within such a framework, are conceived of as beliefs about desirable or undesirable ways of behaving, or about the desirability or otherwise of general goals. Such values are more abstract than are attitudes, in the sense that they are assumed to transcend specific objects, events and situations. They furthermore are commonly

regarded as serving an evaluative function: individuals employ these various ethical precepts when they judge outcomes, events and behaviour, or when they make decisions upon particular courses of action that typically involve both life goals and those people about them. It is commonly held that the ethical values individuals hold are considerably fewer in number than are the many specific attitudes that people constantly reveal in respect to the events, people and environment about them. Commentators such as Rokeach (1973), Ball-Rokeach *et al.* (1984) and Schwartz (1996) would suggest that all ethical values may not be regarded as being equal of importance; such ethical values are said to exhibit themselves in each of us at various levels of estimation. Moreover, they are not, as Feather (1996) and Seligman *et al.* (1996) have pointed out, cold cognitions, but are typically linked to the affective system; individuals may feel contented, happy, justified or vindicated when their ethical values find expression or are perceived to be fulfilled. They may also, by way of contrast, experience frustration, anger, guilt or confusion if such ethical values are frustrated, misunderstood, infracted or rejected.

Ethics and tourism

Within the tourism, hospitality and leisure domains, there is now an emerging awareness of the importance of ethics. Various studies have now appeared, relating ethical understandings to specific industry contexts: leisure studies – McNamee *et al.* (2001); tourism – Fennell (1998); codes of ethics – Coughlan (2000); eco-tourism – Malloy and Fennell (1998). Tourism and hospitality ethics education has also seen a surge of interest over the last decade or so. Both Martin (1998) and Vallen and Casado (2000) have pointed out that there is a need to prepare students to logically and ethically solve industry dilemmas that they will undoubtedly face, and that educators need to equip future tourism and hospitality leaders with the skills, the confidence and the self-esteem to make the best ethical decisions possible. There have been a number of studies examining

ethical conceptualizations and decision making styles within educational contexts, such as those reported by Enghagen and Hott (1992), Hall and Enghagen (1991), Kent *et al.* (1993) and Wheeler (1994). A recent study by Stevens (2001) examined the responses of human resource managers and hospitality students to a variety of ethical scenarios, involving issues such as theft, racial prejudice, keeping gifts and false accusations. The human resource managers and students rated the act of theft the most unethical, followed by sexual harassment, and then an attempt to obtain proprietary information. Students were revealed to have rated the scenarios as less unethical than did the human resource managers. Stevens concludes by making the point that the students did not view the situations with the same degree of ethical caution as did the human resource managers, and suggests that much is yet to be understood in regard to the processes by which students went about making their ethical decisions.

The derivation of ethical beliefs

Until the latter half of the 20th century, ethics was dominated in large measure by two major theories: utilitarianism and Kantian or deontological philosophy. Deontological theory was basically energized by the works of the 18th-century philosopher Immanuel Kant; utilitarianism owes its inspiration to the philosophers Jeremy Bentham and J.S. Mill. In more recent decades, the term virtue ethics has come to represent an approach to ethics, which highlights ethical character, and is in stark contrast to the approaches that emphasize rules and duties (deontological) or approaches, which emphasize the consequences of a citizen's actions (utilitarianism). The exponents of virtue ethics would seek to emphasize the character of the person in the understanding of any ethical action. Hursthouse (1997) would suggest that virtue ethics is both an old and a new theory: old in so far as it reaches back as far as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, and new in that it has been revivified and remodelled in the second part of the 20th century.

Virtues, Aristotle suggested, are traits of character manifested in habitual actions. However, because such an explanation does not distinguish between virtues and vices, Pincoffs (1986) has argued that virtues can be more precisely defined as traits of character manifested in habitual actions that are good for a person to have. Aristotle suggested that many virtues may be identified, and did so within his writings. Rachels (1995, 1998) has distinguished four virtues from Aristotle's work that are held to be of prime importance in daily life: courage, generosity, honesty and loyalty to family, friends and close associates. Finally, Rachels makes the point the major virtues are mandated not by social convention, but rather by basic facts about the common human condition.

Crisp and Slote (1997) have also held that such virtues are traits of character that are good for people to have; moreover, as Rachels has pointed out, the four abovementioned virtues are deemed important for all. Whilst many of the Aristotelian virtues are said to fluctuate in intensity and are sometimes absent in some members of the population, the four major virtues cited are commonly held as important for all people. This research has sought to operationalize and explore the abovementioned four major virtues of courage, generosity, honesty and loyalty among potential employees as they may mediate tourism industry employment context preferences, and are perceived to be esteemed by visitors, by tourism industry staff and by tourism management.

Method

Subjects

Four hundred and ninety-three students enrolled in years 11 and 12 in a number of state high schools from the Cairns region of northern Australia were sampled. Students were surveyed during August and September, when many were considering post high school study or employment options. Ross (1995, 1997, 1998) has found that there is generally a high level of interest among secondary school graduates in tourism and hospitality industry management employment, with many students being prepared to undergo university/college-level training in order to achieve these vocational goals.

Measures

Respondents were asked to rate each of the following ethical precepts, according to how important they believed them to be rated by tourism industry staff, by tourism industry management and by visitors, and, finally, how important they personally regarded them to be. Each of the four ethical value precepts have been taken from the notions suggested by Aristotle, and have also appeared in the writings of both Rokeach and Feather; furthermore, each ethical precept was adapted to the tourism/hospitality industry workplace context, particularly as each precept may be interpreted within a service quality framework (Noe, 1999):

Important   5 4 3 2 1   Unimportant

Being friendly	Being honest	Being frank	Being helpful

Respondents were also requested to rate each of the following work context preferences thus:

Highly preferred   5 4 3 2 1   Not preferred at all

Mining	Manufacturing	Forestry
Hi-technology	Rural	Light industries
Tourism	Heavy industries	Service industries
Transport	Government	Education
Commerce/finance	Retail	Hospitality

Age and gender were also recorded.

Procedure

The survey was distributed among the major state high schools in the Far North Queensland region of Australia, and administered to students during class hours by a careers counsellor in each school. The non-response rate was less than 11%.

Results

A principal components factor analysis performed on the set of work context preference ratings revealed three factors with eigenvalues greater than unity. The first factor accounted for 24% of the variance, and loaded on transport and tourism. The second factor accounted for approximately 16% of the variance, and loaded on tourism, hospitality and retail contexts. The third factor accounted for over 9% of the variance, and loaded on the region's traditional industries such as commerce and government. The transport/tourism and the

tourism, hospitality and retail sets of responses have been summed and used as factors in subsequent analyses. It is worth noting that, because of the dominant position that the tourism/hospitality industry occupies within the region surveyed, most transportation involves visitors; a great many of the respondents would, in all likelihood, have had such an understanding in mind. For this reason, the transport factor may be regarded as a type of tourism employment context factor.

A major interest in this study concerned the divergences (i.e. deviations) as between ethical ideals and perceived ethical ideals among tourism/hospitality staff, management and visitors. Table 18.1 contains means, standard deviations, standard errors and ranges associated with divergences between the ideal and perceived staff, management and visitor ethical expectations. Table 18.2 contains a summary of the directionality of each of these divergences. These tables reveal the most prominent divergence as between respondents' own ideals and perceived staff

Table 18.1. Descriptive statistics associated with ethical precept divergences.

Divergence	Mean diff.	Std dev.	Std error	Count
Friendliness ideal–staff	2.203	1.511	0.073	429
Honesty ideal–staff	0.285	1.199	0.057	442
Frankness ideal–staff	0.557	1.200	0.057	442
Helpfulness ideal–staff	−0.462	1.484	0.071	442
Friendliness ideal–mgmt	0.235	1.146	0.054	446
Honesty ideal–mgmt	1.077	1.398	0.067	442
Frankness ideal–mgmt	1.856	1.482	0.071	439
Helpfulness ideal–mgmt	−0.147	1.585	0.075	442
Friendliness ideal–visitors	0.025	1.032	0.049	447
Honesty ideal–visitors	−0.011	1.185	0.057	440
Frankness ideal–visitors	0.419	1.140	0.054	442
Helpfulness ideal–visitors	−0.381	1.451	0.069	441

Table 18.2. Directionality of ethical precept divergences.

Ethical precept	Mean difference	Directionality of divergence
Ideal–perceived tourism staff ideal		
Friendliness	2.203	Ethical ideal clearly exceeds staff ideal
Honesty	0.285	Ethical ideal exceeds staff ideal
Frankness	0.557	Ethical ideal exceeds staff ideal
Helpfulness	−0.462	Perceived staff ideal exceeds own ideal
Ideal–perceived tourism management ideal		
Friendliness	0.235	Ethical ideal exceeds mgmt ideal
Honesty	1.077	Ethical ideal clearly exceeds mgmt ideal
Frankness	1.856	Ethical ideal clearly exceeds mgmt ideal
Helpfulness	−0.147	Perceived mgmt ideal exceeds own ideal
Ideal–perceived visitor ideal		
Friendliness	0.025	Little difference
Honesty	−0.011	Little difference
Frankness	0.419	Ethical ideal exceeds visitor ideal
Helpfulness	−0.381	Perceived visitor ideal exceeds own ideal

friendliness ideals. The helpfulness ethical precept, however, evidenced a different response: the perceived staff ideal was rated higher than the respondent's ethical ideal. In regard to ideal-management divergences, honesty and frankness emerged as being thought of as more important than did management. For ideal–visitor ethical divergences, frankness was deemed more important for the respondents than they were perceived so to be by the visitors; helpfulness, though, was found to be reverse: visitors were perceived to rate this more highly than would the respondents.

Paired *t*-test analyses have been applied to pairs of ethical ratings, and also to pairs of ethical divergences; Table 18.3 contains paired *t*-tests for ethical precepts, whereas Table 18.4 contains paired *t*-tests for ethical divergence comparisons. From Table 18.3 it can be seen that most pairs of ratings evidenced significant differences; those that did not involved the ideal–visitor analysis for friendliness, the ideal–visitor analysis for honesty, the staff–visitor analysis for frankness and the staff–visitor analysis for helpfulness. Table 18.4 reveals that the only non-significant analysis involved the comparison ideal–staff vs. ideal–visitor for the helpfulness ethical precept; for helpfulness, therefore, the differences between the respondent–staff divergence and the respondent–visitors divergence did not emerge as significant.

Multiple regression analyses have been employed in this study so as to examine the relative predictive power of each divergence, using the two tourism-related work context factors as criterion variables. Two significant functions were so formed, both involving ideal–staff divergences. Table 18.5 reveals the friendliness ideal–staff divergence to significantly predict tourism/hospitality/retail employment preference, with the directionality of the standardized coefficient suggesting that those respondents less likely to perceive an ideal–staff divergence as being more likely to favour this type of employment. Table 18.6 reveals a similar result, revealing those students who saw their own friendliness ideals and those of tourism industry staff members as similar being the ones more likely to favour a tourism/transport work context.

Finally, Kruskal–Wallis analysis of variance (ANOVA; by ranks) procedures have been employed so as to further explore the frankness ethical precept in relation to tourism industry employment preference. Table 18.7 reveals that lower preferences for tourism/transport context employment to be significantly associated with higher estimations of the visitor frankness ideal, whereas lower levels of the tourism/transport employment interest were associated with mid-range and higher levels of the visitor frankness precept. For the frankness ideal–visitor ethical precept divergences, however, lower preferences for the

Table 18.3. Paired *t*-tests performed on ethical precept ratings.

Divergence	Mean diff.	D.f.	*t*-value	*P*-value
Friendliness ethical divergences				
Ideal–staff	2.203	428	30.192	<0.0001
Ideal–mgmt	0.235	445	4.339	<0.0001
Ideal–visitor	0.025	446	0.504	0.6143
Staff–mgmt	−1.969	445	−28.287	<0.0001
Staff–visitor	−2.201	437	−31.334	<0.0001
Mgmt–visitor	−0.204	454	−3.799	0.0002
Honesty ethical divergences				
Ideal–staff	0.285	441	4.998	<0.0001
Ideal–mgmt	1.077	440	16.185	<0.0001
Ideal–visitor	−0.011	439	−0.201	0.8407
Staff–mgmt	0.781	473	11.972	<0.0001
Staff–visitor	−0.286	454	−5.271	<0.0001
Mgmt–visitor	−1.088	451	−17.200	<0.0001
Frankness ethical divergences				
Ideal–staff	0.557	441	9.751	<0.0001
Ideal–mgmt	1.856	438	26.247	<0.0001
Ideal–visitor	0.419	441	7.716	<0.0001
Staff–mgmt	1.229	474	16.554	<0.0001
Staff–visitor	−0.115	452	−1.812	0.0707
Mgmt–visitor	−1.396	449	−18.781	<0.0001
Helpfulness ethical divergences				
Ideal–staff	−0.462	441	−6.536	<0.0001
Ideal–mgmt	−0.147	441	−2.851	0.0407
Ideal–visitor	−0.381	440	−5.515	<0.0001
Staff–mgmt	0.297	463	4.731	<0.0001
Staff–visitor	0.091	449	1.443	0.1497
Mgmt–visitor	−0.241	451	−3.720	0.0002

Table 18.4. Paired *t*-tests performed on ethical divergence comparisons.

Divergence comparisons	Mean differences	D.f.	*t*-value	*P*-value
Friendliness divergence comparisons				
I–S vs. I–M	1.981	425	28.228	<0.0001
I–S vs. I–V	2.188	424	31.086	<0.0001
I–M vs. I–V	0.197	441	3.653	0.0003
Honesty divergence comparisons				
I–S vs. I–M	−0.781	437	−11.522	<0.0001
I–S vs. I–V	0.305	435	5.477	<0.0001
I–M vs. I–V	1.090	434	17.112	<0.0001
Frankness divergence comparisons				
I–S vs. I–M	−1.297	436	−17.113	<0.0001
I–S vs. I–V	0.139	438	2.175	0.0301
I–M vs. I–V	1.422	435	19.000	<0.0001
Helpfulness divergence comparisons				
I–S vs. I–M	−0.303	438	−4.736	<0.0001
I–S vs. I–V	−0.068	437	−1.073	0.2839
I–M vs. −V	−0.239	439	3.641	0.0003

I–S, ideal–staff; I–M, ideal–management; I–V, ideal–visitor.

Table 18.5. Multiple regression analyses of ideal–tourism staff ethical divergences, using tourism/hospitality/retail employment factor as the criterion variable.

Summary statistics table

	D.f.	Sum of sqs	Mean sqs	f-value
Regression	4	300.687	75.172	7.940, $P<0.0001$
Residual	402	3806.030	9.468	
Total	406	4106.717		

Standardized coefficient table

	Coefficient	Std error	Std coeff.	t-value
Intercept	10.906	0.289	10.906	37.678, $P<0.0001$
Friendliness ideal–staff	−0.535	0.101	−0.255	−5.300, $P<0.0001$
Honesty ideal–staff	0.084	0.133	0.032	0.633, $P<0.5273$
Frankness ideal–staff	−0.241	0.133	−0.090	−1.816, $P<0.2032$
Helpfulness ideal–staff	0.134	0.105	−0.063	1.274, $P<0.2032$

Table 18.6. Multiple regression analyses of ideal–tourism staff ethical divergences, using the transport factor as criterion variable.

Summary statistics table

	D.f.	Sum of sqs	Mean sqs	F-value
Regression	4	71.990	17.997	5.256, $P=0.0004$
Residual	401	1373.114	3.424	
Total	405	1445.103		

Standardized coefficient table

	Coefficient	Std error	Std coeff.	t-value
Intercept	6.358	0.174	6.358	36.496, $P<0.0001$
Friendliness ideal–staff	−0.278	0.061	−0.223	−4.573, $P=<0.0001$
Honesty ideal–staff	0.002	0.080	0.002	0.031, $P=0.9755$
Frankness ideal–staff	−0.009	0.080	−0.006	−0.112, $P=0.9106$
Helpfulness ideal–staff	0.041	0.063	0.032	0.649, $P=0.5169$

transport context were associated with a higher divergence as between respondents' ideals and perceived visitor ideals; higher preferences for this work context were associated with lower divergences. Thus Table 18.8 reveals that those students, who were more likely to perceive themselves as holding differing values in regard to frankness to those of visitors, were the ones more likely to view this work context as undesirable.

Table 18.7. Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA (by ranks) of the perceived visitors frankness ethical precept, by the transport employment preference factor.

Summary statistics factor			
D.f.	2		
Number of groups	3		
Number of ties	5		
H	9.663		
P value	0.008		
H corrected for ties	11.452		
P corrected for ties	0.0033		

Mean ranks table			
Transport preference factor	Count	Sum of ranks	Mean ranks
Lower preference	145	33,576.0	231.559
Mid range pref.	95	20,945.5	220.479
Higher preferences	182	34,731.5	190.832

Table 18.8. Kruskal–Wallis ANOVA (by ranks) of the frankness ideal–visitor ethical precept divergence by the transport employment preference factor.

Summary statistics factor			
D.f.	2		
Number of groups	3		
Number of ties	9		
H	6.164		
P value	0.0459		
H corrected for ties	7.427		
P corrected for ties	0.0244		

Mean ranks table			
Transport preference factor	Count	Sum of ranks	Mean ranks
Lower preference	177	38,959.5	220.11
Mid range pref.	91	18,513.5	203.445
Higher preferences	141	26,372.0	187.035

Discussion

This study has revealed a number of interesting and useful findings in regard to the relationship between ethical precepts, ethical perceptions and tourism industry employment preferences. First of all, it has found that graduands appeared to conceptualize tourism industry employment in two separate domains: that of tourism transport employment, and that of tourism, hospitality and retail employment. Thus employment in airlines, in bus lines, in tour operations, in rail, in coach lines, in taxi companies, in limousine services and such like, may be identified as a different domain to that of other tourism, hospitality and retail employment. Whilst these two separate employment domains were not found to be different in regard to ethical predictors, it is worth noting that, to this group of potential employees, the two contexts are identifiably distinct.

Ethical precepts and also ethical divergences among ethical precept ratings have been found to vary considerably in this study; this was so for the four precepts examined and also for the various ethical precept ratings. Ethical ideals were generally ranked higher than perceived tourism staff ratings and also perceived tourism management ratings; this tendency was particularly marked in regard to the friendliness ethical divergence, between respondents' ideal and perceived tourism staff ideal. Thus respondents clearly believed that they were, or would be, more friendly toward visitors than current tourism industry personnel. In contrast, these potential staff regarded themselves as being similar in terms of friendliness to that expected by visitors. In terms of helpfulness and frankness, however, they perceived themselves as differing distinctly from visitors: visitors were seen to expect more helpfulness than the students believed they should offer, whereas the respondents declared an ethical obligation to be somewhat more frank than was deemed to be ideal, at least in the perceived view of the visitors.

The friendliness ethical precept ideal–staff divergence has been found to be a significant predictor of tourism industry employment preference, for both the tourism transport preference factor and also the tourism, hospitality, retail preference factor. Those individuals more likely to entertain beliefs wherein ethical precepts and tourism industry staff ethical precepts in regard to friendliness evidenced little or no difference were the ones most likely to elect for either employment context. Thus those people who regarded themselves as being similar, at least in regard to this major ethical belief, were the ones who most desired future employment in the tourism industry in its various manifestations, whereas those for whom this friendliness gulf was wider, did not.

The two ethical precepts that did evoke differences as between respondents and visitors were helpfulness and frankness. Visitors were perceived to require more help than many individuals were willing to offer; such findings do raise concerns in respect of service. Possibly many of these school-leavers had developed a distorted view of what it was that visitors require in terms of service. Alternatively, a

number of this group may be unsuited for tourism industry employment, or indeed any service industry employment, wherein pleasant and satisfying staff–visitor interactions are an essential element of the product. Tourism is, at core, an experience, and negative visitor experiences in regard to staff service will greatly detract from that. It would therefore seem essential that the industry, in its recruiting and also in its overall media representations, be mindful of such issues.

Similar sentiments might also be expressed in respect of the frankness findings. The greater the estimation of this frankness precept, and also the greater the divergence as between respondent ideal and perceived visitor expectation, the more graduands were found to eschew tourism industry employment contexts. It is possible that frankness is here being interpreted by some as a type of bluntness, an assertiveness that takes little account of the sensitivities, the confusion and even the vulnerabilities experienced by some visitors. If this is so, then such individuals do well to avoid this industry and its clients. Those for whom frankness, as a personal value and also as a visitor expectation, is much more aligned may be more service-oriented and understanding of visitors in unfamiliar environments; such respondents may realize that visitors do often value a candour and openness displayed by staff when they temper their frank utterances with insight and courtesy.

Limitations to this study ought now be addressed. The study has not primarily concerned itself with the behaviour of consumers; it has, however, involved ethical expectations that tourists are believed to embrace. The study, moreover, did not involve those individuals presently employed within the tourism/hospitality industry. Rather, it was directed toward those secondary college graduands, many of whom would soon enter into such employment or enrol in post-secondary or university courses, a major emphasis of which would be preparation for such employment. Future research on this topic area, based upon samples from post-secondary/university and also industry employment contexts might now afford some insight into how maturation, education and employment may medi-

ate change upon these ethical belief structures. Finally, this study has not included any behaviourally grounded outcome measures; specific tourism/hospitality job seeking, job acquisition, job acceptance and job-socialization success variables might now be of some benefit in understanding the relationships between ethical values and tourism/hospitality industry work context behaviours.

This study has established clear associations in regard to Aristotelian ethical precepts, ethical perceptions and expectations, and tourism industry employment context preferences. Findings here build upon the understandings of ethical precepts as they mediate important decision making within tourism industry arenas; whereas some findings from this study give cause for optimism in terms of future service quality levels, other findings may not be so encouraging. Members of the tourism industry, particularly in their recruiting, need a clear focus upon the nature of ethics and ethical expectations among those whom they choose to employ, if they are to maintain and enhance their ethical standing as corporate citizens and also guarantee service quality to those visitors that they seek to serve.

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Chapter nineteen
The Role of Expressive and Instrumental Factors in Measuring Visitor Satisfaction

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Abstract

This study describes overall satisfaction as a function of instrumental and expressive factors. The objective of the study is accomplished by testing whether instrumental and expressive attributes are distinct behavioural indicators that could better predict visitor satisfaction. Furthermore, the study tests whether visitor types based on motivation for travel moderate the relationship between instrumental and expressive attributes. The findings of the study revealed partial support that expressive and instrumental factors collectively might be predictors of overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction in general. However, the findings reveal that visitor types based on motivation for travel moderate the relative importance of instrumental and expressive factors. Empirical studies of this nature may be of help to destination marketers and planners to understand the complexity of satisfaction as one of the elements of visitation behaviour. Actual and potential markets can use these types of studies to develop appropriate communication materials that would incorporate the relative importance of destination features as perceived.

Introduction

The demand side of tourism harbours the notion of value that tourists attach to their leisure and recreation experiences. This value may take on either the perceived importance of destination attributes, or service and benefit(s) to be received and the transaction value of the service being rendered (Heskett *et al.*, 1997). Managers of public and private outdoor recreational areas need confirmation from the visiting public that the facilities, services and programmes generally provided are satisfactory (Noe, 1999; Schofield, 2000). The objective of this study is to sharpen scaling techniques by testing whether the perceived importance of instrumental and expressive attributes are distinct behavioural indicators that could better predict visitor satisfaction. Expressive indicators involve core experi-

ences representing the major intent of an act (exhibits, interpretation of programmes offered, experiences with recreation activities, etc.), whereas instrumental indicators serve to act as facilitators toward achieving that desired end (parking, rental services, restrooms, etc.; Noe 1987). Thus, the main elements of satisfaction – expressive and instrumental attributes – in tourism settings can be examined within the context of a tourism system representing two major components of the market place, namely demand and supply.

Although these distinctions are usually used to specifically define characteristics of a recreational situation that may affect satisfaction, the visitor, through reasons for travel or unfulfilled expectations, may also significantly alter judgements of satisfaction about that situation.

The development of a working model is based upon an outgrowth of earlier research by Noe (1987). This model assumes a direct approach for determining satisfaction and makes a theoretical distinction between instrumental and expressive indicators of satisfaction. In a subsequent study, Noe and Uysal (1997) also examined the theoretical distinction between instrumental and expressive indicators of satisfaction with respect to different outdoor settings. One of the major conclusions of their study was that the relative importance of both instrumental and expressive indicators may show variation from site to site. Examination of the differences in the nature of different sites may help to explain the different relative importance of destination attributes in creating desired leisure experiences. Most recently, Uysal and Noe (2003) provided comparisons of the results of surveys previously gathered from tourists visiting National Parks and tried to explore how attributes in a tourist situation are specified and perceived. Two issues dominated their research, namely identifying indicators or attributes of satisfaction and specifying a satisfaction model. From the review of the park surveys, they concluded that both expressive and instrumental attributes of sites and destinations could collectively and independently contribute to satisfaction and the practical usefulness of the findings improves when data

pertain to specific programme components, rather than complex global programmes or general issues. Space is thus responsible for the unequal (or equal) spatial distribution of visitation. Therefore, the place dependency of satisfaction should be of great concern in meeting the expectations of tourists. Situational and structural differentiation of products and services would pose additional challenges for providers to be more proactive in facilitating the enjoyment of product offerings. Reviews of the case studies from the park surveys also revealed that the most satisfying are the expressive character of the site(s) in question. However, it is important to remember that instrumental factors can have more of an effect on perceptions of dissatisfaction. Therefore, it is important to recognize that the existence and nature of resources as attractions would still inherently have their own constraints, regardless of the level of importance that visitors may attach to destination attributes. Providers would still strive to maintain a co-aligned strategy between instrumental performance and visitor expectations.

In marketing, Swan and Combs (1976) define instrumental performance as the means to an end or the evaluation of the physical product, whereas the expressive attribute was the end in itself or the psychological interpretation of a product. In social action theory, both concepts are treated as necessary for human action. Both are goal-directed with the instrumental being more cognitively oriented, whereas the expressive is more emotional or feeling oriented (Noe, 1999). Swan and Combs (1976) also assert that satisfaction can be produced only through the expressive activities. The evaluative mode of behaviour is also associated with expressive acts within the context of social action theory. On the other hand, Noe (1987) found that expressive indicators of satisfaction forming core recreational experiences were more salient in explaining general satisfaction. Czepiel and Rosenberg (1974) would consider these factors that 'truly motivate and contribute to satisfaction', whereas the instrumental are maintenance factors, which, if absent, create dissatisfaction. From this argument, it is clear that facilities and attractions may possess the duality of expres-

sive and instrumental roles that may complementarily produce satisfaction. For example, in analysing the effects of the instrumental and expressive attributes on satisfaction, a LISREL path model was applied to analyse the variables so as to best select 'the richest and most parsimonious model… to explain the satisfaction process' (Jurowski *et al.*, 1995, p. 56). In testing the efficacy of the various models, the final model resulting from this research implies that instrumental and expressive satisfiers work together to produce overall satisfaction.

In short, expressive indicators involve core experiences representing the major intent of an act, in this case seeking a satisfactory outdoor experience in a park (sightseeing, camping, hiking a natural trail, floating a river, etc.). Instrumental indicators serve as actions or behaviours toward facilitating that desired end (rental services, restrooms, concession services, etc.) (Uysal and Noe, 2003). In our testing of the expressive–instrumental model, it is still reasonable to speculate that instrumental factors could also contribute to satisfaction/dissatisfaction, since so few studies have measured these attributes. It is clear from the review of related research that some expressive attributes are the behavioural results of inner emotional state. These attributes are the essence of travel motivation in the first place, representing the demand side of the equation. Therefore, the current study also posits that visitor types may also moderate the relationship that may exist between expressive and instrumental attributes and

satisfaction. In the study, motivation for travel is used to define visitor types.

The current working model describes overall satisfaction as a function of instrumental and expressive importance of destination attributes. Furthermore, the model tests the moderation effect visitor types may have on the relationship. The major question raised in this research asks to what extent does the above expressive, instrumental attributes, and the visitor types relate to overall satisfaction. Figure 19.1 depicts the conceptual model of the study. Using a structural equation model (SEM), the study examines the structural, causal relationships among the constructs. Hypothetically, both expressive and instrumental factors influence satisfaction, which is then moderated by visitor types based on motivation. In this model, expressive and instrumental factors are considered to be the exogenous variables (i.e. those that are not predicted by any other variables in the model); satisfaction is the endogenous variable (the one that is affected by the others). The relationship between the importance of expressive and instrumental factors and satisfaction depends on visitor types.

Research Methods

Study coverage

This study was initially conducted to investigate general consensus of potential visitors for a nature-based resort destination. Visitors were
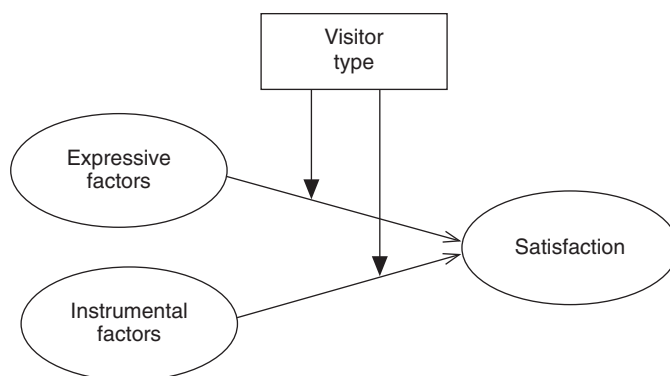

Fig. 19.1. Conceptual model.

defined in terms of distance from the destination, within the radius of a 3–5 h drive, and those who have taken at least one pleasure trip away from home for at least 2 nights. This study included places from the states of Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, Maryland and Washington, DC, area. The analysis of the study focused on the most recent pleasure trip of the potential visitors. This portion of the study was subcontracted to National Family Opinion (NFO). NFO maintains a panel of over 50,000 households for its *Travels America*. The telephone surveys, 15–20 min each, were conducted over a period of 1 month in summer 2002. A total sample of 409 was generated. The study used a proportionally stratified random sampling technique based on the distribution of visitors by origin.

Variables/questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of four sections: (i) general travel behaviour; (ii) most recent pleasure trip; (iii) lodging options for development and construction; and (iv) respondent characteristics. In the first section, respondents were asked to provide their general travel behaviour. This section of the survey included importance of travel attributes (motivations), importance of travel value, importance of destination attributes, preferences of pleasure trip. Since perceived destination attribute is used as a key predictor in explaining part of the variance in satisfaction, a five-point Likert scale for rating the perceived importance of destination attributes from 'not at all important' to 'very important' was developed. The second section of the questionnaire was specifically designed to assess market potential for development and construction of different lodging options (cabin on its own, single stand-alone unit with limited meals and activities, condominium/apartment type and time-share arrangement for a limited number of days in a year) at the selected resort destination. Section three focused on the travel behaviour of the potential visitors in relation to their most recent pleasure trip. This section contained questions on number of pleasure trip, primary destination, activity participation,

travel group, travel decision time, money spent, information sources used, familiarity with competing destinations and intention to visit, and travel worth and satisfaction. Travel worth was measured on a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 'not quite worth' to 5 'definitely well worth'. Satisfaction was also measured on a five-point Likert-type scale: 1 'not satisfied at all' to 5 'very satisfied'.

Analysis

The study used SEM empirically to test the relationships between the constructs. This includes the classification of the constructs into dependent (endogenous) and independent (exogenous) constructs. The properties of the items of the constructs (one endogenous, three exogenous) in the proposed model and the general hypothesis were tested using the LISREL 8 structural equation analysis package (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996) with the maximum likelihood (ML) method of estimation in conjunction with the two-stage process. The relationship between observable indicators and the theoretical constructs constitutes the measurement part of the model, and the theoretical relationships between the constructs constitute the structural part of the model (Joreskog, 1993). Confirmatory factors analysis (CFA) for each construct with composite reliability and variance-extracted estimate was also conducted. Then, the unidimensionality of each construct and the overall measurement of four constructs were also checked. Fourteen out of 27 'observed indicators' were retained and subsequently used for testing the proposed model.

Identification of visitor types

In order to examine the moderation effect of visitor types based on motivation on the relationship between expressive and instrumental importance of destination attributes and satisfaction, the study first identified the visitor types based on motivations for travel and then used the resultant visitor types in the subsequent LISREL analysis to measure the moderation effect of the visitors' type on the

relationship between expressive and instrumental factors and satisfaction. The identification of the visitor types followed a factor–cluster segmentation approach. This procedure was carried out in three steps. In step 1, 12 travel motivation items were factor analysed to see the underlying dimensions of the destination attributes and in step 2, the study used cluster analysis to group visitors based on the factor scores. Finally, a discriminant analysis was performed to understand the degree to which the destination attributes could distinguish the responses of visitors belonging to each cluster.

The cluster analysis based on factor scores of the motivation items identified two types of visitors. These visitor types are called type I and type II. Type I included 184 respondents (50.8% of the sampled visitors); type II contained 178 respondents (49.2% of the sampled visitors). Forty-seven cases were eliminated from this analysis due to pair-wise deletion of missing values. Overall, 97.0% of the grouped cases were correctly classified.

Type I visitors seem to place more value and importance on such destination attributes as *visiting new places, fun and enjoyment,* and less importance and value on *visiting familiar places, having time myself,* and *visiting friends and relatives.* These visitors were classified as 'Novelty and fun & enjoyment seekers'. Visitors in type II seem to place more value and importance on *taking a carefully and completely planned trip, how much money they spend, having a restful relaxing trip, visiting friends and relatives,* and *togetherness and closeness with family or friends.* These visitors were classified as 'Familiarity and comfort seekers'. The difference between the two with respect to destination attributes (motivation items) lies in the degree of importance they attach to such attributes.

Results

Testing the proposed model

A total of 409 samples were collected and analysed. Missing values, outliers and distribution of all measured variables were examined to purify the data and reduce systematic errors. Prior to LISREL analyses, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed for purposes of reducing the number of variables in both expressive and instrumental constructs. Four instrumental (INTS) and eight expressive indicators were derived. The expressive had two sub-constructs, labelled as Natural setting (EXP1) and Activities (EXP2); Satisfaction (SAT) had two indicators. Then, the included items within a factor were calculated to create a composite factor.

Subsequently, these composite factors were treated as indicators to measure a construct. This procedure may help to decrease multicollinearity or error variance correlations among indicators in the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model. Such errors should be avoided as much as possible in SEM procedures (Bollen, 1989). The properties of the four research constructs (three exogenous – INTS, EXPR1 and EXP2 – and one endogenous – SAT) were tested with a LISREL procedure of SEM (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996). The ML method of estimation and the two-stage testing process were adopted.

Measurement model

Confirmatory measurement models should be evaluated and re-specified before measurement and SEM models are examined simultaneously (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Thus, before testing the measurement model overall, each construct in the model was analysed separately. Four indicators of exogenous variables for the instrumental, four for each of the two expressive constructs and two for visitor satisfaction are determined from the measurement model. This measurement model described the nature of the relationship between latent constructs and the manifest indicators that measured those latent constructs. In this study, although the chi-squared test was significant, other conventional goodness-of-fit indices indicated that the overall measurement model was still acceptable, in that the proposed model fit the collected data with a sample size of 409 (χ^2 = 146.38, d.f. = 71, *P* = 0.00, GFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.047, RMSEA = 0.051, AGFI = 0.93, PNFI = 0.64, CFI = 0.97, IFI = 0.95 and CN = 268.47; AGFI, adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI,

comparative fit index; CN, critical sample size; GFI, goodness-of-fit index; IFI, incremental fit index; PNFI, parsimony normed fit index; RMR, root mean square residual; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation). The proposed measurement model fits the sample marginally well.

After assessing the overall model, the psychometric properties of each latent construct were evaluated separately through examining the completely standardized loading, error variance, the construct reliability and the variance extracted. The construct reliability of all four constructs was close, and exceeded the recommended level of 0.70 with the exception of the satisfaction construct. Thus, it can be said that the psychometric properties of each respective latent construct, especially for the purpose of this research, is acceptable (Table 19.1).

Structural equation model

Having assessed the measurement model, the theoretical model was examined with three gamma paths. The model that was estimated

with three gammas from three latent constructs, showed a non-significance result of the chi-squared test. The results of goodness-of-fit indices exhibited a similar pattern to those for the initial theoretical model, as well as indicated better fits for all measures (GFI = 95, RMSR = 0.05, AGFI = 0.91, NNFI = 0.96, PNFI = 0.61, CFI = 0.97 and IFI = 0.97). Consequently, the review of the squared multiple correlations of the structural model explained around 10% of the variance in tourist satisfaction. Figure 19.2 presents the results of the tested structural model. A closer examination of the structural paths of the model reveals that there are two significant paths coefficients. The path coefficient from Expressive 1 to satisfaction is 0.10 ($P<0.05$) and from the instrumental to satisfaction is -0.16 ($P<0.05$). The findings support at least in this study that the instrumental and part of the expressive (the setting) influence satisfaction. However, the direction of the influence is positive for the setting part of the expressive and 'negative' for the instrumental, suggesting that the absence and or poor performance of 'the maintenance factors' could influence satisfaction negatively.

Table 19.1. Overall CFA for the measurement model.

| Construct and indicators	Completely standardized loading (*t*-value)	Construct and indicator reliability	Error variance
Expressive constructs			
The setting (EXP1)		0.80	0.49
Beautiful country site (X1)	0.85 (19.72)	0.72	0.28
Natural features and scenic wonders (X2)	0.82 (19.95)	0.67	0.25
Mountains (X3)	0.69 (12.55)	0.47	0.84
Quaint towns and villages (X5)	0.68 (13.50)	0.46	0.69
Activities (EXP2)		0.80	0.62
Canoeing (X6)	0.72 (18.14)	0.52	0.25
Bicycling (X7)	0.78 (16.37)	0.47	0.46
Hiking and backpacking (X8)	0.81 (16.21)	0.66	0.51
Snow skiing (X9)	0.46 (10.84)	0.21	0.52
Instrumental construct (INST)		0.84	0.74
Convenience to home or being easy to get to (X12)	0.53 (8.23)	0.28	1.10
A good value for a vacation trip (X13)	0.59 (11.63)	0.35	0.58
Ease of getting around (X14)	0.68 (14.57)	0.46	0.35
High-quality service and accommodation (X15)	0.63 (12.07)	0.40	0.60
Visitor satisfaction (SAT)		0.43	0.72
Worth time and effort (Y1)	0.32 (2.47)	0.10	0.56
Overall satisfaction (Y2)	0.45 (7.63)	0.20	0.21
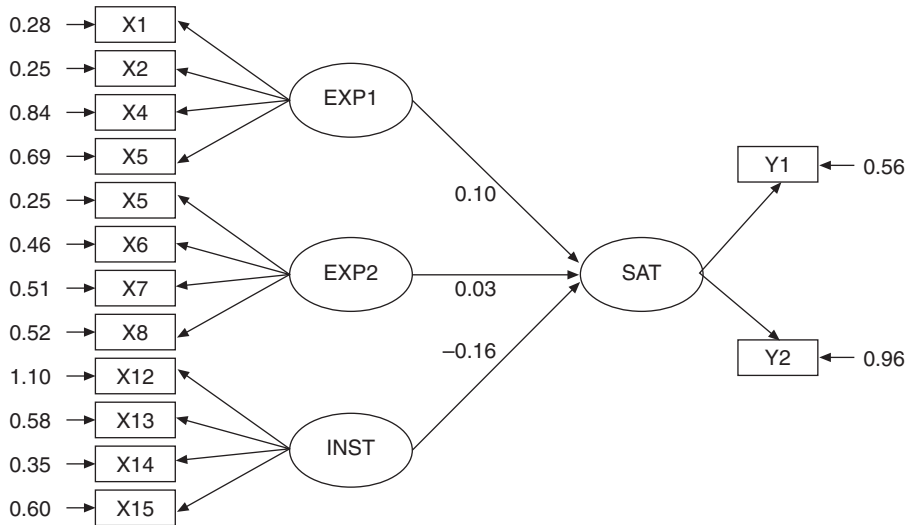
Fig. 19.2. SEM results of the hypothesized model.

Testing the moderation effect of visitor types

The basic premise of the moderating effect is that responses to variations in the relationship between expressive and instrumental factors and satisfaction depend on the visitor type as defined by motivation items for taking the trip. In order to test the moderation (interaction) effect of the delineated two visitor types, two steps were followed. The first step involved a 'multiple–group' solution in which LISREL derived parameter estimates for each visitor type separately without constraints across the visitor types as well as a measure of pooled goodness-of-fit of the model for both visitor types I and II considered simultaneously. In the second step, the path coefficients were estimated for each visitor type with an across-group constraint imposed to reflect the interaction effect (Jaccard and Wan, 1996). Based on the size of the difference in the value of chi-squared changes from the base model to the non-constrained to the constrained solutions, a decision about the interaction effect could be made. Table 19.2 provides the statistical comparisons of the visitor-type models for the interaction effect and Table 19.3 presents the SEM statistical results of the estimated path coefficients with their associated *t*-values for visitor types I and II. Both Tables 19.2 and 19.3 support that the

relationship between instrumental factors and part of the expressive factors (the setting) and satisfaction is strongest for visitor type II ('Familiarity and comfort seekers').

Concluding Comments

The findings partially support that at least in this study the instrumental and part of the expressive (the setting) may influence satisfaction. The study explained around 10% of the variance in tourist satisfaction. However, the direction of the influence is positive for the setting part of the expressive and 'negative' for the instrumental, suggesting that the absence and or poor performance of 'the maintenance factors' could influence satisfaction negatively. The results also reveal enough evidence to suggest that visitor types may moderate the relationship between instrumental factors and part of the expressive factors (the setting) and satisfaction. The moderation effect is strongest for visitor type II ('Familiarity and comfort seekers'). It is clear from the study reported that instrumental attributes also influence satisfaction along with at least part of the expressive.

Some expressive attributes are the behavioural results of inner emotional state. These attributes are the essence of travel motivation

Table 19.2. Moderation effect of visitor type based on motivation.

	Chi-squared	D.f.	Change in d.f.	Change in chi-squared	Prob.
Base model	225.76	142	–	–	–
Expressive (EXP1)	228.13	143	1	2.37	0.123
Expressive (EXP2)	225.82	143	1	0.06	1.00
Instrumental (INTS)	228.52	143	1	2.76	0.096

Table 19.3. SEM statistical results of visitor types I and II.

Visitor type	Coefficient	t-value
Type I (Novelty and fun & enjoyment seekers)		
Expressive (EXP1) – Satisfaction (SAT)	−0.11	1.13
Expressive (EXP2) – Satisfaction (SAT)	0.05	0.74
Instrumental (INTS) – Satisfaction (SAT)	−0.05	−0.43
Type II (Familiarity and comfort seekers)		
Expressive (EXP1) – Satisfaction (SAT)	0.16	2.05[a]
Expressive (EXP2) – Satisfaction (SAT)	0.03	0.41
Instrumental (INTS) – Satisfaction (SAT)	−0.26	−2.55[a]

[a]Significant at 0.05 and better probability level.

in the first place, representing the demand side of the equation. The responses to demand side or expressive attributes, including benefits sought at the destinations, would then naturally represent the supply side of travel experience. Therefore, the instrumental are maintenance attributes without which one may not achieve some degree of satisfaction on a measurement scale from the experience. The quality and availability of tourism supply resources are a critical element in meeting the needs of the ever changing and growing tourism market. It is important that destinations monitor visitors' satisfaction with facilities, programmes and services in order to maintain a sustained and expanding business. Empirical studies of this nature may be of help to destination marketers and planners to understand the complexity of satisfaction as one of the elements of visitation behaviour. Actual and potential markets can use these types of studies to develop appropriate communication materials that would incorporate the relative importance of destination features as perceived. The results of the conceptual model partially confirm the existence of dual satisfaction factors. These findings are also consistent with the results reported by Noe (1987), Floyd (1993), Jurowski *et al.*

(1995) and Noe and Uysal (1997). It appears the factors representing a judgement about facilities and services may not be as important to overall satisfaction for the visitor type of 'Novelty and fun & enjoyment seekers' as they are for the visitor type of 'Familiarity and comfort seekers'. In this current study, the instrumental factors appear to be more important than expressive elements for the visitor. The poor performance of site-specific instrumental factors may affect satisfaction negatively, while the expressive part of expectations from a site may affect satisfaction positively. Thus, the expressive part of expectations may also contribute to overall satisfaction. These results imply that visitor satisfaction at sites designed for visitor experiences would not necessarily depend upon expressive elements such as the setting itself, hiking and interpretive programmes, while visitor satisfaction in areas designed for sightseeing, and providing activities may be somewhat more dependent on the provision of instrumental elements such as restrooms, ease of accessibility, high-quality services and accommodation. This observation suggests that further research is also needed to examine the effect of development stages of destination sites on satisfaction.

Tourists form expectations of a destination based upon advertising and promotional campaigns, past experience and word-of-mouth that, in turn, may influence demand for tourism destinations. The quality of the service, and the quality of the facility and its perceived value, also directly affect the quality of recreation and tourism experiences and thus the level of future demand. Furthermore, the level of satisfaction that the tourist feels is also dependent upon the ability of the destination to deliver the type of experience, which it has marketed as a function of its facilities and programmes (Ryan, 1995). The degree to which managers control the commonality between instrumental performance and the psychological interpretation of such performance will eventually influence satisfaction and the corresponding development of successful programmes, facilities, and management and monitoring mechanisms.

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Chapter twenty
Profiling Airline Web Users: a Segmentation Approach

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Abstract

Due to the paucity of literature dealing with Internet usages, this research attempts to find users' preferences to airline websites with a segmentation approach. The measurement of the users' preferences is accomplished through a two-stage, analytical scheme embracing both qualitative and quantitative methods. Consequently, 16 website-related attributes are developed for the mail survey that yields 328 useful samples. Two distinct segments named *Bargain Seeker* and *Utilitarian* are collectively determined by a cluster analysis, the importance rankings and mean scores. Bargain Seeker tends to be younger female with a college degree; has an annual income lower than $60,000; and uses the Internet for over 2 h daily. In the final analysis, marketing implications along with suggestions for future studies are rendered.

Introduction

In light of the recent revolution on information technology, tourism establishments are teeming to capitalize on the new inventions to make their business operations more profitable. With this approach, firms are able to capture and tailor current customers' needs rapidly; businesses could attract new customers effectively and, therefore, make themselves more competitive – especially in an increasingly challenging market environment. Among the innovations, the Internet is the most powerful application that has gradually changed the landscape of today's business operations, such as inventory control, human resources management and sales forecasting. Undoubtedly, the Internet will greatly influence consumers' life routines in the years to come. With the integration of the Internet, businesses could obtain opportunities to dominate the future marketplace.

In response to the technology revolution, airlines have fast implemented new strategies to add the Internet into their business models. It is evidenced that the new information media renders airlines vast advantages to augment their market share, so as to reduce the operational costs. For example, it is likely that air passengers may want to access the

Internet during long-distance flights. Airlines could provide Internet services on some selected flights to increase the demand.

Purposes of the study

In the last few years, a growing number of consumer studies has paid great attention to online operations. Although the contributions to the body of literature on e-commerce have increased, empirical investigations pertaining to airline operations are still lacking. To fill the void of past literature concerning Internet user behaviours, this research attempts first to measure Internet users' preferences to airline websites, given the fact that understanding customers' needs and wants will promise business a long-term success. Furthermore, the current research aims to determine various market segments according to preferences for airline websites.

Specifically, four research questions are developed, as follows: (i) can Internet users be grouped into various mutually exclusive segments by preference attributes? (ii) what are the major attributes discriminating the segments? (iii) what are the distinct demographic traits and consumption patterns in each segment? (iv) do the segments differ significantly among different levels of demographic characteristics (e.g. income) and Internet usage (e.g. hours of use)?

Market segmentation studies

A plethora of segmentation investigations has been conducted in the last three decades. The aim of these studies is to detect unique sub-groups from a heterogeneous population that could help marketing managers develop cost-effective solutions to drive the market demand. In review of recent tourism studies, a battery of works has been found that utilized a board range of attributes, as bases or descriptors, to identify the underlying segments.

These segmentation bases and descriptors have largely accentuated the characteristics of socio-demographics (Hudson, 2000; Lee and Lee, 2000; Muller and Cleaver, 2000), psycho-

graphics (McCleary and Choi, 1999; Yannopoulos and Rotenberg, 1999; Kim *et al.*, 2000; May *et al.*, 2001), decision-behavioural (Chen and Gursoy, 2000; Mok and Iverson, 2000), geographic (Dolnicar *et al.*, 1999), activity-specific (Choi *et al.*, 1999; Koo *et al.*, 1999; Nicholson and Pearce, 2000), product-specific (Chen, 2000; Shoemaker, 2000) and personal interests (Olsen *et al.*, 2000). Irrespective of the selection of segmentation attributes, it is importance to recognize that the resultant segments should be practical, meaningful and actionable (Kolter, 1988) for the development of marketing strategies.

Methodology

This study adopted a two-stage approach to accomplish the data collection. In the first stage, the researchers invited a group of individuals to report their use preferences and past experiences concerning travel-related websites. Instead of focusing on the opinions of those who had accessed airline Web pages before, the researchers posited to understand the preferences of both current and potential users. Therefore, individuals browsing travel-related Web information were included in the first stage of study. Along with the important Web preferences found in the extant literature, this study incorporated the results from the focus group survey into a close-ended questionnaire that was used in the second stage of measurement.

In the second stage, a mail survey was conducted. Regarding the sampling frame, since the acquisition of a customer database from airlines was rather difficult, a mailing list was acquired from a commercial mailing broker. The study questionnaire included a preference scale and the measurements of socio-demographic characteristics. The preference measurement embraced 16 attributes based on a five-point Likert-type scale. These attributes were: (i) secured customers information; (ii) promotional offerings; (iii) critical travel information; (iv) simplicity of Web design; (v) booking confirmation; (vi) multi-language services; (vii) guest feedback; (viii) flexible schedule; (ix) speedy transaction; (x) aircraft information; (xi) customer support services;

(xii) price comparisons among different options; (xiii) guest history; (xiv) linkage to other service providers; (xv) special meal request; and (xvi) connecting airport information.

Before the deployment of the mail survey, tourism professors and graduate students first screened the draft questionnaire. A pre-test of the questionnaire with a sample of 35 Internet users was then carried out to enhance the validity and reliability of the preference measurement. Consequently, 1500 questionnaires were mailed to travellers who had used the Internet as a tool to retrieve airline-related information. From the mail survey, this study collected 328 usable questionnaires.

In the data analysis procedure, to identify mutually exclusive groups, a non-hierarchical cluster technique – *k*-means cluster analysis – on 16 preference attributes was used. Meanwhile, all outliers were removed by using Box plots, which identified outlier cases of which values were replaced by the mean value of the particular attributes diagnosed by the plot, before the employment of the cluster analysis.

To understand the unique traits of each cluster, two supplementary tests – logistic regression and the chi-squared test – were conducted. A stepwise logistic regression was performed to find the differences in preference attributes between/among the clusters; a series of chi-squared tests was used to determine if there were any differences in demographic characteristics between/among the clusters. If any demographic characteristic differed significantly between/among the clusters, the logit analysis was then used to further derive predictive parameters on the significant variables.

Results and Discussions

Resultant clusters

From the results of the non-hierarchical cluster analysis, a two-cluster solution appeared to be appropriate in explaining the heterogeneity of the study population. Therefore, the analysis further partitioned the study popula-

tion into two segments. Table 20.1 shows the results of the descriptive analysis of 16 preference attributes. Both clusters I and II only have one attribute (secured customers information) with an average rating over 'Agree (= 4)'. The finding suggests that all Web users are seriously concerned about the Internet security issues. It is not surprising that the Internet users viewed websites as an unsafe communication channel to supply personal information, since online purchasing is a rather new business activity.

In Table 20.1, cluster I, 'promotional offerings (ranking = 2)', 'critical travel information (raking = 3)', and 'simplicity of Web design (ranking = 4)' are also top-rated preference attributes. Information regarding promotional products and services seem to be important figures that the respondents from cluster I are distinctively longing for. Interestingly, the above three attributes are not the highly rated preferences by cluster II. It appears that the respondents in cluster II are apt to look for 'speedy transaction (ranking = 2)', 'customer support services (ranking = 3)', and 'price comparisons among different options (ranking = 4)'.

About 60% of respondents from cluster I are females, which account for only 40% of the respondents of cluster II. Regarding martial status, both the majority of cluster I (= 54%) and II (= 63%) are married. Forty-one per cent of the respondents from cluster I have an annual household income between $30,001 and $45,000; however, in cluster II, the individuals with a similar income level represent 35% of the cluster. Most respondents (= 48%) in cluster I use the Internet for 2–3 h daily; however, the majority (= 57%) of the respondents in Cluster II surf the Internet for 1–2 h only.

Differences in Web preferences

Beyond the examination of preference rankings, this study also tested the significant differences in use preferences between the clusters by using a stepwise logistic regression analysis. As Tables 20.2 and 20.3 indicate, the final logistic model's classification rate is high (93%), using 11 preference attributes

Table 20.1. Descriptive analysis on airline Web use preferences.

	Ranking (Mean)			
Web use preferences	Cluster 1		Cluster 2	
Secured customers information	1	(4.17)	1	(4.67)
Promotional offerings	2	(3.83)	12	(2.90)
Critical travel information	3	(3.62)	11	(3.28)
Simplicity of Web design	4	(3.28)	10	(3.35)
Booking confirmation	5	(3.27)	6	(3.44)
Multi-language services	6	(3.21)	15	(2.48)
Guest feedback	7	(3.19)	5	(3.52)
Flexible schedule	8	(3.18)	8	(3.38)
Speedy transaction	8	(3.18)	2	(3.80)
Aircraft information	10	(2.98)	16	(2.34)
Customer support services	11	(2.83)	3	(3.76)
Price comparisons between different options	12	(2.79)	4	(3.66)
Guest history	13	(2.75)	7	(3.43)
Linkage to other service providers	14	(2.68)	14	(2.79)
Special meal request	15	(2.39)	9	(3.37)
Connecting airport information	16	(2.24)	13	(2.85)

All attributes are measured by a five-point scale (1= least important; 2 = less important; 3 = moderate; 4 = very important; 5 = most important).

Table 20.2. Classification results from logistic regression.

		Predicted group membership	
Actual cluster	No. of cases	1	2
Cluster 1	156	141 (90.38%)	15 (9.62%)
Cluster 2	172	8 (4.65%)	164 (95.35%)
Percentage of cases classified correctly: 93%			

Table 20.3. Logistic regression of airline Web preference attributes.

Preference attributes	Coefficient estimate	Wald statistic	P
Promotional offerings	−4.57	36.94	0.000
Aircraft information	−4.01	37.34	0.000
Flexible schedule	3.76	29.72	0.000
Multi-language services	−3.49	25.88	0.000
Meal request	2.66	23.13	0.000
Guest history	2.59	25.08	0.000
Connecting airport info	2.17	27.00	0.000
Price comparison	−1.63	11.91	0.000
Guest feedback	−1.62	13.44	0.000
Simplicity of Web design	1.57	5.83	0.016
Speed transaction	1.51	14.38	0.000

$\chi^2 = 6.404$, d.f. =11, $P = 0.0011$

All attributes are measured by a five-point scale (1= least important; 2 = less important; 3 = moderate; 4 = very important; 5 = most important).

including: (i) promotional offerings; (ii) aircraft information; (iii) flexible schedule; (iv) multi-language services; (v) meal request; (vi) guest history; (vii) connecting airport information; (viii) price comparisons; (ix) guest feedback; (x) simplicity of Web design; and (xi) speedy transaction as the base for the analysis.

The largest differences between the clusters occur in the category of promotional offerings. The result indicates that cluster I is more sensitive to promotional offerings ($r = -4.57$), and cluster II is inclined to emphasize on flexible schedule ($r = 3.76$) and guest history ($r = 2.66$). When consolidating the results from the preference rankings, the study finds that the respondents in cluster I are looking for bargain deals from the websites, whereas the Internet users from cluster II desire 'quality' websites that could help them make reservations in a user-friendly fashion.

In the review of the above variations regarding use preferences and importance rankings, this study labels cluster I as *Bargain Seeker* and cluster II as *Utilitarian*. The respondents of the two clusters also reveal undistinguished preferences comprising: (i) linkage to other service providers; (ii) confidentiality of personal information; (iii) customer support features; (iv) booking confirmation; and (v) regional information.

Differences in demographic traits and Web usages

Table 20.4 depicts the results of chi-squared tests, which were applied to the clusters in order to establish demographic differences and use variations. The tests established significant differences in 'gender', 'age', 'education', 'income', and 'Web use hours' between the resultant segments. Moreover, four post-hoc analyses (logit modelling) were further conducted in the bid to determine which individual levels of demographic and Internet-usage variables differed significantly between the clusters.

Table 20.4. The profiles of two resultant clusters.

Variables	Bargain Seeker (%)	Utilitarian (%)	Chi-squared	P
Gender			13.37	0.000
Male	49.4	69.2		
Female	50.6	30.8		
Age			21.71	0.000
25 and Less	16.7	9.9		
26–35	69.2	54.1		
36–45	5.1	16.2		
Over 45	9.0	19.8		
Education			12.98	0.005
High school or below	7.1	7.0		
Some college	26.3	23.8		
College	55.7	43.0		
Graduate	10.9	26.2		
Income			22.76	0.000
Below $30,000	25.0	14.0		
$30,000–45,000	41.0	34.9		
$45,001–60,000	28.2	27.9		
Above 60,000	5.8	23.3		
Web use hours			24.25	0.000
Less than 1 h	14.1	14.5		
1–1.99 h	32.1	57.0		
2–2.99 h	48.1	25.6		
3 h and over	5.8	2.9		

In Table 20.5, the results of logit analyses depict the categorical differences among age, education, income and Web use hours. As for age, the results exhibit that the age groups of 36–45 and over 45 have negative values. This indicates that respondents over 35 are likely to be *Utilitarian*. Conversely, the younger respondents are inclined to be *Bargain Seekers*. It suggests that younger users look for bargain airfares when using the Internet as an alternative way of acquiring additional airline information and making a reservation.

Among the categories of 'education', the attributes of 'some college', 'college', and 'graduate' differ significantly between the clusters. *Bargain Seeker* appears to have a lower education level. The results lead to a suggestion that *Utilitarian* is more likely to have a graduate degree. Regarding the income levels, all income categories vary between the clusters. *Bargain Seeker* tends to earn less than $60,000 while *Utilitarian* receives over $60,000 annually. Lastly, the logit model on 'Web use hours' shows that four levels of use hours dif-

fer significantly. *Bargain Seeker* has an inclination to utilize the Web for over 2 h on a daily basis, whereas *Utilitarian* is unlikely to use the Internet for less than 2 h.

Conclusion

Based on 16 preference attributes, two distinct clusters of respondents are derived. A logistic regression analysis further manifests that the clusters possess a different degree of need regarding 11 service preferences. According to the dissimilarities between the derived clusters, the two mutually exclusive groups of Internet users are labelled *Bargain Seeker* and *Utilitarian*, respectively. Notably, the respondents of both segments share similar preferences to five Web-related features. With the revelations, airlines could further utilize these preference attributes to improve their service strategies. For example, the five indistinctive preference attributes shall be considered critical service figures attracting all groups of Web users.

Table 20.5. Logit models of age, education, income and Web use hours.

Parameter	Estimate	Chi-squared	P
1. Model on age			
Intercept	−0.29	22.57	0.00
25 and Less	0.81	56.19	0.00
26–35	0.54	53.27	0.00
36–45	−0.86	45.09	0.00
Over 45	−0.48	20.08	0.00
2. Model on education			
Intercept	−0.12	4.79	0.00
High school or below	0.14	1.13	0.28
Some college	0.22	6.74	0.05
College	0.38	27.74	0.00
Graduate	−0.75	57.25	0.00
3. Model on income			
Intercept	−0.15	8.93	0.00
Below $30,000	0.73	64.99	0.00
$30,000–45,000	0.31	18.68	0.01
$45,001–60,000	0.16	4.49	0.03
Above $60,000	−1.22	110.84	0.00
4. Model on Web use hours			
Intercept	0.17	6.66	0.00
Less than 1 h	−0.21	3.87	0.04
1–1.99 h	−0.75	78.46	0.00
2–2.99 h	0.45	26.26	0.00
3 h and over	0.51	8.64	0.00

It is enlightening to find two distinct segments according to use preferences. *Bargain Seeker* might represent those mainly utilizing the Web as an information channel to find low-fare air tickets. This segment consists of younger, less-educated individuals who have a lower annual income and, however, are willing to spend more time on the Web. A marketing implication of this segment is that airlines might develop mailing lists of the segment that help the airlines effectively inform *Bargain Seeker* of their promotional offerings on a regular basis. Retrospectively, for *Utilitarian*, airlines might consider establishing a customized hyperlink for *Utilitarian* that will provide a speedy transaction, better customer supports and sophisticated price comparison functions.

From segment comparisons, the study finds an interesting implication that individuals spending more hours on the Internet, such as *Bargain Seeker*, are sensitive to promotional offerings in general. The above phenomena might be attributed to the frequent exposure to online offerings from all e-commerce sectors. For future e-commerce studies, it might be desirable to measure the relationships between the length of exposure to promotional offerings and the intention to purchase.

This study confirms that Internet security is the major concern of airline Web users. It implies that the reputation of airline websites may largely depend on the service providers' ability to safeguard customer information saved in the Web servers. From a practical point of review, developing a secured database system would gain the competitive edge for online sales. Moreover, since information security is one of the major issues frequently worrying both service providers and consumers across all e-commerce sectors, further research on the impacts of Internet security on consumers' purchase intention might also be worth conducting. Lastly, it is important to recognize a distinct limitation regarding the size of the study sample. Due to the shortcoming, this study is unable to cross-validate the resultant segments. A further study on such an issue seems vital.

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Chapter twenty-one

Towards More Thorough Data-driven Segmentation in Tourism: a Tracking Framework for Exploring Segment Development

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Abstract

Market segmentation has become a standard concept in tourism marketing. A priori and a posteriori (data-driven, *post hoc*) segmentation approaches enjoy high popularity among both practitioners and researchers. In order to optimize the market segmentation strategy, it is not only necessary to identify relevant market segments, describe them, evaluate the match between corporate or destination strengths and segment needs, but to understand how segments develop over time. This knowledge is typically accounted for when a priori segments are used. In the case of a posteriori segments, however, such trend tracking is neglected. In this chapter, a simple tracking framework is presented that allows testing of a posteriori segment developments over time on the basis of identical consecutive guest surveys. It comprises the following steps: (i) definition of the anchor period; (ii) computation of a data-driven market segmentation solution; (iii) characterization of market segments; (iv) assignment of data from other periods to the anchor segment solution; (v) testing of distribution changes; (vi) testing of changes in background variables; and (vii) validation of results. The framework is flexible with regard to methods applied at each step and – through validation of explorative findings by means of repetition – allows insight into market structure from multiple perspectives.

Introduction

Market segmentation has become a standard concept in strategic marketing. Alongside the wide use of a priori (Mazanec, 2000) segmentation approaches, splitting individuals on the basis of pre-defined criteria, data-driven (or a posteriori, Mazanec 2000) approaches have gained increased popularity in the past decades among researchers attempting to derive market segments on the basis of survey information using various segmentation bases, e.g. as behavioural or psychometric information (Middleton, 1988; Smith, 1995; Myers, 1996; Lilien and Rangaswamy, 1998). While it is common to monitor the development of a priori segments over time (e.g. development of tourism from certain coun-

tries of origin, different age groups, families, etc.), data-driven approaches are typically conducted at one point of time only. This might be due to the fact that data-driven segmentation *per se* is an exploratory concept and studying multiple time periods in such an exploratory manner (when even the one period case is full of possible pitfalls; Punj and Stewart, 1983; Ketchen and Shook, 1996; Baumann, 2000) would further increase complexity and opacity and decrease reliability of results. The fact, however, that tracking a posteriori segments is extremely uncommon is strongly supported by the literature survey in the field of business studies in general conducted by Baumann (2000) and the subsequent analysis limited to tourism segmentation studies (Dolničar, 2002). Among 47 data-driven segmentation publications within the field of tourism, not a single study reports on investigations over time.

The advantages of being able to trace a posteriori segment trends in the marketplace include: (i) validation of single data-driven segment solutions that are used to build an entire marketing plan; (ii) increased insight into the changes encountered in the marketplace; (iii) provision of a sound basis for forecasting; (iv) the possibility of regular evaluation as to whether the segment(s) targeted should be held on to or switched; (v) temporary reduction of dimensionality during the segment assignment procedure; and (vi) applicability to typical multi-period data in tourism (non-panel format).

The aim of this chapter is to suggest a framework for tracking a posteriori market segment trends over years based on guest surveys conducted at different points in time based on the same sampling method and the same questionnaire.

The Tracking Framework

The tracking framework suggested is a stepwise process comprising seven steps.

1. *Definition of the anchor period.* Data-driven market segmentation is no deterministic concept. The typically explorative nature of a posteriori segmentation has to be accounted for in this concept by choosing an anchor period for analysis. The anchor period is used as the starting point of the investigation. Any period of survey data available can be utilized: using the first period allows statements about the development that has taken place to date, while using the last period gives insight into how the present market situation has developed. Clearly, if data for all periods are available and the tracking framework is used for explorative *ex post* investigation only, the definition of an anchor period would not be necessary. If, however, ongoing monitoring is intended, the anchor period choice is inevitable.

2. *Computation of a data-driven market segmentation solution using data from the anchor period.* Using the guest survey data set from the anchor period, a segment solution is derived. Any method that partitions the multi-dimensional data set in an appropriate manner can be used at this stage. The result is a number of market segments with each respondent assigned membership to one of the segments.

3. *Characterization of market segments.* Based on the answers provided by segment members to the segmentation base (Wedel and Kamakura, 1998), the groups of tourists are described in detail. Furthermore, relevant background variables (demographic, socioeconomic, behavioural, etc.) are studied for each segment. Using discriminant analysis at this stage, for example, can help to validate the existence of heterogeneous segments with regard to this background information.

4. *Assignment of data from other periods to the anchor segment solution.* The guest survey data from the remaining periods is matched with the segment solution derived from the anchor year. This is achieved by extracting the centroids from the anchor solution; these function as representants or prototypes for the segments. The answer patterns of respondents from the remaining periods are then assigned to the closest corresponding prototypes. The result are frequency distributions of segment assignments for each period of time.

5. *Testing of distribution changes.* The distributions of respondents over segments are compared over the various time periods applying chi-squared tests based on contingency tables, including year and cluster membership infor-

mation. Bonferroni correction of significance values is necessary if more that two periods are studied. At this stage, it is possible to determine whether there are any significant trends in a posteriori segments over time.

6. *(Testing of changes in background variables).* In addition, qualitative changes can be studied by investigating differences in background variables for the same segments over years.

7. *Validation of results.* Validation of this stepwise procedure is of utmost importance because data-driven segmentation is an exploratory tool by itself and potentially renders a million different solutions, one of which is then chosen at random or by comparing the usefulness of different solutions. By including multiple periods of time, another dimension of possible influence is included and this makes it even more dangerous to base the entire market structure interpretation on one single run of analysis. Basically, repetition is a useful tool. Repetition can be conducted with different numbers of clusters, different algorithms or different anchor years. By comparing solutions and time changes, a picture emerges from the exploratory approach that allows conclusions to be made about the reliability of findings.

This stepwise tracking framework is flexible in many respects: first, any kind of data can be used that is appropriate for traditional a posteriori segmentation (multi-dimensional data on demographics, socio-economic, tourist behaviour, benefits sought, etc.). Second, the choice of the anchor year allows a wide variety of explorative approaches (as well as ongoing monitoring of a posteriori segment development). Insights into segment structure development can thus be derived from various perspectives. Third, any algorithm that results in a partitioning of answer patterns of respondents can be applied, as long as each respondent is assigned to a segment deterministically. Finally, any background variables can be chosen for validation and detailed description of the results.

In addition to the fundamental aim of this procedure, it might as well be used to determine the optimal segment solution in the first place. For this purpose it is recommended – as in the case of validation – to perform the entire procedure a number of times, with changing anchor years, varying partitioning algorithms and numbers of segments. Solutions with the highest stability would be favoured, unless distinct density segments can be identified in the data (Dolničar and Leisch, 2001).

Tracking Development of Activity-based Tourist Segments in Austria – an Illustration

Austrian National Guest Survey data from the summer seasons 1994 and 1997 were used to illustrate the tracking framework suggested. An activity-based segmentation is constructed with the first survey used as anchor year. The sample sizes amount to 7967 for the year 1994 and 6604 for 1997. Respondents were asked to state which leisure activities they engage in during their vacation. In the data used, '1' indicates that the activity was undertaken sometimes or often, whereas a '0' indicates either the fact that a respondent did not undertake that particular pastime or that he or she has not answered the question. Hence, the data set used is in binary format and includes 14,571 respondents. Answers provided by each of the respondents with regard to 22 vacation activities are used as the basis of segmentation. In addition, a number of background variables are available, but the analysis of background variables is omitted in this empirical illustration, as inspection of the segmentation base renders sufficiently illustrative results.

Data from the first period of time is chosen as the anchor period. A self-organizing feature map functions as partitioning algorithm (SOFM, Kohonen, 1984; for applications in the field of a posteriori segmentation of guest surveys, see Mazanec, 1994, 1999; Dolničar, 1997).

A map with six prototypes is used (three columns, two rows); starting points for the prototypes are chosen by drawing 100 points at random and picking the best solution as determined by the criterion of maximum between-segment variance and minimum inner-segment variance. The data set is pre-

sented to the neural network 200 times for learning purposes, with a decreasing amount of adaptation of both the prototype most similar to the answer pattern presented and the neighbouring prototypes in the grid. After this learning phase, in which the SOFM adapts prototype values best to mirror the data at hand both in terms of representation by six segments as well as with regard to topological arrangement along the grid, each data vector is presented to the SOFM one more time, each respondent being assigned to the prototype best representing his or her vacation activity answer pattern.

The resulting segment profiles are provided in Fig. 21.1 in an arrangement mirroring the SOFM grid. Each profile chart characterizes one of the segments that emerged from the partitioning step. The bars indicate the average tendency of the segment members to undertake the vacation activities listed and the line shows the total sample average. Segment 1 could thus be described as 'culture tourists'. Members of this group state that they have engaged in cultural activities of various kinds more often than the average summer tourist in Austria, especially the level of 'going to concerts', 'sightseeing', 'going out in the evening', 'shopping', 'going to the theatre', 'going to museums and exhibitions' and 'spending the evening at a Heurigen' (this is a typical Viennese restaurant). Segment 2 is less distinct, showing interest in both cultural activities as well as sports. Segment 3 is clearly sports-centred and segment 5 represents the typical relaxed summer tourist who spends the days hiking and going for walks. The remaining two segments are not interpreted, as it cannot be validated which proportion of the respondents are 'active in all respects' or 'not interested in any activities', as opposed to being mere answer tendencies that are concentrated in segments 4 and 6.

The contingency table in Table 21.1 describes changes taking place over the 2 years of the survey. The Pearson chi-squared renders a highly significant outcome at the 99.9% significance level. The major trends with regard to activity segment shifts from 1994 to 1997 are: the increase of the sports segment, an increase in hiking tourists, and a dramatic decrease in respondents stating either that they engage in all activities or have a positive answer tendency.

The results are validated by rerunning the entire process for ten segments with a different algorithm (topology representing networks as introduced by Martinetz and Schulten, 1994) that functions in a similar way as self-organizing feature maps but does not force the prototypes into the predefined grid. Table 21.2 illustrates the relation between the two segmentation solutions. The culture segment is split up in segments TRN 2 and TRN 5 (cross-sections are pointed out in Table 21.2 in bold), the main difference between these segments being the fact that no member of TRN 2 participates in organized excursions, whereas all TRN 5 members do. Similarly, the sports-oriented segment is split up in TRN 3 and TRN 6 with the major discriminating variable being the amount of biking done during the vacation. The hiking tourists remain very stable (matching TRN 10), although the number of segments was almost doubled. The same is true for segment 4: the potential negative answer tendency segment is represented by prototype TRN 10. The remaining segments resulting from the ten-segment solution are very difficult to interpret. The cross-tabulation (significant chi-squared test at the 99.9% level) shows that segments 2 and 6 in the SOFM solution are both split up among the four new segments. The ten-segment solution thus backs up segments 1, 3, 4 and 5 from the SOFM solution, as well as supporting the fact that the remaining group of tourists are not easily segmented in terms of vacation activities, as no stable representation can be determined.

From the change tracking perspective over consecutive survey years (see Table 21.3), the results from the six-segment solution are supported with regard to the increase in the sports activity segment, as well as in the hiking segment on the one hand and the decrease of segment SOFM 6 (TRN 4, 7 and 8) on the other.

All in all, validation of the initial six-segment solution by repeating the tracking process for a ten-segment solution with a different partitioning algorithm revealed which of the findings based on the SOFM analysis
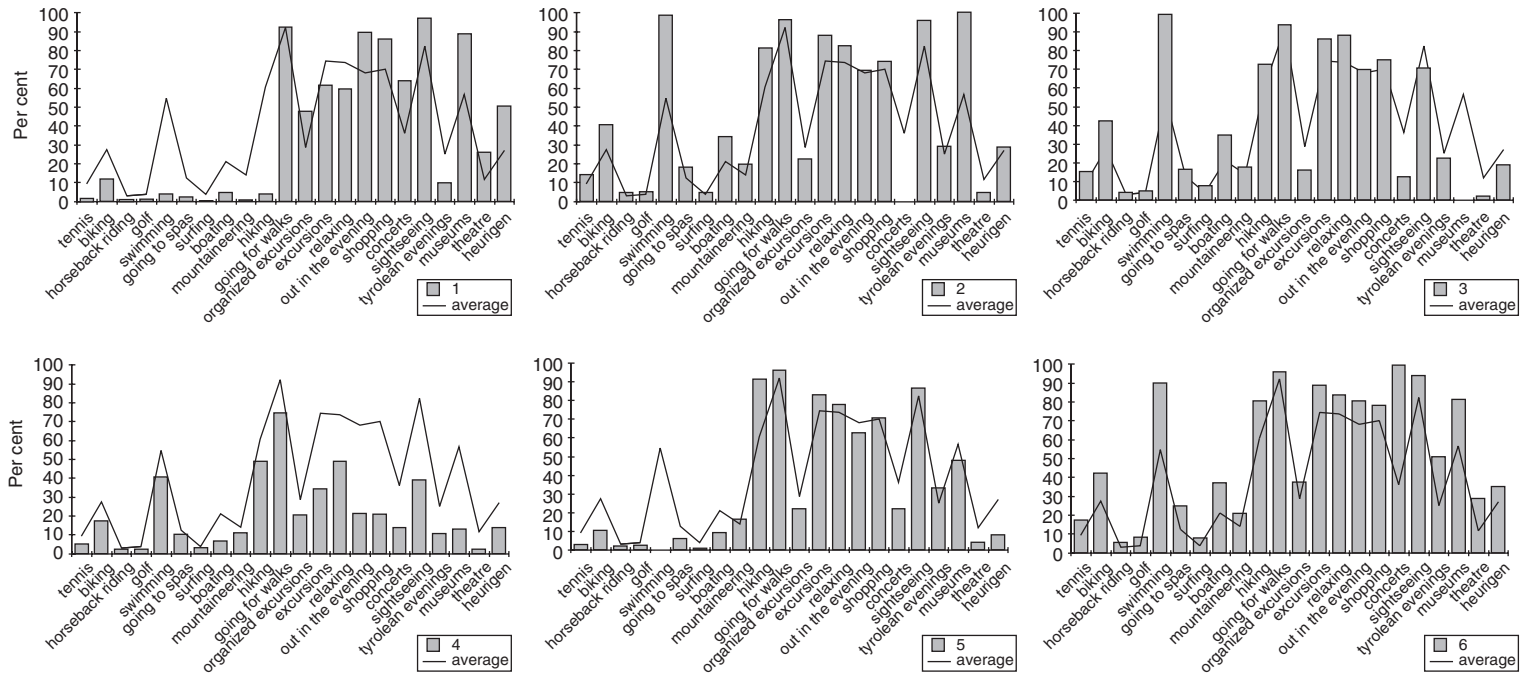
Fig. 21.1. Segment profiles based on a six-prototype SOFM solution for 1994.

Table 21.1. Contingency table for segment size comparison 1994 and 1997 (SOFM based).

Segment		1994	1997	Total
1 (Culture)	Number of respondents	1,672	1,337	3,009
	% Within the year	21%	20%	21%
2 (Culture and sports)	Number of respondents	1,321	1,116	2,437
	% Within the year	17%	17%	17%
3 (Sports)	Number of respondents	1,499	1,474	2,973
	% Within the year	**19%**	**22%**	20%
4 (Nothing, answer tend.)	Number of respondents	1,034	848	1,882
	% Within the year	13%	13%	13%
5 (Hiking)	Number of respondents	1,241	1,233	2,474
	% Within the year	**16%**	**19%**	17%
6 (All, answer tend.)	Number of respondents	1,200	596	1,796
	% Within the year	**15%**	**9%**	12%
Total	Number of respondents	7,967	6,604	14,571
	% Within the year	100%	100%	100%

Table 21.2. Cross-tabulation of the six-segment SOFM and the ten-segment TRN solution.

SOFM with six segments	TRN solution with ten segments										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1 No. of members		893		16	**522**	3		1			1,435
% SOFM		62%		1%	36%						
2 No. of members	874	10		131	8	3	**1,311**	151	8	1	2,497
% SOFM	35%			5%			53%	6%			
3 No. of members	1		2,116	51	4	1,495		69	12	5	3,753
% SOFM			56%	1%		40%		2%			
4 No. of members		20	249	22	4	106	19		91	1,724	2,235
% SOFM		1%	11%	1%		5%	1%		4%	77%	
5 No. of members	36	69	1	412	31	60		9	2,355	88	3,061
% SOFM	1%	2%		13%	1%	2%			77%	3%	
6 No. of members	244	26	33	574	18	80	246	531			1,752
% SOFM	14%	1%	2%	33%	1%	5%	14%	30%			
Total no. of members	1,155	1,018	2,399	1,206	587	1,747	1,576	761	2,466	1,818	14,733

can be built on for planning marketing action and which findings have to be used with caution. The 'culture segment', the 'sports segment', the 'hiking segment' and the group engaging in very few vacation activities (or the negative answer tendencies group) can be accepted as relatively stable, and the same market trends concerning these groups of tourists result from both investigations. The remaining segments are not identified as stable and therefore should not be chosen as target segments without further investigation.

Conclusions

This chapter has proposed a tracking framework for the tracing of trends in a posteriori segments over time. The stepwise framework includes the following stages: (i) definition of the anchor period; (ii) computation of a data-driven market segmentation solution using data from the anchor period; (iii) characterization of market segments; (iv) assignment of data from other periods to the anchor segment solution; (v) testing of distri-

Table 21.3. Contingency table for segment size comparison 1994 and 1997 (TRN based).

Segment		1994	1997	Total
1	Number of respondents	622	556	1,178
	% Within the year	8%	8%	8%
2	Number of respondents	983	880	1,863
	% Within the year	12%	13%	13%
3	Number of respondents	946	937	1,883
	% Within the year	**12%**	**14%**	13%
4	Number of respondents	723	340	1,063
	% Within the year	**9%**	**5%**	7%
5	Number of respondents	839	588	1,427
	% Within the year	**11%**	**9%**	10%
6	Number of respondents	735	681	1,416
	% Within the year	9%	10%	10%
7	Number of respondents	864	638	1,502
	% Within the year	**11%**	**8%**	10%
8	Number of respondents	523	306	829
	% Within the year	**7%**	**5%**	6%
9	Number of respondents	921	977	1,898
	% Within the year	**12%**	**15%**	13%
10	Number of respondents	811	701	1,512
	% Within the year	10%	11%	10%
Total	Number of respondents	7,967	6,604	14,571
	% Within the year	100%	100%	100%

bution changes; (vi) testing of changes in background variables; and (vii) validation of results, with the last step being of central importance in reducing the influence of random factors in the final result. The framework is flexible regarding methodological approaches preferred at each step.

In order to apply the tracking framework the procedure requires multiple-period guest survey data based on an identical questionnaire and sampling strategy.

The advantages of being able to track a posteriori segment trends in the marketplace include: (i) validation of single data-driven segment solutions on which an entire marketing plan can be built; (ii) increased insight into the changes encountered in the marketplace; (iii) provision of a sound basis for forecasting; (iv) the possibility of regular evaluation as to whether the segment(s) targeted should be maintained or replaced; (v) only temporary reduction of dimensionality during the segment assignment procedure

(no compression of the item information); and (vi) applicability to typical multi-period data in tourism. (It is not necessary for the same individuals to be questioned. Such a requirement would be difficult to achieve in the case of touristic guest surveys.)

The main limitation of the concept is the insecurity arising from sampling over consecutive periods of time. It cannot automatically be assumed that multiple surveys based on representative samples are sufficient to exclude intervening variable effects that may distort the results. This problem is especially crucial in the case of surveys that rely strongly on weighting cases due to sampling restrictions, but this limitation clearly is not caused by the tracking framework proposed but affects any analysis of data sets derived in typical guest survey manner over multiple periods of time.

Further work is needed to extend the data-driven segment tracking tool in a three-way data situation, thus building upon the

perceptions-based market segmentation concept as first introduced by Dolničar *et al.* (1999) and comprehensively described in Mazanec and Strasser (2000). The relevance of this extension is founded on the increasing importance of brand and destination image studies. Extending the tracking tool in such a way would enable simultaneous trend tracking of a posteriori segmentation, positioning and competition in the marketplace.

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Chapter twenty-two
Sustainable Tourism and Stakeholder Groups: a Case Study of Colorado Ski Resort Communities

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Abstract

The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate the application of stakeholder theory in the ski resort industry of Colorado. Sustainable development is increasingly a core concept of tourism management. Stakeholder theory is proposed as a means of assuring the sustainable development goal of intra-generational equity. The services marketing triangle is extended to identify three critical resort community populations: guests, resort employees and host community residents. Using a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies, eight stakeholder groups within these three populations are identified and described.

Introduction

Over the past two decades, sustainable development has become a core concept of tourism planning (Pigram, 1990; Hunter, 1997; Smith, 2001). A substantial body of research has evolved focusing on the definition of sustainable tourism (Garrod and Fyall, 1998), determining dimensions of sustainability (Hunter, 1997), testing alternative planning methodologies (Berry and Ladkin, 1997; Ahn *et al.*, 2002), and identifying measurement metrics (Shane and Graedel, 2000; McCool *et al.*, 2001; Miller, 2001).

While there are still many unanswered questions, equity is generally recognized as a central goal of sustainable tourism (Ryan, 2002; WBCSD, 2002). Beginning with the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987) and the Earth Summit Local Agenda 21 (Jackson and Morpeth, 1999), both inter- and intra-generational equity are essential goals of sustainable tourism development. Inter-generational equity focuses on resource conservation for future generations. Intra-generational equity emphasizes fairness to various population sectors both in access to the natural and cultural resources that support tourism and in voice concerning resource allocation decisions.

Stakeholder theory has been proposed as a theoretical framework for assessing intra-generational equity in tourism planning (Sautter and Leisen, 1999). Essentially, stakeholder theory postulates: (i) that a firm has relationships with many constituent groups (stakeholders) that affect and are affected by

its decisions; (ii) that the interests of all stakeholders have intrinsic value and no set of interests is assumed to dominate the others, particularly over time; and (iii) managerial decision making is enhanced by understanding and, to the extent possible, sensitivity to the various stakeholders (Freeman, 1984; Friedman and Miles, 2002). While divergent streams of stakeholder theory exist, the basic premise is the importance of identifying key stakeholder groups and understanding their key concerns (Jones and Wicks, 1999).

The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate the application of stakeholder theory in the ski resort industry of Colorado. With the continuing expansion of the resorts, conflicts over resource decisions are increasingly hostile and subject to extensive litigation with high associated time and financial costs. Effectively working with concerned groups is critical to virtually any development or expansion initiative. Stakeholder theory provides a framework both for identifying the various groups and understanding their concerns.

The Evolution of Ski Resorts in Colorado

Snow skiing has always been in the lifeblood of Colorado, dating from the mid-1800s when miners, mail carriers and ministers used their 'Norwegian snowshoes' to travel throughout the mountains (Fay, 2000). Ski races were organized by clubs in Irwin and Crested Butte as early as 1886. However, it was not until the 1930s and 1940s that the earliest ski resorts were established in Winter Park and Aspen. The heyday of Colorado destination ski resort development was the 1960s with the development of Vail, Crested Butte, Breckenridge, Snowmass, Steamboat Springs, Purgatory, Sunlight, Powderhorn and Keystone Resorts (Fay, 2000).

As reflected in Fig. 22.1, the Colorado ski industry has matured over the past decade. After enjoying robust growth between the 1968/69 and the 1992/93 seasons, total skier days have been relatively flat since 1993 at slightly over 10 million per year. The variations between 1993 and 2001 are primarily a function of snow conditions. The effects of the recessions of 1980/81, 1990/91, and 2001/02 are evident, as are the effects of the severe, pre-snowmaking drought of the 1976/77 season and the poor snow conditions of the 1998/99 and 1999/2000 seasons. A variety of factors, including an aging US population and the rapid growth of both the cruise industry and beach vacation destinations in the southern USA and Mexico, are viewed as contributing to the stagnant demand for skiing.

Thus, Colorado ski resorts are increasingly competing for share in a stagnant market. A primary tactic in this competition has been
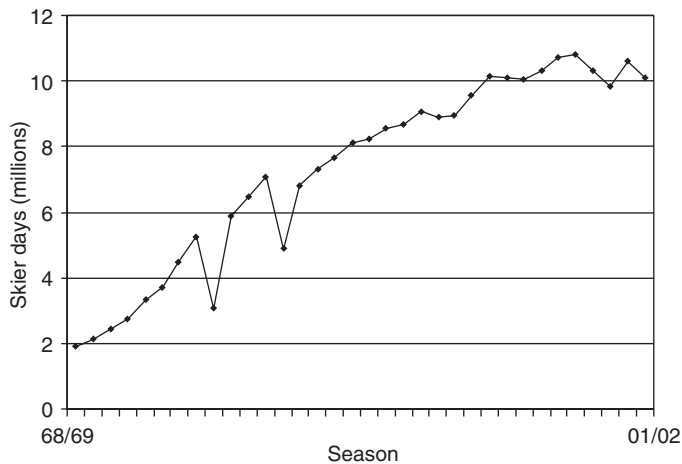

Fig. 22.1. Colorado skier days.

product improvements in the form of terrain expansions and lift capacity improvements, both of which are very expensive. Replacing a standard double chairlift with a high speed detachable quad lift is at least US$6–8 million. A gondola lift costs in the range of $10–12 million. Even when excluding the highly variable litigation costs of gaining the development permits, the costs of terrain expansion are equally impressive; the Blue Sky Basin expansion at Vail Resorts is estimated to have cost $18 million. Further, today's destination skier also expects a complete range of restaurant facilities on the mountains, other winter recreation facilities such as sledding and ice skating, and other amenities, such as warming huts and business centres. The Two Elk Restaurant complex on Vail Mountain is a $12-million facility. Over the last decade, more than $1 billion has been invested in mountain expansions and improvements at existing Colorado ski resorts (Lipsher, 2002).

Additionally, it is important to recognize that real estate development/sales and property management are critical sources of income for most Colorado ski resorts. The ski areas are predominantly located on publicly owned lands, primarily US Forest Service lands, but the base villages are privately owned. The development and management of vacation homes, condominiums and time shares is a major source of resort income. Most of this real estate is sold with the agreement that the resort will manage it as rental property when the owner is not present with a typical 50/50 split of the rental income. The key sales presentation tool is an implied promise, based on historical data, that the owner's share of the rental income will pay all ownership costs, including both mortgage payments and maintenance fees. Over the past decade, both the number of vacation properties at most Colorado resorts and the cost of these properties have more than doubled, meaning that the resorts must dramatically increase rental income in order to fulfill this promise.

This combination of very high infrastructure costs and need for rental income fundamentally means that the resorts cannot be successful as seasonal businesses. Consequently, they have been actively developing both summer recreation facilities and products, such as golf courses, mountain biking, and music festivals, and non-seasonal facilities such as conference centres and meeting facilities. Eliminating the seasonal variations in resort demand is a critical strategic marketing goal.

In summary, over the past 10–15 years, ski resorts in Colorado have been aggressively expanding ski terrain, ski facilities, restaurants, mountain amenities, vacation real estate, non-skiing winter and summer recreation areas, and conference/meeting facilities. Each development must be approved and permitted by, at a minimum, the local and county government planning commissions. Additionally, most mountain expansions also require federal government permits. The time and litigation costs of obtaining these permits have grown exponentially. Working with key stakeholder groups both formally in public meetings and informally by other means is a necessary component of attaining these permits and reducing the associated costs.

The Services Marketing Triangle

The services marketing triangle was used as a framework for identifying the stakeholder groups. Service quality is widely recognized as a critical determinant of success in the tourism and leisure industries (Kotler *et al.*, 1999; Perdue, 2000). In the Colorado ski resort industry, at least 80% of the guests are a direct result of service quality, either as satisfied repeat guests or first time guests there as a result of a word of mouth recommendation. As a tool for understanding quality, the services marketing triangle (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000) postulates that quality is a function of the interactions between a services firm and two populations – service consumers and service employees. As reflected both by the wide range of host community resident attitude studies and by the political process of development approval, adapting this concept to a sustainable tourism planning context necessitates adding a third population, host community residents. Within the Colorado resort com-

munities, each of these populations is extremely and increasingly diverse, implying the need to identify key stakeholder groups within each population.

Historically, tourism service quality research has focused on measuring consumer perceptions of quality and its impact on consumer satisfaction and revisit intentions (Fick and Brent Ritchie, 1991; Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). Market segmentation has been a major part of this research (Noe, 1999). Clearly, there is enormous diversity in the characteristics and behaviours of leisure participants (Oliver, 1997). A broad portfolio of measures and techniques for segmenting this diverse population into more homogeneous groups has subsequently evolved (Driver and Johnston, 2001) and is applied in this chapter as the foundation for identifying the key consumer stakeholder groups.

Quality employees are the *raison d'être* of service quality in resort settings (Spiselman, 1995; Roos, 2002). Yet, for a variety of reasons, Colorado resorts are finding it increasingly difficult to attract and retain good employees (Ledgerwood *et al.*, 1998). Consequently, the resorts have developed a variety of recruitment strategies aimed at both traditional and non-traditional employees. The result is an increasingly diverse employee population. Employee stakeholder groups are identified as a means of understanding this diversity of employees, including not only their job motivations, expectations and behaviours (Bowen *et al.*, 2000; Brown and Dev, 2000) but also their reactions to alternative development scenarios.

At least four critical interactions between resorts and local residents have been identified: (i) local residents are the primary source of employees; (ii) they commonly interact with resort guests in the host community and at the resort; (iii) they can initiate anti-tourism behaviours that quickly and dramatically damage a resort's image; and (iv) through the political process, they can impact public policy toward tourism development (Perdue *et al.*, 1999). While there is a significant body of research on host community residents and their attitudes toward tourists and tourism development (Anderek

and Vogt, 2000), this research has not been adequately extended to address the increasing diversity of resort community residents. Over the past decade, many Colorado resort communities have experienced extraordinarily high population growth. A diverse mixture of people has migrated to the resort communities for a variety of different reasons, many of which are not related to work or employment. Again, identifying stakeholder groups is a means of understanding this diversity of residents and their attitudes toward sustainable tourism.

Study Methodology

This chapter is a summary of research conducted over the past 10 years. For the skier populations, the associated research includes yearly on-site skier surveys and focus group studies, a panel study of the primary local skier market – The Colorado Front Range population, which includes the Denver, Boulder, Colorado Springs, and Fort Collins metropolitan areas, and three major studies of the destination skier market conducted using mail or Internet survey methodologies. The employee studies include an annual employee opinion survey that has been conducted at four major resorts for the past 7 years, focus groups and qualitative interviews. The host community resident studies include surveys conducted in five resort communities. Additionally, there have been ongoing participant observation studies, extended interviews with resort managers and community leaders, and continual analysis of both industry and news media articles. Finally, extensive secondary analyses have been conducted of resort operating data, including financial reports, consumer satisfaction and complaint data, and guest history databases.

Colorado Resort Community Stakeholder Groups

The central propositions of this chapter are that: (i) sustainable tourism development in Colorado resort communities is predicated

on understanding the various stakeholder groups who are likely to become involved in the public policy and development permitting process; and (ii) stakeholder groups exist within three critical populations: resort guests, resort employees and host community residents. Over the past decade, each of these populations has become increasingly diverse, comprising substantively different values, opinions and behaviours toward resort development and expansion. The following describes eight stakeholder groups: two resort guest groupings, three resort employee groups and three host community groups. Recognize that this grouping is not comprehensive; its purpose is to illustrate the diversity of these critical populations.

Employee groups

Traditional ski bums

Probably, the most recognized of the employee stakeholder groups is the traditional ski bum. They are young, typically male, from a reasonably affluent background, and are relatively well educated. Many of them are taking a semester or year off from their university education to work at the ski resort. Many others have just finished their university education and are working for a season at a ski resort before they 'get serious' about their careers and enter the 'real world'. Importantly, 'ski bums' often feel over-qualified for the jobs they are being asked to perform. Many jobs, such as lift operations, tend to be repetitive and can be very boring. Further, because of their affluent background, they seldom have experience working in front-line service occupations. As a result, many of them resent the nature of their jobs.

The ski bum loves to ski. They work at a ski resort so that they can ski. Most of them rank the opportunity to ski as critical to their life satisfaction. Often they ski as many as 100 days a winter, which equates to 2 out of every 3 days. Comparatively, the ski bum's job is relatively unimportant to them. Many change jobs several times over the course of the ski season, which is easy to do because of the high demand for employees in most resort communities. They are apt to catch the 'powder flu', which is failure to show up for work on days with fresh powder snow on the mountains.

The traditional ski bum is a very frustrating employee. They are not motivated by their jobs, their salaries or career aspirations. They are there to ski. Work is very secondary. If they do not like their current job, it is very easy to find another one quickly. Many have high absenteeism levels. Resort managers have to work extraordinarily hard to make the job fun and exciting to this group. Further, they have to make the employee feel involved in the resort.

Poor service quality can be a serious problem. Traditional ski bums often develop derogative terms for resort visitors and develop an attitude of superiority, primarily based on their superior ski talent. Additionally, because of their resentment toward their jobs, they frequently resent the special requests and questions of resort guests.

Interestingly, this group further divides into three groups. Most return to their homes, their education and their planned careers after the ski season. However, some stay in the resort communities and, over time, are promoted into management careers with the resorts. These individuals often develop very strong attachments to the resort communities and their summer activities. A common saying in this group is that 'I came for the winter, but stayed for the summers'.

A third group has evolved at upscale resorts such as Aspen and Vail – the professional ski instructor. On a typical day at these resorts, a relatively large number of skiers purchase private lessons, frequently as a means of avoiding lift lines. The professional ski instructor has evolved to serve this market. This group is highly evolved, is very close knit, has its own language and a very strong social structure based on seniority and ski ability. This group develops a very strong sense of 'insiders'. Since gratuity income is very important, they develop a strong sense of service quality for their clients. However, they also develop an equally strong sense of disdain for skiers who do not purchase lessons.

The new ski bum

A second group of ski bums has emerged over the past 10 years. This group is almost the opposite of the more traditional ski bum. They are older, often over 50. Many are retirees, having taken early retirement from corporations or from military careers. They are reasonably affluent in that they have income from pensions and retirement funds.

They love to ski, but more importantly, they love to live in the resort towns. They become very attached to the resort community and are often active in local programmes and activities. Many of them enjoy the summers as much or more than the winters.

The new ski bum works in the resorts for the social opportunities of meeting other employees and guests, and because it gives them a sense of belonging to the ski community. While their jobs are important for income, they are even more important for the social and belonging opportunities.

They tend to be excellent employees. They are reliable, consistent, friendly and far less derogatory in their attitudes toward resort guests. Obviously, they are more mature and more experienced.

However, the new ski bum is also very concerned about the effects that resorts have on the environment and the local communities. Quality of life and the cost of living in the resort communities are very important issues to these individuals. They are likely actively to oppose resort development and expansion if they feel it will cause declines in local quality of life or increases in the cost of living.

Migrants

Getting and keeping quality employees is perhaps the greatest resort management challenge in Colorado, particularly for many back-of-the-house jobs such as housekeeping and maintenance. Over the past two decades, there has been a dramatic growth in the number of migrant workers. Initially this group was comprised almost exclusively of people from Mexico. More recently, there has been a very strong surge in Eastern Europeans and Australians.

The Hispanic migrant workers enjoy a fascinating leisure lifestyle. They work extremely hard for 6 months and then spend the summers not working, enjoying their leisure back in Mexico. The resorts help them to attain a 6-month work visa. During those 6 months, they try to work as many hours as possible, often working several different jobs and averaging in excess of 80 h of work per week.

One of the potentially significant problems with the migrant employees is the nature of their work visa. The visa is actually granted to the resort. If the employee quits or is terminated from their resort job, the visa is revoked and the migrant has to immediately return to his/her home country. This creates an opportunity for employee abuse and mistreatment.

The resorts feel that the migrant Hispanic workers are excellent employees. They show up for work every day. They will accept jobs that many traditional ski bums will not do. They want to work as many hours as possible and readily accept overtime assignments. Most do not ski and, consequently, never get the 'powder flu'. Contrary to the ski bums, they appreciate their jobs and rarely complain or cause problems with resort guests. However, they obviously require the resorts to develop both language and cultural sensitivity management skills.

Additionally, the resort communities are required to acclimate to the Hispanic culture and presence, greatly increasing pressure and costs on such systems as housing, education, medical services and public safety. Of particular note and concern to many resort community leaders and residents is the willingness of the Hispanic employees to live in far greater numbers in apartments, often having eight to ten people living in a simple two-bedroom apartment.

Because of the high cost of living in resort communities, it is not uncommon for the migrant employees to live in other communities and commute either by car or by resort-provided busing. There are a number of examples in Colorado where the employees are living in communities in adjacent 'employee-bedroom' counties. Because both local sales taxes and real estate taxes are levied at the county level, the adjacent coun-

ties do not benefit from the resort's commercial success. Yet, these adjacent counties have to develop and pay for social services provided to the migrants, including bilingual education systems, medical services and social welfare services. This often puts an enormous burden on the adjacent county public services and tax base.

Host community resident groups

Trust fund babies

An enormous transfer of wealth is currently occurring in the USA. The 'depression' generation, born in the 1920s and 1930s, is dying. That generation is renowned for its work-oriented lifestyle and for their propensity to save money. The next generation, the baby boomers, is inheriting this money. The baby boomer lifestyle tends to be characterized by a propensity to spend, often beyond their income as evidenced by high credit card debt, lack of home equity and low savings rate. The baby boomers are much more oriented to their current life satisfaction and are not willing to defer leisure in favour of work. Thus, a very large sum of money is transferring from a work/savings-oriented generation to a leisure/spending-oriented generation. Estimates of the size of this wealth transfer over the next 20 years are as high as US\$3 trillion. As much as 5% of this money is being spent on vacation homes in and around resorts throughout the USA, leading to a massive build-up of resort condominiums and homes. Virtually every resort community in Colorado has experienced massive development and redevelopment of vacation properties over the past decade.

This is leading to dramatic increases in prices. A single condominium in Beaver Creek sold recently for a record $7.8 million. Another sold in Aspen for $7.5 million. Numerous homes and estates have sold for prices in excess of $40 million. The local residents who own property are benefiting from this price inflation. Those that rent or are wishing to buy property are being pushed out of the resort communities. For example, a recent study in Aspen, Colorado, concluded that a typical local employee would have to work 27 full-time jobs in order to afford a home in Aspen.

While many of these resort condominiums and homes are being purchased as vacation properties, there has also been a dramatic increase in the number of very wealthy individuals either permanently or semi-permanently living in the resort communities. This group has been entitled the 'trust fund babies' in that their primary source of income is inheritance, in many cases leading to a population that does not need to work for income. The trust fund babies are a very wealthy, mostly Caucasian, middle-age group that is very leisure oriented. They participate in skiing, but also expect and are patrons of high culture, entertainment and arts activities.

Importantly, the trust fund baby often views the resort community almost as a private country club. They do not necessarily want resort expansion or large numbers of skiers. They live the ultimate leisure lifestyle and want a system that responds to their every wish and whim. Often, they lack tolerance for less affluent groups, particularly the resort migrant employees. Conversely, they are often ridiculed by those other populations for conspicuous consumption, particularly for the size and opulence of their homes. The conversion of traditional agricultural and forested lands into the 'trust fund baby' palatial estates is a significant political issue not only in the resort communities, but for the entire State of Colorado.

Consultants

The 'consultants' are another group that has migrated into the resort communities in recent years. This group is affluent, middle aged and highly educated. They work very hard at jobs that are a combination of home offices, connected via the Internet to a remote corporation, and extensive travel to temporary job sites located throughout the world. For work, they need a combination of good air access and broadband Internet services. They can get these services in the resort communities. Additionally, the resort communities also provide the desired leisure lifestyle and quality of life. While the consultants work

many hours, those hours tend to be bundled. They also tend to have bundled leisure time when they participate not only in the resort ski and summer activities, but also in the entertainment and related activities available in resort communities.

In the USA, real estate taxes are a primary source of funding for social welfare services such as education, public safety, parks and recreation, and medical services. Many Colorado resort communities have a very large vacation-home real estate base. For example, in Routt County (Steamboat Springs), Eagle County (Vail, Beaver Creek), Summit County (Keystone, Breckenridge, Copper Mountain), Pitkin County (Aspen, Snowmass) and San Miquel County (Telluride), the majority of the private property is owned by non-residents; frequently these properties are only owner-occupied a few weeks of the year. This creates a very large tax base for a relatively small resident population. As a result, many resort communities have extraordinarily excellent schools, medical services, recreation facilities and services, arts and entertainment, and public safety programmes. Because of the mobility of their jobs, the consultant can easily live in the resort communities and benefit from this quality of life.

As with the trust fund babies, consultants do not depend on resort success for their income. Their primary focus is maintaining and enhancing the local quality of life, which is not necessarily based on the local economy, particularly in the short term. The resorts need to be able to demonstrate how their expansion and operations benefit the local quality of life to gain the support of this group.

Entrepreneurs

A recent study conducted in the area surrounding Yellowstone National Park found that 40% of the local business owners had visited the area first as a tourist, loved the area, and subsequently moved to the region and either started or purchased a business (Snepenger *et al.*, 1995). The ski resort communities of Colorado have also experienced this phenomenon. There is a growing population segment of 'entrepreneurs' who have moved to the region

and started businesses because of their desire to live in an area that suits their leisure lifestyle. They are middle-aged and relatively affluent, but need their companies to be successful in order for them to be able to afford to live in the resort communities.

This group experiences very high frustration levels. Because of the shortage of employees, they tend to work many hours, often to the detriment of their leisure participation and the leisure lifestyle that originally attracted them to the area. Many entrepreneurs view the resorts both as business partners and as competitors. Because most of their businesses focus in some way on tourism, the resort's success in attracting tourists to the area directly impacts their own success. However, the resorts are aggressively trying to retain a greater revenue share of visitor expenditures by offering an increasingly broad range of products and services. Further, the resorts compete with the entrepreneurs for employees. Consequently, the entrepreneurs support resort expansion in any business category other than their own. They are adamant in their wish for the large resort corporations to build and finance employee housing, but are commonly unwilling to provide or subsidize housing for their own employees.

Guest groups

As would be expected, there is enormous diversity within the resort guest population; diversity that could be described at several levels of specificity. The following focuses only at the very first level, the key differences between the 'local skiers' and the 'destination skiers'.

Local skiers

The local skiers are generally young, Caucasian, relatively affluent and well educated. They live primarily in the metropolitan communities on the Front Range of Colorado and commute by personal car to the ski areas, primarily for day or weekend trips. These individuals view skiing as a part of their normal recreational activities as opposed to a deserved vacation experience.

The local skiers participation is heavily driven by value. They tend to be very price sensitive and are trying to get the best value possible, so that they can ski as often as possible. In response, many of the resorts offer local skiers very heavily discounted season passes; while the resort may charge as much as $70 for a daily lift ticket, unlimited season passes are available to local skiers for less than $300. Still, the local skiers commonly feel that the resort is over-charging for other products, particularly food, beverages and equipment. Many see the resorts as being too profit-oriented, too focused on the more lucrative destination skiers, and not sensitive to their needs.

The local skiers commonly develop derogatory attitudes and opinions of the destination skiers. In a paradoxical sense, they love to be tourists, but generally dislike other tourists. It is not uncommon for conflict and arguments to occur between the local and destination skiers. The destination skiers are frequently relatively inexperienced and unskilled. Consequently, the local skiers see them both as a potential hazard and as a subject of ridicule.

The greatest frustration for the local skiers is the heavy traffic on Interstate 70, the primary access between the metropolitan Front Range and the ski resorts. Many feel that the resorts should help pay for proposed multi-billion dollar improvements of the Interstate, but would adamantly oppose lift ticket price increases to pay for such improvements.

Local skiers generally oppose resort expansion both because of traffic concerns and environmental protection. Although many of them own resort real estate, the ongoing rapid expansion of the resort communities is a major environmental concern, particularly the development of large 'trophy home' estates owned by wealthy non-residents.

Destination skiers

Other than their geographical residence, the destination skiers are demographically similar to the local skiers. They also tend to be young to middle-aged, Caucasian and relatively well educated. While their mean income is significantly greater than the local skiers incomes, the median incomes are generally similar. Motivationally, they are fundamentally different. Instead of viewing skiing as a normal weekly recreational activity, they are on a ski vacation and want a memorable experience. The common attitude is 'I work hard, I'm on vacation, and I deserve the best'. As a result, the destination skiers tend to be less price sensitive, but can still be angered by the discrepancy between local and destination skier prices.

The destination skier is sensitive to crowding both in the ski lift lines and in the resort cafeterias. The local skiers commonly bring at least part of their lunch to the resort with them and purchase part from the resort cafeterias. The destination skier resents such 'brown baggers' when the cafeterias are crowded and lack seating, particularly given that they commonly pay very high prices for their food and beverages.

Interestingly, the destination skier bifurcates into two sub-groups. One sub-group is very novelty-seeking and has a 'belt notch mentality'. They are trying to ski as many different resorts as possible, which creates a significant competitive advantage for resort areas such as Summit County Colorado, where there are seven major ski areas within an hour's drive.

Conversely, the other destination skier sub-group is very loyal to a particular resort, often visiting it both in the winter and summer seasons. Many of this group purchase resort condominiums and real estate that the resort subsequently manages for them as a rental property. This transition from 'loyal guest' to 'owner' results in dramatically higher service quality expectations and greater concern for sustainable tourism development.

Conclusions and Implications

Thus, there is extreme diversity within the stakeholder groups in Colorado resort communities, impacting virtually all aspects of resort development, management and marketing. Subsidized employee housing developments are but one example of this diversity of opinion and attitudes. As previously mentioned, finding and keeping quality employees is extremely difficult in the

resort communities. The high cost of living is recognized as a major contributing cause. Consequently, there have been a number of subsidized housing initiatives proposed by various governments and organizations in the resort communities. Each stakeholder group has a different reaction to these proposals. Trust fund babies and consultants are generally opposed due to fears of its impact on their lifestyles. Entrepreneurs are hugely in favour, but expect the large resorts to finance and develop the housing. The traditional ski bums and migrant workers favour housing development, but are concerned over housing restrictions, particularly the migrant workers' concerns over occupancy restrictions. The new ski bums are less favourable due to fear of its potential impact on their own housing investment; NIMBY (not in my backyard) is a key issue to this group. Destination skiers generally favour employee housing as it will probably result in better service. Local skiers oppose employee housing over environmental concerns and generally negative attitudes toward resort expansion. Effectively managing resort expansion and operations in such a contradictory policy environment is extremely difficult.

Management implications

The time and litigation costs of gaining approval for ski resort expansions has increased exponentially over the past two decades with various stakeholder groups voicing concerns and opposing different developments. Understanding these stakeholder groups is a necessary component of sustainable tourism development and management in these mountain resort communities (Gill and Williams, 1994). Thus, the key management implications of this chapter are the importance of:

1. Understanding the diversity of the resort environment, including not only guests, but also employees and local residents. It is impor-

tant to go beyond survey research, to employ qualitative methodologies such as focus groups and observational research to understand the evolving motivations, concerns and values of the different stakeholder groups;

2. Developing expansion plans, management strategies, and marketing campaigns with a clear understanding of the needs and concerns of the different stakeholder groups; and

3. Monitoring the satisfaction of each group with the resorts' actions and programmes.

Research directions

Stakeholder research in tourism has focused heavily on quantitative surveys of host community residents. Similarly, the consumer segmentation research in tourism has also focused almost exclusively on quantitative survey methodologies. It would be extraordinarily difficult to design a survey that would capture the population variance described in this paper. Clearly, there is a role for both quantitative and qualitative research programmes. As such, the following research conclusions and directions are proposed.

1. Long-term observational studies are a valuable tool to identify and describe the diversity of stakeholder groups in tourism communities.

2. It is important to understand and recognize at least three populations that characterize the leisure/tourism setting – the consumers, resort employees and the host community residents. It is only through the interactions of these three groups that we can begin to understand the true diversity of tourism and leisure settings.

3. Understanding the various demonstration effects – the relationships between the various groups in the resort setting – is important to understanding the dynamics of sustainable tourism development. The attitudes of the various groups toward each other and toward the resort corporations are critical.

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Chapter twenty-three
Cultural Determinants of Tourist Intention to Return

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Abstract

Repeat visitation is one aspect of economically sustainable tourism. While there is a significant body of research relative to travel motivation and destination choice, it has largely focused on the first-time leisure visitor. This chapter considers the criteria by which tourists decide to return to a destination. It also analyses the effect of culture and nationality on the intention to return. A comparison of US, Japanese and Chinese tourists in Hawaii found that there are significant differences in their decision making criteria relative to repeat visitation. Japanese tourists indicate a high intent to return to destinations that are fun and relaxing, while US visitors indicate intent to return based on a desire to learn more about the culture and the people. Chinese visitors showed greater similarity to US than to Japanese tourists. The study also found that reported intent does not always correspond to actual behaviour. Japanese visitors report higher intent than US visitors to return to Hawaii, while US visitors actually return at a much higher rate.

Introduction

Tourism destination residents often perceive their guests as embodiments of cultural stereotypes. In Hawaii, for example, the predominant travel segments are composed of mainland US 'westbound' travellers and Japanese 'eastbound' travellers (Hawaii, 2000). For locals, the image of the big-spending, non-tipping, low-impact, picture-taking Japanese group tourist stands in contrast to the laid back, bargain-hunting, adventure-seeking, sometimes obnoxious, mainland 'haole', Foreign Independent Tour (F.I.T.) tourist. Research has largely confirmed the stereotypes (Sheldon and Fox, 1988; Morris,

1990; Keown, 1989). This study was undertaken to gain insight into the significance of these cultural differences on a tourist's decision to *return* to a destination.

The great majority of research relative to travel motivation and destination choice has focused on the first-time leisure visitor. Destination novelty is both an inducement to travel (Lee and Crompton, 1992) and a barrier. Illusion and anticipation, it has been said, is the essence of tourism (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). On the other hand, first-time visitors often feel considerable anxiety about their choices. Researchers have recognized that a vacation represents a high-risk expenditure for travellers due to

the unknowns of travelling to a new destination (Mansfield, 1992). Repeat visitation would seem to alter the risk/reward calculation of vacation travel. How does this affect motivation? On what basis do travellers decide to return?

Repeat visitation

Cohen (1972) and Schmoll (1977) both found that destination experience is only a minor factor in the travel purchase decision. Milman's widely referenced, multi-step travel buying process credits destination experience as a filter through which future vacation choices are either broadened or narrowed. A favourable experience might lead to the choice of a similar destination for future vacations, but will not necessarily result in repeat visitation (Milman, 1993). Experience does appear to make the traveller more attentive to the advertising and promotional efforts of the destination (Sonmez and Graefe, 1995). The literature indicates that the illusion of a yet-to-be-visited destination rarely coincides with the reality of experience. Tourists report significant shifts in every aspect of destination image after their visit (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). They do, however, return. Successful mass tourism destinations depend on repeat visitors. Fully 58% of tourists vacationing in Hawaii, for example, are repeat visitors (Hawaii, 2000).

Why do they return? The research identifies the desire to reduce risk and the assurance of dealing with nice people in a comfortable, 'at home' environment. Also mentioned is the desire to see sights missed on previous visits and to introduce friends and family to the destination (Gitelson, 1984). Oppermann (2000) noted that visit frequency itself is a good predictor of future visitation. The more frequently the destination was visited in the past, the more likely it will be visited again.

Repeat visitation can be seen as a type of product or brand loyalty. A common research finding on this topic is that *satisfaction* with a product is an unreliable predictor of repeat purchase (Reichfield, 1996; Stewart, 1997). Tourism destinations and individual firms commonly seek to assess traveller satisfaction, presumably to determine the prospect of a return visit. Loyalty, however, does not appear to be created by so simple a formula (Oliver, 1997).

Obstacles to the loyalty-building process include variety seeking and multi-brand loyalty (Oliver, 1999). As variety is a major travel motivation, this would seem to be a rather formidable constraint to repeat visitation.

Cultural variations of tourist behaviour

There are observable differences in the travel behaviour of tourists based on nationality (Yuan and McDonald, 1990). Most of the variation in behaviour can be explained in terms of the cultural values of the collective 'good' versus the individual 'good' (Triandis, 1991). This study is specifically concerned with comparing the behaviour of North American, Japanese and Chinese tourists. A few studies have focused on the motivation and behaviour of US tourists compared to Japanese tourists. Sheldon and Fox (1988) described Japanese tourists as more reluctant to try new cuisine. They appeared to place greater importance on quality service and 'high-end' dining than American tourists. Japanese tourists appear to make destination choices based on their perceptions and expectations of natural beauty, good beaches, historic spots, modern urban culture, good shopping and personal safety (Morris, 1990).

In an often-cited study, Keown (1989) identified unique travel behaviour that has become the stereotype of the Japanese tourist. He identified the emphasis on shopping, the unique cultural obligation of omiyage, the ubiquity of picture taking, and the short-duration, big-spending vacation that typifies the Japanese tourist and makes him/her a highly sought after customer by destinations around the world. Yamamoto and Gill (1999) explained this behaviour by noting that the Japanese cultural values of togetherness and social interaction play a large part in their vacation choices. In contrast, they found that North Americans choose a travel destination based primarily on the desire to get away, relax and experience a new culture.

In spite of the fact that increasing free-dom and affluence in China has the poten-tial to produce millions of new leisure travellers, there has been a scarcity of research regarding the travel motivations of tourists from China, Hong Kong and Taiwan. There is also a lack of research on the ques-tion of variations in destination loyalty by cul-tural background.

Current Study

This study had multiple objectives: (i) to gather information regarding destination characteristics that are likely to result in repeat visitation; (ii) to determine if those characteristics differ based on the cultural background of the tourist; (iii) to compare tourist return criteria with tourist impressions of a popular destination (Hawaii) and a pop-ular attraction in that destination (the Polynesian Cultural Center, PCC); and (iv) to compare the survey data to actual repeat visi-tation statistics for Hawaii and the PCC.

Identifying and influencing prospective visitors is the primary purpose of destination promotional organizations. It is also the mar-keting objective of individual firms. Potential repeat visitors are comparatively easy and inexpensive to identify, and they are more receptive to the marketing message. Destinations and attractions would do well to understand the criteria by which travellers make the choice to return. This study attempts to identify those criteria.

Methodology

A structured-interview survey instrument was designed and administered to 428 randomly selected visitors to the PCC. Equal numbers of survey attempts were made each evening for 1 week during the spring tourism season of 2001. The interview included questions designed to segment the sample by country of origin, age, gender and visit frequency. Respondents were asked to assess their level of agreement (on a five-point scale) with statements regarding criteria for returning to a destination as well as their perceptions of

both Hawaii and the PCC in relation to the same criteria. In each case, a same-native-lan-guage interviewer administered the survey.

The basic purpose of each statement was to determine the relative effect of each of the following on a visitor's intention to return to a leisure travel destination:

1. Attractive shopping opportunities.
2. Opportunity to interact with the resident population and experience a different cul-ture.
3. Opportunity to spend time with family members.
4. Desire to show family and friends a desti-nation previously visited.
5. Desire to do or see things that were missed on a previous visit. A perception of novelty and change – not just the 'same old thing'.
6. A welcome and comforting feeling of being 'at home' at the destination.
7. The perceived value of the destination.
8. Opportunity for active recreational pur-suits.
9. Opportunity for thrilling or risky activities.
10. Opportunity for relaxing activities.
11. The perceived level of service.
12. Visitor density or level of 'crowding'.
13. Perceived physical beauty of the destina-tion.

The total sample size was 428. Residents of the USA (191 respondents), Japan (148 respondents) and China (54 respondents from both the PRC and Taiwan) made up a significant majority of the sample. Because of insignificant representation, responses from other countries were deleted, resulting in 393 usable interviews.

Experience has shown that Japanese respondents are reluctant to complain because of politeness or empathy, and that 'even objective measures may show little varia-tion, or are often clustered about the mean … non-parametric measures such as rankings … might be necessary to discern subtle differ-ences (or differences subtly expressed)' (Iverson, 1997). Accordingly, the survey responses were segmented by country of ori-gin and the criteria were subjected to the non-parametric Kendall's *W* test, whereby a weighted rank was assigned to each. The Kendall's *W* rankings were tested by means of

a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine variation (if any) according to country of origin. The Bonferroni test was conducted to determine variation between any two of the three countries. The results of these tests can be seen in Tables 23.1–23.3.

To compare the relevance of nationality in the decision to return to that of other demographic variables, similar rankings and ANOVA tests were made based on the age and gender of respondents.

Results

The decision to return

Japanese visitors indicated that their intent to return is most strongly influenced by: (i) the opportunity to get away and relax; (ii) the perceived natural beauty of the destination; and (iii) the opportunity to spend time with family. US visitors based their intent to return primarily on: (i) the opportunity to spend

Table 23.1. Destination return criteria by visitor nationality.

Criteria	Overall KW rank	Japan KW rank	USA KW rank	China KW rank	ANOVA Sig. (%)	Bonferroni significance (%)		
						1–2	1–3	2–3
Shopping	8.6	9.4	8.3	6.8	7.9			
Locals and culture	10.5	10.1	10.7	10.4	2.9	3.1		
Family	11.4	10.9	12.0	10.7	0.3	0.5		
Show	11.5	10.7	11.8	11.8	0.6	0.4		
Novelty	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.0	68.7			
At home	10.1	9.1	10.7	10.1	0.0	0.0		
Value	9.6	9.7	9.5	9.8	69.6			
Active	7.5	8.9	6.7	6.7	1.5	1.6		
Thrill	6.2	7.2	5.5	7.0	3.3			
Relax	11.4	11.5	11.4	10.7	76.1			
Service	11.2	10.6	11.7	10.9	9.3			
Not crowded	8.8	9.0	9.1	7.4	6.4			
Beauty	10.7	11.0	10.5	10.9	86.4			

KW, Kendall's *W*.

Table 23.2. Perceptions of Hawaii by visitor nationality.

Criteria	Overall KW rank	Japan KW rank	USA KW rank	China KW rank	ANOVA Sig. (%)	Bonferroni significance (%)		
						1–2	1–3	2–3
Shopping	7.9	8.2	7.6	7.6	79.2			
Locals and culture	7.5	7.0	7.4	8.8	2.4	3.7		
Family	10.0	10.7	9.5	9.9	45.1			
Show	10.4	10.3	10.4	10.6	21.3			
Novelty	8.7	8.9	8.9	6.2	0.0		0.0	0.1
At home	8.0	6.6	9.0	8.1	0.0	0.0		
Value	6.5	7.1	6.0	7.9	46.0			
Active	8.1	7.5	8.5	8.1	0.2	0.2		
Thrill	7.5	7.8	7.6	7.1	25.3			
Relax	9.4	9.5	9.2	9.1	29.0			
Service	8.5	8.8	8.2	8.2	53.9			
Not crowded	5.8	6.1	5.9	6.1	93.4			
Beauty	11.3	11.0	11.3	11.7	7.4			

KW, Kendall's *W*.

Table 23.3. Perceptions of PCC by visitor nationality.

Criteria	Overall KW rank	Japan KW rank	USA KW rank	China KW rank	ANOVA Sig. (%)	Bonferroni significance (%)		
						1–2	1–3	2–3
Shopping	5.6	5.5	5.9	4.4	0.1	0.1		4.3
Locals and culture	10.7	10.7	10.6	11.0	4.6			
Family	10.3	10.9	10.0	10.1	95.6			
Show	10.2	10.6	10.2	9.5	52.0			
Novelty	7.5	8.4	7.1	6.5	17.6			
At home	7.9	6.4	8.7	8.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Value	7.4	8.3	6.7	8.4	17.6			
Active	6.4	5.1	6.7	8.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Thrill	5.7	6.3	5.6	5.6	57.5			
Relax	8.3	8.3	8.1	9.1	13.0			
Service	10.6	10.4	10.7	10.0	0.9	0.8		
Not crowded	6.1	6.7	5.8	6.1	69.8			
Beauty	11.0	10.8	11.1	10.6	1.5	1.2		

KW, Kendall's *W*.

time with family; (ii) a desire to show friends and family a destination previously visited; and (iii) the perceived level of service quality at the destination. Chinese visitors ranked the criteria by: (i) a desire to show the destination to others; (ii) the perceived service level; and (iii) the natural beauty of the area.

Japanese travellers placed significantly greater importance on the availability of active and 'thrilling' activities than did US visitors. US tourists, on the other hand, placed significantly more importance on interacting with the local culture, spending time with family, showing the destination to others and feeling 'at home' at the destination. The return criteria of Chinese visitors were, somewhat surprisingly, more similar to those of US visitors than to those of Japanese visitors.

Perceptions of Hawaii

Significant differences in the perceptions of Hawaii were discovered as follows:

- Compared to Japanese visitors, US visitors perceived a greater opportunity to interact with local people and experience a unique culture.
- Chinese visitors experienced Hawaii as being more novel and unique than did either Japanese or American visitors.
- US visitors felt more 'at home' than Japanese visitors.

- Japanese visitors perceived less opportunity for 'thrilling' activities than did US visitors.

Graphic comparisons of highest-level return criteria versus perceptions of Hawaii for each nationality are shown in Figs 23.1–23.3.

Perceptions of the PCC

Significant differences in the perceptions of the PCC were discovered as follows:

- US visitors perceived the shopping opportunities to be significantly more attractive than did either the Japanese or Chinese visitors.
- Both US and Chinese visitors reported feeling more 'at home' than did the Japanese visitors.
- Japanese visitors perceived less opportunity for active pursuits than did the Americans or the Chinese.
- US visitors considered the service at the PCC to be of a higher level than did the Japanese visitors.
- US visitors also rated the physical beauty of the PCC significantly higher than did the Japanese.

Graphic comparisons of return criteria versus perceptions of the PCC for each nationality are shown in Figs 23.4–23.6.
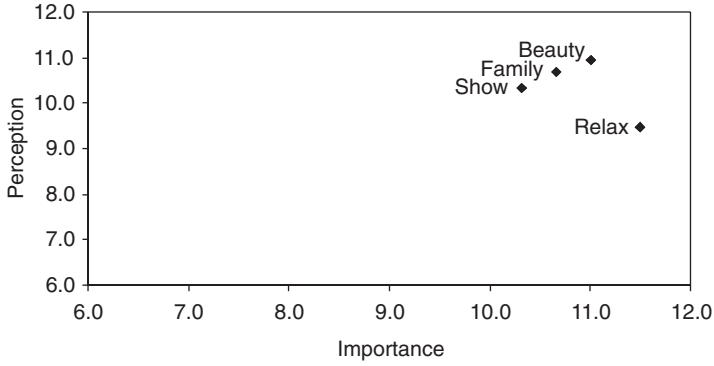
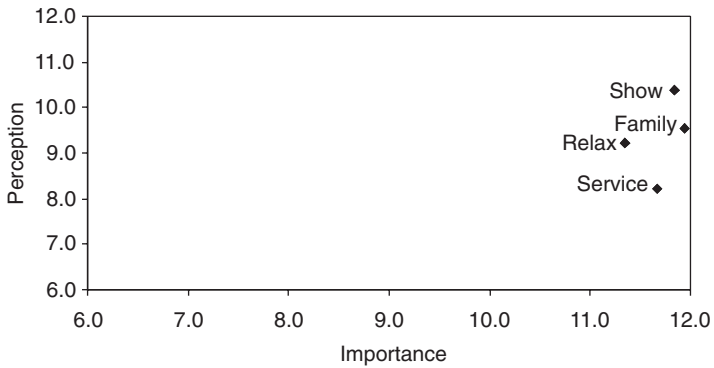**Fig. 23.1.** Japanese perceptions of Hawaii relative to their highest-ranking return criteria.

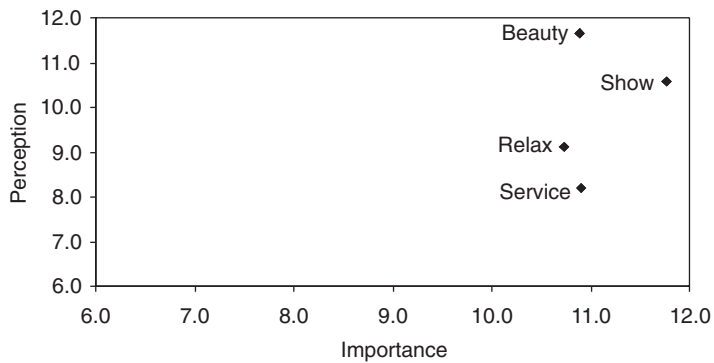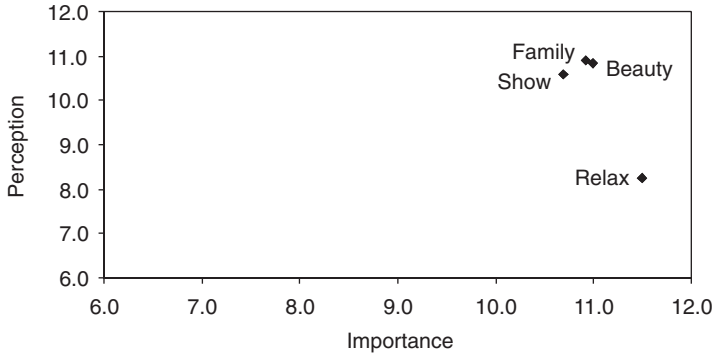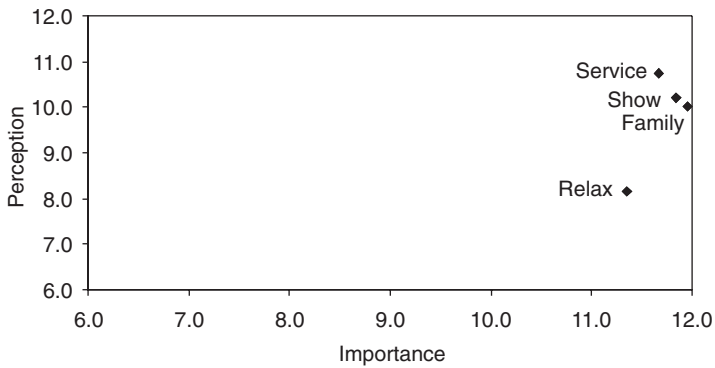**Fig. 23.2.** US perceptions of Hawaii relative to their highest-ranking return criteria.

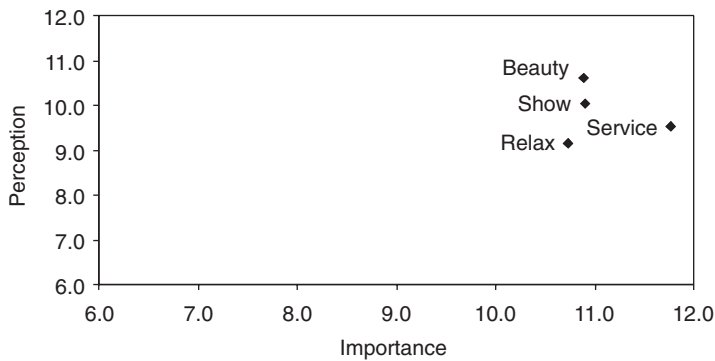**Fig. 23.3.** Chinese perceptions of Hawaii relative to their highest-ranking return criteria.

Nationality compared with other demographic factors

The results of the survey show that there is greater variation in the ranking of return criteria based on nationality than on either the age or gender of survey respondents. The same is true regarding perceptions of the PCC. Perceptions of Hawaii, however, varied more greatly by age than by either gender or nationality (Table 23.4).

Fig. 23.4. Japanese perceptions of the PCC relative to their highest-ranking return criteria.

Fig. 23.5. US perceptions of the PCC relative to their highest-ranking return criteria.

Fig. 23.6. Chinese perceptions of the PCC relative to their highest-ranking return criteria.

Conclusions

As tourism destinations and commercial attractions attempt to build repeat visitation, their marketing efforts should consider the cultural/national differences of visitors.

Nationality, more than age or gender, significantly influences the decision to return to a travel destination.

Pacific Rim destinations should be aware of the different return decision criteria used by Asian and American tourists. Japanese

Table 24.4. ANOVA significance (%) of variation in return criteria by age and gender.

	Variation by age			Variation by gender		
	Return criteria	Perceptions		Return criteria	Perceptions	
		Hawaii	PCC		Hawaii	PCC
Shopping	13.6	0.5	32.6	1.0	0.5	59.1
Locals and culture	95.3	0.0	76.8	17.3	56.8	23.3
Family	57.5	0.0	11.2	56.7	18.3	34.6
Show	79.0	0.0	17.6	28.7	45.8	18.2
Novelty	8.0	0.0	8.7	71.0	48.2	27.0
At home	51.4	0.0	0.2	22.8	35.2	61.6
Value	85.3	21.8	70.3	79.3	29.8	29.5
Active	0.0	0.5	52.9	21.9	10.7	34.9
Thrill	0.0	0.0	6.9	8.9	19.2	8.4
Relax	27.2	0.1	24.9	63.9	38.7	82.1
Service	4.9	0.3	16.3	34.5	39.3	83.3
Not crowded	16.3	8.0	36.8	42.5	90.1	84.6
Beauty	7.9	0.0	4.1	15.4	61.6	10.1

tourists in particular seem to be more interested in returning to a destination that they found to be relaxing and fun, while American, and to a lesser extent, Chinese travellers are more interested in experiencing and learning more about the destination, and in spending time with loved ones.

Finally, as applied to Hawaii as a destination and the PCC as a tourist attraction, this research shows that all three groups report equal satisfaction with their experience overall, but does satisfaction create intent to return? Here the data present a curious picture. Ninety-six per cent of Japanese tourists say they intend to return to Hawaii. The reported intent to return of American and Chinese tourists is similarly high, but while the Japanese report near unanimous intent to return to both Hawaii and the PCC, a statistical analysis shows no significant correlation between their intent and their

perceptions of the fulfilment of their highest-level return criteria. There is also little correlation between the perception and intent of Chinese travellers. Americans, on the other hand, report a lower intent to return but a highly significant correlation between intent and their perceptions of the fulfilment of their highest-level return criteria (Table 23.5).

Statistics provided by the Hawaiian Tourism Authority show that westbound travellers are in fact much more likely to visit again than are eastbound travellers (Hawaii, 2000). This research likewise found that 47% of US respondents were repeat visitors, whereas only 36% of Japanese and 13% of Chinese respondents had been to Hawaii before. Repeat visitation to the PCC shows a nearly identical pattern.

So while eastbound Japanese and Chinese visitors report a higher *intent* to return, west-

Table 23.5. Significance of the correlation between perceptions of highest rank return criteria and the reported intent to return.

					Significance of correlation (%)					
	Return intent (%)		Return actual (%)		1st rank		2nd rank		3rd rank	
	Hawaii	PCC	Hawaii	PCC	Hawaii	PCC	Hawaii	PCC	Hawaii	PCC
Japan	96	96	36	35	0.604	0.710	0.313	0.138	0.412	0.154
USA	91	76	47	49	0.022	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.114	0.002
China	98	89	13	4	0.021	0.583	0.109	0.817	0.322	0.162

bound US visitors actually return at a much higher rate. The discrepancy between reported intent and observed behaviour could be attributed to the aforementioned reluctance of Japanese to criticize or disappoint – making the survey results somewhat unreliable. Or it might be that their intent is indeed higher but their ability to return is lower. Future research on this question should incorporate the use of a broader measurement scale – a ten-point rather than a five-point scale would better accommodate the subtleties of opinion encountered in this research. It would also be interesting to survey Japanese, Chinese and American tourists on their actual vacation destination decisions over a period of years.

This research has additional limitations that should be considered in the interpretation of its findings. The study sample is small and is limited to a relatively specific group of travellers who visited the PCC. It is likely that those who choose to visit the PCC are not entirely representative of tourists visiting Hawaii. It is even more unlikely that the sample results can be generalized to the larger population of American, Japanese and Chinese tourists.

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Chapter twenty-four
Towards the Conceptualization of Tourism Destination Loyalty

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Abstract

Consumer loyalty is an attractive field of research to managers in the retail industry and recently there have been studies into the tourists' propensity to spend consecutive vacations in one specific destination. This chapter proposes a conceptualization for destination loyalty by following the route set out by Jacoby and Chestnut (*Brand Loyalty Measurement and Management*, John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, 1978). The proposed destination loyalty concept also incorporates the psychological need for consistency (and variety) in everyday life by acknowledging the motivational power of the *optimum stimulation level* (OSL).

Introduction

Tourism destination loyalty has been the subject of numerous studies; Gyte and Phelps (1989) as well as Ryan (1995) studied tourists returning to Mallorca, and Oppermann (2000) investigated repeat vacations between New Zealand and Australia. The existing research shows that destination loyal behaviour does exist, yet many of the findings are non-comparable due to the differences in conceptualization of the loyalty construct (Oppermann, 2000).

Consumer loyalty has long been viewed as an 'enigma' to researchers (Snepenger, 1987). Traditionally business managers have assumed that the popularity of a brand is simply due to effective distribution and superior product features. However, this does not explain the phenomenon that some individuals are prepared to endure discomfort in their purchasing process rather than switch between brands nor that some customers are not prepared to change their purchasing patterns even when a competing product offers greater utility (Snepenger, 1987). In other words, some consumers have a higher psychological propensity to become a loyal buyer of a brand (Reichheld and Teal, 1996; Srinivasan, 1996). Furthermore, destination loyalty as a phenomenon has been identified by Mazurski (1989), Gyte and Phelps (1989), Ryan (1995), Baloglu and Erickson (1998), Oppermann (1998, 1999, 2000) as well as Darnell and Johnson (2001). Yet, the inconsistency in the conceptualization of loyalty has

limited the comparison of these various studies (Dekimpe *et al.*, 1997; Oppermann, 2000).

Tourism is an interesting field for loyalty research, since the product is intangible, relatively expensive, purchased infrequently and can be extremely important to the consumer. This type of product may attract very strong loyalty as well as a clear correlation to demographic variables. Further, once loyalty has been established, it is perceived as fairly consistent over time (Bloemer *et al.*, 1999). Conversely, tourism may be an unlikely product for loyalty due to its variety seeking and play characteristics: 'it's voluntary, outside ordinary life, limited in time and space, surrounded by an air of mystery, utterly absorbing yet recognized as being somewhat make-believe, it has something at stake, an outcome in doubt' (Godbey and Graefe, 1991, p. 214). Furthermore, 'the novelty drive is an underlying motivation for pleasure travel' (Crotts, 1993, p. 7).

The inconsistent conceptualization of destination loyalty has been acknowledged (Oppermann, 2000). The description of tourism as a form of play (Godbey and Graefe, 1991) draws attention to the psychology concepts of *exploratory behaviour* and *variety seeking*. Exploratory behaviour is the way by which individuals control their perceived level of stimulation from the surrounding environment; such a tendency to aspire to a medium degree of stimulation is called the *optimum stimulation level* (OSL) (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1994). The OSL concept is appropriate for this study since stimulation-seeking behaviour has been under systematic research since the 1950s and the optimal stimulation level is based on personality traits (Venkatesan, 1973; Arnett, 1994, 1996; Riley *et al.*, 2001; Niininen, 2002). Furthermore, this seeking of OSL also embraces *variety, novelty* or *sensation seeking* as well as *curiosity* (types of exploratory behaviour), all of which are well suited to the holiday behaviour context, especially when the reward potential of increased stimuli is recognized (Fiske and Maddi, 1961; Kish and Donnenwert, 1969; Wahlers and Etzel, 1985).

Variety seeking is intrinsically motivated behaviour where a change from routine is rewarded by pleasure; hence, variety seeking is the primary motivational mechanism maintaining the OSL (Rogers, 1979; Menon and Khan, 1995). Variety seeking in buying behaviour depends on the product characteristics like involvement, purchase frequency, hedonic characteristics of the brand and the perceived differences between brands (van Trijp *et al.*, 1996). Variety seeking in the tourism context has been researched by Bello and Etzel (1985), Lee and Crompton (1992) and Snepenger (1987).

The focus here is on loyalty as a human psychological and behavioural phenomenon; hence, the emphasis is on identifying the internal processes and reasons an individual might have for loyal buying behaviour, not on the management of customer retention. This chapter has the following structure: initially the various definitions of loyalty are discussed and the consumer loyalty as a phenomenon is related to the tourism industry; finally the proposed model for inherent destination loyalty is presented.

Loyalty Definitions

Brand loyalty can be defined at three specific levels: (i) cognitive behaviour, where loyalty is 'an internal commitment to purchase and repurchase a particular brand' (Evans *et al.*, 1996, p. 261); (ii) an attitudinal phenomenon where the consumer has a preference to use a particular brand; and (iii) a behavioural phenomenon where brand loyalty is repeat purchases of a particular brand. However, it is important to recognize that any habitual purchases of a brand must have initially resulted from cognitive processes and therefore the existence of 'pure' behavioural loyalty can be questioned (Evans *et al.*, 1996). In fact, the word 'loyalty' is widely (mis)used to describe many aspects of repetitive buying behaviour (Uncles and Laurent, 1997). Consequently, the term has suffered from inflation and is now deeply embedded in marketing jargon to represent any repetitive buying pattern. This makes the comparison of past research especially complicated.

This paper proposes a conceptual definition of brand loyalty as 'the biased (i.e. nonrandom) behavioural response (i.e.

purchase), expressed over time, by some decision making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and it is a function of psychological (decision making, evaluative) process' (Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978, p. 80). This definition of loyalty recognizes two dimensions: psychological attachment and behavioural consistency (Day, 1969; Jacoby and Kyner, 1973; Howard *et al.*, 1988; Backman and Crompton, 1991). The relationship between these two constructs is demonstrated in Fig. 24.1.

The benefit of applying this conceptual definition is that it identifies the *latent loyals*, i.e. those with genuine preference for a brand but no consistent purchase history, as well as *spurious loyals*, those with a high behavioural consistency combined with a low psychological attachment towards the brand. Latent loyalty could be associated with expensive brands that attract admiration from all segments of society, regardless of the few opportunities to purchase such items (e.g. a vacation on a private island in the Caribbean). By contrast, an example of spurious loyalty would be individuals who have limited access to the brands they prefer and consequently have to 'settle with' alternative products (e.g. no time for long-haul holiday). In most cases the *high* and *low loyals* are the easiest to classify since they are at the opposite ends of the loyalty continuum.

One interpretation of this psychological attachment is based on attitudes. According to Dick and Basu (1994), this brand attitude is divided into *cognitive*, *affective* and *conative* components. The *cognitive* antecedent is concerned with the information the individual holds about a brand and how easily he/she can recall this data from memory (this

depends on the relative strength of the association between the data and the brand). The *affective* antecedents explain the feelings the individual holds about the brand; these emotions can actually be a stronger predictor of future behaviour than a cognitive evaluation, especially if the behaviour becomes a habit requiring very little conscious deliberation (Dick and Basu, 1994). This could refer to the 'friendship' the loyal customer is likely to develop with their usual purchase (Driver, 1996). The *conative* component includes evaluation of *switching costs* and *sunk costs*, e.g. initial fees to join the service, the difficulty of finding a quality alternative and the expectations of the brand's performance. In other words, the stronger a person's attitude towards a brand the harder he/she is prepared to work to overcome any obstacles to use or re-purchase this brand.

There are over 50 operational definitions for loyalty, most of which focus on behavioural loyalty. These measures emphasize the proportion of product category expenditures on a given brand (Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978). Behavioural approaches account for approximately 60% of known loyalty measures. Additionally, the variety of operationalized measures makes it very difficult to compare results and draw holistic conclusions. Finally, behavioural measures fail to distinguish between habitual buying and true loyalty (Olson and Jacoby, 1971; Backman and Crompton, 1991; Uncles and Laurent, 1997).

Simple behavioural measures of loyalty lead to overestimations of the loyal following for any brand because behavioural measures do not discount spuriously loyal buyers. Therefore, to address fully the conceptualization of brand loyalty, a composite measure

Psychological attachment

		Weak	Strong
Behavioural consistency	Low	Low loyalty	Latent loyalty
	High	Spurious loyalty	High loyalty

Fig. 24.1. Loyalty as a psychological and behavioural construct. Source: Backman and Crompton (1991, p. 3).

(with both behavioural and attitudinal component) is required (Backman, 1991). In past research, these composite measures have included evaluations of price, brand commitment and information search models. However, the attitude-behaviour model is the most commonly applied to tourism and leisure research (Oppermann, 1999). Furthermore, the composite measures have been praised for their comprehensive approach to brand loyalty. A loyal attitude towards a holiday destination, e.g. *psychological attachment*, can also prove important to the management of the negative impacts of tourism.

Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) were very critical about operational loyalty measures based on empirical work only, since these measures were mainly based on arbitrary criteria. Furthermore, there were no attempts to analyse the opposite type of behaviour, i.e. *dis-loyalty*. Moreover, all of these measures focused on overt buying behaviour, hence acceptance of the *Black Box theories*, where the researchers were only interested in the outcome of complex psychological processes. There was no attempt to evaluate the relationship between established measures and thus discover whether they were measuring the same phenomenon. The research methods used also lacked validity, reliability and sensitivity (Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978). In other words, many of the past measures had no conceptual underpinning and only simplified the phenomenon.

The attitudinal measures were generally based on scales where the strength of the expression can be quantified; yet the wording of these statements is open to bias. Overall, the introduction of the attitudinal measures has improved the sensitivity of the research instrument (Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978) and there are also reports of improved test–re-test results (Olson and Jacoby, 1971). In conclusion, the composite loyalty measures with both behavioural and psychological elements allow for the greatest accuracy of the findings. Through this approach, even the spurious loyal can be identified for analysis (Backman and Crompton, 1991), and the *social pressure to conform* and give politically correct answers can be eliminated by analysing established behavioural patterns.

Loyalty in a Tourism Context

The key reasons for an individual to indulge in repeat tourism are based on the opportunity to reduce the perceived risk of a holiday, to meet like-minded people, to build an emotional attachment towards the destination (i.e. true loyalty) and an opportunity to further explore the destination or show it to friends. Furthermore, tourists seeking relaxation from their holiday are most likely to return to the same destination (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984; Pyo *et al.*, 1998) and the more familiar tourists are with their destination, i.e. habitual tourists or extensive secondary information of the location, the less planning time (and effort) is required (Cook and McCleary, 1983; Etzel and Wahlers, 1985). The destination image is formed during the tourist's first visit to the destination and this image is only re-emphasized during further visits to the same location (Oppermann, 1997). Therefore, first-time visitors also have a tendency to experience more of the destination, visit more attractions and generally seek variety and culture from their holiday experience, whereas repeat visitors aim for a relaxing holiday (Pyo *et al.*, 1998).

The natural tendency of *not* returning to the same destination has also been presented in tourism literature with several references to *wanderlust* (Ross, 1994) and *tourism travel career* (Hitchcock *et al.*, 1994). The travel career concept is an attempt to apply Maslow's hierachy of needs to destination selection situation. Furthermore, in a separate study, Baloglu and Erickson (1998) argued that 'the tendency for a traveller to switch from one destination to another is greater than the tendency to revisit the same destination' (as cited in Pyo *et al.*, 1998, p. 182).

Furthermore, *novelty seeking* in tourism has been associated with a lower propensity to return to a holiday destination (Bello and Etzel, 1985). The need for novelty is perceived to be a fundamental element of holiday; Crompton (1979: as cited in Bello and Etzel, 1985) argues that repeat visits to a destination are only sought 'when the tourists is motivated by specific socio-psychological motives such as kinship or social interaction' or anxiety avoiding (as cited in Bello and

Etzel, 1985, p. 21). In other words, novelty seeking is seen as the opposite of *loyal buying behaviour* in destination selection. Therefore, research into novelty seeking behaviour can add to the understanding of destination loyalty. Given that novelty seeking behaviour is an outcome of maintaining optimal individual levels of stimulation, this general propensity to moderate stimulation levels can be used to study novelty (and loyalty).

The main reasons that discourage loyal tourism behaviour are the general trends in the marketplace, e.g. increased opportunities to switch between destinations as 'new' vacation locations are emerging each year. With such wide selection of substitute holiday destinations, the perceived switching costs are lower and there is a lower perceived risk involved with exploring a new holiday destination (Raj, 1985; Rivers *et al.*, 1991; Driver, 1996).

At the same time, tourists are benefiting from developments in the travel industry. Increased travel experience (whether for work or leisure) will have an impact on domestic tourism and short breaks. Furthermore, enhanced travel convenience will open up long-distance travel even for those who were previously unwilling to endure the stress of such journeys. The promotion of tourism has also changed. Increased advertising encourages product switching and the introduction of real time film footage of the destination over the Internet or Disney-style destination videos attempts to make the tourism product more tangible, i.e. makes switching between destinations easier. To conclude the above, the level of perceived risk associated with vacations will decrease for some tourists; however, for many others the main holiday of the year will remain a high-involvement purchase.

There have also been significant changes on the supply side of tourism. Tourism destinations are now improving their product image; many destinations are systematically introducing branding to their advertising. Furthermore, destination managers are also getting better at segmenting their target market and positioning different types of destination to ensure a better match between the desires of the tourists and the destination facilities and services. Finally, many destina-

tions are introducing (or implementing) strict product quality improvement through licensing and planning laws and so accommodating the quality conscious loyal consumers (East *et al.*, 1995).

Having less time to shop around has been proven to increase loyalty in grocery shopping (Denison and Knox, 1992), and today's busy lifestyle, combined with the experienced level of arousal, has also been reported to influence the type of holiday chosen. Such a trend may encourage return visits to destinations that have 'proven their qualities' in the past.

Higher *perceived risk* involved with the *service products* (and especially tourism) can lead to stronger loyalty when loyalty is seen as a risk-reduction strategy for the service user (Snyder, 1991; Rowley and Dawes, 2000). Therefore, the unique nature of the tourism product (high involvement, relatively large annual investment and high perceived risk) encourages repeat holidays for the majority of tourists (Gitelson and Crompton, 1984; Dick and Basu, 1994; Pritchard and Howard, 1997). Finally the demographic trend of an aging population also encourages loyalty since older consumers choose goods from a narrower band (Uncles and Ehrenberg, 1990).

To conclude, loyalty research in tourism is attractive since the product under focus is purchased regularly but infrequently, and constitutes a large part of the consumers' household budget but is not a consumer durable. This can lead to a 'fiercely loyal following even though the customer's loyalty is cashed in less often' (Exter, 1986, p. 33). Therefore, the type of loyalty being sought is unrelated to daily life and carries a long lifespan. Moreover, for a high involvement product (such as tourism) the actual product consumption (the holiday) offers the customer more satisfaction than any loyalty scheme incentive ever could (Dowling and Uncles, 1997), which undermines the value of such schemes for tourism business.

However, it must be reiterated that any research into tourism destination loyalty is problematic since brand loyalty as behaviour cannot be generalized across product categories (Charlton, 1973) and the relationship between customer evaluations and loyal behaviour between different industries is 'nei-

ther linear nor simple' (Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1994; Jones and Sasser, 1995). To conclude, this study has a unique focus and it should be treated as exploratory research.

In the model proposed here, the burden of defining a 'destination' was left to the consumer and the focus was on the proportion of vacations spent in any one destination. Hence the size of the destination was not considered important (country versus village) but to what extent the tourists felt they had returned back to a destination they had visited in the past. This approach would allow for the multi-dimensional nature of a holiday experience and accommodate the telescopic definitions offered for a 'destination'. In essence the perceived 'sameness' of past holiday destinations (and the proportion of past holidays spent is just one destination) should be the focus of the study rather than the names of villages or countries, i.e. the research focus here is on the psychological propensity for any individual to become loyal towards a holiday destination. The destination name, geographical boundaries and physical attributes will be relevant when the research focus is on the *reasons* tourists *do* return to a specific destination. Such research can be used to enhance product (destination) features and to create higher retention rates. Furthermore, the reasons why tourists do not want to return to a destination can help in designing quality improvements at the destination.

The New Conceptualization of Tourism Destination Loyalty

The concept of OSL postulates that each subject has a natural, psychological tendency to either seek or avoid experiences that generate stimulation. In tourism 'language' this means either variety-seeking or variety-avoiding holidays. The argument here is that OSL can be used to identify those tourists who seek varied holidays (the opposite type of behaviour to destination loyalty). Once the variety-seeking tourists have been identified, the remaining holidaymakers are evaluated on the basis of their past holiday destination patterns and rel-

ative attitude towards repetitive holidays (the classic loyalty concept). Therefore, the proposed conceptualization of destination loyalty draws from the conceptual definition of consumer loyalty by Jacoby and Chestnut (1978, p. 80): 'the biased (i.e. non-random), behavioural response, expressed over time, by some decision making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of brands, and it is a function of psychological (decision making, evaluative) process'.

The tourist's inherent destination loyalty conceptual definition is, therefore, a biased (i.e. non-random) behavioural response, expressed over time, by an individual with respect to one or more alternative holiday destinations. It is a psychological tendency and a function of the individual's OSL and the individual's attitude towards repeated holidays. This attitude is an outcome of repeated personal experience (and attitude activation) and therefore it is centrally held with confidence. The propensity to refer and intention to return are indicators of this self-confidence. Figure 24.2 presents this tourist's inherent destination loyalty concept.

The proposed inherent destination loyalty concept is based on the personality traits that direct the individual's OSL. The desire for balance in the stimulation levels will have an impact on the holiday decision making behaviour. This behaviour is also guided by the individual's attitudes towards repetitive holidays as well as their evaluation of their own expertise in travel decision making (confidence levels). The individual's confidence level can be inferred from their propensity to recommend the destination to peers, make independent holiday arrangements, and be confident to travel alone. This proposition has support from past research since the 'Advocates' at the top of the Loyalty Ladder are confident about their product evaluation and prepared to recommend the brand to others as well. Furthermore, attitudes based on personal (repetitive) past behaviour are also argued to be more centrally held with more confidence (Regan and Fazio, 1977; Smith and Swinyard, 1983; Allen *et al.*, 1992).

Here it is important to recognize that overt behaviour has been 'filtered through' situational, intervening variables. In the destina-
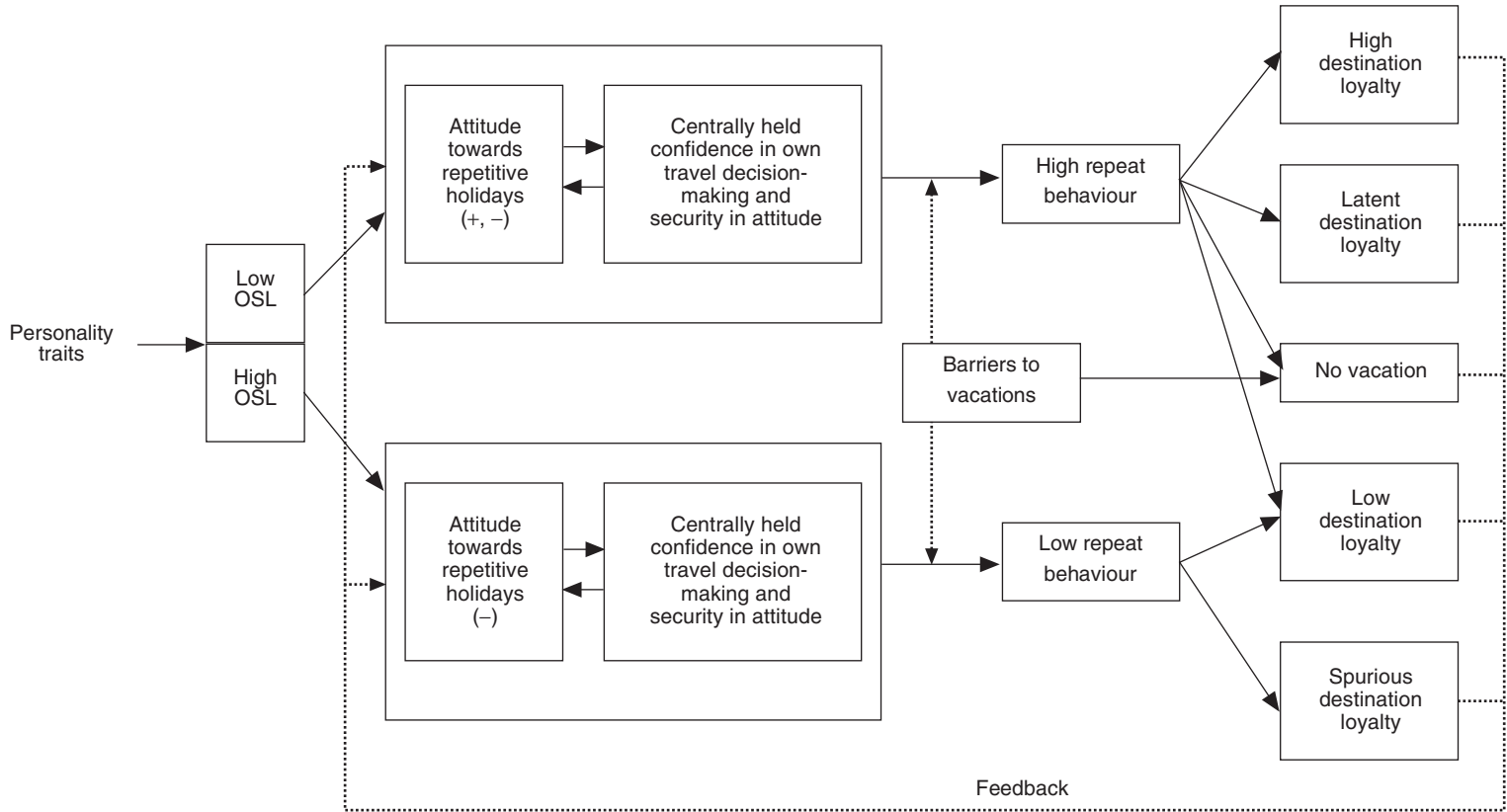
Fig. 24.2. The conceptualization of tourist's inherent destination loyalty.

tion loyalty context, the typical barriers to vacations would be lack of finances, holiday entitlement, the wishes of the travel companions, availability of vacation packages/flights, etc. This proposed triangulation of psychological measures (OSL, attitude towards repetitive holidays, indications of centrally held confidence) combined with the behavioural measure of past travel career will enable the identification of the high, low, latent and spurious destination loyal tourists. It is important to recognize the group of people who choose not to go on a vacation at all but prefer to stay at home, because they 'like staying at home'. To some extent this could be an indication of 'home-destination loyalty' and may create bias in the Low Destination Loyalty category unless this group is identified. Finally, it is also important to acknowledge the feedback from past personal decisions. Depending on the perceived success of the holiday decision, such feedback will have an impact on the strength of the attitude towards repetitive holidays as well as the individual's judgement of their ability to choose successful holidays.

Oppermann (2000) commented on how impractical loyalty conceptualization was for primary research purposes. To what extent, then, can this proposed conceptualization for inherent destination loyalty be 'framed' for primary research? There are several established 'pen and paper' measures for the OSL concept; the most widely cited instruments are the Arousal Seeking Tendency scale (versions I and II) (Mehrabian, 1978) and the Sensation Seeking Scale (versions I–VI) (Zuckerman et al., 1964). Furthermore, there have been some attempts to create an attitudinal measure for destination loyalty. The proportion of past holidays spent on just one destination can be inferred from qualitative interviews as well as quantitative surveys and the confidence level indicators can be investigated through propensity to refer, make independent travel arrangements and travel alone (Niininen, 2002).

To conclude, any future research into destination loyalty should include both psychological and behavioural measures to establish the respondent's inherent loyalty propensity. A triangulation of these two measures with variety-seeking instruments would also assist in identifying the spurious/latent/low/high loyal tourists. Furthermore, measures of self-confidence should also be included as a control variable in such studies.

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Chapter twenty-five

Measuring Comparative Performance of Vacation Destinations: Using Tourists' Self-reported Judgements as an Alternative Approach

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Abstract

This study was designed to test the use of a practical approach developed: (i) to measure external performance of two international tourist destinations (Turkey and Mallorca); and (ii) to investigate their competitive position not only against each other but also against other major self-selected destinations on the basis of the tourists' perceptions of various self-reported destination attributes. The sample population chosen was comprised of British tourists who: (i) visited Turkey and Mallorca in the summer of 1998; and (ii) had travelled to other international destinations in the preceding 4 years. An open-ended (verbal) questionnaire was designed to achieve the research objectives. From the research findings, it is apparent that the analysis of tourists' self-reported judgements is relevant to report differences in the strengths and weaknesses of one destination vis-à-vis those of another in the same competitor set. Implications of the findings for the theory of consumer behaviour in tourism, for understanding qualitative research, for destination management and marketing, and for future research are discussed.

Introduction

Tourist destinations are a key component of the tourism system. On the one hand, each destination offers a variety of products and services to attract visitors. Conversely, each visitor has the opportunity and freedom to choose where to go for vacation from a virtually unlimited set of alternative destinations (Crompton, 1992). Different factors influence the destination choice because each consumer may have different motivations and preferences for different destinations. Most studies of tourist destinations and consumer behaviour have focused on the relationship between attitude towards a specific destination, the image of that destination, tourist preferences in destination choice, and/or visitor satisfaction at the destination.

As with other industries, tourist destinations compete with each other (Heath and Wall, 1992). Developments in international tourism and transport technology have intensified the competition between international

tourist destinations. New destinations become established, some existing ones grow, others decline. Many tourists have experience at other destinations. It is, therefore, expected that visitors will make comparisons between facilities, attractions and service standards (Laws, 1995). It is argued that a visitor selects a destination from alternatives and evaluates each alternative considering its potential to deliver the benefits sought (Mayo and Jarvis, 1981). As a result, factors such as natural, cultural and historical resources, infrastructure, accessibility, attractions and facilities are accepted as elements of tourist destination competitiveness.

The concepts of competitiveness and performance improvement are also interrelated (Zairi, 1996). Improved performance enhances competitive advantage. Conversely, poor performance must be corrected before the destination can effectively compete with others. Based upon the related literature (Melcher *et al.*, 1990), it seems that measuring performance, as a key issue in competitiveness, could help destination managers identify areas where their destination performs well and poorly and, thereby, focus attention on areas of needed improvement.

As each destination may have its own admirers, tourists satisfied in one destination may differ from those satisfied at other destinations. Furthermore, how they perceive the attributes of one destination may differ from how they perceive the attributes of other destinations. This creates serious problems in the measurement of external performance. Nevertheless, previous destination comparison and competitiveness research typically employ a single attribute rating scale (Javalgi *et al.*, 1992; Driscoll *et al.*, 1994). Particularly when examining multiple destinations and different consumer segments, such scales may not measure the appropriate attributes. Furthermore, they typically do not measure competitive superiority or inferiority. Therefore, the proposed models in the literature may not help to evaluate a destination's comparative service performance. A more effective comparative analysis of destination performance may help to better understand consumer behaviour and also assist destination authorities to establish effective position-

ing strategies and explore their core competencies for each market.

In the broader context of destination competitiveness research, a destination needs to be compared with more than two destinations. In so doing, the destination managers may be able to understand the level of their own performance not only against one specific destination but also against their major competitors. In this research, it is expected that sample populations have direct experience in order to respond accurately to questions regarding their actual holiday experiences in each destination. Otherwise, findings do not accurately reflect the performance of destinations on specific attributes. Thus, there is a need for a better understanding of tourists' judgements in measuring comparative destination performance.

The literature suggests that open-ended questions can be used to collect data regarding both negative and positive customer comments (Danaher and Haddrell, 1996). These data can then be compared with customers' overall evaluations of the service or destination. Open-ended questionnaires have been used to examine tourists' positive and negative experiences (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983; Johns and Lee-Ross, 1995; Jackson *et al.*, 1996), destination images (Reilly, 1990), purchase–consumption systems (King and Woodside, 2001), and antecedents and consequences of tourist satisfaction (Decrop, 2001). In these studies, the questionnaires were distributed to allow respondents to reply in their own words, but not in an attempt at a direct comparison with other tourist establishments or destinations.

Little has been done to examine the comparative performance of different international tourist destinations. Some researchers have compared one destination's performance with other similar and competing destinations on the basis of several pre-identified generic variables (Goodrich, 1977, 1978; Haahti and Yavas, 1983; Haahti, 1986; Pearce, 1997). A review of the related literature indicates that the respondents were not given any freedom to report what they found to be good or poor at the study destinations on the basis of self-selected items being reflected in their own words. Moreover, with

limited exceptions (e.g. King, 1994; Kozak and Rimmington, 1999; Kozak, 2003), much of the research conducted using primary methods was undertaken without evidence that respondents had actually been to the study destinations. Therefore, the existing research does not provide a full account of destination performance and competitiveness (see Table 25.1 for the list of the related studies and their details).

As a part of the service industry, tourism differs from other industries in that it requires customers (or tourists) to participate directly both in the production and consumption of holiday products and services. This highlights the importance of measuring satisfaction and image perceptions of tourists who have actually experienced the performance of organizations or tourist destinations. In other words, it is not reasonable in tourism research to avoid the experiences or the feedback of actual customers by asking outsiders about their ideas or feelings instead.

Taking these issues into consideration, the purpose of this study was to test the use of a research methodology developed: (i) to measure external performance of two international tourist destinations (Turkey and Mallorca); and (ii) to investigate their competitive position not only against each other, but also against other major international destinations on the basis of several self-selected attributes obtained from the analysis of an open-ended questionnaire. The sample population was comprised of British tourists who: (i) visited Turkey and Mallorca in the summer of 1998; and (ii) had travelled to other international destinations in the preceding 4 years.

Questionnaire Design

An open-ended questionnaire was designed to accomplish the study objectives. The instrument required that tourists visiting Turkey and Mallorca had separately been to other international destinations (at least once) in the previous 4 years. The time was limited to the beginning of 1995 (the last 4 years), since the respondents might have had difficulty in recalling their earlier experiences. A draft questionnaire was piloted among ten people working in a British university. The pilot study sample was chosen from the university directory and a copy of the questionnaire was sent via the university-based internal mail system. Subsequently, minor modifications were incorporated into the questionnaire and the final draft was produced and copied. The questionnaire instrument consisted of six open-ended questions.

The first question identified other international destinations the respondents had visited since the beginning of 1995. The second question gave the respondents freedom to choose any one of those destinations to compare with their current holiday. The third question asked for the name of the destination where the respondents spent their holidays in Turkey and Mallorca. The fourth question gave an opportunity to understand what attributes of their current trip were better than the selected comparison destination (positive aspects of tourism). Similarly, the fifth question identified the potential weaknesses that Turkey and Mallorca need to improve in order to increase their competitive position against the comparison destination (negative aspects of tourism). In the final question, the respondents were requested to state the name of the destination which they liked best and the underlying reason(s). This could be helpful in identifying destinations to which the respondents may return in the future and reasons that are of importance in attracting tourism. In other words, these findings may indicate the strengths of destinations with which the respondents were most satisfied.

Data Collection

The study sample consisted of British tourists visiting Turkey and Mallorca. Surveys and observations were restricted to a 3-week period in each country during the peak season in the summer of 1998. Passengers were approached in airport departure lounges and asked which country they were from. Those from the UK were then asked if they would like to participate in the survey. As a result of the nature of the information sought (per-

Table 25.1. Overview of previous destination comparison/competitiveness research.

Author	Criteria	Explanation
Goodrich (1977)	Tourist perceptions of similarities and differences between nine regions on water sports and sports, historical and cultural interests, scenic beauty, hospitality, rest and relaxation, shopping facilities, cuisine, entertainment and accommodation	
Goodrich (1978)	Tourist perceptions of nine regions and their intention to choose them. Attributes were same as above	There is no evidence that the respondents had actually been in person to all sample destinations under investigation (indirect measure of destination performance). The sample population is not allowed to self-report the attributes perceived to be important and the destinations to be compared against
Haahti and Yavas (1983); Haahti (1986)	Tourist perceptions of 12 European countries on value for money, accessibility, sports facilities and other activities, nightlife and entertainment, peace and quietness, hospitality, wilderness, tracking and camping, cultural experience, scenery, change from the usual destinations	
Calantone *et al.* (1989)	Tourist perceptions of several destination attributes (including shopping facilities, hospitality, safety, food, culture, tourist attractions, tourist facilities, nightlife and entertainment, scenery, beaches and water sports)	
Javalgi *et al.* (1992)	Travellers' perceptions of European destinations (as four major regions) about 27 attributes	
Driscoll *et al.* (1994)	Tourist perceptions of 12 destinations on 18 attributes such as facilities, landscape, safety, climate, culture, modern society, different experience, value for money, accessibility, shopping facilities, organized activities, cleanliness, family oriented, exotic place, outdoor activities, religious values, hospitality, nightlife and entertainment	
Faulkner *et al.* (1999)	Analysis of travel agents' perceptions of core tourist attractions	
Botho *et al.* (1999)	Tourist motivations and tourist perceptions of entertainment, infrastructure, physical environment and wildlife	
Kozak and Rimmington (1999)	Tourist satisfaction with several attributes, tourist complaints, holiday taking behaviour with respect to destinations, years and seasons	The study provides *sufficient evidence* that the respondents had actually been in person to all sample destinations under investigation (direct measure of destination performance). The sample *population is allowed* to self-report the attributes perceived to be important and the destinations to be compared against

Source: Kozak (2003).

sonal opinions), passengers completed the questionnaires themselves. Those who stayed in private accommodation, with relatives or friends or were on cruises were not given the questionnaire. It is important to note that, with the purpose of obtaining different views and avoiding repetition and imitation, the questionnaire was delivered to only one person in each family or group. Given that the length of the holiday may influence destination perceptions, only tourists who had stayed at least 1 week on holiday were included in the survey. All questionnaires, whether completed or not, were returned before passengers embarked.

Table 25.2 reports the distribution of questionnaires by study site. At Palma Airport (Mallorca), the total number of questionnaires completed was 198, of which four questionnaires were unusable. At Dalaman Airport (Turkey), the total number of questionnaires completed was 198, of which 18 were unusable. Those questionnaires eliminated were incomplete. Refusals in the table refer to those who either were not suitable for the survey or refused to participate.

Analysis of Findings

Content analysis was employed to analyse the data derived from the open-ended questionnaire (Robson, 1993), resulting in lists of words (or items) for each question. These items were ordered according to the number of times they appeared. Percentage values were then calculated for each item by dividing the frequency counts by the sample size in each tourist group. The higher the fre-

quency value, the better the item was considered by respondents, for the question was designed to demonstrate how likely the destination was to be perceived to be better than other destinations. In contrast, the higher the percentage value, the worse the item, for the question designed to demonstrate how likely the destination was to be perceived to be worse than other destinations. Also, some direct quotations from the open-ended questionnaire were inserted into appropriate points to emphasize key differences.

Each reply was numbered and summarized into a list of keywords and phrases, which encapsulated the customers' experiences. Three sets of cards were created, one for the items relating to experience of better services (satisfiers), one for the items describing worse services (dissatisfiers) and one for the items describing what made the holiday satisfactory and affecting which destination to revisit (Tables 25.3–25.9). The respondents were more likely to choose a Mediterranean destination to compare with their holiday experiences either in Mallorca or Turkey. This has helped to make a successful and reliable comparison between similar destinations.

Identifying Strengths of Mallorca and Turkey

The first seven highly ranked attributes found by British tourists visiting Turkey to be better than those of other destinations visited since the beginning of 1995 were positive attitudes of the local people and staff towards tourists (hospitality) (52%), level of prices (34%), weather (17%), plenty to do and see (15%), overall cleanliness of the resorts (13%), scenery (11%), and quality and variety of food (11%), respectively (Table 25.3). Overall cleanliness of the resorts (19%), level of prices (18%), hospitality (18%), cleanliness and quality of beaches and the sea (16%), weather (12%), plenty to do and see (12%), and the availability and suitability of entertainment and nightlife (10%) were, respectively, the most significant attributes of Mallorca (Table 25.4). When the findings about Turkey and Mallorca are compared, the overall cleanliness, level of prices,

Table 25.2. Distribution of questionnaire by study site.

Process	Palma Airport	Dalaman Airport
Approached	352	322
N/A (or refusals)	154	124
Delivered	198	198
Returned	198	184
Eliminated	4	18
Analysed	194	166

Table 25.3. Attributes found to be better in Turkey than in competing destinations (*n* = 166).

Items	Greece	Spain	Gran Canaria	Portugal	Balearic	Malta	France	Italy	Cyprus	Tunisia	Egypt	Total Med.	% Med.	Canada and USA	Others	Total	%
Hospitality	28	9	5	3	11	3	2	3	5	1	2	72	43.3	2	12	86	51.8
Level of prices	8	4	12	4	7	1	2	3	1	0	1	43	25.9	2	12	57	34.3
Weather	8	6	4	4	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	25	15.0	2	2	29	17.4
More to do and see	6	3	5	2	3	1	0	0	2	0	1	23	13.8	0	2	25	15.0
Overall cleanliness	4	2	5	0	3	0	0	0	1	1	1	17	10.2	0	4	21	12.6
Scenery	1	6	3	1	3	2	0	0	1	0	0	17	10.2	0	2	19	11.4
Food	7	4	0	1	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	17	10.2	0	2	19	11.4
Value for money	4	2	3	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	13	7.8	1	0	14	8.4
Nightlife and entertainment	3	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	8	4.8	1	0	9	5.4
Not commercialized	2	0	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	4.8	0	0	8	4.8
Accommodation facilities	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	5	3.0	0	2	8	4.8
Quiet	1	–	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	4.2	0	0	7	4.2
Cleanliness of beaches and sea	1	1	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	4.2	0	0	7	4.2
Culture	0	2	2	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	7	4.2	0	0	7	4.2
Shopping facilities	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2.4	1	0	5	3.0
Restaurants	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	1	0	4	2.4
Safety and security	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1.2	0	2	4	2.4
Transport services	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2.4	0	0	4	2.4
Atmosphere	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	0	1	4	2.4
Overall services in the resort	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	1	3	1.8
Access to UK	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	1.8
Standard of facilities	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	0	0	3	1.8
Water supply	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	1	2	1.2
Language/ communication	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0	2	1.2
Watersports	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0	2	1.2
Large resorts	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0	1	0.6

Table 25.4. Attributes found to be better in Mallorca than competing destinations (n = 194) (same comment).

Items	Greece	Spain	Gran Canaria	Portugal	Turkey	Malta	France	Italy	Cyprus	Tunisia	Menorca	Ibiza	Total Med.	% Med.	USA	Other	Total	%
Overall cleanliness	7	3	6	3	6	1	0	0	1	2	3	3	35	18.0	0	2	37	19.0
Level of prices	4	2	1	3	1	1	6	1	3	0	1	0	23	11.8	6	7	36	18.5
Hospitality (people)	2	5	5	4	4	0	5	0	1	2	3	2	33	17.0	0	2	35	18.0
Beaches and sea	3	2	7	5	3	0	1	0	2	0	1	4	28	14.4	1	2	31	15.9
Weather	2	0	4	7	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	1	18	9.2	2	5	25	12.8
More to do and see	7	0	5	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	4	2	21	10.8	0	2	23	11.8
Food	3	1	1	1	0	2	6	1	1	0	1	3	20	10.3	0	2	22	11.3
Nightlife and entertainment	1	0	3	3	1	2	0	0	1	1	2	1	15	7.7	2	3	20	10.3
Scenery	3	1	2	2	0	1	0	0	3	0	1	0	13	6.7	3	0	16	8.2
Family resort	1	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	11	5.6	1	2	14	7.2
Local transport	2	2	0	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	4.6	0	3	12	6.1
Standard of facilities	2	0	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	10	5.1	2	0	12	6.1
Accommodation facilities	0	0	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	12	6.1	0	0	12	6.1
Access to UK	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	1.5	3	4	10	5.1
Shopping facilities	1	0	3	4	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	10	5.1	0	0	10	5.1
Restaurants	0	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	6	3.0	3	0	9	4.6
Resort airport	3	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	9	4.6	0	0	9	4.6
Facilities for children	0	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	8	4.1	0	0	8	4.1
Atmosphere	1	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	2.5	2	0	7	3.6
Quiet	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	6	3.0	0	0	6	3.0
Language/ communication	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	6	3.0	0	0	6	3.0
Large resort	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	5	2.5	0	0	5	2.5
Small resort	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	1	0	4	2.0
Less commercialized	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5
Safety and security	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0.5	2	0	3	1.5
Road and traffic conditions	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5

Table 25.5. Attributes to be considered while choosing the best destination (Turkey, *n* = 166).

Items	Turkey	Greece	Cyprus	Spain	Gran Canaria	Tunisia	Malta	Total Med	% Med.	USA	Others	Total	%
Hospitality (people)	62	0	1	0	0	0	0	63	37.9	1	1	65	39.1
More to do and see	22	0	0	1	0	0	0	23	13.8	1	0	24	14.4
Weather	14	0	0	1	0	0	0	15	9.0	1	0	16	9.6
Level of prices	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	9.0	0	0	15	9.0
Overall cleanliness	8	0	0	0	1	1	0	10	6.0	3	1	14	8.4
Value for money	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	7.1	1	1	14	8.4
No hassle	1	4	1	2	2	1	0	11	6.6	1	1	13	7.8
Nightlife and entertainment	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	11	6.6	1	0	12	7.2
Not commercialized	6	2	0	0	0	0	0	8	4.8	0	2	10	6.0
Accommodation facilities	7	0	0	0	0	1	0	8	4.8	0	2	10	6.0
Scenery	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	5.4	0	0	9	5.4
Food	8	0	0	0	1	0	0	9	5.4	0	0	9	5.4
Culture and history	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	7	4.2	0	0	7	4.2
Beaches and sea	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	4	2.4	0	0	4	2.4
Safety and security	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	0	0	3	1.8
Language/communication	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1.2	1	0	3	1.8
Standard of facilities	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	0	0	3	1.8
Quiet	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0	2	1.2
Atmosphere	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	1	2	1.2

Table 25.6. Attributes to be considered while choosing the best destination (Mallorca, $n = 194$).

Items	Mallorca	Tunisia	Turkey	Spain	Greece	Malta	Ibiza	Menorca	Gran Canaria	Cyprus	Portugal	France	Italy	Med.	% Med.	USA	Others	Total	%
Hospitality (people)	22	1	0	2	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	29	14.9	3	0	32	16.4
More to do and see	20	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	28	14.4	2	0	30	15.4
Beaches and sea	19	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	23	11.8	0	0	23	11.8
Level of prices	13	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	18	9.2	1	2	21	10.8
Family oriented	18	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	9.7	2	0	21	10.8
Accommodation facilities	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	17	8.7	1	1	19	9.7
Overall cleanliness	13	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	17	8.7	0	1	18	9.7
No or less commercialized	2	1	0	0	1	1	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	11	5.6	0	3	14	7.2
Relaxed atmosphere	8	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	11	5.6	0	0	11	5.6
Standard of facilities	8	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	4.6	0	0	9	4.6
Quiet	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	6	3.0	1	1	8	4.1
Food	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	7	3.6	1	0	8	4.1
Facilities for children	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	6	3.0	1	0	7	3.6
Weather	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	6	3.0	0	1	7	3.6
Access to UK	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2.5	5	0	5	2.5
Culture	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1.5	0	2	5	2.5
Available for all ages	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2.5	0	0	5	2.5
Safety and security	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2.0	0	0	4	2.0
Shopping facilities	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	2.0	0	0	4	2.0
Restaurants	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2.0	0	0	4	2.0
British oriented	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	2.0	0	0	4	2.0
Nightlife and entertainment	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.0	0	1	3	1.5
Services	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.0	1	0	3	1.5
Small resorts	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5
Scenery	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1.0	0	0	2	1.0
Local transport	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.0	0	0	2	1.0
Language/ communication	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	1.0	0	0	2	1.0

Table 25.7. Attributes found to be worse in Turkey than in competing destinations ($n = 166$).

Items	Greece	Spain	Gran Canaria	Portugal	Balearic	Malta	France	Italy	Cyprus	Tunisia	Egypt	Total Med.	% Med.	Canada and USA	Others	Total	%
Hassle	13	6	14	4	5	2	2	1	1	1	2	51	30.7	2	4	57	34.3
Road and traffic conditions	6	2	4	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	16	9.6	0	2	18	10.8
Overall cleanliness	2	2	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	11	6.6	0	3	14	8.4
Cleanliness of beaches and sea	3	3	0	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	10	6.0	0	1	11	6.6
Air-conditioning	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	6	3.6	0	2	8	4.8
Weather	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	3.6	0	1	7	4.2
Resort airport	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	1	3	7	4.2
Noise and crowd	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	4	2.4	0	2	6	3.6
Commercialized	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	3.0	0	1	6	3.6
Accommodation facilities	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2.4	0	1	5	3.0
Toilet facilities	0	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	5	3.0	0	0	5	3.0
Food	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.8	0	0	3	1.8
Less to do and see	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0.6	1	1	3	1.8
Water quality	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	1	3	1.8
Level of prices	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1.2
Nothing for children	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0	2	1.2
Untidy	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0	2	1.2
Watersports	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.2	0	0	2	1.2
Safety and security	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0	1	0.6
Long flight	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0	1	0.6
Signposting overall	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0	1	0.6
Standard of facilities	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0	1	0.6
Attitude towards women	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	0	0	1	0.6

Table 25.8. Attributes found to be worse in Mallorca than in competing destinations (n =194).

Items	Greece	Spain	Gran Canaria	Portugal	Turkey	Malta	France	Italy	Cyprus	Tunisia	Menorca	Ibiza	Total Med.	% Med.	USA	Other	Total	%
Commercialized	5	1	3	2	1	0	4	2	1	1	4	3	27	13.9	4	4	35	18.0
Overcrowded	2	1	1	4	0	1	3	1	0	1	2	1	17	8.7	5	1	23	11.8
Noisy	1	2	3	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	14	7.2	3	2	19	9.7
Level of prices	1	1	4	4	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	14	7.2	0	2	16	8.2
Dirty (cleanliness)	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	9	4.6	2	3	14	7.2
Nightlife and entertainment	0	1	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	4.1	2	2	12	6.1
Food	2	1	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	8	4.1	1	2	11	5.6
Hospitality (people)	1	0	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	8	4.1	0	2	10	5.1
Road and traffic conditions	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	7	3.6	1	0	8	4.1
Shopping facilities	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	5	2.5	1	0	6	3.0
Beaches and sea	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	4	2.0	1	0	5	2.5
Accommodation facilities	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1.0	2	1	5	2.5
Local transport	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1.0	1	1	4	2.0
Air-conditioning	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	1	4	2.0
Weather	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5
Toilet facilities	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	3	1.5

Table 25.9. Competitiveness set of Turkey and Mallorca.

Destinations	Mallorca (n =194)			Turkey (n =166)		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Canary Islands	54	27.8	1	43	25.9	2
USA	49	25.2	2	30	18.0	4
Greece	48	24.7	3	44	26.5	1
France	44	22.6	4	19	11.4	5
Spain	42	21.6	5	40	24.0	3
Ibiza	32	16.4	6	13	7.8	6
Menorca	27	13.9	7	5	3.0	17
Portugal	23	11.8	8	11	6.6	9
Cyprus	22	11.3	9	12	7.2	8
Italy	19	9.7	10	13	7.8	7
Turkey (Mallorca)	17	8.7	11	8	4.8	11
Malta	12	6.1	12	11	6.6	10
Caribbean	12	6.1	13	6	3.6	16
Tunisia	11	5.6	14	4	2.4	19
Austria	6	3.0	15	5	3.0	18
Germany	5	2.5	16	2	1.2	25
Canada	4	2.0	17	6	3.6	15
Mexico	4	2.0	18	4	2.4	20
Bulgaria	3	1.5	19	6	3.6	14
Belgium	3	1.5	20	3	1.8	22
Holland	3	1.5	21	7	4.2	13
Sweden	2	1.0	22	0	0	0
Denmark	2	1.0	23	0	0	0
Switzerland	2	1.0	24	0	0	0
Israel	2	1.0	25	2	1.2	27
Hong Kong	2	1.0	26	0	0	0
Thailand	2	1.0	27	4	2.4	21
Australia	1	0.5	28	8	4.8	12
Indonesia	1	0.5	29	2	1.2	28
Kenya	1	0.5	30	2	1.2	29
Egypt	1	0.5	31	3	1.8	24
Czech Republic	1	0.5	32	3	1.8	23
South Africa	1	0.5	33	2	1.2	30
Morocco	1	0.5	34	0	0	0
India	0	0	0	3	1.8	25
China	0	0	0	2	1.2	31
Maldives	0	0	0	2	1.2	32

As only one respondent from each sample destination had been to Singapore, Malaysia, Norway, Romania, Andorra, Sri Lanka, Mauritius, Bangladesh, Fiji, Gambia, Zambia and Tanzania, these places were excluded from the analysis of set.

hospitality, weather, and plenty to do and see were the items found to be similar in favour of Turkey and Mallorca in comparison with other destinations. Although hospitality and level of prices were joint attributes of both destinations, their rankings for Turkey had higher percentage values than for Mallorca. Therefore, in addition to these two attributes,

scenery, and quality and variety of food were those favouring Turkey, whereas quality and cleanliness of beaches and the sea, and suitability of entertainment and nightlife favoured Mallorca.

The analysis revealed a significant gap between tourist perceptions of the price levels in competing destinations and Turkey. The

latter was found to be more satisfactory and much cheaper. Turkey is perceived as an inexpensive, sun and sea destination and has become increasingly popular in the last 15 years among tourists who travel to enjoy good weather, sea and beaches. As a result of the present author's personal observations, the level of prices in Mallorca seems to be higher, particularly for food and drink, gifts, visiting attractions and day trips, although it varies between resorts and between service providers. The Turkish Lira (TL) is losing its value against British Sterling and the German Mark. The TL lost value against Sterling by 115% and against DM by 106% between 1998 and 2000. One repeat tourist already explains the potential reason for choosing Turkey in the future as 'the strong British Pound makes it a good value holiday'.

Good weather, found to be an important element of both places, is the main motivation for north European people to take their summer vacations in the Mediterranean. It is clear that people travel to Turkey and Mallorca to enjoy good weather. Several reasons can be speculated for this result, e.g. to relax, to be emotionally and physically refreshed, and to engage in summer sport activities. The associated products in Mallorca and Turkey are yachting, beaches, sports (such as golf, mountain biking, hiking), watersports and cruising. Turkey was also perceived as having better facilities and activities. Turkey offers its guests various holiday opportunities. There are daily or 2–3-day tours to main cultural and historical attractions, as well as daily boat tours. Resorts in Turkey are also richer in watersports and shopping facilities. 'I enjoyed Marmaris (Turkey) the best because there are many activities you can participate in both at the hotels and on the beach. It is also a bigger town; so there is lots more to see…'. Although the availability of facilities and services is in Turkey's favour, there is one significant complaint, the need to improve air-conditioning services, including the accommodation facilities, because it is very hot in summer time.

There was only one variable found to be better in Mallorca – the availability of facilities and activities for children. This might be a significant issue for those with children choosing Mallorca. As one tourist points out, 'Mallorca has greatly improved for a family holiday since our last visit in 1984. Mallorca is a good option for a family holiday'. As observations indicate, Mallorca provides a number of facilities and activities particularly for family groups, such as sports, watersports, private swimming pools, nursery services and playgrounds. Some restaurants in the area attempt to attract this market segment by offering a special, half-price menu for children under 12 and providing a private playground. They also serve a special menu for those who are under 12 years old. In Turkey, such services are still in their infancy and are provided only by some large establishments like holiday villages and five-star hotels. Most importantly, the infrastructure in many Turkish resorts (e.g. Marmaris) is not designed for parents to be able to push their pushchairs on the pedestrian roads.

Although the respondents had a higher tendency to rate either Mallorca or Turkey as the best destination in terms of their holiday experiences, the findings could be significant in understanding which factors (attributes) were effective in their decision making process and why Mallorca or Turkey was selected as the best. Hospitality (39%), plenty to do and see (14%), weather (10%), level of prices (9%), overall cleanliness (8%), and value for money (7%) were attributes the respondents liked most and considered to be important when choosing Turkey as the best compared to other destinations (Table 25.5). Moreover, hospitality (16%), plenty to do and see (15%), quality of beaches and sea (12%), level of prices (11%), being family oriented (11%), overall cleanliness (10%), and suitability of accommodation facilities (10%) were the similar attributes of Mallorca (Table 25.6). Except for hospitality and plenty to do and see, the listed attributes vary between Turkey and Mallorca. There is ground to argue that hospitality of local people and plenty to do and see while on vacation are more important attributes than ever when evaluating tourists' overall experiences in respect to their holidays at these sample destinations.

Identifying Weaknesses of Mallorca and Turkey

Among the attributes found to be worse in Turkey than in other self-selected destinations were harassment (the perceived negative attitudes of local shopkeepers in the resort to sell goods and services) (34%), traffic (poor conditions of roads and driving) (11%), overall dirtiness of the destinations (8%), poor quality and dirtiness of beaches and the sea (7%), and the lack of air-conditioning systems (5%) (Table 25.7). The highly ranked negative attributes of Mallorca were over-commercialization (18%), over-crowding (12%), noise (10%), level of prices (8%), dirtiness (7%), lack of entertainment and nightlife (6%), and poor quality and variety of food (6%) (Table 25.8). As can be seen, except for over-commercialization, the two lists of negative comments were the same in Mallorca and Turkey. This may be a result of movements in tourism to commercialize the industry. The main problem in Turkey was that respondents felt pressured by local shopkeepers to buy something from their shops. The other elements of the list were mainly based on tangible items (e.g. poor traffic, dirtiness, and lack of air-conditioning). The complaints presented by those in Mallorca were mostly related to the results of overdevelopment of tourism. As Mallorca attracts a large number of domestic and foreign tourists, a noisy, dirty and over-commercialized atmosphere has become apparent. These can also be good benchmarks for Turkey to control overdevelopment in tourism in the near future. Some problems in Turkey did not appear in Mallorca (e.g. harassment, poor roads and driving, beaches, and air-conditioning) because Mallorca has improved its tourism infrastructure and services to reach standards set in Europe.

Despite the strength of Turkey's tradition of hospitality, a major complaint has always been harassment by shopkeepers and restaurateurs. A number of tourists complain that 'you get a lot of hassle when out shopping or looking for somewhere to eat… Get sick of hearing "yes please" constantly… If they left you alone, they would probably make more sales'. The open-ended comments frequently included suggestions on how to solve the harassment problem. One respondent emphasized that '… We would have bought much more if allowed to browse and not to be pestered continually!'. Similarly, another said that '… if they hassled a little less they would probably sell more… I would have to think about Marmaris because better nightlife and more things to do… No hassle would be nice'. This provides a potential practical implication to be investigated further. A comment about this problem given by a customer may be significant: 'It would be better if they just let you decide if you wanted to go to their shops'.

Such evidence as over-commercialization, overcrowding, noise and dirty environment can be regarded as prime indicators of rapid developments in Mallorcan tourism, a mature international tourism destination. As a consequence of the emergence of mass tourism, it has attracted a high volume of tourists, but with a low level of tourism income and spending. To meet the increasing demand, accommodation capacity has extended and widened to other unspoilt areas causing environmental deterioration. This also led to overcrowded beaches by the mid-1980s. Because Mallorca has reached the mature stage of its destination life cycle, the local authority has decided to revitalize the image of Mallorca by establishing a long-term planning policy.

The majority of complaints about overdevelopment in Mallorca are related to losing its original culture, nature and food. One first-time tourist drew attention to the extent of this problem by underlining that 'It is very commercial… Losing its culture and heritage… Like visiting a British resort in the sun…'. The next case addressed by another tourist has links to support this statement: '… Food has not improved… Too much fast and easy food is available… Nothing fancy or different is available… Too many chips with everything. Why do they think the English eat so many chips?'. One could speculate that the local cuisine has a limited number of dishes and it is, therefore, easy to find traditional British food in Mallorca, e.g. fish and chips or British-style pubs. There are some customers who observed the results of the implementation of the recent tourism development plans: '… It has become more commercial-

ized and is starting to detract from the island's original attraction. Happily, all new building appears to be of low height, reducing its detrimental effect'. Despite being perceived largely as a family holiday destination, Mallorca attracts a mixture of both young and middle-aged tourists in the summer season while older tourists prefer to go between October and May. This has raised a number of potential problems particularly for those who travel as a family. Such resorts as Magaluf and Arenal have become more popular with younger people who tend to continue drinking and staying up late which disturbs others.

Although resorts in Turkey are much younger and not as over-commercialized as those in Mallorca, there is already some evidence of a potential threat (dirtiness, crowds, noise and loss of culture and nature) in the future unless tourism development in Turkey is controlled. Findings address the importance of paying attention to improving the quality of resorts in Turkey before it reaches the maximum development stage. Feedback obtained from some repeat tourists is significant in identifying factors that lead to a destination moving on to the next stage in the destination life-cycle. Among these are a busy atmosphere and the lack of original culture and nature. One points out that it is '… Getting too overcommercialized, spoiling natural beauty as too many hotels are being built…'. The next one observes that 'Turkish resorts are becoming too commercial and losing their cultural charm…'. The third observation is very similar to one made about Mallorca and signals the degree of potential threats for the tourism industry in Turkey in the future: 'It is busier with more tourists… It has become too English, e.g. prices in English, restaurants named after English programmes…'. If external benchmarking is believed to be worthy of consideration, this is what Turkey has to choose as a benchmark and learn lessons from Mallorca.

In summary, such attributes as hospitality, plenty to do and see, level of prices, weather conditions, and value for money were perceived to be among the most effective in the competitive position of Turkey. It is interesting to note that both hospitality and harassment were ranked as the first positive and negative attributes, respectively. Despite the difficulty of assessing it, this finding might be regarded as an indicator of rapid development in the country's tourism industry. Those attributes positively affecting the competitiveness of Mallorca were hospitality, plenty to do and see, quality of beaches and the sea, being family oriented, and suitability of accommodation facilities. Although Mallorca was perceived to be cleaner, it was also found to be dirtier than some other destinations. Therefore, it is not clear whether this attribute will be taken into consideration as a positive or negative element of the Mallorcan tourism industry.

Competitor Analysis

A competitiveness set was defined by collecting data on the respondents' visits to other destinations in the preceding 4 years (Table 25.9). The objective was to ascertain whether both sample destinations were in the same competitive set. Except for the USA, the first ten destinations were in the Mediterranean basin, even though slight differences appeared in the ranking lists. These destinations are the Canary Islands, Greece, France, Spain, Ibiza, Portugal, Cyprus, Italy, Turkey (or Mallorca) and Malta. The share of these destinations for those who visited Mallorca was higher than for those who visited Turkey. The USA was ranked as the second most visited destination by British respondents interviewed in Mallorca (25.2%), whereas it was ranked as the fourth by those interviewed in Turkey (18.0%). The share of other destinations such as long-haul (e.g. the Far East and Africa) and short-haul (e.g. other European countries) remained much smaller.

As a consequence, one could suggest that the study respondents had a much higher loyalty to Mediterranean basin destinations and the USA (particularly Florida) for the purpose of taking mainly 'sea–sand–sun' vacations. Such an attempt at competitiveness analysis could be significant for destination comparison research in order to have a better understanding of competitors in the same set in a particular market and make decisions about whom and what to benchmark. For

instance, in the competitiveness sets discussed in this study, both Mallorca and Turkey would have an opportunity to select their partner(s) from those in the Mediterranean basin.

Discussion

The starting point for this study is the premise that, when tourists have visited multiple destinations, comparative surveys might be used to explore performance gaps. This premise is based on the assumption that tourists visiting multiple destinations would be better able to identify gaps between the performance of different destinations, e.g. what tourists perceive (destination attributes), how they perceive (likes/dislikes), what type of result is obtained for comparison (better/worse) and so on. The contribution of this assumption focuses on the significance of choosing a correct sampling method. Consumer behaviour research considers the examination of the service strengths and weaknesses from the perspective of those who have experienced them. If the purpose is to measure the performance of any destination, either host or partner, and use the term 'performance ratings', the sample must be selected from among those who have holiday experiences at both destinations. Such direct comparison surveys can be used to directly compare a destination's performance with that of another.

For this study, open-ended questionnaires were used to compare self-reported, multiple destinations. This methodology obtains detailed information in tourists' own words about positive or negative holiday experiences at visited destinations. This is also a useful method for obtaining comments from tourists for improvement. Some significant feedback was obtained from the results on the benefit of using open-ended questions in comparison research and from the information that the researcher was given by tourists in short face-to-face interviews at the study airports. For example, complaints about the noise of young people after midnight reported by family groups in Mallorca and the lack of air-conditioning systems reported by those in Turkey were identified as areas needing improvement.

The use of open-ended questionnaires has valuable implications for research on the comparative measurement of destination performance. This instrument was designed to measure one destination's performance, not only against a specific alternative destination, but also against other major competitors as identified by the survey respondents. The destination authority is able to understand its perceived performance against its main competitors. In addition, this instrument helps to identify both positive and negative aspects of the destination's tourism product. For instance, harassment was found to be the most serious problem in Turkey as compared to other European destinations. Similarly, Turkey is perceived to have a better tradition of hospitality than several of its European counterparts.

The proposed methodology is likely to work better if applied while the respondents are still at the destination and in the presence of interviewers, so as to prevent confusion and to yield fresh feedback even though a halo effect may occur. This is also a cost-effective way of conducting surveys among tourists visiting international destinations. Moreover, the importance of tourists talking about holiday experiences and the exchange of information with others after returning home should not be underestimated. The destination has a great opportunity to monitor its performance because it attracts a variety of tourist groups representing different geographical areas worldwide, many of whom may have also visited other destinations.

However, this study also experienced some difficulties that need careful consideration in designing future research. First, it was observed that some respondents did not pay sufficient attention when selecting the comparison destination. For example, a few respondents tended to make a comparison with a destination they had visited 10–15 years earlier, rather than within the 4-year limit. A direct quotation on the perceived changes in attitudes towards tourists since the latest visit better explains this: '... It is good to see women out. This means that European women (like myself) get hassled a bit less by men. It did seem dangerous to

travel in Turkey in 1971'. It was further observed that people are reluctant to make a clear decision on the question asking the respondents to identify the best destination out of those they had visited in the preceding 4 years. This is characterized by such typical sentences as: 'I cannot choose because they are so different. Egypt is viewed as being dirty and getting hassled but you visit the country for the famous pyramids and tombs. Turkey has less tourist attractions but overall the beaches, facilities and nightlife are better'. Or the respondents like both: 'Both were good in different ways. I would not say one was better than the other'.

Finally, despite the fact that computer technology has become very useful for content analysis, some pitfalls still remain, e.g. concerns of objectivity, clarity and reliability. For example, the respondents were likely to give a general response to a question asking about what they liked and disliked. They tended to indicate a very small number of attributes (reasons) for each question. There is no evidence to indicate whether these were the only attributes found to be better or worse than in other destinations. The use of open-ended questionnaire is, therefore, somewhat limited and needs further improvement in future tourism research.

Conclusion

This study was designed to test the use of an open-ended questionnaire to measure external performance of international tourist destinations. Briefly summarizing the results of the above analysis, the findings provide grounds for identifying areas where the study destinations have strengths and weaknesses, not only against each other but also against some other competitor destinations. Thus, employing qualitative research methods has several advantages in gaining a clear understanding of tourists' judgements in their own words and interpretation while examining comparative performance of tourist destinations. This type of assessment is useful particularly for measuring the direction of tourist perceptions (positive/negative or better/worse) and taking them into consideration in order to evaluate tourists' judgements about the quality of facilities and services provided in one destination vis-à-vis that of other similar destinations.

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Chapter twenty-six
Cross-cultural Behaviour Research In Tourism: a Case Study on Destination Image

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Abstract

Focused on cross-cultural research in tourism, this study aims to emphasize the significance of exploring cross-cultural differences in consumer behaviour and, in particular, destination image. In order to achieve this objective, first of all a theoretical framework is developed to introduce a research agenda on cross-cultural consumer behaviour in tourism. From a practical perspective, a case study is carried out based on tourism databases and two ad hoc studies conducted by the Valencian Tourist Board (Spain) at its tourism information offices. ANOVA and factor correspondence analysis are considered as the main techniques to analyse the differences of destination image attributes taking into account the tourists' country of residence. Finally, conclusions and managerial implications are discussed.

Introduction

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), tourism has emerged as one of the most relevant sectors on a world level, as it is the major source of wealth in a number of countries (WTO, 1997). Statistics provided by the WTO emphasize the economic significance of tourism at the global level (WTO, 2003). From an international perspective, the most popular destinations in the world in the year 2000 were France, followed by Spain, the

USA, Italy and China. Looking at these figures, the need for cross-cultural research in countries like Spain can be appreciated, where international tourist arrivals have been experiencing an increasing growth rate and, at the same time, from a practical perspective, studies dealing with cultural characteristics are scarce.

From an academic viewpoint, conducting cross-cultural studies in tourism has both its supporters and its critics. On the one hand, proponents such as Pizam (1999) show that this type of research can be justified, as a great

deal of evidence suggests that nationality influences tourist behaviour. Others, e.g. Plog (1990), have pointed to a dearth of research related to the cultural differences and similarities of tourists, and have suggested that the rapid globalization of the tourist phenomenon and its international nature warrants a better understanding of the global tourist. Critics, on the other hand, such as Dann (1993) and Peabody (1985) highlight the limitations of using nationality and country of residence as segmentation variables in tourism research. They both suggest that tourism is now well and truly a global phenomenon and generating and destination societies are no longer culturally uniform.

Despite the criticisms, it is clear from a literature review that cross-cultural research in tourism is receiving increasing attention from academics. An examination of tourism literature shows an increasing interest in cross-cultural research (Hudson and Ritchie, 2001). Specifically, one of the purposes for doing cross-cultural research is to explore other cultures, learn about them and to test cultural differences in tourism marketing contexts. Additionally, it is well known that, based upon products offered, one particular destination may attract customers from different nationalities. The investigation of potential cross-cultural differences and similarities between various consumer groups representing different cultures in tourism visiting a particular destination is important for destination management to learn the profile of its customers, their values, preferences and behaviour, and to implement effective positioning and market segmentation strategies (Sussmann and Rashcovsky, 1997; Reisinger and Turner, 1998; Pizam, 1999).

The identification of the image perceived by the tourist is fundamental in determining a destination's competitiveness (Britton, 1979; Mayo and Jarvis, 1981; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Ahmed, 1991; Andreu *et al.*, 2000). Efforts to understand the factors driving tourists to visit or that are influencing their image perceptions of a particular destination and how likely it is to be different from those of others visiting other destinations could help destination management in setting marketing strategies (Reisinger, 1997). Depending upon

the empirical findings, destination management would either promote attributes that best match tourist motivations, or concentrate on a different market where tourist motivations and destination resources match each other.

All these arguments justify the need for research in destination image from a cross-cultural view. Particularly, the objectives of this research are as follows: (i) to review the concept of destination image as well as to highlight cross-cultural research studies in tourism based on indirect and direct studies; (ii) to analyse a case study based on international and national databases regarding European travellers in a leading tourism destination in Spain and, in particular, in one specific form of tourism – sun and beach tourism – in which Spain specializes. In order to achieve these objectives, first of all a theoretical framework is developed to introduce a research agenda on cross-cultural consumer behaviour in tourism. Second, a case study is undertaken from an essential analysis, based on relevant data of the European Travel Monitor, Frontur (IET, 2003) as well as 'tourist-info surveys' provided by the Valencian Tourism Board (VTB).

Conceptual Background

Tourist destinations are accepted as being a key component of national or international tourism activities. Each destination offers a variety of products and services to attract tourists. However, each visitor also has the opportunity and freedom to choose from a set of destinations (Crompton, 1992). Research findings indicate that different factors may have an influence on destination choice, or the attractiveness of one particular destination (Mayo and Jarvis, 1981; Sirakaya *et al.*, 1996). For instance, each visitor may have different motivations, preferences and image perceptions for different destinations. Most studies of destination choice and tourist behaviour have been related to investigating the relationship between the image of destination and tourist preferences for the place as a tourist destination as well as dis/satisfaction with the destination. At this stage, Morrison (1989) presents two criteria, objective and subjective, that help tourists to decide

which one meets their own criteria best. The former includes prices, locations, physical characteristics of facilities or destinations and so on, whereas the image of the destination is considered as subjective criterion. Both objective and subjective criteria are significant attributes in forming a destination image.

It is important to bear in mind that studies of image and attitude are different concepts, despite the fact that both are largely used in the field of marketing. Two people may have the same images of a place, but may hold different attitudes towards it, e.g. warm weather (Kotler *et al.*, 1996). The place can be perceived to be warm (image), but one may not like warm weather or travel to a place that is warm (attitude). A number of image studies have been carried out to explore positive and negative perspectives of destinations on several attributes (Pearce, 1982; McLellan and Fousher, 1983; Richardson and Crompton, 1988; Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Echter and Ritchie, 1991). Such research indicates that destination images influence tourist behaviour (Hunt, 1975; Pearce, 1982).

Emphasizing the importance that images have upon the tourist, Hunt (1975) argues that the images, beliefs and perceptions that people have about a destination can influence the growth of a tourist area as much as, or even more than, tangible resources. Image studies play a key role in the marketing and promotion of destinations, particularly for those who have never been to the destination before (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Therefore, research on consumer behaviour and destination marketing could possibly be conducted first of all in order to understand the areas where the destination is suffering in terms of its image; and methods can be developed to construct a positive image and to suggest how to use this positive image to make people feel that the destination has its own distinctive quality. Although it is claimed that image perceptions of destinations may not always reflect the reality, unfortunately, they could affect the destination choice of potential tourists when deciding where to take a vacation (Goodrich, 1978).

Previous studies have highlighted the variations in the travel characteristics and behaviour of tourists from different countries. In an effort to classify the methods used when carrying out cross-cultural research, Pizam and his colleagues categorize two types of studies: indirect and direct studies. The first, 'the indirect method', refers to how 'outsiders', such as local residents, tour guides or entrepreneurs see tourists or, in other words, how they perceive differences in the behaviour of tourists across various nationalities. The other, 'the direct method', aims at exploring whether any differences exist in the behaviour, values or satisfaction levels of tourists representing different nationalities, and therefore reflects tourists' opinions about themselves or their experiences. In general, researchers have previously employed both methods; these are summarized in Tables 26.1 and 26.2.

On the one hand, a review of indirect studies supports the proposition that national cultures have a moderating effect on tourist behaviour, although the research is based on subjective perceptions. On the other hand, other research is developed by means of direct methods of cross-cultural comparison research. This type of research explores the similarities and differences between multiple groups in relation to several vacation travel patterns, tourist satisfaction, tourist motivation and image perceptions of the selected destinations.

Overall, direct studies have tended to focus on information sources used by travellers, destination choice, tourist expectations and benefits received. The resulting data from all these studies reveal cultural differences that provide theoretical support for expanded research in the area of cross-cultural behaviour in tourism. Reviewing direct studies, there is a lack of empirical studies regarding destination image. As the case study developed in this research focuses on destination image, one of the purposes of this research is to contribute in this issue.

Case Study: European Travellers to the Comunidad Valenciana (Spain)

The case study is centred on the analysis of tourists in one particular region of Spain. As mentioned before, Spain stands out as one of the major tourist receiving countries (51.7

Table 26.1. Indirect studies.

Researchers	Countries involved	Variables of the study	Sample	Main contribution
Pizam and Jeong (1996)	Korea, Japan and USA	20 behavioural characteristics of Japanese, American and Korean tourists	86 Korean tour-guides	Perceptions of Korean tour-guides of tourists from three nationalities
Pizam and Telisman-Kosuta (1996)	Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Spain, UK, USA, Yugoslavia	A variety of travel characteristics	Seven samples of residents in each country	Opinions and impressions of host communities
Pizam and Reichel (1996)	Japanese, French, Italian, US tourists in The Netherlands	20 behavioural characteristics	63 Dutch tour guides	Cross-cultural tourist behaviour based on subjective perceptions
Reisinger and Turner (1997)	Australia and Japan	National culture dimensions, holiday experiences	250 Australian tourism providers	Cultural factors influencing Japanese holiday experiences in Australia

Table 26.2. Direct studies.

Researchers	Countries involved	Variables of the study/datasets	Sample	Main contribution
Sussmann and Rashcovsky (1997)	French and English Canadians	Vacation travel patterns	189 passengers travelling by bus, train and plane	Cross-cultural of leisure travel dimensions
Reisinger and Turner (1997)	Australia and Japan	National culture dimensions, holiday experiences	618 Asian tourists visiting Australia	Cultural factors influencing Japanese holiday experiences in Australia
You *et al.* (2000)	Japanese and UK long-haul pleasure travellers	Pleasure Travel Market Survey for Japan (1995) and for UK (1996)	1200 (Japan) and 1208 (UK)	Cross-cultural study on push and pull factors
Crotts and Erdmann (2000)	Japan, UK, Germany, France, Brazil and Taiwan	In-flight surveys of overseas tourists to the USA (1996, 1997, 1998)	80,000 tourists to the USA	National culture on consumer evaluations
Hudson and Ritchie (2001)	Canada, USA and UK skiers	Environmentally friendly ski destination, WTP, socio-demographics	111 Canadians, 116 Americans, 105 British skiers	Identification of customers who are WTP more for an E-F product

million people in 2002), which allows the country to maintain its quota on a world level, in spite of emerging markets (IET, 2003; WTO, 2003). Among the principal countries sending tourists to Spain, the UK and German markets stand out in first place (47.7%). Behind them, although at a considerable distance, is France with 11.9% and then, with comparatively lower figures, The Netherlands, Italy, Belgium and Portugal (IET, 2003).

In respect to destinations preferred by foreign tourists, traditionally the Balearic and the Canary Islands stand out as being the most important, and also the Mediterranean coastline: Catalonia, Andalusia, and the Valencia Community (known in Spain as the Comunidad Valenciana). The last two have shown particularly important increases in recent years (IET, 2003), a fact that ratifies the leadership that continues to be maintained by Spain in the typology of sun and beaches, in which the country specializes (www. comunidadvalenciana.com). In respect to the destinations just mentioned, the Comunidad Valenciana deserves particular emphasis here, having received nearly 5 million foreign tourists (approximately 10% of the total number of tourists to Spain). Generally speaking, the principal outbound markets that come to this community are approximately representative of those visiting all of Spain, taken as a whole. Having justified the importance of conducting cross-cultural research in this area, the specific objectives of the case study are twofold: one is to analyse the profile of foreign tourists who visit the Comunidad Valenciana, and the other would be to analyse the perceived image that tourists have of this region, taking into consideration a representative sampling of the different nationalities that visit the tourist destination under investigation.

In order to achieve the above-mentioned objectives, the case study is carried out based on tourism databases and ad hoc studies conducted by the Valencian Tourist Board (VTB). One of the secondary sources of information used is the European Travel Monitor (ETM) database, the objective of which is to provide comparable data on European travel behaviour. The ETM is a continuous survey measuring all overnight trips made by the adult inhabitants of up to 33 European countries – irrespective of the reason for the trip. For this purpose, Europeans are representatively interviewed about trips they have undertaken during the last few months in more than 150 waves per year. This totals to approximately 400,000 interviews per year. The results obtained from these polls representative of the population are extrapolated for the total population (aged 15 years and above) of each country. Designed as a basic tool for marketing decisions in tourism,

the objective of the European Travel Monitor is to provide comparable data on European travel behaviour, as well as on the development of travel patterns on a pan-European basic. Therefore, the ETM has been continuously recording all trips abroad taken by Europeans with at least one overnight stay, including holiday trips, business trips, visits to friends and/or relatives and other private trips. Interviews are carried out by telephone usually from a central location using a CATI system (computer-aided telephone interviewing). All data relate to trips, not to people. If one person makes three trips, these are counted three times in the total volume.

Profiles of European travellers

Concerning the first objective, the profile of tourists to the Comunidad Valenciana is shown in Table 26.3. Specifically, based on the ETM, data gathered for five key tourism markets is shown (Germany, The Netherlands, Belgium, France and the UK) regarding their visits to the Comunidad Valenciana and the following variables: purpose of trip, type of holiday, accommodation, mode of transport, organization, travel spending, length of stay, travel season, degree of holiday satisfaction and intention to repeat. As far as trip purpose is concerned, it stands out that the majority of the tourists come for holidays, and mainly the type of holiday is sun and beach, and most of them take trips lasting 4 or more nights. In general they are very satisfied with their holidays and the intention to repeat is high.

Apart from the ETM market research, the data for the case study was gathered from two main and complementary sources. First of all, the statistical study entitled 'over-the-border tourist movements' (FRONTUR) carried out by the Spanish Institute for Tourism Studies based on interviews conducted at frontiers (IET, 2003). Second, the 1999 and 2000 'Survey of Visitors to the Comunidad Valenciana' was undertaken. Annually, the VTB surveys more than 1000 overseas tourists in Tourism Information Offices (Tourist-Info) during the summer, with self-administered questionnaires consisting of the following variables: introductory variables

Table 26.3. European travel to the Comunidad Valenciana: a comparison of key outbound countries.

Variables	Belgian	British	French	German	Netherlands
Volume of trips[a]	288,000	1,300,000	613,000	781,000	238,000
Trip purpose					
Holidays	100%	69%	61%	72%	98%
Business	–	13%	24%	–	1%
Other	–	18%	15%	28%	1%
Type of holiday					
Sun and beach	92%	60%	66%	100%	66%
Touring	8%	9%	7%	–	5%
City holiday	–	15%	–	–	–
Private occasion	–	–	27%	–	–
Sporting	–	–	–	–	9%
Others	–	16%	–	–	20%
Accommodation					
Hotel	16%	47%	36%	5%	15%
Other paid for	58%	35%	53%	61%	54%
Private	18%	14%	11%	34%	32%
Others	7%	4%	–	–	–
Mode of transport					
Plane	42%	85%	35%	35%	52%
Car	58%	6%	61%	42%	22%
Others	–	9%	4%	23%	26%
Organization					
Package	11%	39%	5%	–	38%
Other pre-booking	64%	60%	63%	55%	42%
No pre-booking	25%	1%	32%	45%	20%
Travel spending[b]	€787	€1,124	€1,009	€1,153	€905
Length of stay[c]					
Short trips	0%	18%	34%	7%	10%
Longer trips	100%	82%	66%	93%	90%
Travel season					
Summer	51%	68%	50%	95%	58%
Winter	49%	32%	50%	5%	42%
Holiday satisfaction					
Yes, very nice	90%	NA	100%	100%	96%
So so	10%	NA	–	–	4%
No, not really	0%	NA	–	–	1%
Intention to repeat					
Yes	79%	NA	94%	53%	66%
Maybe	13%	NA	6%	12%	31%
Rather not	8%	NA	0%	35%	2%

[a]Trips to Valencia with at least one overnight stay.
[b]Average expenditure per trip (and person). These costs included all expenses, means transport, accommodation, food and other expenses.
[c]Short trips (1–3 nights) and longer trips (4+ nights).
Source: European Travel Monitor (2000).

(i.e. first time of the visit); variables related to the tourist behaviour (i.e. mode of organizing the holiday, through travel agent, on their own, etc.), accommodation used, and means of transport used; future behaviour intentions (i.e. intention to repeat); socio-demographic variables (age, gender, place of residence, educational level) and the perceived destination image based on 19 attributes (parking space, promenades, rest areas,

green zones, recreational and sports areas, accommodation, restaurants, bars/cafés, shops/stores, cultural and leisure offering, safety, traffic flow, tourist signs, cleanliness and conservation, rubbish removal, beach cleanliness and conservation, state of the roads, ease of access to primary tourist sites, and absence of noise). A five-point scale ranging from 'very low' (1) to 'very high' (5) was used to evaluate how tourists perceive each destination attribute.

Based on the research conducted by the VTB in tourist-information offices during 1999 and 2000, the samples of both studies are: (i) with regard to the year 1999, the total sample is 2879. Of these, 556 are Spanish, 469 British, 322 German, 814 French and 633 from the rest of the world. (ii) With reference to the year 2000, the total sample is 2511. Of these, 510 are Spanish, 421 are British, 336 are German, 664 are French and 580 from the rest of the world. The distribution of the sampling in reference to the socio-demographic variables is very similar for the years analysed, as well as in relation to the different countries-of-residence of tourists visiting the Comunidad Valenciana. Specifically, the variable gender is distributed quite equally in the sampling analysed, but with a slightly higher percentage of males over females in all cases, except for the French, in the year 1999. Regarding age, the most important volume of visitors is concentrated in the interval 25–44 years, followed very closely by tourists in the 45–65 years age group. The level of studies also shows a distribution by age, as well as by country, which is very homogeneous: predominantly university studies, followed by secondary studies. Finally, although this is not a socio-demographic variable, it is important to know whether this was the first time the travellers had visited the Comunidad Valenciana, given that this aspect could possibly determine in the perception of the destination. In this case, for the year 1999, higher percentages were observed in tourists from the UK, Germany and the rest of the world, who were visiting the Comunidad for the first time, when compared to Spanish and French tourists. For the year 2000, this figure was only higher than the percentage of Spanish tourists, who had already visited the area,

when compared to the rest of the tourists, irregardless of the country-of-residence. Even so, in all cases the percentages were in the area of 50%.

The authors recognize that there are certain limitations to the methodology which must be stated. From a theoretical point of view, the analysis and measurement of tourist destination image through profiling destination attribute is the approach that is most frequently applied. However, an important limitation of this approach is the heterogeneity of the attributes used, rendering comparisons between the different destinations difficult (Ruiz *et al.*, 1999). In terms of this specific study, a pilot study would have allowed for the identification of those areas that could have been investigated in greater depth.

Tourist destination image: cross-cultural study

With reference to the second objective of the case study, this research focuses on the differences among tourists regarding the image of the Comunidad Valenciana. As can be concluded based on the research overview, few cross-cultural studies have been carried out on how people from varying cultural backgrounds differ in their perceived destination image. The present case study is based on the analysis of destination image that different tourists perceived of the Comunidad Valenciana. Specifically, the differences of destination image depending on the tourists' country-of-residence (Spain, UK, France, Germany, and the rest of the world) are analysed. Therefore, a direct method is used. With regard to the analysis of destination image from a cross-cultural point of view, it was conducted using multivariate techniques: analysis of variance (ANOVA) for each of the destination attributes, and factor correspondence analysis.

ANOVA of the destination attributes

First of all, an ANOVA for each of the destination attributes of the study was carried out in order to investigate the influence of country-of-residence on the perceived destination

image. As shown in Tables 26.4 and 26.5, for the years 1999 and 2000 respectively, significant differences are highlighted (*F*-value). Furthermore, by means of a post hoc analysis, it was possible to determine whether the country-of-residence affected the evaluation of destination attributes. Regarding both VTB databases, it became evident that the country-of-residence is related to the perception of the Comunidad Valenciana as a tourist destination. In other words, the perceived image of this tourist destination is not homogeneous; rather, it is possible to identify differences on the basis of the country. For instance, based on the 1999 database (Table 26.4), French tourists who visited the Comunidad Valenciana (FR, $n = 814$) evaluated significantly lower ($P < 0.05$) the following attributes in comparison to British tourists (UK, $n = 469$): parking space, rest, cleanliness and conservation, rubbish removal, beach cleanliness and conservation, and absence of noise.

Regarding the 2000 database (Table 26.5), Spanish tourists who visit the Comunidad Valenciana (SP, $n = 510$) evaluated most of the attributes lower than the other segments. Specifically, differences were found in comparison to British (UK), German (GE) and the rest of the world (RW) regarding parking space (SP<GE, SP<RW, SP<UK), recreational and sports (SP<GE, SP<UK, SP<RW), accommodation (SP<UK, SP<GE, SP<RW), as well as restaurants, bars/cafés and shops/stores (SP<RW, SP<GE, SP<UK).

Table 26.4. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) by country-of-residence (year 1999).

Destination attributes	SP, $n = 556$	UK, $n = 469$	FR, $n = 814$	GE, $n = 322$	RW, $n = 718$	F[a]		Post hoc test[b]
Parking space	3.49	3.89	3.58	3.64	3.75	8.16	**	SP<RW, SP<UK, FR<UK
Promenades	4.18	4.33	4.23	3.95	4.29	9.54	**	GE<SP, GE<FR, GE<RW, GE<UK
Rest	3.96	4.05	3.76	3.97	4.07	9.25	**	FR<SP, FR<UK, FR<RW
Green zones	3.65	3.94	3.77	3.67	3.92	7.28	**	SP<RW, SP<UK, GE<RW, GE<UK
Recreational and sports	3.93	4.01	3.99	3.96	4.14	3.79	**	SP<RW
Accommodation	4.34	4.53	4.48	4.45	4.44	3.84	**	SP<FR, SP<UK
Restaurants	4.37	4.56	4.48	4.49	4.48	4.56	**	SP<UK
Bars/cafés	4.42	4.61	4.56	4.53	4.56	6.01	**	SP<FR, SP<RW, SP<UK
Shops/stores	4.24	4.30	4.33	4.29	4.38	2.25		
Cultural and leisure line-up	4.10	4.17	4.20	4.10	4.22	1.81		
Safety	4.33	4.39	4.43	4.38	4.47	2.53	*	Non-SD
Traffic flow	3.62	3.77	3.65	3.54	3.69	2.06		
Cleanliness and conservation	4.00	4.14	3.84	3.84	4.12	11.98	**	FR<RW, FR<UK, GE<RW, GE<UK
Rubbish removal	4.15	4.24	4.05	4.13	4.22	3.97	**	FR<RW, FR<UK
Tourist signs	4.14	4.15	4.00	3.98	4.12	3.40	**	Non-SD
Beach cleanliness and conservation	4.29	4.47	4.31	4.37	4.44	4.95	**	SP<RW, SP<UK, FR<UK
State of the roads	4.01	4.10	4.24	4.13	4.29	9.67	**	SP<FR, SP<RW, UK<RW
Ease of access to primary tourist sites	4.19	4.25	4.18	4.21	4.33	3.75	**	FR<RW
Absence of noise	3.47	3.72	3.44	3.71	3.68	7.16	**	FR<RW, FR<GE, FR<UK, SP<UK

[a]* $P < 0.05$; **<0.01.
[b]Significant differences (SD) in the post hoc test (Scheffé): SP (Spain), UK (United Kingdom), FR (France), GE (Germany), RW (rest of the world).

Table 26.5. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) by country-of-residence (year 2000).

Destination attributes	SP, $n = 510$	UK, $n = 421$	FR, $n = 664$	GE, $n = 336$	RW, $n = 580$	F[a]	Post hoc test[b]
Parking space	3.27	3.80	3.49	3.61	3.79	15.26 **	SP<GE, SP<RW, SP<UK, FR<RW, FR<UK
Pedestrian roads	4.17	4.25	4.19	3.97	4.36	9.91 **	GE<FR, GE<UK, GE<RW, SP<RW, FR<RW
Rest	3.93	3.99	3.88	3.96	4.24	10.93 **	FR<RW, SP<RW, GE<RW, UK<RW
Green zones	3.57	3.71	3.77	3.68	4.00	10.11 **	SP<RW, GE<RW, UK<RW, FR<RW
Recreational and sports	3.73	4.03	3.93	3.97	4.06	7.82 **	SP<FR, SP<GE, SP<UK, SP<RW
Accommodation	4.21	4.41	4.38	4.43	4.45	6.36 **	SP<FR, SP<UK, SP<GE, SP<RW
Restaurants	4.31	4.58	4.47	4.51	4.47	7.32 **	SP<RW, SP<FR, SP<GE, SP<UK
Bars/cafés	4.35	4.62	4.47	4.53	4.52	8.41 **	SP<RW, SP<GE, SP<UK, FR<UK
Shops/stores	4.20	4.45	4.29	4.42	4.39	7.94 **	SP<RW, SP<GE, SP<UK, FR<UK
Cultural and leisure line-up	4.02	4.29	4.18	4.20	4.21	5.03 **	SP<RW, SP<UK
Safety	4.25	4.20	4.24	4.19	4.25	0.37	
Traffic flow	3.47	3.75	3.60	3.58	3.85	9.36 **	SP<UK, SP<RW, GE<RW, FR<RW
Cleanliness and conservation	3.89	4.05	3.91	4.01	4.09	4.25 **	SP<RW, FR<RW
Rubbish removal	3.98	4.09	3.99	3.97	4.15	2.64 *	Non-SD
Tourist signs	4.01	4.12	3.93	3.89	4.19	6.88 **	GE<RW, FR<RW
Beach cleanliness and conservation	4.26	4.39	4.24	4.20	4.39	4.25 **	Non-SD
State of the roads	3.91	4.07	4.33	4.02	4.23	17.75 **	SP<RW, SP<FR, GE<RW, GE<FR, UK<RW
Ease of access to primary tourist sites	4.07	4.32	4.23	4.14	4.32	7.64 **	SP<RW, SP<UK
Absence of noise	3.42	3.70	3.52	3.59	3.76	6.40 **	SP<UK, SP<RW, FR<RW

[a]* $P < 0.05$; **<0.01.
[b]Significant differences (SD) in the post hoc test (Scheffé): SP (Spain), UK (United Kingdom), FR (France), GE (Germany), RW (rest of the world).

Factor correspondence analysis

Secondly, a factor correspondence analysis was carried out on the data for the 19 destination attributes and five countries-of-residence, using the Data Theory Scaling System Group (DTSS), available with SPSS 11.0 for windows. Findings are presented separately based on the 1999 and 2000 VTB databases, as explained below.

In reference to the 1999 VTB database, two factors emerged that were able to account for the majority of the variance (71%) – the first factor accounts for 39% of the variance, and the second for 32%. In order to understand the dimensions, it is important to analyse to what extent the different points (attributes and countries) contribute to the inertia of each dimension. Firstly, with regard to attrib-

utes, it is noticed that, on the one hand, rest (0.14) and cleanliness and conservation (0.16), and in the opposite area, the state of the roads (0.18) contribute to the inertia (explained variance) of the dimension 1. Secondly, promenades (0.35) and absence of noise (0.28) in the reverse side contribute to the inertia of the second dimension. Regarding the countries, the UK (0.35) and France (0.61) on the opposite side, contribute to dimension 1. Concerning the second dimension, Spain (0.17) and Germany (0.75) contribute to the inertia of this dimension.

With reference to the 2000 VTB database, two factors emerged that were able to account for the majority of the variance (70%) – the first factor accounts for 40% of the variance, and the second for 30%. Analogously, in order to understand the dimensions, we analysed to what extent the different points (attributes and countries) contribute to the inertia of each dimension. Firstly, with regard to attributes, we were able to note that parking space (0.38), and in the opposite area, both promenades (0.15) and safety (0.15) contribute rather high to the

inertia (explained variance) of dimension 1. Secondly, green zones (0.11) and restaurants (0.12) – in the reverse side – contribute to the inertia of dimension 2. In relation to the countries, Spain (0.58), as well as the UK (0.16) and Germany (0.20) on the opposite side, contribute to dimension 1. Regarding the second dimension, Germany (0.23) and, on the reversal, the rest of the world (0.68) contribute to the inertia of this dimension.

Correspondence analysis results can be portrayed in perceptual maps. Going further in the analysis, to interpret their axes, it is advisable to analyse the contribution (CTR) of dimensions to the inertia of each row (attributes) and column (countries) points (Bigné and Vila, 1999). Therefore, we analysed which points (attributes and countries) are better explained by the first and second dimension. With this objective, the higher values left–right for dimension 1 (horizontal axis), and the higher values top–bottom for dimension 2 (vertical axis) were selected. These figures are shown in Tables 26.6 and 26.7, and represent the percentage of variation of attribute and country points explained for each dimension.

Table 26.6. Contribution of dimensions to the inertia of each attribute point.

Destination attributes	1999		2000	
	Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 1	Dimension 2
Parking space	*0.35*	0.08	*0.85*	0.13
Promenades	0.00	*0.95*	*0.62*	0.24
Rest	*0.61*	0.08	0.07	*0.45*
Green zones	0.07	0.13	0.00	*0.45*
Recreational and sports	0.27	0.00	*0.86*	0.03
Accommodation	*0.34*	0.14	0.09	*0.59*
Restaurants	0.20	*0.32*	0.09	0.89
Bars/cafés	*0.46*	0.18	0.11	*0.79*
Shops/stores	*0.84*	0.03	0.22	*0.59*
Cultural and leisure line-up	*0.90*	0.07	0.17	*0.77*
Safety	*0.88*	0.02	*0.70*	0.26
Traffic flow	0.02	*0.70*	0.21	*0.76*
Cleanliness and conservation	*0.66*	*0.29*	0.01	0.09
Rubbish removal	*0.45*	0.01	*0.74*	0.02
Tourist signs	0.11	*0.33*	0.35	*0.29*
Beach cleanliness and conservation	0.18	*0.75*	*0.54*	0.00
State of the roads	*0.75*	0.02	0.05	0.01
Ease of access to primary tourist sites	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.00
Absence of noise	0.27	*0.72*	*0.65*	*0.29*

Table 26.7. Contribution of dimensions to the inertia of each country point.

Destination attributes	1999		2000	
	Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 1	Dimension 2
Spain	0.04	*0.31*	*0.82*	0.01
UK	*0.63*	0.02	*0.46*	0.00
France	*0.85*	0.07	0.08	0.11
Germany	0.01	*0.96*	*0.44*	*0.38*
Rest of the world	0.07	0.03	0.01	*0.93*

Looking at Table 26.6, for the year 1999, the first dimension, or horizontal axis, explains in the negative side attributes such as parking space (CTR = 35%), rest (CTR = 61%), cleanliness and conservation (CTR = 66%), as well as rubbish removal (CTR = 45%). On the positive side, it explains attributes such as recreational and sports (CTR = 27%), accommodation (CTR = 34%), restaurants (CTR = 20%), bars/cafés (CTR = 46%), shops/stores (CTR = 84%), cultural and leisure line-up (CTR = 90%), safety (CTR = 88%), and state of the roads (CTR = 75%). The second dimension, or vertical axis, explains in its negative side attributes such as restaurants (CTR = 32%), beach cleanliness and conservation (CTR = 75%) and absence of noise (CTR = 72%). On the positive area, it explains attributes such as promenades (CTR = 95%), traffic flow (CTR = 70%), cleanliness and conservation (CTR = 29%) and tourist signs (CTR = 33%).

The first dimension, or horizontal axis, explains in the negative side countries (see Table 26.7) such as the UK (CTR = 63%) and, on the positive part, France (CTR = 85%). The second dimension, or vertical axis, explains in its negative side, Germany (CTR = 96%) and on the positive area, Spain (CTR = 31%). The 1999 perceptual map obtained based on the two dimensions is shown in Fig. 26.1. The attribute-based perceptual map shows the relative proximities of both countries and attributes in a joint space.

Regarding the year 2000 (Table 26.6), the first dimension, or horizontal axis, explains in the negative side attributes such as parking space (CTR = 85%), recreational and sports (CTR = 86%), as well as absence of noise (CTR = 65%). On the positive side, it explains

attributes such as promenades (CTR = 62%), safety (CTR = 70%), rubbish removal (CTR = 74%), beach cleanliness and conservation (CTR = 54%) and tourist signs (CTR = 35%). The second dimension, or vertical axis, explains, in its negative side, attributes such as rest (CTR = 45%), green zones (CTR = 45%), traffic flow (CTR = 75%) and tourist signs (CTR = 29%). On the positive area, it explains accommodation (CTR = 59%), restaurants (CTR = 89%), bars/cafés (CTR = 79%), shops/stores (CTR = 59%), cultural and leisure line-up (CTR = 77%).

The first dimension, or horizontal axis, explains in the negative side countries (see Table 26.7) such as the UK (CTR = 46%) and Germany (CTR = 44%). On the positive side, it explains countries such as Spain (CTR = 82%). The second dimension, or vertical axis, explains in its negative side, the rest of the world (CTR = 93%) and on the positive area, it explains countries such as Germany (CTR = 38%). The 2000 perceptual map obtained based on the above-mentioned dimensions is portrayed in Fig. 26.2.

After having obtained the perceptual map, it is possible to interpret the correspondence analysis results, which are consistent with previous ANOVA findings. First of all, it is possible to analyse the relative similarity or dissimilarity of countries and the associated attributes. Low distance indicates high similarity, and high distance has an opposite interpretation.

Regarding the year 1999 (Fig. 26.1), the first dimension on the horizontal axis compares the destinations of the UK and France. With respect to the attributes, parking space, cleanliness and conservation, rubbish removal, beach cleanliness and conservation,
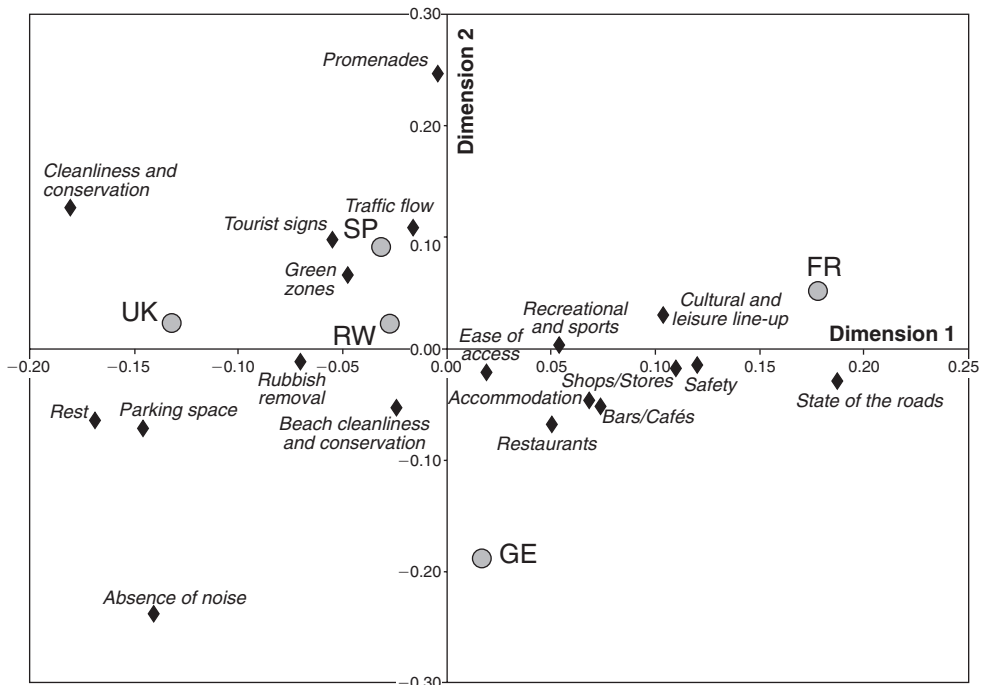
Fig. 26.1. Perceptual mapping with correspondence analysis (year 1999).
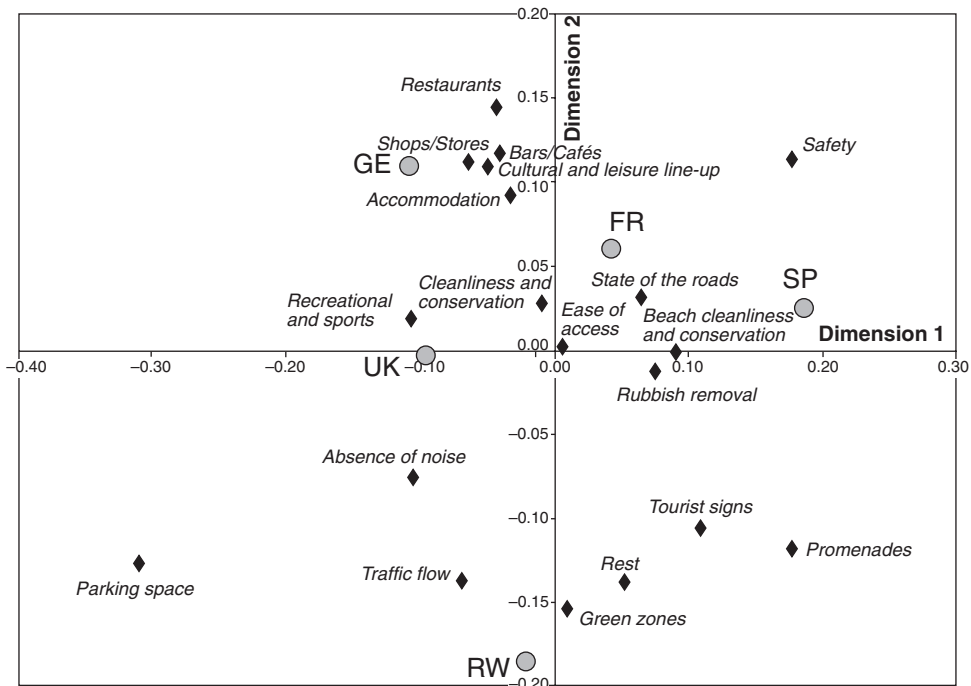
Fig. 26.2. Perceptual mapping with correspondence analysis (year 2000).

and absence of noise, these are situated far from the position of France, compared to the UK position where these attributes stand out. This finding can be also appreciated in the mean values and significant differences that were obtained in the ANOVA (Table 26.4). Concerning these attributes, the relative proximity of those attributes to the UK support the higher evaluation of the UK sample in comparison to the French sample. With reference to dimension 2, Germany and Spain show differences in the evaluation of promenades. This destination attribute has a low distance with Spain and, in contrast, a high distance with Germany. From the ANOVA, the significant difference between both countries regarding promenades (GE<SP, $P<0.01$) is highlighted.

In the 2000 perceptual mapping, as can be seen from Fig. 26.2, the first dimension on the horizontal axis compares the destinations of Spain with Germany and the UK. With respect to the attributes, it is important to mention the clear proximity with which four attributes (restaurants, shops/stores, bars/cafés, accommodation) are perceived, indicating their similarity in the image as perceived by the tourists. Specifically, Germans and British perceived those attributes as being higher, in comparison with the Spanish sample. Based on the ANOVA post hoc analysis, UK and Germany show significant differences with Spain (SP<UK, SP<GE). Regarding the second dimension, the high distance between the rest of the world and Germany is noted. In respect to the attributes, the perceptual maps show the relative similarity of the rest of the world and the following attributes: rest, green zones, traffic flow and tourist signs. Consistently, in the post hoc analysis, a higher perception of the rest of the world sample (GE<RW) regarding rest, green zones, traffic flow and tourist signs is corroborated.

Conclusions

This chapter presents a case study about destination image from a cross-cultural perspective. Initially, as far as the first objective is concerned, and based on secondary sources such as the ETM, the profile of foreign tourists who visit the Comunidad Valenciana is mainly for sun and beach holidays. Holiday satisfaction is very high and the intention to repeat, although also quite high, varies according to nationalities. Next, as far as the second objective referring to the perceived image, the following principal findings can be mentioned.

The perception of tourists regarding a specific tourist destination (i.e. Comunidad Valenciana) is not homogeneous. Based on ANOVA and perceptual mapping with correspondence analysis, this research reveals significant differences in the destination image attributes. Figures 26.1 and 26.2 synthesize the position of different countries, which can be interpreted according to the relative similarity or dissimilarity of countries and the associated attributes. From a managerial perspective, the potential of exploring the tourism destination image taking into consideration the different generating markets is an important issue that needs to be dealt with.

Despite their relative simplicity, perceptual maps are powerful strategic tools in that they allow managers to absorb a tremendous amount of data in a visual format (Luckett *et al.*, 1999). Although perceptual mapping is an extremely powerful heuristic, it does have a number of limitations. Perceptual maps are not dynamic. They represent a static view of a competitive marketplace at a particular point in time and do not provide data regarding how these countries or brands achieve their current positions (Luckett *et al.*, 1999). Another limitation is that the correspondence analysis solution is conditioned on the set of attributes included (Hair *et al.*, 1995). It assumes that all attributes are appropriate for how consumers from different countries evaluated destination image, and that the same dimensionality applies to each country-of-residence. In short, the advantages of the joint plot of attributes and countries-of-residence must always be weighed against the inherent interdependencies that exist and the potentially biasing effects of a single inappropriate attribute or country. However, the method provides a powerful tool for gaining managerial insight into cross-cultural destination image, i.e. the relative position of countries and the attributes associated with those positions.

This study has gone some way towards identifying the position of different tourists on the basis of their country-of-residence, regarding their perceived image of a destination. Because this study was limited to a particular destination that mainly receives European travellers, it is not possible to generalize its findings to other worldwide tourism destinations. Therefore, the authors propose to extend further research in new destinations and generating tourism markets outside the European frontiers in order to advance the understanding of cross-cultural tourist behaviour.

Apart from these practical findings, the authors would like to point out the challenges of following this line of research. Tourist destinations attract tourists from different cultures and countries; it is not reasonable to take into consideration only one specific group of customers. A comparative analysis between groups is required in order to better demonstrate the importance of an understanding of the variables underlying these national differences. There is one question that still remains here: does this appear to exist as a result of cultural differences or national differences? Or does each country or nation represent a unique culture that distinguishes it from others? Do cultures need to be identified with nations? Or can various cultures be distinguished within each nation? Could there even be similarities between regions of different nationalities? This area of tourism research is very new and requires much attention for exploration in the future.

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Chapter twenty-seven

Journeys of the Imagination? The Cultural Tour Route Revealed

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Abstract

Organized tours are one of the main ways that tourists experience cultural destinations. They are often described as 'a destination bubble', conveying a sense of isolation rather than involvement. The extent to which tour participants interact with and learn about destinations is not well understood, although the acquisition of knowledge is frequently cited as significant in peoples' decisions to travel by this mode. This chapter investigates cultural tour participants' experiences, and specifically addresses the extent to which participants' images of their destinations change or remain unaltered after their visit, and whether satisfaction from a tour can be linked to the degree of informal learning gained about the route. The empirical research employed route mapping to elicit information about tour members' knowledge before and after touring. Ireland was selected because it presented elements common to many non-specialized cultural tour itineraries. A multi-method approach combined qualitative and quantitative techniques in the analyses of the route maps, and triangulated the findings with those from focused interviews and participant observation. The study found that tourists' images changed in magnitude as the tour had enforced already well-defined images; it concludes that the potential for tour members to interact with host communities, lies not only with the tourists themselves, but also with destination image intermediaries and tourism policy makers.

Introduction

Studies exploring the tour experience cover a wide range of disciplinary influences, especially those from sociology and psychology, anthropology, geography and economics. Approaches include: service-based and product-based satisfaction measurement (Geva and Goldman, 1991; Hughes, 1991), expectation and satisfaction measurement (Thomson and Pearce, 1980; Whipple and Thatch, 1988; Geva and Goldman, 1989; Dunn-Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991; Duke and Persia, 1994, 1996; Reisinger and Waryszak, 1994; Yang, 1995) supplemented by observation (Quiroga, 1990), and an evaluation using pictorial images of the tourist setting (Chadee *et al.*, 1996). While these evaluations focus on tour members' motivations, expectations and experiences, they do not enable a comprehensive understanding of tourists' engagement with their destina-

tions, nor an assessment of whether destination images have changed or remain unaltered. Other related bodies of literature include 'destination itineraries' (Forer and Pearce, 1984; Weightman, 1987; Mings and McHugh, 1992; Dahl, 1999; Oppermann, 2000), although, like the research into tourism's promotional literature (Goodhall and Bergsma, 1990; Holloway and Robinson, 1995; Dann, 1996, 2000), these studies tend to provide insights into operators' perceptions of destinations, rather than providing customer-focused evaluations (Oppermann, 1995).

According to Crompton (1979), the image of a tourist destination is the collective sum of a tourist's beliefs, ideas, impressions and expectations. The direct experience of a destination is likely to provide the bulk of the tour experience (Hanefors and Larsson-Mossberg, 1998). Many studies have used the analogy of a tourist or environmental 'bubble' to describe this temporal and spatial span, enforcing the idea that this is a 'black box' in terms of academic understanding of the consumption processes involved (Oliver, 2001a,b). An investigation of tourists' understanding of transient destination images makes the concern one of environmental cognition (Evans, 1980; Spencer *et al.*, 1989). This field is extremely fertile in methods to elicit both recall and/or recognition of environments (Moore and Golledge, 1976) and approaches have assessed the responses of travellers as they move across a landscape (Appleyard *et al.*, 1964; Carr and Schissler, 1969). The technique of cognitive mapping, while having an extensive theoretical and technical grounding in environmental psychology (Lynch, 1960) and human geography (Gould and White, 1974), has been relatively unexplored in the field of tourism, although a small body of literature has investigated tourists' spatial learning in unfamiliar environments (e.g. Pearce, 1977; Walmsley and Jenkins, 1992; Page, 1997). A cognitive sketch map, pioneered by Lynch (1960) in the seminal work *The Image of the City*, is the instrument by which spatial knowledge can be externalized. A linear form of the cognitive map is the 'strip map' or 'route map' (Pearce, 1981; Bell, 1999). These have been used for

many centuries, predominantly to represent routes between a place of origin and a destination, and a variation was used by the ancient Egyptians to depict the route the dead would follow to 'the beyond' (*Yaru*). However, these techniques have never been used to explore the perceptions of tourists traversing large-scale environments in commercially organized groups (Pearce, 1981; Bell, 1999).

Methodology

A cultural tour can be described as a mobile experience of a cultural destination, usually by land or water, along trajectories that link cultural attractions. The objective of the study was to explore the extent to which participants' images of these tour routes changed or remained unaltered after they had experienced them. It further aimed to assess whether participants' levels of informal environmental learning gained from a tour, correlated with the levels of satisfaction that they experienced. Tourists' motivations to undertake tours, and their resulting levels of satisfaction, vary according to tour segment (i.e. whether non-specialized or niche-based). This study was therefore confined to non-specialized tours for international markets (Stebbins, 1996).

Judgement and convenience-based sampling were used to select a cultural destination and Ireland was chosen because it presented elements common to many non-specialized tour itineraries in Europe. A longitudinal, survey-based research strategy measured respondents' knowledge and attitudes before and after touring. The sampling frame included all first-time visitors participating in a 12-day or less, non-specialized tour of Ireland. The survey was administered in two parts: the pre-tour questionnaires were interviewer distributed at Dublin Airport (23–30 September 1999), and follow-up post-tour questionnaires were sent by airmail to participants' homes. In addition, 50 post-tour questionnaires were distributed in the departures areas of Dublin Airport as it was anticipated that less post-tour forms would be returned.

The questionnaires consisted of two main parts, separating the predominantly qualitative map element from the mainly quantitative attitude measurement and subject traits. A range of response formats was used, including open-ended and closed questions; an outline base map of Ireland; and prompts in the form of predetermined symbols developed from the mapping language 'Environmental A' (Wood and Beck, 1975). These devices were intended to encourage both depth and breadth of spatial expression. If the mapping language had not been given, it is likely that participants would have simply referred to 'factual' data, following traditional perceptions of cartography.

The explanatory potential of cognitive mapping can be limited, and previous research has indicated that it could benefit from a multiple method perspective (Guy *et al.*, 1990). Therefore, qualitative information gained through interviews with elite informants, eliciting specialist knowledge about the touring destination and by participant observation on a scheduled tour (Oliver, 2000), was reassessed through methodological and data triangulation with the survey material (Oliver, 2002; also see Decrop, 1999). The elite informants sample included executives in Bord Fáilte (the National Tourism Organisation), and in Heritage Island who promote Ireland's heritage; academics specializing in Ireland's cultural landscapes; and the manager of a British-based tour company operating in Ireland. In adopting an integrative strategy, the aim was to balance the strengths and weaknesses of these three approaches and to overcome inherent biases (McIntosh, 1998).

Response rates

Responses were elicited from most of the 19 products surveyed, over two-thirds of which yielded pre-tour and post-tour responses from the same individuals. In total, 110 valid questionnaires were returned; 63 (57%) were pre-tour questionnaires and the remainder (47; 53%) were post-tour questionnaires. There was a 65% response rate to the postal survey and a 40% and a 20% response rate to each of the surveys that were administered by the inter-viewer. The low response rate (20%) from the 'captive' post-tour audience approached in the departures areas contradicts the apparent enthusiasm with which these questionnaires were accepted; many potential participants claimed that it would give them something to do on their in-bound transatlantic flights (Day, 1999). The timing of this survey could have been a contributory factor (O'Neill, 1998; Turley, 1999), and this could explain the relatively high response (65%) from the postal survey when tour members had returned home; several of these respondents commented that together with their photographs, the timing of this survey had helped them to 'relive' their touring experiences.

Analyses and Findings

A cornucopia of images, bewildering in their variety: this is the world of maps
The Power of Maps (Wood, 1992, p. 4).

The aim of the analyses was to understand the content of the maps rather than to assess the veracity and orientation of participants' spatial knowledge (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1992). Lynch (1960) proposed that individuals learn about complex environments by building up simplified images. In his view, the process focuses on five elements of the environment: paths are the routes along which people move; edges are obstacles or lines separating different parts of the landscape; nodes are places that serve as foci for travel; districts are relatively large areas with an identifiable character; and landmarks are points of reference used in navigation. Paths, landmarks and districts are the three features used most often in city mapping research (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1992). Pearce (1981) also used these categories in his study of route maps in a rural context, together with concepts he adopted from outside the cognitive mapping arena; 'texture' referring to a general non-spatial commentary (Spreiregen, 1965, Fairbrother, 1972, cited in Pearce, 1981, p. 145) and a social score describing social activities (Lee, 1968, cited in Pearce, 1981, p. 145). The score for any category is simply the frequency of that item (Pearce, 1981; Walmsley and Jenkins, 1992).

Map components

In this study, the maps in both the pre-tour and post-tour questionnaires were visually compared. Three of the basic components selected by participants to express spatial knowledge of their touring destination resembled those used in previous mapping research (also see Beck and Wood, 1976; Wall, 1997):

- Points (or landmarks) are a uni-dimensional site or place with a suggested, even if inaccurate, location.
- Lines (or paths) are the representation of a tour route or road system, and are essentially two dimensional.
- Areas (or districts) are regions exhibiting particular characteristics, although they do not need to have a clearly defined boundary.
- A fourth category included examples where knowledge about the destination could not be described in spatial terms. In these examples, the map was left completely blank; symbols were drawn outside

the map outline; or were drawn within the map outline but apparently in a completely random fashion (Fig. 27.1 a–c).

Sample profile

About two-thirds (67%) of the survey sample was female, and a third male. Most (83%) were US residents, with others residing in Britain (8%), Australia (3%) and Canada (2%). The composition of travelling companions was consistent with those of the participant observation study (Oliver, 2000), with almost three-quarters (71%) travelling with their partner or spouse and only 5% travelling alone. Only 3% were experienced tour members, having already toured more than seven times, while almost half (48%) had not toured by coach before, contradicting the perception that there is a common 'type' of group traveller. In addition, over half of the sample (51%) preferred to explore alone or
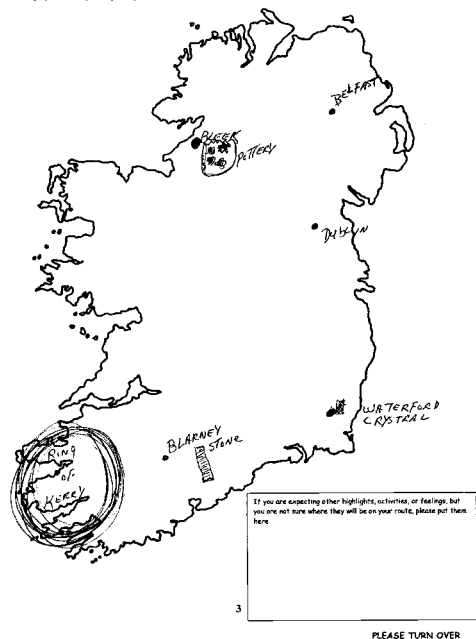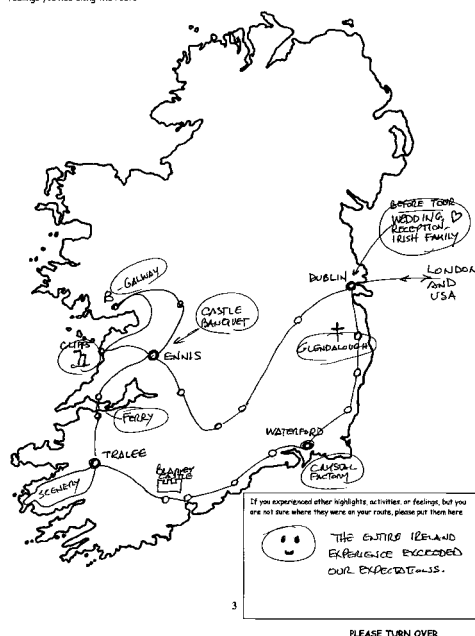
Fig. 27.1. (a) Route maps dominated by points; (b) route maps dominated by lines; (c) route maps dominated by areas (left) and non-spatial representations (right).

Fig. 27.1. *Continued.*

(b)

(c)

to socialize in a small group whilst on holiday; only 19% favoured a large group. Over a third (40%) of the respondents were between 55 and 64 years old and many were to either side of this age bracket.

Motivations

The main reason for choosing a tour was to see the highlights of Ireland (42% of participants selected this as a motivation). This was followed by: good value for money (32%); that information was provided (31%); safety and security (26%); comfort (26%); sociability (23%); to get ideas for an independent trip (19%); time constraints (11%); special health needs (5%); with 15% citing another main reason for selecting a tour, including 13% who said that not having to drive was an important factor (Fig. 27.2).

Aggregate content analyses

Aggregate cognitions represent a consensual view of a place and provide a statistically superior basis on which to draw conclusions (Beck and Wood, 1976). The aggregate sample consisted of 110 valid responses. Content analysis enabled the textual and pictorial material from the route maps to be compared together and this seems to have overcome some of the problems associated with interpreting 'drawings' and their intended mean-

ings (for example, Gamradt, 1995). Content analysis allows the systematic analysis of non-statistical material (Finn *et al.*, 2000). It permits inferences to be made about the sender of the message, the message or the audience (Krippendorff, 1980; Werber, 1990), although it is frequently used implicitly in the analysis of cognitive maps.

The content analyses of the route maps consisted of two main activities: the transcription of all textual material relating to map content, and the scoring of all pictorial symbols and their descriptive labels. Scores were derived from themes that participants felt were significant in their touring experiences. The symbols and their text labels were quantified by entering each score into a database created in SPSS for Windows (Release 10.0). The score for any category is simply the frequency of that item. A reliability check was built into the methodology by re-analysing the material 1 month later, producing a level of agreement of approximately 90% (Finn *et al.*, 2000).

The responses were weighted to take account of the different response rates between the pre-tour and post-tour surveys, before comparing the aggregate scores from their map content. Descriptive statistics computed using SPSS revealed that map content increased after touring; both the number of participants selecting symbols and the frequency with which symbols were used in a single map were greater than in the pre-tour versions. However, it was important to determine whether these observed changes were statistically significant.

Testing for significant relationships

Although the survey sample was suitably robust, the data collected through the content analyses could not be assumed to be normally distributed, because some of the content categories had very low scores. It was therefore decided to use the non-parametric alternative to the independent-samples *t*-test, the Mann–Whitney *U* test, to test whether one survey population had larger values than the other (Norušis, 2000). This procedure is used when testing between two independent groups when the assumptions for the paramet-

Fig. 27.2. Participants' motivations.

ric *t*-test cannot be met. It is distribution free, but it requires that certain assumptions be met (Wonnacott and Wonnacott, 1990; Burns, 2000). It must be possible to rank the scores produced by individuals, and it is therefore ideally suited to the data collected by this survey. The mathematics of this test is based on the simple observation that if there is a real difference between scores in two samples then the scores in one should be generally larger than the scores in the other sample.

The Mann–Whitney *U* test was computed using SPSS for the content scores of the pre-tour and post-tour surveys for the aggregate sample, where:

H_0: the null hypothesis states that the two populations are identical with respect to their map content values.

H_1: the alternative hypothesis states that the two populations are not identical with respect to their map content values.

The null hypothesis is that the two populations are identical, so rejection could be because their means, variances or the shape of the distributions differ significantly (Silver, 1992). The Mann–Whitney *U* test, when applied to the scores of tour images, found there was a significant difference between the pre-tour and post-tour scores for the aggregate sample (U = 4390.000, P = 0.000), with post-tour scores significantly greater. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected at the 95% confidence interval.

Assessing the strength of the relationship

A Spearman rank correlation coefficient enables the strength of the relationship between two ranked groups to be quantified. The type of data to which a rank correlation coefficient is particularly suited is that in which neither of the variables represent a characteristic that can be precisely measured by an objective standard (Letchford, 1986). This is especially true when a margin of subjective difference between scores is possible, even though there has been an agreed standard of marking. These subjective differences will tend to be less pronounced among the ranks of marks than between the scores themselves, and so a rank

correlation measurement is less susceptible to subjective bias than, for example, a product-moment coefficient (Letchford, 1986).

The correlation between the map content from the pre-tour and post-tour maps was computed by SPSS using the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. This shows there is a strong positive relationship between the numbers from each content category. The correlation between the pre-tour and post-tour aggregate sample is strongly positive at 0.727. The *P*-value 0.000 indicates the probability of this correlation occurring by chance is less than 0.1 (10%; two-tailed). This correlation is therefore significant at the 95% level of confidence. However, given the extremity of the single value representing 'places', it was important to ascertain whether this point, although valid, was distorting the results (Norušis, 2000). The Spearman's coefficient was therefore recalculated after first removing this value from the dataset. The *r*-value (0.720) demonstrates a strong positive correlation between the pre-tour and post-tour data, significant at the 0.1 (10%) level of probability, without the outlying value.

Altered images?

Taken together, the Mann–Whitney *U* and the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient provide highly complementary findings, suggesting that although there is a significant difference between the magnitude of destination images represented before and after touring, the samples are related in terms of the order and importance of images depicted. This suggests that the pre-tour images were strengthened by the tour experience, rather than changed by it. This is particularly well illustrated by Fig. 27.3 where there is very little change in the categories comprising more than 2% of the total image, before and after touring.

Overall, the change in magnitude of images depicted before and after touring was significant (above). Several items in particular scored very highly, most notably places where 68% of pre-tour participants and 87% of post-tour participants made references to cities, towns or villages, usually by drawing specific points on the maps.
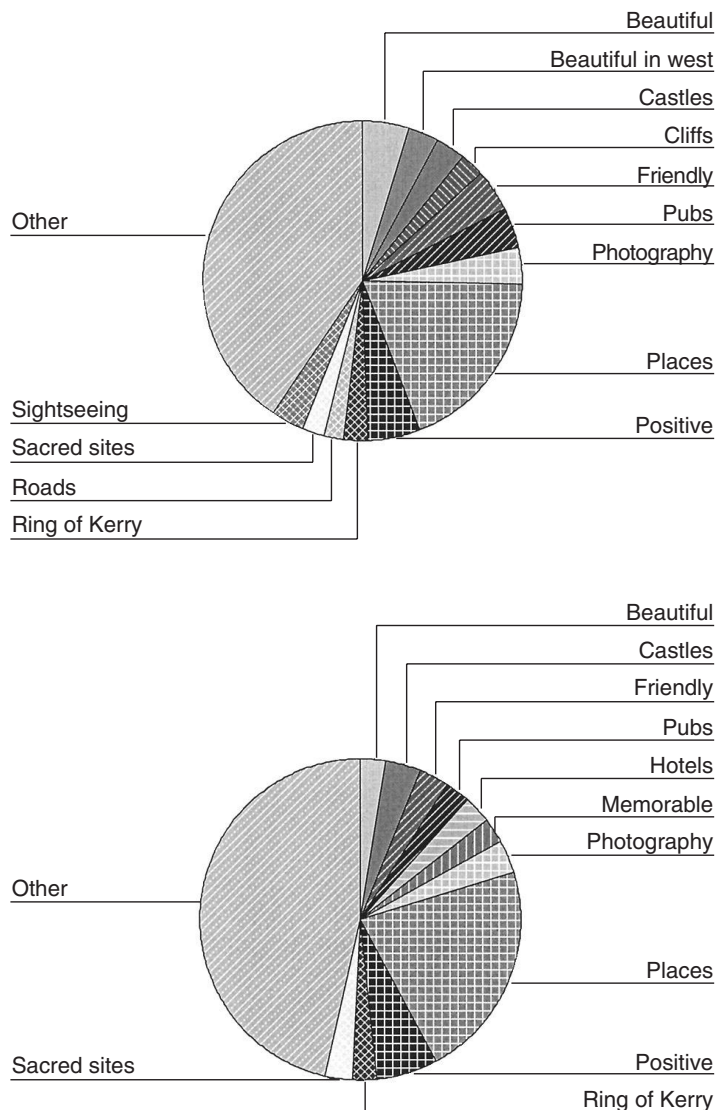
Fig. 27.3. Images from the aggregate sample: pre-tour (top) and post-tour (below).

The tour route itself was the most significant linear element depicted on the post-tour maps; explicit representations were made by labelling or indicating the directions of travel (37% of the pre-tour sample and 53% of the post-tour sample referenced this category). There are instances where the same participant changed the style of line from, for example, a dashed line to a hard line after touring. This appears to demonstrate the greater confidence with which individuals could represent their journey, but it does not conclusively support a staged model of spatial learning, such as proposed by anchor point theory, whereby locations are subsequently linked by routes and finally surrounded by areas (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1992). Most of the tour participants had an impression of their itinerary before touring, and both their linear images and place images were either maintained or strengthened by the visit.

Satisfaction ratings

Several studies have explored the factors relating to customers' levels of satisfaction with their tours, although these have not included tourists' knowledge about their destinations. Participants were asked to rate their overall satisfaction levels, and to assess whether their experiences matched their expectations. The majority (81%) said that they had a very good experience and 60% said that the tour exceeded their expectations. The mean scores of the mapped symbols from the post-tour survey were then calculated according to the satisfaction ratings (n = 47). This found quite similar scores between the different groups, although, interestingly, the groups who said that they had a very good experience and those for whom the experience had exceeded their expectations provided more detail in their maps. The mean scores for the satisfaction ratings were as follows: okay ($\bar{x}$ = 21); good ($\bar{x}$ = 21); very good ($\bar{x}$ = 23); below expectations ($\bar{x}$ = 21); matched expectations ($\bar{x}$ = 21); exceeded expectations ($\bar{x}$ = 24).

The Mann–Whitney U test was applied to the content scores of two groups, those who had a good experience and those who had a very good experience where:

> H0: the null hypothesis states that the two populations are identical with respect to their map content values.

> H1: the alternative hypothesis states that the two populations are not identical with respect to their map content values.

This found that there was no significant difference between them (U = 139.000, P = 0.706). The test was repeated for the groups for whom their expectations were matched and for those for whom their expectations were exceeded. This also found that there was no significant difference between them (U = 189.500, P = 0.601) at the 95% level of confidence. While these findings indicate a link between high levels of satisfaction and a greater knowledge of the touring environment, they are not significant statistically at the 95% level of confidence. One of the key motivations that these tourists had for selecting a cultural tour was to gain information about the destination; this suggests that they would actively seek information and would be more satisfied if they were successful.

The tour members were asked whether there was anything that their tour did not sufficiently provide (n = 47) – 28% of participants said that they felt that their tours lacked in ideas for an independent trip; 23% said that they would have liked more time at places; 17% said that they would have preferred more variation in the itinerary; and 15% said that they felt that their experience lacked authenticity; 13% said that their tour did not provide adequately for their special needs (such as health and dietary requirements); and only 4% said that they thought that their tour did not provide sufficient information, thus implying that the other participants were satisfied with the amount of information they received (Dunn-Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991; Fig. 27.4).

The tourists' qualitative descriptions provide further insight into these dissatisfaction scores. For example, some participants would have liked the time and opportunity to penetrate further into 'authentic' culture and to identify with local experience:

> Too much time in bus
> Too much herding to pre-arranged rest stops
> No evening entertainment
> Not enough stopping time in non-tourist shops
> (Female, New Jersey, USA)

> The pace was fast – it would have been nicer to get to towns at 3.00 and spend time with the people and culture, i.e. more independent time, less commercial
> (Male, New York, USA)

Several participants felt more able to travel independently in Ireland as a result of their guided tour:

> Now I know a little about it, I'd be happy to drive and do B/B's!
> (Female, New South Wales, Australia)

> Now I know where to go, I can do it at my own pace. The pace of tour was quite fast
> (Female, Michigan, USA)

The fast pace of tours was a major cause for dissatisfaction, although tourists were aware that a trade-off had occurred between
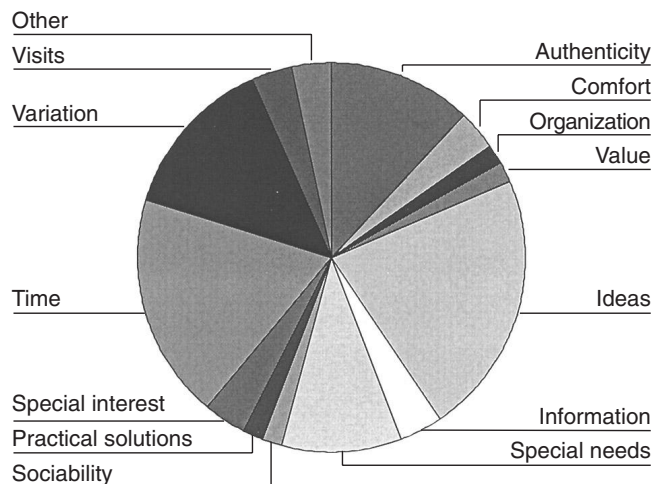
Fig. 27.4. Attributes that were not sufficiently provided on tour.

this and the number of highlights included in an itinerary:

> It would have been nice to have more time at places but then we would not have seen as much
>
> (Female, Minnesota, USA)

Conclusions

> Through images and texts, attempts are made to attract tourists to rural areas through the promotion of representations of idealized, symbolic, cultural landscapes
>
> *Rural Cultural Economy: Tourism and Social Relations* (Kneafsey, 2001, p. 762).

The study set out to identify whether and precisely how tourists' perceptions of organized cultural tours change as a result of their direct experience of their touring environments, namely their tour routes. This objective has been successfully accomplished by finding that tourists' images changed in magnitude: the tour experience enforced predefined images, rather than generating new ones. Overall, tour members' pre-tour route maps were quite well advanced. The most reasonable explanation for this seems to be that significant learning about the tour route occurred in the pre-purchase and planning stages of the trip. Image is a key marketing tool in an industry where potential con-

sumers must base buying decisions upon mental images of product offerings rather than being able physically to sample alternatives (Morgan and Pritchard, 1998). People are therefore likely to compare different tour products and assess their 'value for money' before making a final selection. This would explain why knowledge of places and routes existed at an early stage of the tour experience. Future work focusing on the critical pre-purchase period in the destination-image formation process could make a significant contribution to this area of research.

The most significant learning was in the place category, and places tended to be positioned along a discernible route. The transient nature of the tour experience is likely to differ considerably from one in which environmental knowledge is built up over a period of days or even weeks. However, the finding that knowledge of places positioned consecutively along a route tends to increase, indicates a sequential rather than a spatial form of learning. This corroborates work by Spencer and Weetman (1981) who found in their study of new residents in Sheffield, UK, that where a task is to represent a simple route, the tendency is to select a sequential style of mapping. Only when the task is considerably more complex do individuals move from an initial sequential mode to a developed spatial image.

Cultural tour participants' pre-tour maps of Ireland reflected imagery used by Bord Fáilte and tour operators in the marketing of this destination, as revealed by the exploratory interviews (Oliver, 2002). The key themes depicted are 'scenery', 'people' and 'the past'. It seems that generic, stereotypical images of a traditional rural life and a homogenous 'Heritage Island' were retained because these images determined the success of the tour. Williams (1998) has drawn attention to this phenomenon; he says that both the providers of tourism construct specific images to attract the visitor, while the tourist must in turn confirm his or her expectations:

> In this way, tourist images tend to become self-perpetuating and self-reinforcing with the attendant risk that, through time, tourist experiences become increasingly artificial.
>
> (Williams, 1998, p. 178)

Greenfield (2000) notes, 'our visual experience, is a kind of mixture of information coming from our eyes and prior associations – how else might we interpret what we see and give the world significance?' (p. 74). This notion of a 'mind's eye' helps to explain why tour members continued to focus on images which reflect an 'Irish idyll' (for example, beautiful scenery, castles, cliffs, mountains, lakes, sheep, friendly people and going to the pub) and specific products (for example, Guinness, Waterford Crystal and Belleek China). Tourists' images tend to have considerable stability over time (Gunn, 1972; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991), and they can play an active part in shaping the perceived performance of a tour; if destination images are realized then tourists are more likely to enjoy the experience (Geva and Goldman, 1991). This helps to explain why images are maintained long after the factors that have moulded them have changed. Even in the face of dramatic changes in destination attributes, such as a recent transition in Ireland's economy, there is no significant change in the perception of place, as tourist and facilitator have actively endorsed the anticipated images.

The degree to which tourists engage with and are engaged by their host environment, has interested tourism researchers for decades; Urry's 'tourist gaze' (Urry, 1990) is a process by which tourists seek authenticity and truth in places away from their own everyday life. MacCannell (1976) sees tourists as aspiring to what he terms 'back-room' experiences, while other writers consider that 'soft' tourism practices have a greater opportunity to penetrate further into local culture (Smith, 1989). 'Soft' tourism is typically more individually based than the tours segment, and centred on a sense of place involving local products and communities, with respect for local environments. Tourists engaged in soft tourism activities are likely to be less accepting of 'pseudo-events' and manufactured experiences, and more concerned with 'authentic' experiences (Jenkins and Oliver, 2001). Ironically, high levels of satisfaction can be achieved when tourists feel that they have ceased to be tourists, and assumed the role of 'guests' (Ryan, 1991). The apparent conflict between the medium of the cultural tour, which tends to isolate tourists from cultural environments, and the actual product, local culture, has been highlighted by this study. This creates an image of 'hard' tourism, which tends to exhibit little penetration into host communities, with links tending to be international rather than local (Stabler, 1997).

This study determined two key factors which can potentially lead to tour members' dissatisfaction: the fast pace of the tours, and the lack of ideas provided by tour personnel or the tour company to enable a return visit. The pace of a tour will be a function of the number of highlights included in the itinerary and it will help to establish whether a tour is 'good value for money'; both are key motivations for taking a tour. In recent years, tour operators have acknowledged a market for tours that include 'extra leisure' time, and it will be interesting to see whether this product variation is successful, especially with first-time visitors. Other approaches include the use of 'radial' touring patterns where a tour is based in one location and then different attractions are explored from this centre (Seamus Caulfield, Dublin, 1999, personal communication). This approach provides an alternative to conventional tour circuits (Forer and Pearce, 1984) and offers both extra leisure time for tourists and opportunities for them to meet local people. A more 'sedentary' tour

could bring economic benefit to local regions, particularly in less well-known touring areas, and route mapping offers a useful means to explore such itineraries.

Several participants in this study indicated that the guided tour experience had given them the confidence to return to Ireland independently; it appears that these participants could potentially 'progress' in their tourism behaviours, consistent with the idea of Pearce's travel career ladder (Pearce, 1988). Pearce (1988) postulated the existence of a 'travel career ladder' where, as tourists become more experienced, so they become more adventurous and curious about other places, and eventually they travel independently. Despite this, almost a third of the respondents said that they had not been provided with sufficient information to enable them to do so. This finding indicates that destination managers and tour operators (offering 'self-drive' itineraries) could encourage

independent visits by targeting first-time tourists travelling in organized groups; however, the precise stage at which consumers are most receptive needs to be determined.

The potential for tour members to move beyond experiencing images, and eventually participate with and contribute to local communities, lies not only with the tourists themselves, but also with destination image intermediaries and tourism policy makers. This study began by questioning whether the cultural tour isolates tourists from their host environments. It has successfully answered this and concludes by asking, 'what are the alternatives?'

Acknowledgements

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